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Embedded quantified integrated-into-practice trials (EQuIPT): expanding the repertoire of trials with waiver of written informed consent

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3 **Embedded quantified integrated-into-practice trials (EQUIPT): expanding the repertoire of**
4 **trials with waiver of written informed consent**
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Abstract

Background: Progress in therapeutics research is slowed by the regulatory burden of clinical trials, which provide the best evidence for guiding treatment. There is a long delay from evidence-generation to adoption, highlighting the need for designs that link evidence-generation to implementation.

Objective: To identify clinical trial designs that confer minimal risk above that inherent in clinical care, to obviate the need for cumbersome consenting processes to enroll patients in prospective clinical research studies. These designs extend the scope of the Learning Healthcare System, a framework for leveraging retrospective “big data” to advance clinical research, to include data collected from prospective controlled trials.

Summary: Pragmatic trials may use simplified eligibility criteria, unblinded interventions, and objective outcomes measures that can all be monitored through the EHR, to reduce costs and speed study conduct. Most pragmatic trials continue to suffer from substantial regulatory burden. Written consent to participate in research can be waived only if the research produces minimal risk above what is encountered in everyday life. However, the “consent” processes for prescribing Federal Drug Administration-approved medications in clinical medicine are informal, even when they involve decisions of uncertain benefit and higher levels of risk.

We propose that trial designs that mimic clinical decision-making in areas of uncertainty (clinical equipoise) and in which no data are generated outside of usual care (EHR embedding) confer minimal additional risk. These “Embedded, Quantified, Integrated-into-Practice Trials” (EQuIPT) could therefore be conducted with minimal documentation of consent, even when interventions contain different risks. To align with risk encountered in clinical practice, allocation to treatment arms should change (adaptive randomization) as data are collected and analyzed. Embedding of informatics tools into the EHR has the additional benefit that, as adaptive randomization progresses, evidence-generation transitions into implementation via decision-support tools – the ultimate realization of the Learning Healthcare System.

Introduction

The current approach to conducting randomized clinical trials (RCT) in the US is widely regarded as overly complex, inefficient, and expensive.^{1 2} The concept of *pragmatic trials* was developed to reduce these barriers and provide data about effectiveness in real-world settings. Features of pragmatic designs may include simplified eligibility criteria, straightforward outcome measures, avoidance of placebo controls, and maximal use of electronic health records (EHR) to screen for eligible subjects and collect data on outcomes and adverse events in an automated manner.^{1 3}

Use of pragmatic designs facilitated by the EHR is aligned with the premise of the Learning Healthcare System (LHS) framework, in which the generation and analysis of data to improve care are considered an ethical imperative.⁴ The LHS focuses on “capturing data at the clinical encounter and using those data to inform ongoing clinical and community practice.”⁵ A LHS would leverage electronic data for continuous quality improvement as a mechanism to combine the generation of evidence with implementation, but as currently conceived would be limited to observational data. Bartlett *et al* found that observational “big data” could feasibly replace only 15% using currently available EHR data;⁶ thus, realization of the LHS to truly advance care must include *prospective* in addition to retrospective data collection. Since many questions about treatment can only be answered through randomized trials, facilitation of trials leveraging the EHR as a strategy for promoting research enrollment and engagement should also be considered an ethical imperative.

Improvement in efficiency and reduction in costs theoretically achievable through pragmatic trial designs are usually limited by a requirement to obtain written informed consent by a credentialed member of a research team, and often also by authorization to obtain and use protected health information from each study subject. If the nature of the study requires study staff to be present on-site, then cost is expected to increase dramatically, and participation is likely to be limited to large academic medical centers or healthcare systems with existing research infrastructure, as is true of conventional approaches to conduct of trials.⁷

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3 Institutional review boards (IRBs) or ethics committees regard risk as binary (minimal or more-
4 than-minimal), and *risks associated with interventions* are often inappropriately conflated with
5 the *risks of participation in research*. Studies of new, unapproved medications with prospect for
6 harm should continue to be conducted through the typical process of oversight by IRBs and the
7 US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) including documented informed consent, and thus will
8 continue to be performed mostly in large academic centers. Conversely, although there is
9 disagreement on the subject, it is our opinion that participation in a comparative effectiveness
10 study of two FDA-approved drugs with long track records for safety does not necessarily confer
11 substantial additional risk, depending on whether an adaptive design is used and whether data
12 are collected solely for study purposes. Study of FDA-approved drugs off-label may or may not
13 confer risk beyond that of usual care, depending on how widely the drug is used in the
14 community. There is thus a spectrum of research questions for which a graded approach to
15 regulatory oversight and documentation would be appropriate.⁸ For many circumstances in
16 which the FDA would not require an Investigational New Drug application, a streamlined
17 process for consent and its documentation process could be used.

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39 To facilitate the extension of the LHS framework to include prospective trials, we introduce the
40 concept of Embedded, Quantified, Integrated-into-Practice Trials (EQUIPT). The designs
41 themselves are not novel, but represent a move from regarding risk and informed consent as
42 binary to viewing risk of participation in research as occurring on a spectrum,⁸ with the
43 complexity of the consent process varying accordingly (Figure 1). Our call for simplified
44 approaches to obtain and document informed consent is not new.⁸ We suspect that the reason
45 these calls have not been heeded despite use of terms such as “urgent” and “crisis” repeatedly
46 since at least 2014¹ is that the case has not focused on identifying the widest range of trials that
47 can be considered “minimal risk,” amidst multiple other reasons that trials are cumbersome.
48 EQUIPT encompasses designs for which participation in an interventional trial does not confer
49 risk *beyond what is inherent in normal clinical practice*. The result is that the patient’s treating
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3 physician, who is likely to be able to answer questions about disease and treatment better than
4 is an off-site research assistant, can enroll a patient in a study on the basis of it being a good
5 option for care, not just as an opportunity to increase knowledge, with a click in a box in the
6 EHR indicating that the patient is “opting in” to participate.
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11 Adoption of EQUiPT designs would accomplish two additional goals: expanding the range of
12 sites and patients with access to participation in clinical trials and facilitating implementation of
13 advances discovered in these trials. Translation of evidence into practice continues to be a
14 major challenge, with an average 17-year lag between the time evidence is generated until it is
15 adopted in clinical practice.⁹ Although pragmatic trials focus on generation of real-world clinical
16 evidence, considerations for future implementation of advances into usual care are often
17 lacking. Hybrid study designs,^{10 11} which include both clinical and implementation outcomes,
18 partially address this gap but are highly complex and typically require research teams with
19 expertise in both clinical trials and implementation science, and thus are expensive and
20 challenging to conduct. Thus, there is a major need to link evidence generation to
21 implementation using the same informatics tools, to speed improvements in bedside care. The
22 broader the range of participating sites in trials, the broader the reach of linked implementation
23 strategies will be.
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35 **Access to Interventional Trials as an Ethical Issue**

