

1 **Title:**

2 Raising the bar for using surrogate endpoints in drug regulation and health technology assessment

3

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33 **Standfirst**

34 *The proliferation of surrogate endpoints for regulatory approval of new drugs poses major*
35 *challenges for patients, clinicians, health technology assessment bodies and the wider evidence*
36 *ecosystem. Dalia Dawoud and colleagues argue for raising the evidence standards for using*
37 *surrogate endpoints by regulatory agencies and health technology assessment bodies.*

38
39 On 7 June 2021, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) granted accelerated approval to
40 aducanumab for the treatment of Alzheimer’s Disease. The FDA based its decision on the drug’s
41 amyloid-reducing effects despite evidence from several earlier studies that shrinkage of beta-amyloid
42 protein plaques does not predictably delay cognitive impairment in patients.[1] The decision has
43 drawn significant attention to the use of surrogate endpoints —laboratory values, radiographic
44 images, or other physical measures that may serve as indicators of clinical outcomes such as
45 symptom control or mortality— in clinical trials of new drugs.[2] In fact, the approval of
46 aducanumab is only the latest example of growing regulatory reliance on surrogate endpoints.

47
48 Using surrogate endpoints to measure whether a new drug works can reduce the duration, cost, and
49 complexity of clinical trials prior to regulatory assessment, and facilitate faster patient access to new
50 therapies, especially in chronic disease settings.[3] For example, in early-stage gastric cancer, clinical
51 outcomes like overall survival—how long patients live after receiving treatment—are of primary
52 interest to patients whilst surrogate endpoints such as disease-free survival potentially can be used to
53 measure drug effects earlier.[4] In a recent evaluation, using surrogate endpoints in cancer drug trials
54 reduced clinical development time by approximately 11 months compared with measuring overall
55 survival. [3] However, the use of such endpoints can also have negative implications.

56
57 Regulatory reliance on surrogate endpoints makes it challenging for HTA bodies, such as the
58 National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE), to make their decisions. The assessments
59 conducted by HTA bodies typically include comparative clinical and cost-effectiveness
60 considerations. When new drugs receive regulatory approval based on surrogate endpoints alone,
61 assessing how well they work in terms of impact on patient-relevant clinical outcomes, such as
62 health-related quality of life and survival, in the short and long term are fraught with considerable
63 uncertainty.

64
65 For patients and clinicians, surrogate endpoints can complicate treatment decisions.[5] Surrogate
66 endpoints are not inherently meaningful on their own, and clinicians and patients may misinterpret

67 drug effects on surrogate endpoints as clinically meaningful improvements.[6] This matters, because
68 drugs approved on the basis of surrogate endpoints may not ultimately influence patient-relevant
69 clinical outcomes. In cancer, for example, most approved drugs with effects on surrogate endpoints
70 such as response rates and progression-free survival (that were imagined to be predictive of patient-
71 relevant benefit) do not, in fact, improve quality of life or prolong survival.[7–9]

72
73 There is a long history of drugs that were originally approved on the basis of surrogate endpoints and
74 for which later studies failed to show evidence of clinical benefit.[10] An oft-cited example is
75 bevacizumab for metastatic breast cancer.[11] In 2008, FDA granted accelerated approval to
76 bevacizumab for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer based on its early effects on a surrogate
77 endpoint, progression-free survival. In 2011, FDA revoked its approval for bevacizumab’s metastatic
78 breast cancer indication when clinical trials failed to show that patients receiving bevacizumab lived
79 longer than those receiving control treatment.

