

Strength of Evidence Supporting Cancer Drug Approvals in China, 2017-2021: A Cross-Sectional Analysis

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30 **Summary**

31 **Background**

32 Well-designed pivotal clinical trials can provide robust evidence for the market authorization of new
33 cancer drugs, whereas lower-quality clinical evidence leads to uncertainty about drug benefits and
34 harms. We aim to investigate the strength of evidence supporting new cancer drug indications
35 approved in China from 2017 to 2021.

36 **Methods**

37 In this cross-sectional analysis, we searched publicly available data from the National Medical
38 Products Administration website to identify pivotal pre-approval efficacy trials supporting all
39 original and supplemental cancer drug indications approved in China from 2017 to 2021. We
40 collected trial protocols and publications from ClinicalTrials.gov, PubMed, and the China National
41 Knowledge Infrastructure database. The primary outcome was the strength of the supporting pivotal
42 studies, as measured by study design (randomized or single-arm) and quality. For study quality, we
43 evaluated the ability to minimize bias of single-arm trials, measured as adopted external control arm
44 and adjusted confounders; risk of bias of randomized controlled trials (RCTs), as evaluated using the
45 revised Cochrane tool for risk of bias assessment. Additionally, we used ratio of hazard ratios (RHR)
46 to quantify differences in effect size in RCTs with different risks of bias.

47 **Findings**

48 Between 1 January 2017 and 31 December 2021, 77 novel cancer drugs for 86 original and 62
49 supplemental indications were approved in China, based on data from 205 pivotal studies. Forty-four
50 (29·7%) indications were supported by single-arm trials only, and 104 (70·3%) indications were
51 supported by at least one RCT. Of the 56 pivotal single-arm trials with regulatory review documents,
52 6 (10·7%) used aggregated data from earlier trials as external controls, without adjustment for
53 confounders. Of the 128 pivotal RCTs with published results, 47 (36·7%) and 48 (37·5%) were
54 assessed as having some concern or a high risk of bias, respectively. RCTs judged to be at some
55 concern or high risk of bias in the randomization process had smaller effect sizes ($RHR=0·678$, 95%
56 confidence interval: 0·532 to 0·864), and those judged to be at some concern or high risk of bias in

57 missing outcome data had larger effect sizes (RHR=1·114, 95% confidence interval: 1·004 to 1·237),
58 compared to RCTs at low risk of bias in these domains.

59 **Interpretation**

60 Four-fifths of assessable pivotal studies supporting new cancer indication approvals in China from
61 2017-2021 had weaknesses in design, conduct, or reporting that introduce uncertainty to the
62 estimation of treatment effects. To ensure the validity of drug efficacy data and reduce uncertainty,
63 stakeholders should strengthen and implement a high-quality standard on the design, conduct,
64 analysis, and reporting of studies supporting regulatory approval of new therapies.

65 **Funding**

66 National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 72274004).

67

68 **Research in context**

69 **Evidence before this study**

70 Over the past decade, a series of regulatory guidance concerning drug clinical trial design, analysis,
71 and implementation has been issued in China. Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) are still
72 considered the gold standard for evaluating the efficacy and safety of a drug. For cancer drug trials
73 pursuing regulatory approval, an evaluation is suggested to address the uncertainty and bias related
74 to the assessment of clinical benefit. We searched PubMed for peer-reviewed, original studies (from
75 database inception to Jan 31, 2025), using the search terms “strength of evidence”, “evidence
76 quality”, “trial assessment”, and “cancer drug”. Several observational studies conducted in the US
77 characterized the clinical trials of drugs granted regular and accelerated approval. Some research
78 examined the design characteristics and risk of bias of pivotal RCTs of cancer drugs approved by the
79 European Medicines Agency. Our previous study evaluated the quality of control arms of
80 investigational new drugs in China. No literature assessed the biases in cancer drug pivotal trials in
81 China.

82 **Added value of this study?**

83 We report the strength of evidence supporting new cancer drug indications approved in China from
84 2017 to 2021. Approximately one-third of cancer drug indication approvals were supported by
85 single-arm trials. While two-thirds were supported by RCTs, over one-third of these RCTs were
86 judged to have a high risk of bias. Overall, fewer than one-fifth of the approved indications were
87 based on RCTs with a low risk of bias. The exploratory meta-epidemiology analysis showed that,
88 compared to the RCTs at low risk of bias, those with some concern or a high risk of bias in missing
89 outcome data showed larger effect sizes, principally in those with surrogate primary endpoints.