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38 The requirement for a detailed and complex written informed consent process reduces the
39 number and range of trials that can be done and therefore slows progress in quality of care. It is
40 also a barrier to patients' access to trials, because only large academic centers or healthcare
41 systems with existing and expensive research infrastructures are likely to be able to
42 participate.¹²
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47 Separately, the long-standing assertion that clinical research should be independent of clinical
48 care is disputed by advocates of the LHS,¹³ and the assertion that clinical trials should not be
49 designed with the hope of giving benefit to participants is equally antiquated.
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54 Although patients should be discouraged from *expecting* benefit in a trial testing a research
55 question with appropriate clinical equipoise, it is naïve to believe that even the best-informed
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3 patients enroll in trials with the primary goal of advancing science and helping others. There are
4 many circumstances in clinical medicine where a patient has no option for treatment other than
5 an unproven treatment or an experimental drug. If such treatment is only available in a clinical
6 trial done at a limited number of sites, there is inequity that may be unavoidable. However,
7 many important questions about clinical management do not involve new drugs with unproven
8 safety and adverse event profiles.
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14 Under circumstances where multiple treatment options are available, a trial may still aim to
15 identify a new treatment that is better or better-tolerated than standard care and therefore
16 provides benefit to at least some participants. Even for trials that compare approved
17 treatments, a design in which probability of assigned treatment changes based on results in the
18 trial to-date offers potential benefit to patients enrolling later in the trial if one of the treatments
19 turns out to be superior. Expanding the number and type of sites that can participate, through a
20 shared EHR, therefore extends the range of patients who can benefit from participation.
21 Designing a trial to include informatics tools that can be readily adapted to promote
22 implementation of advances confers an ethical benefit in speeding improvement in care for
23 future patients.
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33 **US Regulations on Informed Consent and Privacy in Research**

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36 Two sets of regulations govern the need to obtain informed consent for research in the US: 45
37 CFR Part 46 (containing the Department of Health and Human Services' "Common Rule,"
38 revised 2018) and 21 CFR Parts 50 and 56 (Food and Drug Administration, FDA), for studies
39 that involve use of FDA-regulated products, even if no Investigational New Drug application or
40 Investigational Device Exemption is required. The need for informed consent can be waived or
41 altered by an Institutional Review Board (IRB) if all criteria listed in section 46.116(f)(3) of the
42 Common Rule are met:
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- 49 (i) The research involves no more than minimal risk to the subjects;
50 (ii) The research could not practicably be carried out without the requested waiver or
51 alteration;
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- (iii) If the research involves using identifiable private information or identifiable biospecimens, the research could not practicably be carried out without using such information or biospecimens in an identifiable format;
- (iv) The waiver or alteration will not adversely affect the rights and welfare of the subjects; and
- (v) Whenever appropriate, the subjects or legally authorized representatives will be provided with additional pertinent information after participation.

Rules for the *documentation* of informed consent are found in section 46.117. However, if only a waiver of the requirement for documentation (i.e. a signed informed consent form) is sought, then the usual 9 specific “Basic” elements of informed consent in 46.116(b) and 8-9 specific additional elements of informed consent in 46.116(c) must be included in the consent process, which must also be conducted using the 6 General requirements in 46.116(a).

In contrast, FDA regulations for IRB review (21 CFR 56.109) provide circumstances for waiver of *documentation* of informed consent (again with the criterion of “no more than minimal risk”), but do not yet include provisions for waiver of *consent* itself, except in the setting of life-threatening emergencies (50.23 and 50.24).⁸ However, in a step toward reconciliation with the revised Common Rule after passage of the 21st Century Cures Act in 2016, the FDA issued a Guidance in 2017 entitled “IRB Waiver or Alteration of Informed Consent for Clinical Investigations Involving No More Than Minimal Risk to Human Subjects,” containing criteria virtually identical to those in the Common Rule.

In addition to documenting informed consent, persons who enroll in research studies in the US also typically provide written authorization for collection and use of their Protected Health Information (PHI), in compliance with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPAA), which includes a Privacy Rule described in 45 CFR Part 164. An IRB or Privacy Board may approve a waiver of authorization [164.512(i)(1)(i)] if specific criteria are met [164.512(i)(2)(ii)]: no more than a minimal risk to the privacy of individuals, including adequate plans to protect identifiers from improper use, reuse, retention, or disclosure; inability to practicably conduct the research without a waiver; and inability to practicably conduct the research without use of PHI.

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3 It is easy to demonstrate that inexpensive pragmatic trials cannot be conducted without the
4 waiver of written consent (criteria ii and iii). As long as participation is voluntary and research
5 questions have clinical equipoise, the studies will not adversely affect the rights and welfare of
6 subjects (criterion iv), and linkage of trial results to implementation ensures that patients may be
7 informed of results (criterion v). The only challenging case to make is that a controlled trial of
8 therapeutics imposes “minimal risk.”^{14 15} Per US regulations [45 CFR 46.102(j), 21 CFR 50.3(k)],
9 “*Minimal risk* means that the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the
10 research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or
11 during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.” We propose
12 that in modern medicine, prescription drugs constitute “daily life” and have often been proved to
13 do more good than harm – a standard that many physical examination maneuvers and tests
14 would not meet assuming the physician takes action on perceived abnormal findings.
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24 **The Risks of Usual Clinical Care**

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27 Many prescription medications, and certainly all medical procedures, carry “significant risk” as
28 would be defined by clinical *research* standards. Currently, only invasive procedures and some
29 intravenous treatments require written consent in usual care. If the standards of informed
30 consent for research were to be applied to everyday clinical practice, every prescription would
31 require a lengthy discussion and a signature on a form.
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36 Effective physicians attempt to inform patients adequately about known risks, unknown risks,
37 and uncertain benefits of the treatments they are recommending. There is insufficient time
38 during a 20-minute appointment to review the entire FDA-approved package insert, but there is
39 often enough time to cover medication risks at the same level of detail as they appear in a
40 typical informed consent form, plus patients can be given or directed to printed or online sources
41 of reliable information. Furthermore, the best approaches to education differ among patients
42 and would not be optimized by a rigid structure, particularly for patients who do not have
43 functional health literacy (36% of the population).¹⁶ For research studies embedded into the
44 EHR, using medications with documented safety records, the rationale for substantially different
45 consent processes for clinical use and research investigation of approved drugs, on the basis of
46 risk, is weak.
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How Doctors Make Treatment Decisions, and Implications for Trials

Whenever possible, physicians should base their clinical decisions on high-quality evidence, adjusted to the circumstances of the patient. However, where there are inadequate data, or a patient would have been excluded from gold-standard clinical trials, the physician has no choice but to base clinical decision-making on experience, either personal or combined informally with the experience of colleagues, rather than high-quality evidence. Thus, clinical care in many settings, particularly new or rare diseases, is necessarily guided more by opinion than evidence. This situation creates risk and uncertainty. Inherent to experiential “evidence,” these decisions are likely to be biased by errors of human cognition, such as anchoring on previous bad outcomes, e.g., one patient’s severe allergic reaction to a medication making the physician averse to prescribing it to future patients.