80
81 Other examples include olaratumab, which extended progression-free survival but did not prolong
82 survival for patients with soft-tissue sarcoma,[12] hydroxyprogesterone caproate, which effectively
83 reduced the risk of recurrent births but did not improve neonatal outcomes,[13] and atezolizumab,
84 which achieved a higher response rate compared to control but did not extend overall survival in
85 patients with urothelial carcinoma .[14] In some cases, drugs initially approved on the basis of
86 surrogate endpoints were later found to be harmful. For example, patients with multiple myeloma
87 who received venetoclax had shorter survival than those who received a control treatment, despite
88 evidence suggesting that venetoclax was more effective than control on the basis of progression-free
89 survival).[15]

90
91 In this article, we argue for more selective use of surrogate endpoints when evaluating new drugs.
92 Surrogate endpoints should only be used in chronic disease settings, especially when collecting data
93 on patient-relevant clinical outcomes requires trials with unattainably long follow up durations.
94 When generating direct evidence on patient-relevant clinical outcomes is not possible, decision-
95 makers should systematically evaluate the relationship between surrogate endpoints and clinical
96 outcomes.

97

98 **Regulatory enthusiasm for surrogate endpoints**

99 Over the past 3 decades, the proportion of clinical studies measuring the efficacy of new drugs via
100 surrogate endpoints alone has increased, rising from fewer than one half in the mid-90s to

101 approximately 60% in 2015-2017.[16] In some therapeutic areas such as cancer, surrogate endpoints
102 account for almost 80% of all clinical studies supporting regulatory approvals.[17] This means that in
103 some therapeutic areas, only a minority of new drugs are now approved on the basis of evidence that
104 they improve how patients feel or function, or how long they live.

105
106 The recent proliferation of surrogate endpoints is partly due to the increase in the use of ‘expedited’
107 regulatory programs that are aimed at speeding up the development, review, and approval of
108 drugs.[18] Over the past quarter century, lobbying by pharmaceutical companies has put pressure on
109 policymakers to establish several expedited programs in Europe and the United States.[19] These
110 programs also meet perceived patient demand for faster access to potentially effective therapies in
111 therapeutic areas with significant unmet needs. In the US, the FDA “accelerated approval” pathway
112 was established at the height of the HIV/AIDS crisis in the early 1990s. Other examples of expedited
113 programs in the US include the “breakthrough therapy,” “priority review,” and “fast track”
114 designations. Programs in Europe include the European Medicines Agency’s (EMA) “accelerated
115 assessment” and “Priority Medicines” schemes.[20]

116
117 The use of surrogate endpoints in certain expedited regulatory programs like the FDA’s accelerated
118 approval pathway is linked to “conditional” approvals where drug manufacturers are legally
119 mandated to conduct additional trials to demonstrate the clinical benefit of their products. Even when
120 post-approval studies are required, however, clinical efficacy of drugs initially approved on the basis
121 of surrogate endpoints is often subsequently “confirmed” on the basis of other surrogate
122 endpoints.[21,22] For example, both pre-approval and mandated post-approval studies supporting
123 FDA’s accelerated approval of lapatinib (for the treatment of postmenopausal women with HER2-
124 positive metastatic breast cancer) tested surrogate endpoints.[21] This practice may meet regulators’
125 expectations but falls far short of reliable evidence of patient benefit.

126
127 **Limited guidance from regulators and HTA bodies**
128 There is little consensus for defining a “valid” surrogate, as it is difficult to set specific thresholds to
129 grade the strength of association with the final clinical outcome. Yet, some organisations such as the
130 German Institute for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care (IQWiG) have prescriptive criteria for
131 accepting surrogate endpoints. IQWiG sets a threshold for the lower bound of the confidence interval
132 on the correlation coefficient ($R \geq 0.85$) to conclude a high correlation exists between the surrogate
133 and final clinical outcome.[23] Most other agencies have no similar cut-offs for accepting surrogate
134 endpoints.