90 **Implications of all the available evidence**

91 A more robust premarketing evaluation of investigational new cancer drugs is needed to improve
92 certainty regarding drug benefits and harms in China, as a lack of strong efficacy evidence may
93 distort the appraisal of drug clinical benefits, risk-benefit evaluations, and further challenge the
94 pricing and reimbursement of expensive cancer therapies.

95

96 **Introduction**

97 Well-designed and adequately conducted clinical trials are the cornerstone to demonstrating drug
98 safety and efficacy and support regulatory approval of drugs.(1) In general, applications for market
99 authorization of a drug for a new indication should be supported by two rigorously-designed
100 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) that demonstrate the drug's clinical benefits, or one adequate
101 and well-controlled large multicenter trial that can provide substantial evidence of effectiveness.(2,
102 3) Yet, regulators increasingly make approval decisions based on uncertain or insufficient evidence
103 of benefit, especially for drugs indicated for life-threatening diseases like cancers.(4) In 2000-2020,
104 fifty percent of U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved cancer indications were
105 authorized in the absence of RCT evidence.(5) In Europe, around half of RCTs supporting approvals
106 of cancer drugs by the European Medicines Agency (EMA) between 2014 and 2016 were judged to
107 be at high risk of bias,(6) defined as the likelihood that features of the study design, conduct, analysis
108 or reporting of the trial will lead to systematic error or deviation from the truth in results or
109 inferences.(7)

110

111 The strength of evidence underpinning regulatory approval of new drugs has changed over the past
112 decades, due to more flexibility in regulatory standards.(4) In China, which represents one of the
113 largest global pharmaceutical markets, regulatory reforms that started in 2015 incentivized the
114 growth of new drug research and development.(8) A series of subsequent technical guidelines
115 concerning the design of pivotal investigational new drug trials recommended RCTs, as random
116 allocation can reduce selection bias and thereby enhance the internal validity.(9) For indications for
117 which implementing RCTs is not feasible, Chinese regulatory authorities also emphasized that the
118 adoption of single-arm trials as a pivotal study was acceptable but should be implemented with
119 caution, as such designs would introduce substantial uncertainty in the drug risk-benefit assessment
120 (appendix p 1).

121

122 Cancer is a growing public health problem in China. Over the past two decades, China has also
123 issued strategies to incentivize cancer drug research and development, in conjunction with regulatory

124 reforms to improve the availability of new cancer drugs.(10) Since 2017, the number of cancer drug
125 approvals, especially those developed by domestic pharmaceutical companies, has increased in
126 China.(10) Earlier research provided a preliminary characterization of clinical trials supporting their
127 original market authorization.(11) To date, however, no study has investigated the strength and
128 quality of evidence supporting cancer drug indication approvals in China, including sources of bias.
129 Bias in clinical trials, defined as the systematic error, or deviation from the truth, in results, will lead
130 to under-estimation or over-estimation of the true intervention effect and can vary in magnitude.(7)
131 Accordingly, we aimed to examine the strength of evidence of the pivotal efficacy studies supporting
132 cancer drug approvals in China and to assess their design and quality, measured by the risk of bias in
133 RCTs and the ability to adjust for confounders in single-arm trials.

134

135 **Methods**

136 **Study design and data sources**

137 In this cross-sectional study, we identified all cancer drugs and corresponding indications approved
138 in China between 1 January 2017 and 31 December 2021, including both original and supplemental
139 indication approvals, as described previously.(10) Cancer drug authorizations were identified using
140 the quarterly *National Drug Code Data File* issued by the National Medical Products Administration
141 (NMPA) which contained all medical products available on the Chinese market.(12) We included
142 small molecules as well as biologics, and excluded traditional Chinese medicines, prophylactic
143 vaccines, and generic or biosimilar versions of previously approved drugs. Cancer drugs were
144 categorized as those authorized in China only and those also authorized by the FDA or the EMA
145 (**appendix p 3**). We also recorded whether each indication received regular or conditional marketing
146 authorization. For each drug, we assessed the review documents and product labels to identify
147 approved indications for adult malignancies. We included both original and supplemental
148 indications, as reported in the regulatory review documents. Indications for pediatric use only,
149 benign tumors, and supportive care were excluded (**Figure 1**). All cancer drug indications were
150 categorized into first-line, later-line, adjuvant or neoadjuvant, and maintenance treatments.