Because the process of decision-making in clinical practice is inherently flawed, identifying methods to quantify the physician’s or the community’s experience and basing decisions on cumulative evidence should improve outcomes over time. As experience changes, practice should change accordingly. Thus, a trial that simulates good practice should be adaptive, with likelihood of assignment to a treatment group changing, in one of several possible ways, based on previous results in the trial.¹⁷

Clinical Trials with Waivers of Consent: Current Approaches

To date, IRBs have agreed to waive the requirement for informed consent for RCTs under three circumstances: trials with minimal-risk interventions that do not require additional study-specific procedures, trials that compare very similar interventions, and trials in which randomization occurs at the level of the physician or practice, rather than at the level of the individual patient (cluster randomized trials).

Examples of minimal-risk interventions are vitamin supplementation, behavioral interventions,¹⁸ and efforts to improve communication or monitoring. Many such studies include study-specific data collection and therefore require informed consent or HIPAA authorization, but if conducted as a simple study embedded in the EHR with objective outcomes, and particularly without

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3 limitations on other behaviors for study participants, they could reasonably be conducted without
4 consent.
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8 For medications or other interventions that confer risk, the only studies approved with a waiver
9 of consent thus far have compared extremely similar interventions that are both considered
10 standard of care: two ways of delivering insulin,¹⁹ or two thiazide diuretics (NCT02185417).
11 Even an innovative pragmatic study of two doses of aspirin (NCT02697916) involved a typical
12 informed consent form (facilitated by an online option) and on-site study staff, and therefore will
13 cost \$17 million. There is disagreement about whether a trial may be considered “minimal risk”
14 if it compares two different standards-of-care that are thought to have similar quantitative risks
15 or risk/benefit ratios.^{14 15} Some have regarded qualitative differences in risk (e.g., one
16 medication causes fatigue and another causes nausea) as sufficient reason to require consent,⁷
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15 whereas others focus on the presence of protocolized limitations on other aspects of care or
behavior as a key criterion to require consent, which is the stance that we share.¹⁴

Cluster randomization has been used, especially for minimal risk interventions in which the
outcome is best expressed or evaluated at the group level, e.g., public health interventions,
strategies for implementation, and evaluation of institutional policies. For interventions involving
risk or a high probability of benefit to individual patients,²⁰ there should be a compelling reason
that the intervention must be made on a group level, rather than just as a mechanism for
avoiding informed consent requirements when the research question is one that should normally
require individual consent. The more risk or benefit to individual patients that is involved, the
more ethically problematic it is to conduct a cluster-randomized trial,²⁰ especially if patients are
not told they are participants in a clinical trial^{21 22} or if physicians are required to participate.

Two Real-World Examples....

Clinical trials in the US are usually conducted in large, academic research institutions.
Prescribing that does occur outside of trials generates only poor-quality evidence, and collection
of data about effectiveness is slower than it could be.

Hydroxychloroquine for COVID-19. A recent example is the early use of hydroxychloroquine for
the treatment of COVID-19; although academic medical centers tended to recommend its use in

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3 a clinical trial setting,¹² given the clinical risk/benefit assessment completed by many clinicians,
4 the medication was widely prescribed despite limited evidence. Thus, the impact of regulatory
5 barriers for research was to encourage use outside of a trial, ultimately slowing evidence
6 generation. If, alternatively, an EQuIPT design had been used, more sites and patients could
7 have participated, and high-quality evidence been generated more quickly, ultimately saving
8 time, resources, and speeding the review of other more effective agents.
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14 *Antibiotic Prophylaxis in Immunosuppressed Patients.* Prophylaxis to prevent *Pneumocystis*
15 *jirovecii* pneumonia (PJP) is widely recommended in patients who will be “highly
16 immunosuppressed” for “many months,” although those terms are not specifically defined or
17 delineated, and the medications used for prophylaxis bring risk of significant toxicity. At lower
18 levels of immunosuppression with a wide range of drugs, it is unclear and controversial when
19 PJP prophylaxis should be initiated or discontinued, resulting in variable practice patterns. An
20 EQuIPT trial based purely on PJP prophylaxis in moderately immunosuppressed patients could
21 be performed to answer this long-standing question. The trial would likely take many years, due
22 to the low event rates associated with prophylaxis (including mild or severe hypersensitivity
23 reactions, kidney injury, *Clostridioides difficile* infection) and with lack of prophylaxis (PJP), but
24 EQuIPT trials are amenable to long durations and collection of multiple important endpoints
25 once informatics tools are working smoothly.
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34 35 36 **Adaptive Designs of EQuIPT Trials** 37

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39 In order for risk to continue to mirror that of clinical care, and to achieve a smooth transition from
40 evidence-gathering to implementation, a core element of EQuIPT designs is the concept that
41 the probability of intervention assignment changes based on previously collected results. This
42 approach, whether or not it involves randomization, mimics decision-making made in usual
43 clinical care, which is often anchored on experience and expert opinion, both of which evolve.
44 EQuIPT aims to quantify the results of this experience and use it to guide evolution of practice
45 rationally.
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52 We regard use of an adaptive design as essential to regarding a trial as conferring minimal risk
53 beyond what is inherent in clinical practice, because practice should change as new data are
54 obtained. In contrast, there is not a sound reason that the design must mimic the typical
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3 decision-making processes of physicians, as long as such a design does not confer additional
4 risk.
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7 8 *Probability-based: adaptive randomization* 9