135
136 There is actually a long history of methodological efforts for evaluating surrogate endpoints. In 2009,
137 Taylor and Elston [24] recommended a three-step framework, based on (i) biological plausibility
138 alone, (ii) evidence of an observational association between the surrogate and the clinical endpoint at
139 the individual patient level and (iii) evidence from multiple randomised trials showing that drugs
140 improving the treatment effect on the surrogate also improve treatment effect on the final clinical
141 outcome. This framework was further extended to quantify the expected treatment effect on the final
142 clinical outcome based on the surrogate.[25]

143
144 However, this framework is rarely used by regulatory agencies. In 2018, FDA published a table
145 listing all surrogate endpoints that it has used in its assessments without disclosing any information
146 about their usefulness in predicting clinical benefit.[26] Academic researchers are increasingly filling
147 this evidence gap and examining the strength of the association between surrogate endpoints that are
148 commonly used by regulators and patient-relevant clinical outcomes. [27,28] In a recent study,
149 researchers found only weak or missing correlations between surrogate endpoints and survival in
150 breast cancer using the Taylor and Elston framework.[29] In another analysis, researchers found that
151 none of the surrogate endpoints used in EMA expedited approvals were evaluated in independent
152 studies.[30]

153
154 Similarly, HTA bodies rarely use this framework to evaluate surrogate endpoints,[31] Indeed, HTA
155 guidance on the use of surrogate endpoints has been highly variable [32]. In a recent survey of
156 methodological guidance by 73 organisations, only 40% gave specific consideration to using
157 surrogates.[33] Such variation across HTA bodies yields heterogenous conclusions about the
158 relevance of the same putative surrogate endpoints across different settings.[34]

159 160 **Evaluating surrogate endpoints**

161 Methodologists stress that evidence at the individual patient level alone is insufficient to evaluate
162 surrogate endpoints especially when such evidence is obtained from a single trial.[35] This is
163 because the observed surrogate-to-clinical outcome relationship for one drug may not hold for
164 another, as it depends on the treatment's mechanism of action.[35] For example, progression-free
165 survival was previously shown to be a good surrogate for overall survival in advanced colorectal
166 cancer based on evidence from trials of traditional chemotherapy.[36] However, Ciani et al. recently
167 observed a weaker relationship between these endpoints in this setting for modern therapies with
168 different mechanisms of action.[37]

169
170 Meta-analysis, which combines data from a number of randomised trials, is more appropriate for
171 evaluating the association between the treatment effects on the candidate surrogate endpoint and on
172 the final patient-relevant clinical outcome.[38] There is growing methodological consensus for using
173 bivariate meta-analysis methods to evaluate the surrogate-to-final outcome relationships. [39–44]
174 These methods take into account not only the correlation between the treatment effects (quantifying
175 the surrogate relationship), but also uncertainty around this relationship, which is crucial for
176 decision-making.[44,45]

177
178 **Table 1** lists selected examples of candidate surrogate endpoints evaluated using meta-analysis
179 methods with authors’ conclusions regarding the strength of the surrogate relationship. It is perhaps
180 not surprising that bevacizumab’s initial effect on progression-free survival never translated to
181 prolonged survival for patients with metastatic breast cancer following FDA’s accelerated approval,
182 as an earlier meta-analysis concluded that progression-free survival was not a good surrogate for
183 overall survival in this setting.[36]

184
185 A potential problem when evaluating surrogate endpoints is the limited amount of available
186 randomised trial data in some areas, e.g., for drugs targeting genetic biomarkers in small patient
187 populations. In such cases, novel bivariate network meta-analysis methods , [46] or hierarchical
188 models,[47] allow for using readily available data on similar drugs or drug classes. These advanced
189 methods are highlighted in reports prepared by the NICE Decision Support Unit.[44,45]

190
191 **Way forward**
192 Regulators should be more selective in their use of surrogate endpoints. Surrogate endpoints are not
193 useful – and should not be used – when a drug’s effect on the final clinical outcome can be observed
194 within a relatively short time frame, e.g., in acute conditions.[48] Hence, using surrogate endpoints
195 should be reserved for chronic disease settings when they can provide early and accurate
196 measurement of a drug’s effect, especially when long follow-up is required before the final patient-
197 relevant clinical outcome can be assessed.[49] Even in such cases, regulators have other tools at their
198 disposal to ensure patients who have exhausted all available treatment options can receive
199 investigational treatments before regulatory approval. Such “expanded access” programs can bridge
200 the access gap while evidence on patient-relevant endpoints accrues before regulatory approval.