151

For each indication, we identified the pivotal studies (i.e., pivotal efficacy trials, including RCTs, single-arm trials, and dose-optimization trials) described in the “Effectiveness Evaluation” section of the review documents issued by the Center for Drug Evaluation, NMPA.(13) For each pivotal study, we collected the study name and identifiers then crosschecked the corresponding clinical trial identifiers in ClinicalTrials.gov and chinadrugtrials.org.cn (official trial registry of the NMPA)

Using clinical trial identifiers, we searched PubMed and ClinicalTrials.gov to retrieve any associated peer-reviewed publications and protocols of pivotal studies published by 31 December 2023, to allow for a minimum follow-up duration of two years since approval. If no record was available, we further searched trial names in combination with approved indications in PubMed and the China National Knowledge Infrastructure Database (one of the most commonly used Chinese literature datasets, **appendix p 3**). Only publications reporting the primary efficacy endpoint results were included.

Using trial publications, we extracted information on trial features including design, randomization, phase, region of enrolment, endpoint(s), sample size, and comparator.(14) When trial publications were not publicly available, we relied on information from clinicaltrials.gov and/or chinadrugtrials.org.cn. Trial designs were categorized as randomized clinical trials or single-arm trials, including four dose-response trials. For RCTs with published results, we also collected reported estimates of effect sizes.

Procedures

To assess the ability to minimize bias of single-arm trials, for cancer drug indications supported by single-arm trials only, we reviewed their regulatory review documents to check whether non-concurrent controls (i.e., historical control or data collected outside the study contemporaneously) were adopted.(15) For studies comparing efficacy data with those of prior research, we further examined whether they clarified the specific time of historical data, as disease diagnostic criteria and

179 efficacy evaluation methods may change with the development of medical practice.(16) We also
180 examined whether they adjusted for any confounders in the comparison.(14-16)
181
182 For RCTs, we used the Cochrane revised tool for assessing risk of bias (RoB 2, the 22 August 2019
183 version) to assess their risk of bias (**appendix p 4**).(17) Two investigators (D.C. and Y.Z.)
184 independently assessed the risk of bias (i.e., low, some concern, or high) in each trial. The interrater
185 reliability for the first round of assessment was moderate (Cohen's kappa=0.509, agreement
186 rate=68.8%). We found disagreement was predominantly in the third domain (missing outcome data)
187 of RoB2 and unified our evaluation criteria (**appendix p 4**). The second round of interrater reliability
188 improved (Cohen's kappa= 0.795, agreement rate=86.6%). Discrepancies were solved by consensus.
189 This study was considered not involving human subjects by the Institutional Review Board of Peking
190 University.

191

192 **Outcomes**

193 The primary outcome was the strength of the supporting pivotal studies, as measured by study design
194 (randomized or single-arm) and quality (adopting external control arms and adjusted confounders of
195 single-arm trial, and risk of bias of RCTs). The secondary outcome was the differences in effect size
196 in RCTs with different risks of bias, as measured by ratio of hazard ratios (RHR).

197

198 **Statistical analysis**

199 We descriptively characterized features of cancer drugs, indications, and pivotal trials. We also
200 counted the number of pivotal studies and pivotal RCTs with a low risk of bias per indication over
201 time. We examined the annual trend in the proportion of indications with at least one low-risk RCT
202 using the Cochran-Armitage trend test. Univariable logistic regression was performed to examine the
203 association between risk of bias judgments and RCT features (i.e., the primary endpoint, line-of-
204 therapy, trial location, trial comparator), as multivariable regression does not improve the model fit
205 (**appendix p 6**). Two-sided P values of < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