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11 In adaptive randomization, the probabilities of randomization to different arms change based on
12 the positive or negative outcomes seen previously in the trial in a Bayesian manner. At the
13 onset of the study, the probability need not be an arbitrarily chosen 0.5. Probabilities to use at
14 the start of a period of adaptive randomization could be determined by polling of physicians or
15 content experts, collection of data on medication use in practice, making an estimate based on
16 the literature, or the novel approaches we will describe in the next sections.
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22 Although no practicing physician would make a decision by using a random number and a
23 probability between 0 and 1, it could be appropriate for a trial algorithm to make such an
24 assignment as mimicking the behavior of the medical community. For example, if 70% of
25 physicians would choose treatment A based on what is known so far, then giving that treatment
26 assignment a probability of 0.7 is similar to a patient randomly selecting a provider and receiving
27 the typical care provided by that practitioner.¹ Determining how that probability should change
28 as results are obtained includes several options, such as randomized play-the-winner,
29 contextualized multi-armed bandit, and others.¹⁷
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36 *Most recently successful strategy* 37

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39 “Recency bias” is a tendency to make decisions on the basis of one’s most recent experience.
40 However, in the setting of having little indication to prefer one approach over another, basing the
41 next decision on the most recent result, or a string of results, is reasonable and is defensible to
42 incorporate into a trial design, especially in a very small trial or early in a trial that will use a
43 different mechanism when more data are available. This is the original “play the winner” design,
44 but we refer to it as “most recent” to distinguish it from the “randomized play the winner” and
45 “winning strategy” approaches. Depending on the clinical event being assessed, a “most recent”
46 design could either give the treatment that succeeded most recently, or the opposite of the
47 treatment that failed most recently.
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55 *Use the winning strategy* 56 57

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5 This approach is easiest to defend as not requiring consent for research because it is based on
6 data and does not involve randomization: the treatment that is working better so far in the study
7 is assigned. The decision-making is no different than if a physician were using well-established
8 evidence or were basing the decision on experience in the absence of evidence, or were polling
9 a group of colleagues and following the majority opinion. The “winning strategy” approach is
10 most likely to be appropriate once criteria for a likely winner have been met, but more data are
11 needed to strengthen the evidence – or to call the previous results into question. Further,
12 because the transition toward the “better” treatment occurs naturally over time, and because the
13 assignment is embedded within the EHR, evidence generation and implementation are coupled,
14 potentially increasing the translation of new data into clinical practice.
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22 **Embedding**

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25 Just as use of adaptive group assignment is essential to design a trial to resemble clinical
26 practice, maximal embedding in the EHR is advisable. Addition of study-related procedures that
27 are not part of usual practice, even if they are minimal risk, invites concern that patients are
28 being asked to take additional time strictly for study purposes, or that privacy issues exceed
29 those of observational EHR-based studies that are eligible for expedited IRB review. Thus, as
30 an extension of the LHS framework, full embedding is an essential feature to integrate an
31 interventional trial into clinical practice (Table 1).³ Another benefit of the embedding is that,
32 when coupled to adaptive randomization or a “winning strategy” design, it can be viewed as an
33 implementation strategy to speed the adoption of evidence into practice. Once a study has
34 generated sufficient evidence to support a superior treatment, 100% of patients will be assigned
35 to the preferred treatment arm, and the informatics tools developed to identify patients for the
36 trial can then be used to identify patients for whom the treatment would be appropriate in clinical
37 care – a decision-support tool.
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49 **Conclusion**

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52 EQUiPT trial designs so closely resemble usual practice that they bring minimal incremental risk
53 beyond what is encountered in everyday care. The spectrum of trials for which an abbreviated
54 “opt-in” consent process during clinical care is considered appropriate by IRBs needs to move
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3 beyond comparison of extremely similar interventions toward more ambitious questions. Use of
4 sophisticated statistical analysis to analyze data and adapt treatment assignment adds rigor but
5 not risk when compared to everyday practice. Even for interventions for which evidence is
6 strong, every treatment decision is an “experimental therapy” for each patient, and the
7 likelihoods of treatment success and adverse events can only be expressed as probabilities.
8 We should want the growth of clinical knowledge to be based on solid evidence, with
9 appropriate statistical analysis employed to tell us whether our experience is likely to reflect
10 truth or random chance and to guide our future practice.
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17 A trial with adaptive assignment to groups based on previous results aims to benefit many of the
18 patients enrolled in the study, not just patients treated after publication. This mindset rejects the
19 assertion that research and clinical care are fundamentally at odds, a theme of the LHS
20 framework, and EQuIPT trials would align with a proposed ethical framework for LHS.^{7 13} Use of
21 an “opt-in” embedded in the EHR should not be a burden on providers and should improve the
22 likelihood that they will properly inform patients about the risks and uncertain benefits of
23 proposed treatments inside or outside of a trial. Would physicians enroll patients in studies of
24 clinical research questions for which EQuIPT trial designs are appropriate, or would they and
25 their patients prefer to retain all decision-making? It is easy to envision pilot studies that would
26 simultaneously address clinically important questions and assess the feasibility and
27 acceptability of EQuIPT trials (Figure 2).
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36 With embedding of all data used for eligibility and outcomes, EQuIPT studies could be
37 conducted in a much wider range of clinic settings than traditional RCTs, which, if desire to
38 improve care through trial participation is appropriately acknowledged, corrects an inequity.
39 Finally, we note that “doing nothing” is an active decision with “risk” and therefore ethical
40 implications, and not just in clinical practice.¹⁵ We need to stop quoting Hippocrates. Risk
41 exists on a spectrum, and barriers to research, evidence generation, and ultimately improving
42 clinical care, should be adopted to reflect this reality. As electronic medical data continue to
43 become more amenable to analysis, the more problematic it is if barriers remain in place to
44 prevent them from being used in the most rigorous and efficient ways possible to answer
45 important questions and advance the health of the population in ways that would not be
46 achieved otherwise.
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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Spectrum of risk associated with participation in interventional clinical research, and proposed proportional gradations in the complexity of the processes of informed consent. RCTs = randomized controlled trials. EQuIPT = embedded, quantified, integrated-into-practice trials (see main text).

Figure 2. Design of a pilot study to measure the adoption of an EQuIPT study, in addition to answering a clinical question.

Contributorship Statement:

Contributorship: Both authors (PM and WBE) contributed equally to the content, including development of ideas, literature review, writing, and review of the final manuscript. The manuscript does not involve experimental methods or acquisition of data.

Data Sharing Statement:

No additional data are available.

Patient and Public Involvement Statement:

As this is a preliminary concept and thought-generating manuscript, there was no patient or public involvement. Future formative work will include these key stakeholders.

Table 1. Essential features of EQUiPT trials.