201

202 When using surrogate endpoints is justified in selected chronic disease settings, regulators should
203 consider the strength of available evidence on how well surrogates predict clinical benefit. The recent
204 US accelerated approval of aducanumab for the treatment of Alzheimer’s disease demonstrates why
205 this is essential. FDA’s decision was controversial in part because amyloid level changes had little to
206 no effect on cognitive change in an earlier meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials.[1] Thus, it
207 is still debatable whether the reduction in amyloid levels is an acceptable surrogate for cognition on
208 the basis of current best evidence.

209
210 In the absence of regulatory guidance, there are promising signs that HTA bodies are increasingly
211 raising the bar for using surrogate endpoints. For example, NICE has recently proposed changes to
212 its HTA methods to strengthen the evidence requirements for the use of surrogate endpoints, while
213 still allowing flexibility when desired evidence is not available.[50,51] Involving HTA bodies in
214 early regulatory interactions with manufacturers may help align evidence requirements on surrogate
215 endpoints. The UK Innovative Licensing and Access Pathway managed by the Medicines and
216 Healthcare Products Regulatory Agency, NICE and the Scottish Medicines Consortium is aimed at
217 facilitating such alignment.[52]

218
219 Ultimately, regulatory and HTA decisions regarding the use of surrogate endpoints need to weigh the
220 strength of available evidence on the validity of surrogates alongside other considerations such as
221 unmet therapeutic need. When making such trade-offs, quantifying how well a candidate surrogate
222 predicts the final clinical outcome can provide valuable information.[44,46] If recommended meta-
223 analysis methods are used, the strength (or weakness) of the surrogate will be reflected in the
224 uncertainty around the predicted treatment effect on the final outcome. A weaker surrogate will yield
225 a larger interval and hence greater uncertainty.

226
227 Raising the bar for using surrogate endpoints by regulators and HTA bodies may increase the cost
228 and duration of drug development. However, this need not hamper pharmaceutical innovation. In the
229 past, regulatory guidance encouraging manufacturers to evaluate the cardiovascular outcomes of anti-
230 diabetic medications incentivised the generation of patient-centred evidence without adversely
231 affecting research and development.[53,54]

232
233 Greater involvement of patients (and organisations representing patients) in regulatory and HTA
234 processes is also essential to ensure that the conditions for accepting surrogate endpoints for
235 decision-making are adequately met. When using such endpoints is justified, patients can help ensure

236 that uncertainty related to surrogates is explicitly presented and taken into account. Patient input can
237 also help guide regulatory and HTA decisions regarding the appropriate use of surrogate endpoints.

238

239 **Key messages**

240 • Surrogate endpoints are widely used by regulators to expedite the approval of new drugs, but
241 most surrogate endpoints are not shown to be reliable predictors of outcomes that matter most
242 to patients.

243 • Regulators should only accept surrogate endpoints when generating data on clinical outcomes
244 is not attainable.

245 • When directly measuring drug effects on patient-relevant clinical outcomes would require
246 trials of very substantial duration, regulators and health technology assessment bodies should
247 systematically evaluate the appropriateness of surrogate endpoints using up to date meta-
248 analysis methods.

249

250 **Acknowledgments**

251 OC received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme
252 under grant agreement #779306 (COMED—Pushing the Boundaries of Cost and Outcome Analysis
253 of Medical Technologies). Issues discussed in this paper reflect only the author’s views, and the EU
254 is not responsible for any use that may be made of the information it contains. SB was supported by
255 the Medical Research Council through the Methodology Research Panel grants MR/L009854/1 and
256 MR/T025166/1.