206

207 In an exploratory analysis, we used meta-regression to investigate the relationship between different
208 risk of bias domains and effect size for RCTs reporting time-to-event outcomes.(18, 19) We did not
209 explore the association between the selective outcome reporting domain and effect estimates, in line
210 with a previous study.(19) Considering potential correlations among risk of bias domains, we
211 included all other four domains simultaneously in the regression model. To control for potential
212 confounding, we performed mixed-effects meta-regressions (Maximum Likelihood method)
213 adjusting for cancer site, trial endpoint, trial location, and trial comparator. The analysis estimated
214 RHRs comparing effect sizes in trials with high or some concerns of risk of bias versus low risk of
215 bias.(20) As an HR less than 1·0 indicated a beneficial effect of the experimental intervention, RHRs
216 less than 1·0 implied smaller effect size (i.e., HR) and greater treatment effects (i.e., ability to
217 decrease death or disease progress risk) in trials with a high or some concern risk of bias.(21)
218 Subgroup analyses and between-group homogeneity tests were performed by group with ten or more
219 trials.(22) According to the subgroup analysis results, we performed meta-regression for overall
220 survival (OS) and surrogate endpoints, separately. All modeling analyses were performed in R
221 (version 4.3.3).

222

223 **Role of the funding source**

224 The funder of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation,
225 or writing of the report.

226

227 **Results**

228 Between 1 January 2017 and 31 December 2021, 77 novel cancer drugs received marketing
229 authorization in China. Of the 148 corresponding cancer drug indication approvals, 143 (96·6%) had
230 publicly available review documents, whereas 5 (3·4%) did not (**Table 1, appendix p 7**). Among the
231 205 pivotal studies, 135 (65·9%) were RCTs and 70 (34·1%) were single-arm trials (**Table 2,**
232 **appendix p 8**). Of the 148 cancer drug indications, 104 (70·3%) were supported by at least one RCT,
233 whereas 44 (29·7%) were supported by single-arm trials only (**Table 1**). From 2017 to 2021, the
234 proportion of indications supported by at least one RCT decreased from 75·0% (12/16) to 40·7%

235 (11/27, **Fig 2A**). Fifty one (59·3%) of 86 original indications and 53 (85·5%) of 62 supplementary
236 indications were supported by RCTs, respectively (**appendix p 23**).

237

238 Of the 205 pivotal studies, 184 (89·8%) had publication reporting pre-planned results, while only
239 137 (66·8%) had publicly available trial protocols. Among the 135 RCTs, 128 (94·8%, supporting
240 approvals of 102 indications) had corresponding publications that were publicly available for risk of
241 bias evaluation (**appendix p 8**). Overall, of the 128 assessable RCTs, 48 (37·5%) were assessed as
242 having high risk of bias, most often due to missing outcome data (n=46), while 47 (36·7%) were
243 evaluated as having some concerns, most often due to the deviation from intended interventions
244 (n=59), selection of the reported results (n=39), randomization process (n=7), and measurement of
245 the outcome data (n=3); 33 (25·8%) were assessed as having low risk of bias (**Fig 3A, appendix p**
246 **28**). Among the 148 indication approvals, 29 (19·6%) were supported by at least one RCT that was
247 assessed as having low risk of bias, and the yearly proportion was 28·6% (n=10/42) in 2018 and
248 14·8% (n=4/27) in 2021 (p=0·88, **Fig 2B**).

249

250 The proportion of RCTs with some concern or high risk of bias is higher in trials for international
251 multicenter trial than in regional multicenter trials (79·5% vs. 62·5%, Odds Ratio [OR]=0·384, 95%
252 Confidence Interval [CI]=0·169 to 0·864, **appendix p 24**). There was no difference in the likelihood
253 of the RCTs being assessed as having some concern or high risk of bias between those supporting
254 cancer drugs authorized in China only (17 of 27 [63·0%]) and those also authorized by the FDA or
255 EMA (78 of 101 [77·2%]; OR=0·465, 95%CI=0·190 to 1·165), and those supporting regular
256 approvals (79 of 109 [72·5%]) and conditional approvals (16 of 19 [84·2%; OR=1·809,
257 95%CI=0·584 to 7·282]).