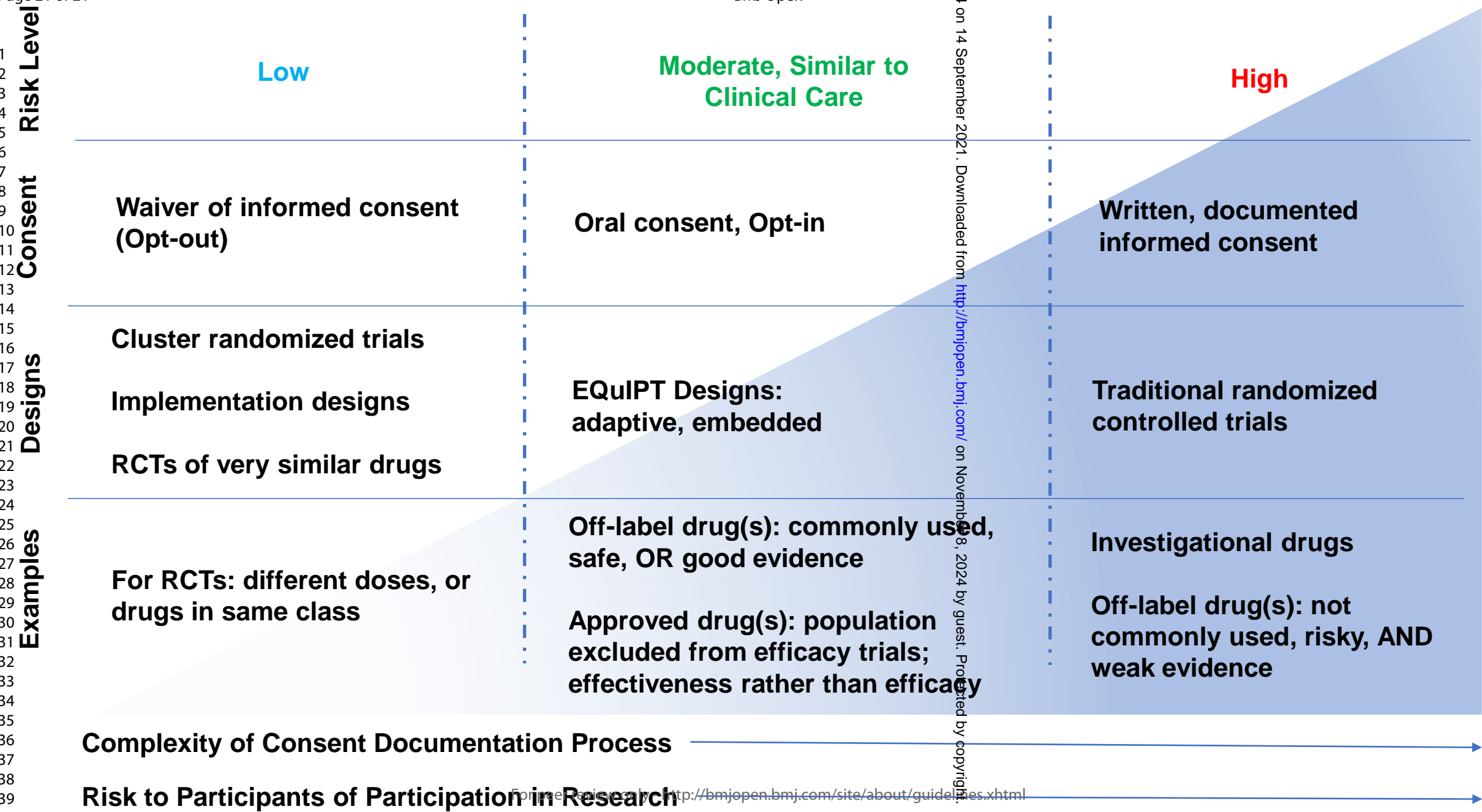
- Embedded in an electronic health record, without collection of data outside of the EHR
- Adaptive group assignment – adaptive randomization is preferred. Initial randomization probability should be based on the best available evidence (e.g., inconclusive trials, observational studies, expert opinion, or survey of physicians about their practice patterns).
- Eligibility criteria screens are conducted remotely using only EHR data, and then are confirmed or refuted by the physician at the point of care.
- Outcomes are measured remotely without involving direct contact between the research team and the patient.
- Patient is verbally informed about the risks and uncertain benefits of interventions as would occur during usual care.
- Patient is informed about the nature of the research project: it addresses a question about which the medical community and the patient's physician are uncertain.
- Opt-in by the patient and oral consent process, documented by a templated note in the EHR, i.e. the patient may decline participation and decide on treatment in discussion with the physician.
- No financial incentive to the physician or patient.
- Minimal research training required: no additional research background for the physician beyond the simple technical requirements of trial participation and patient enrollment.
- IRB / Ethics board review, project and data management, and scientific and regulatory oversight are conducted at one experienced coordinating center with other features decentralized.

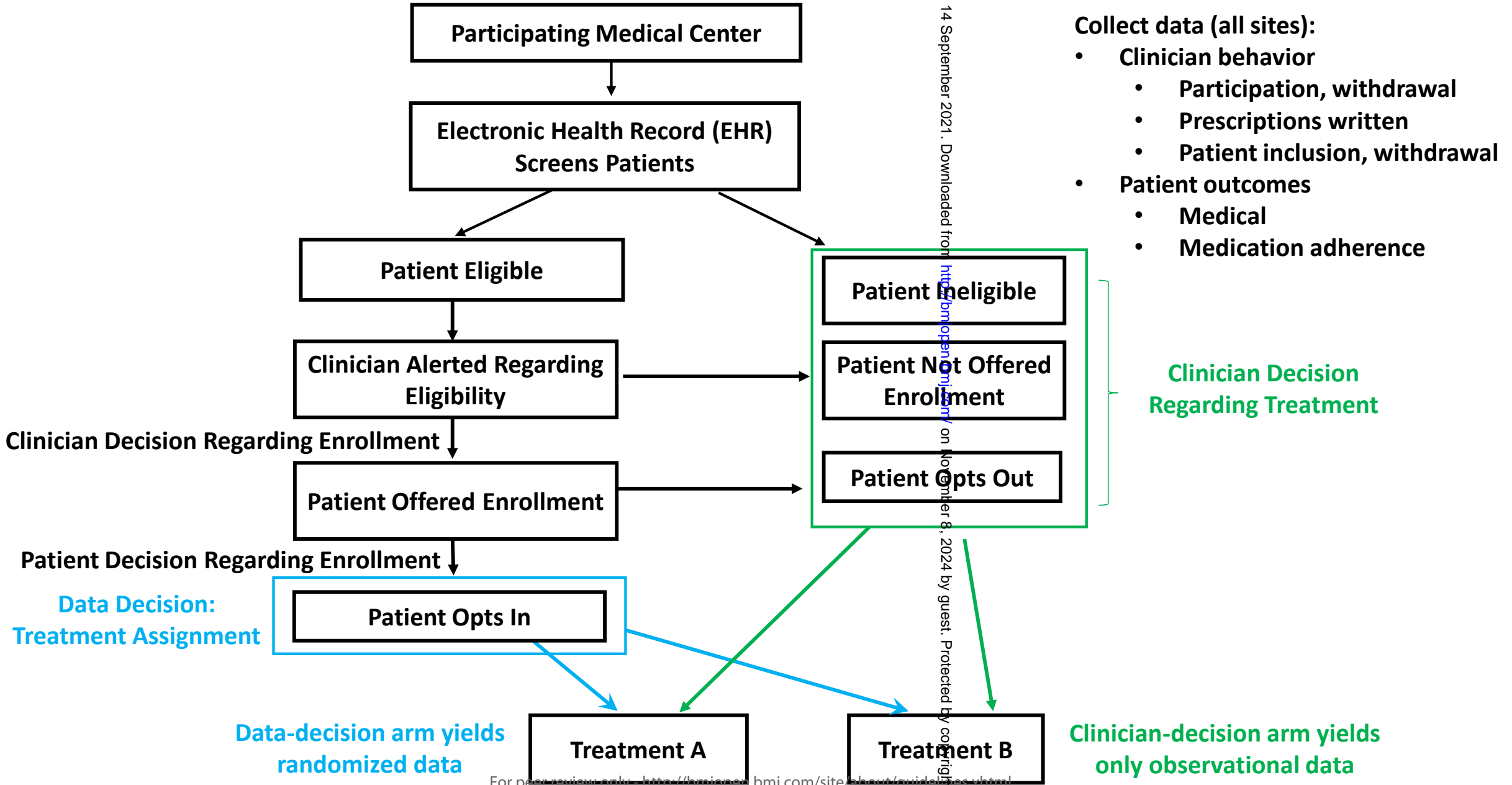
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Reconsidering “minimal risk” to expand the repertoire of trials with waiver of informed consent for research