257

258 **Footnotes**

259 **Contributors and sources:** DD is an expert on health technology assessment methods research and
260 has been involved in the ongoing update of NICE’s health technology evaluation methods. HN’s
261 research examines the evidence supporting regulatory decisions on drugs in the US and Europe. OC
262 has written extensively on the role of surrogate endpoints in health care policy and cost-effectiveness
263 models. She previously contributed to the development of surrogate validation frameworks. SB’s
264 expertise is in Bayesian evidence synthesis methods. She has developed novel methods for modelling
265 surrogate endpoints, which are proposed to be included NICE’s update of its methods guide. HN
266 devised the idea for this article. All authors contributed to developing the first draft and writing of
267 subsequent versions. DD is the guarantor.

268

269 **Competing interests:** DD is an employee of NICE. The views expressed are those of DD and not
270 those of NICE. SB has served as a paid consultant providing methodological advice to NICE, Roche
271 and RTI Health Solutions. SB has previously received research funding from European Federation of
272 Pharmaceutical Industries & Associations (EFPIA) as part of unrelated European Union IMI GetReal
273 project. HN previously received funding from the Pharmaceutical Group of the European Union for
274 an unrelated systematic review on community pharmacists. HN currently receives funding from the
275 Health Foundation on an unrelated project on pharmaceutical policy.

276

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Table 1: Examples of candidate surrogate endpoints evaluated using meta-analysis and authors' conclusions regarding the strength of the surrogate relationship

Disease area	Candidate surrogate endpoint	Final clinical outcome	Strength of the surrogate relationship, as reported by study authors
Gastric cancer [8]	Disease-free survival	Overall survival	“Disease-free survival is an acceptable surrogate for overall survival in trials of cytotoxic agents for gastric cancer in the adjuvant setting”
Multiple sclerosis [55]	Relapse rate	Expanded Disability Status Scale (EDSS) worsening	“support the use of commonly used surrogate markers of expanded disability status scale worsening as endpoints in multiple sclerosis clinical trials”
Immunoglobulin A nephropathy [56]	Change in proteinuria	Doubling of serum creatinine level, end-stage renal disease, or death	“supporting the use of an early reduction in proteinuria as a surrogate endpoint for clinical end points in Immunoglobulin A nephropathy in selected settings”
Cardiovascular disease	Low-density lipoprotein	Major coronary events	“an approximately linear relationship between the absolute reductions in low-density lipoprotein cholesterol achieved in these trials and the proportional reductions in the incidence of coronary and other major vascular events”
Advanced colorectal cancer in traditional chemotherapy trials [56]	Progression-free survival	Overall survival	“PFS is an acceptable surrogate for OS in advanced colorectal cancer”
Advanced colorectal cancer in modern trials [37]	Progression-free survival	Overall survival	“none of the end points were found to achieve the level of evidence (i.e., mean $R^2_{\text{trial}} > 0.60$) that has been set to select high or excellent correlation levels by common surrogate evaluation tools”
Metastatic breast cancer [36]	Tumour response, disease control, progression-free survival, and time-to-progression	Overall survival	“no end point could be demonstrated as a good surrogate for overall survival in these trials”
Rectal cancer [57]	Pathologic complete response and disease-free survival	Overall survival	“pathologic complete response and disease-free survival are not surrogate endpoints for 5-year survival in rectal cancer”
Urinary cancer [58]	Overall response rate and progression-free survival	Overall survival	“overall response rate and progression-free survival are not reliable surrogate end points for median overall survival in trials of PD-(L)1 inhibitor therapy for urinary cancers”

Renal cell carcinoma [59]	Disease-free survival	Overall survival	“there was no strong correlation noted between 5-year disease-free survival and 5-year overall survival rates or between treatment effects on these endpoints.”
Prostate cancer [60]	Event-free survival	Overall survival	“event-free survival is a weak surrogate for overall survival and is not suitable for use as an intermediate clinical end point to substitute for overall survival”
HIV infection [61]	CD4 count	AIDS or death	“CD4 cell count is a weak surrogate endpoint”
Alzheimer’s disease [1]	Amyloid levels	Cognitive decline	“reducing amyloid levels with drug treatment has, at most, a small effect on cognition”

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