258

259 For 44 indications supported by single-arm trials only, **Fig 3B** shows the proportion using external
260 non-concurrent controls. In total, there were 54 (96·4%) of 56 single-arm trials with publicly
261 available regulatory review documents, while the other two trials did not. Of these, 22 (39·3%) did
262 not clarify in the regulatory review documents whether non-concurrent controls were used for their

263 approvals, and 26 (46·4%) reported using a historical control without clarifying the specific time.
 264 Only 6 (10·7%) of 56 pivotal single-arm trials with external controls had specified periods, with a
 265 median time of 2·2 years (interquartile range: -0·3 to 5·5 years) between the start of external control
 266 studies and pivotal studies (**appendix p 25**). Regulatory review documents did not report
 267 adjustments for confounders for any single-arm trials.
 268
 269 Among 122 pivotal RCTs that reported hazard ratio for time-to-event endpoints, 45 (36·9%) used OS
 270 as the primary endpoint, and 77 (63·1%) used surrogate endpoints. In the multivariable meta-
 271 regression models, different domains of risk of bias, cancer site, line of therapy, trial comparator, and
 272 trial location were included (**appendix p 24**). The regression model's coefficient of determination
 273 (R-Square) was 82·67%.
 274
 275 For all 122 RCTs reporting time-to-event outcomes, those with some concern risk of bias in the
 276 randomization process had a larger treatment effect than those with low risk of bias (RHR=0·678,
 277 95% CI: 0·532 to 0·864), and those with some concern risk of bias in missing outcome data had a
 278 smaller treatment effect (RHR=1·114, 95% CI: 1·004 to 1·237, **Fig 4A**). In meta-regression models
 279 including an interaction term between risk of domain and other subgroups, we observed a
 280 statistically significant interaction between the randomization process domain and endpoint type ($p =$
 281 $0·049$), and the missing outcome data domain and endpoint type ($p = 0·040$), but statistically non-
 282 significant differences for trial location and cancer site subgroup (all $p > 0·05$). Studies that reported
 283 surrogate outcomes rather than overall survival typically had larger treatment effects (e.g., RHR for
 284 progression-free survival vs OS=0·785, 95% CI 0·688 to 0·894, **appendix p 26**). In RCTs that used
 285 OS as the primary endpoint, no statistically significant association was observed between risk of bias
 286 and over- or underestimation of effect size (**Fig 4B**). In RCTs that used surrogate endpoints as the
 287 primary endpoint, compared with trials assessed at low risk of bias, those with some concern or high
 288 risk of bias in the randomization process had a larger treatment effect (RHR=0·713, 95% CI: 0·523
 289 to 0·974); those with some concern or high risk of bias in missing outcome data had a smaller
 290 treatment effect (RHR=1·173, 95% CI: 1·003 to 1·371, **Fig 4C**).

291

292 **Discussion**

293 We found that approximately one-third of China's cancer drug indication approvals between 2017
294 and 2021 were supported by single-arm trials. While two-thirds were supported by RCTs, over one-
295 third of these RCTs were judged to have a high risk of bias. Overall, fewer than 20% of the approved
296 indications were based on RCTs with a low risk of bias. Compared to those evaluated as low risk of
297 bias, RCTs judged to be at some concern or high risk of bias in missing outcome data showed
298 smaller treatment effects, principally in those with surrogate primary endpoints.

299

300 This study provides systematic evidence on the strength and quality of pivotal studies underpinning
301 cancer drug approvals following regulatory reforms aimed at accelerating patient access to new
302 drugs in China. Previous research during a similar time horizon showed that half of the trials
303 supporting initial cancer drug approvals in China were non-randomized.(11) Using the Cochrane risk
304 of bias tool and evaluation of the ability to minimize bias, our study further expanded current
305 knowledge on the pivotal study quality and potential biases. The meta-epidemiological exploration
306 of the association between trial risk of bias and effect estimation complements recent research about
307 the trial design and outcomes among FDA-approved cancer drug therapies.(23) Although direct
308 comparisons with the assessment of cancer drug pivotal studies in the US and EU are limited by
309 differing timeframes, our findings are relevant in a broader global regulatory context, where the FDA
310 or EMA approved more new cancer drugs faster based on fewer pivotal trials or less rigorous
311 designs.(4-6, 24)

312

313 Although China's 2012 regulatory guidance on cancer drug clinical trials recommended the inclusion
314 of two adequate and well-controlled studies for new drug approval,(1) our results show that this
315 recommendation was not implemented consistently, as only 28·4% of approvals were supported by
316 two or more pivotal studies and just 19·6% included at least one RCT with low risk of bias. This
317 could, in some way, be attributed to flexible regulatory standards to expedite drug access for patients
318 with unmet needs,(4, 25) and the practical challenge of conducting large-scale RCTs for some rare

319 cancers. Additionally, recent research revealed the increasing use of single-arm pivotal trials which
320 could shortened drug development times.(16) Pharmaceutical companies may adopt relevant
321 strategies to facilitate market entry, as we observed an increasing proportion of original indications
322 supported by single-arm trials over time.