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3 **Reconsidering “minimal risk” to expand the repertoire of trials with waiver of informed**
4 **consent for research**
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36 Running head: Adaptive clinical trials with minimal risk
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Abstract

Background: Progress in therapeutics research is slowed by the regulatory burden of clinical trials, which provide the best evidence for guiding treatment. There is a long delay from evidence-generation to adoption, highlighting the need for designs that link evidence-generation to implementation.

Objective: To identify clinical trial designs that confer minimal risk above that inherent in clinical care, to obviate the need for cumbersome consenting processes to enroll patients in prospective clinical research studies. These designs extend the scope of the Learning Healthcare System, a framework for leveraging retrospective “big data” to advance clinical research, to include data collected from prospective controlled trials.

Summary: Pragmatic trials may use simplified eligibility criteria, unblinded interventions, and objective outcomes measures that can all be monitored through the EHR, to reduce costs and speed study conduct. Most pragmatic trials continue to suffer from substantial regulatory burden. Written consent to participate in research can be waived only if the research produces minimal risk above what is encountered in everyday life. However, the “consent” processes for prescribing Federal Drug Administration-approved medications in clinical medicine are informal, even when they involve decisions of uncertain benefit and higher levels of risk.

We propose that trial designs that mimic clinical decision-making in areas of uncertainty (clinical equipoise) and in which no data are generated outside of usual care (ideally by EHR embedding) confer minimal additional risk. Trial designs meeting this standard could therefore be conducted with minimal documentation of consent, even when interventions contain different risks. To align with risk encountered in clinical practice, allocation to treatment arms should change (adaptive randomization) as data are collected and analyzed. Embedding of informatics tools into the EHR has the additional benefit that, as adaptive randomization progresses, evidence-generation transitions into implementation via decision-support tools – the ultimate realization of the Learning Healthcare System.

Introduction

The current approach to conducting randomized clinical trials (RCT) in the US is widely regarded as overly complex, inefficient, and expensive.^{1 2} The concept of *pragmatic trials* was developed to reduce these barriers and provide data about effectiveness in real-world settings. Features of pragmatic designs may include simplified eligibility criteria, straightforward outcome measures, avoidance of placebo controls, and maximal use of electronic health records (EHR) to screen for eligible subjects and collect data on outcomes and adverse events in an automated manner.^{1 3}

Use of pragmatic designs facilitated by the EHR is aligned with the premise of the Learning Healthcare System (LHS) framework, in which the generation and analysis of data to improve care are considered an ethical imperative.⁴ The LHS focuses on “capturing data at the clinical encounter and using those data to inform ongoing clinical and community practice.”⁵ A LHS would leverage electronic data for continuous quality improvement as a mechanism to combine the generation of evidence with implementation, but as currently conceived would be limited to observational data. Bartlett *et al* found that observational “big data” could feasibly replace only 15% of RCT findings using currently available EHR data;⁶ thus, realization of the LHS to truly advance care must include *prospective* in addition to retrospective data collection.

Improvement in efficiency and reduction in costs theoretically achievable through pragmatic trial designs are usually limited by a requirement to obtain written informed consent by a credentialed member of a research team, and often also by authorization to obtain and use protected health information from each study subject. If the nature of the study requires study staff to be present on-site, then cost is expected to increase dramatically, and participation is likely to be limited to large academic medical centers or healthcare systems with existing research infrastructure, as is true of conventional approaches to conduct of trials.⁷

Institutional review boards (IRBs) or ethics committees regard risk as binary (minimal or more-than-minimal), and *risks associated with interventions* are often inappropriately conflated with the *risks of participation in research*. Although there is disagreement on the subject, it is our

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4 opinion that participation in a comparative effectiveness study of two drugs approved by
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6 regulatory agencies such as the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA), with long track
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8 records for safety does not necessarily confer substantial additional risk, depending on whether
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10 an adaptive design is used and whether data are collected solely for study purposes. Study of
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12 FDA-approved drugs used off-label may or may not confer risk beyond that of usual care,
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14 depending on how widely the drug is used off-label in the community. Studies of new,
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16 unapproved medications with prospect for harm should continue to be conducted through the
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18 typical process of oversight by IRBs and the FDA (or analogous agencies in other countries)
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20 including documented informed consent. There is thus a spectrum of research questions for
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22 which a graded approach to regulatory oversight and documentation would be appropriate.⁸ For
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24 many circumstances in which the FDA would not require an Investigational New Drug
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26 application, a streamlined process for consent and its documentation process could be used.
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34 To facilitate the extension of the LHS framework to include prospective trials, we propose a set
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36 of trial features that would allow such streamlined processes. The designs themselves are not
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38 novel, but represent a move from regarding risk and informed consent as binary to viewing risk
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40 of participation in research as occurring on a spectrum,⁸ with the complexity of the consent
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42 process varying accordingly (Figure 1). Our call for simplified approaches to obtain and
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44 document informed consent is not new.⁸ We suspect that a major reason these calls have not
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46 been heeded despite use of terms such as “urgent” and “crisis” repeatedly since at least 2014¹
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48 is that the case has not focused on identifying the widest range of trials that can be considered
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50 “minimal risk,” amidst multiple other reasons that trials are cumbersome and difficult to
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52 participate in, both for the patient and the provider.¹
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60 A true LHS should not only gather and analyze data but use it to improve care. Translation of
evidence into practice is a major challenge, with an average 17-year lag between the time
evidence is generated until it is adopted in clinical practice.⁹ Although pragmatic trials focus on
generation of real-world clinical evidence, considerations for future implementation of advances

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3 into usual care are often lacking. Hybrid study designs,^{10 11} which include both clinical and
4 implementation outcomes, partially address this gap but are highly complex and typically require
5 research teams with expertise in both clinical trials and implementation science, and thus are
6 expensive and challenging to conduct. Thus, there is a major need to link evidence generation
7 to implementation using the same informatics tools, to speed improvements in bedside care.
8 The broader the range of participating sites in trials, the broader the reach of linked
9 implementation strategies will be.
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16 The core of our argument is that a much broader range of clinical trials could be performed
17 using greatly simplified procedures for informed consent, because participation would confer
18 minimal additional risk *beyond what is inherent in usual clinical care*. Whether the acronym
19 catches on or not, we will refer to such trials as “Embedded, Quantified, Integrated-into-Practice
20 Trials” (EQUIPT), since an abbreviation is needed within this Commentary.
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26 Our target audience is above all the Institutional Review Boards (IRBs) and ethics committees
27 that oversee research on human subjects, but in addition, the approach we advocate will only
28 succeed if physicians and patients choose to participate. Our hope is that physicians, patients,
29 and institutional leaders who see the value in EQUIPT trials will provide essential advocacy to
30 turn the concept into reality.¹²
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35 The argument we present will be:
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- 38 1. Facilitating the conduct of controlled clinical trials is an ethical issue, in terms of increasing
39 the pace of the advance of knowledge, expanding the range of locations where patients can
40 enroll in trials, and increasing the pace at which advances are implemented in practice.
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- 44 2. Existing US regulations would permit IRBs to interpret risk more liberally than they have
45 traditionally done, i.e. there are no statutory nor regulatory barriers in the US.
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- 49 3. Treatment decisions in usual clinical practice contain considerable risk but usually do not
50 specify a process analogous to informed consent for research.
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3 4. A clinical trial that confers minimal risk beyond what is experienced in everyday care should
4 mimic good practice by changing quickly in response to new information as it is obtained. The
5 most rigorous, and well-established, way to do this is adaptive randomization.
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9 5. “Embedding” of trial-related data and simple “opt-in” consent processes in an EHR is not
10 essential from the perspective of ethics, but it is highly desirable for minimizing the burden on
11 physicians and patients, and, in the US, for avoiding the need for separate consent related to
12 the privacy of medical records. Embedding would also allow seamless transition from trial
13 results to implementation.
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17 18 19 **Personal perspective** 20

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22 We were motivated to explore the possibility of simplifying the processes of informed consent
23 based primarily on our experience running a clinical trial during the emergency circumstances of
24 the COVID-19 pandemic [NCT04359901].¹³ The power of leveraging the Veterans Affairs (VA)
25 EHR for screening, randomization, medication dispensing, and data collection was obvious – we
26 saw the prospect of a LHS. The barrier we encountered was in the unnecessarily complicated
27 informed consent process.¹⁴ Ironically, our trial would not have qualified for the abbreviated
28 consent process we advocate in this paper, because it conferred risk on participants. However,
29 our additional experience serving on an IRB and participating in other clinical trials and in
30 implementation science meant that we were primed to explore ways that pragmatic trials could
31 be performed more efficiently without compromising ethics. For one of us (PM), the (in)ability to
32 enroll patients in studies has depended entirely on the (lack of) availability of study staff paid
33 directly from funding for that specific study, and on the (lack of) availability of research space,
34 and on being (un)able to place limits on the numbers of patients scheduled in clinic sessions.
35 Finally, in our clinical practices, we need to either devise treatments for multi-drug-resistant
36 infections in patients following organ transplantation (WBE) or use off-label immunosuppressive
37 drugs for patients with rare inflammatory diseases (PM), otherwise patients will die. Many of our
38 practice decisions are based on anecdotal evidence – including personal experience – because
39 it is not feasible to conduct traditional RCTs to determine the best strategies for a wide range of
40 research questions in rare diseases.
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53 54 **Access to Interventional Trials as an Ethical Issue** 55 56 57

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3 Many clinically relevant questions can only be answered through clinical trials. Barriers to
4 conduct of trials, including the requirement for a detailed and complex written informed consent
5 process, reduce the number and range of trials that can be done and therefore slow progress in
6 quality of care. Laborious processes for consent and data-collection also create a barrier to
7 individual patients' access to trials, because only large academic centers or healthcare systems
8 with existing and expensive research infrastructures are likely to be able to participate.¹⁵
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14 Separately, the long-standing assertion that clinical research should be independent of clinical
15 care is disputed by advocates of the LHS,¹⁶ and the assertion that clinical trials should not be
16 designed with the hope of giving benefit to participants is equally antiquated.
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20 Although patients should be discouraged from *expecting* benefit in a trial testing a research
21 question with appropriate clinical equipoise, it is naïve to believe that even the best-informed
22 patients enroll in trials with the primary goal of advancing science and helping others. There are
23 many circumstances in clinical medicine where a patient has no option for treatment other than
24 an unproven treatment or an experimental drug. If such treatment is only available in a clinical
25 trial done at a limited number of sites, there is inequity that may be unavoidable. However,
26 many important questions about clinical management do not involve new drugs with unproven
27 safety and adverse event profiles.
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34 Under circumstances where multiple treatment options are available, a trial may still aim to
35 identify which treatment is better or better-tolerated and therefore provide benefit to at least
36 some participants: a design in which probability of assigned treatment changes based on results
37 in the trial to-date offers potential benefit to patients enrolling later in the trial if one of the
38 treatments turns out to be superior. Expanding the number and type of sites that can
39 participate, most conveniently through a shared EHR but possible through other methods of
40 simplification and electronic data-capture, therefore extends the range of patients who can
41 benefit from participation. Designing a trial to include informatics tools that can be readily
42 adapted to promote implementation of advances confers an ethical benefit in speeding
43 improvement in care for future patients.
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52 **US Regulations on Informed Consent and Privacy in Research**

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We provide a detailed discussion of the relevant US regulations in the Supplementary text. The only challenging case to make is that a controlled trial of therapeutics can impose only “minimal risk.”^{17 18} Per US regulations [45 CFR 46.102(j), 21 CFR 50.3(k)], “*Minimal risk* means that the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.” We propose that in modern medicine, prescription drugs constitute “daily life” and have often been proved to do more good than harm – a standard that many physical examination maneuvers and tests would not meet assuming the physician takes action on perceived abnormal findings.