323

324 We found the judgement of RCTs to have high risk of bias or some concerns was primarily in risk of
325 bias due to missing outcome data.(6) One potential explanation is that for placebo-controlled cancer
326 trials, patients in the placebo arm may be more likely to withdraw consent than those in the
327 experimental group,(26) which may result in imbalanced censoring between treatment groups and
328 bias trial results. This issue is more common in RCTs with surrogate endpoints, some of which
329 contain imaging or laboratory progression that cannot be assessed if the patient withdraws. We also
330 found that bias in the randomization process was associated with exaggerated effect sizes in
331 surrogate endpoint RCTs, (18, 27) but not in those using OS endpoints, a more objective and the gold
332 standard cancer drug efficacy measure. Additionally, we observed a high prevalence of “some
333 concerns” ratings in the deviations from intended interventions domain, where concerns often arose
334 from insufficient blinding.(17) For the domain of selection of reported results, the main concerns
335 stemmed from the unavailability of protocols for one-third of the trials and inconsistencies between
336 reported outcomes and those specified in the protocols.

337

338 Our subgroup analysis showed a similar proportion of trials assessed as having some concern or high
339 risk of bias among cancer drugs authorized by the FDA/EMA and those approved in China only.
340 Most cancer drugs approved by NMPA only were supported by regional multicenter trials, in which
341 the proportion of RCTs with some concern or high risk of bias was lower than in international
342 multicenter trials. This could be interpreted in the context of significant system-wide efforts to
343 improve the implementation of high-quality clinical trials since 2015.(28) Although regional
344 multicenter trials, compared to international multicenter ones, are more likely to be implemented, the
345 failure of approval in sintilumab (for non-small cell lung cancer, pivotal trials recruited in China
346 only) by the FDA showed that international multicenter trials might be necessary for approvals by

347 other jurisdictions.(29) For novel drugs pursuing market authorization in other countries, China's
348 domestic pharmaceutical companies should pay more attention to the design and conduct of relevant
349 trials to avoid the risk of bias and ensure unbiased efficacy estimation when performing international
350 multicenter studies.

351

352 Our findings highlight the need to improve the design, conduct, analysis, and reporting of pre-
353 approval trials supporting new cancer drug approvals in China. While recent regulatory reform has
354 narrowed the drug approval lag time with major regulatory agencies and increased the number of
355 approvals,(25) this progress has often relied on single-arm trials and surrogate endpoints, suggesting
356 that this acceleration may be achieved at the cost of evidence certainty. For pivotal single-arm trials
357 where the inability to control bias is the major concern,(15) we found that external controls were
358 frequently used without clear justification or adjustment for confounding in the regulatory review
359 documents, limiting the credibility of effect estimates. China's regulators should make their
360 assessments of control arm quality more specific and transparent. For RCTs, the Cochrane RoB 2
361 tool can serve as a structured framework to guide both sponsors and regulators in identifying critical
362 design and implementation flaws. When assessing trial quality, particular attention should be paid to
363 the randomization process, deviations from intended interventions, and outcome measurement. Early
364 regulatory engagement, such as enhanced scientific advice or protocol consultation during the
365 investigational new drug phase, could help prevent avoidable methodological issues. International
366 collaboration may also improve evidence standards. For instance, the FDA's Project Orbis facilitated
367 patient access to new cancer drugs through a concurrent review program of innovative cancer
368 therapies across multiple countries.(30) While confidentiality barriers may limit full
369 participation,(31) China's regulator could benefit from joining a similar initiative and referring to
370 other regulators' review findings.

371

372 This study has several limitations. First, pivotal studies were identified based on regulatory review
373 documents and product labels, which were incomplete or unclear for some indications, potentially
374 introducing misclassification. Second, the risk-of-bias assessments relied on RoB 2.0, which, while

375 widely accepted, may not fully capture the methodological adequacy of oncology trials in regulatory
376 contexts. Third, despite independent assessments of trial risk of bias by two investigators,
377 subjectivity in certain RoB 2 aspects remains. Limited protocol availability as article supplements
378 also meant that some risk of bias judgments were based on potential outdated versions from trial
379 registers or pharmaceutical company websites. Fourth, the regression results on the association
380 between risk of bias and treatment effects were exploratory, as the sample size was small and
381 heterogeneity between trials existed. Moreover, potential correlations between risk-of-bias domains
382 limit the interpretability of domain-specific analyses, which are not intended for causal inference.
383 Fifth, the study covered approvals from 2017 to 2021 to allow sufficient follow-up for data
384 availability. As more flexible trial designs and regulatory reforms are increasingly used for new
385 indications, a timely evaluation of pivotal trials supporting recent approvals will be needed in future
386 studies.

387

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393 methodology consulting on risk of bias evaluation in this paper.

394

395 **Article Information**

396 **Author contributions**

397 XG and YZ conceptualized and designed the study. YZ and DC collected data and carried out the
398 initial analyses. YZ drafted the initial manuscript. XG, MF, HN, AKW, and JSR reviewed and
399 revised the manuscript. LS supervised this study. YZ and DC directly accessed and verified the
400 underlying data reported in the manuscript. All authors approved the final manuscript as submitted
401 and agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

402 **Declaration of interest**

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request of Relator's attorneys, the Greene Law Firm, in a qui tam suit alleging violations of the False Claims Act and Anti-Kickback Statute against Biogen Inc. that was settled September 2022. The other authors declare no competing interests.

Data sharing

Detailed data describing the sample characteristics and justifications for risk of bias assessments are available within the manuscript and appendix. All other deidentified extracted data and analytic code will be made available upon reasonable request to the corresponding author for research purposes.

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502 **Figures**

503 **Figure 1 title: Flowchart of sample cancer drug, indication, and pivotal trial identification**

504

505 *Figure 1 legend:*

506 ***Abbreviation:*** NMPA, National Medical Products Administration.

507

508

509 **Figure 2 title: Number of pivotal efficacy studies supporting new cancer drug indication**
510 **approvals by National Medical Products Administration, 2017-2021**

511

512 *Figure 2 legend:*

513 A. Number of cancer indications supported by randomized controlled trials or single-arm trials.

514 B. Number of cancer indications supported by randomized controlled trials at low risk of bias.

515

516 **Note:** *For randomized clinical trials, the risk of bias assessments was based on the primary efficacy*

517 *endpoints.*

518 **Figure 3 title: Risk of bias of pivotal randomized clinical trials and ability to minimize bias of**
519 **pivotal single-arm trials supporting cancer indication approval by National Medical Products**
520 **Administration, 2017-2021.**

521

522 *Figure 3 legend:*

523 A. Risk of bias of pivotal randomized controlled trials by domain.

524 B. Use of external control and adjustment of confounders in pivotal single-arm trials.

525 ***Note:***

526 ^{a.} *Risk of bias assessments were based on the primary efficacy endpoints.*

527 ^{b.} *P-value for the Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test.*

528 **Figure 4 title: Comparison of trial treatment effects among different domains of risk of bias of**
529 **(A) all pivotal randomized controlled trials with binary outcome, (B) with overall survival, and**
530 **(C) with surrogate endpoint as the primary endpoint**

531

532 *Figure 4 legend:*

533 **Abbreviation:** CI, confidence interval.

534 **Note:**

535 ^a. a ratio of hazard ratio <1 suggests a larger treatment effect in trials with some concern or high
536 risk of bias because progression or death events in oncology trials are unfavorable.

537 ^b. multivariable meta-regression model adjusting for different domains of risk of bias, cancer site,
538 trial endpoint, trial comparator, and trial location. (for Fig4A model: $R^2 = 78.58\%$, $I^2 = 59.45\%$; for
539 Fig4B model: $R^2 = 99.98\%$, $I^2 = 0.01\%$; for Fig4C model: $R^2 = 69.67\%$, $I^2 = 65.73\%$).

540

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