The Risks of Usual Clinical Care

Many prescription medications, and certainly all medical procedures, carry “significant risk” as would be defined by clinical *research* standards. Currently, only invasive procedures and some intravenous treatments require written consent in usual care. If the standards of informed consent for research were to be applied to everyday clinical practice, every prescription would require a lengthy discussion and a signature on a form.

Effective physicians attempt to inform patients adequately about known risks, unknown risks, and uncertain benefits of the treatments they are recommending. There is insufficient time during a 20-minute appointment to review the entire FDA-approved package insert, but there is often enough time to cover medication risks at the same level of detail as they appear in a typical informed consent form, plus patients can be given or directed to printed or online sources of reliable information. Furthermore, the best approaches to education differ among patients and would not be optimized by a rigid structure, particularly for patients who do not have functional health literacy (36% of the US population).¹⁹ For research studies embedded into the EHR, using medications with documented safety records, the rationale for substantially different consent processes for clinical use and research investigation of approved drugs, on the basis of risk, is weak.

How Doctors Make Treatment Decisions, and Implications for Trials

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3 Whenever possible, physicians should base their clinical decisions on high-quality evidence,
4 adjusted to the circumstances of the patient. However, where there are inadequate data, or a
5 patient would have been excluded from gold-standard clinical trials, the physician has no choice
6 but to base clinical decision-making on experience, either personal or combined informally with
7 the experience of colleagues, rather than high-quality evidence. Thus, clinical care in many
8 settings, particularly new or rare diseases, is necessarily guided more by opinion than evidence.
9 This situation creates risk and uncertainty. Inherent to experiential “evidence,” these decisions
10 are likely to be biased by errors of human cognition, such as anchoring on previous bad
11 outcomes, e.g., one patient’s severe allergic reaction to a medication making the physician
12 averse to prescribing it to future patients.
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20 Because the process of decision-making in clinical practice is inherently flawed, identifying
21 methods to quantify the physician’s or the community’s experience and basing decisions on
22 cumulative evidence should improve outcomes over time. As experience changes, practice
23 should change accordingly. Thus, a trial that simulates good practice should be *adaptive*, with
24 likelihood of assignment to a treatment group changing, in one of several possible ways, based
25 on previous results in the trial.²⁰
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31 **Adaptive Designs for Minimal-Risk Trials**

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34 In order for risk to mirror that of clinical care, and to achieve a smooth transition from
35 evidence-gathering to implementation, a core element of EQUiPT designs is that intervention
36 assignment changes based on previously collected results. This approach, whether or not it
37 involves randomization, mimics decision-making made in usual clinical care, which is often
38 anchored on experience and expert opinion, both of which evolve. EQUiPT aims to quantify the
39 results of this experience and use it to guide evolution of practice rationally.
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46 Different approaches for assignment to adapt are described in the Supplementary text. The
47 most rigorous of these is adaptive randomization, in which the probabilities of randomization to
48 different arms change based on the positive or negative outcomes seen previously in the trial in
49 a Bayesian manner. At the onset of the study, the probability need not be an arbitrarily chosen
50 0.5. Probabilities to use at the start of a period of adaptive randomization could be determined
51 by polling of physicians or content experts, collection of data on medication use in practice,
52 making an estimate based on the literature, or other methods.
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5 We regard use of some type of adaptive design as essential to regarding a trial as conferring
6 minimal risk beyond what is inherent in clinical practice, because practice should change as
7 new data are obtained. In contrast, there is not a sound reason that the design must mimic the
8 typical decision-making processes of physicians, as long as such a design does not confer
9 additional risk.
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14 **Embedding**

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17 Just as use of adaptive group assignment is essential to design a trial to resemble clinical
18 practice, maximal embedding in the EHR is advisable. Addition of study-related procedures that
19 are not part of usual practice, even if they are minimal risk, invites concern that patients are
20 being asked to take additional time strictly for study purposes, or that privacy issues exceed
21 those of observational EHR-based studies that are eligible for expedited IRB review. Thus, as
22 an extension of the LHS framework, full embedding is the ideal way to integrate an
23 interventional trial into clinical practice (Table 1).³ Another benefit of the embedding is that,
24 when coupled to adaptive randomization or a “winning strategy” design, it can be viewed as an
25 implementation strategy to speed the adoption of evidence into practice. Once a study has
26 generated sufficient evidence to support a superior treatment, 100% of patients will be assigned
27 to the preferred treatment arm, and the informatics tools developed to identify patients for the
28 trial can then be used to identify patients for whom the treatment would be appropriate in clinical
29 care – a decision-support tool.
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39 **Clinical Trials with Waivers of Consent: Examples of Expanding the Range**

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42 To date, IRBs have agreed to waive the requirement for informed consent for RCTs under three
43 circumstances: trials with minimal-risk interventions that do not require additional study-specific
44 procedures, trials that compare very similar interventions, and trials in which randomization
45 occurs at the level of the physician or practice, rather than at the level of the individual patient
46 (cluster randomized trials). More details are provided in the Supplementary text. Here, we
47 provide examples where clinical effectiveness of drugs could have been or could still be
48 assessed in the form of prospective clinical trials conferring minimal incremental risk, rather than
49 generating flawed, uncontrolled data.
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3 *Hydroxychloroquine for COVID-19.* A recent example is the early use of hydroxychloroquine for
4 the treatment of COVID-19; although academic medical centers tended to recommend its use
5 only in a clinical trial setting,¹⁵ given the clinical risk/benefit estimated by many clinicians, the
6 medication was widely prescribed despite limited evidence. Thus, the impact of regulatory
7 barriers for research was to encourage use outside of a trial, ultimately slowing evidence
8 generation. If, alternatively, adaptive designs with simple, objective criteria and outcomes had
9 been used, more sites and patients could have participated, and high-quality evidence could
10 have been generated more quickly, ultimately saving time, resources, and speeding the review
11 of other, more effective agents.
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19 *Antibiotic Prophylaxis in Immunosuppressed Patients.* Prophylaxis to prevent *Pneumocystis*
20 *jirovecii* pneumonia (PJP) is widely recommended in patients who will be “highly
21 immunosuppressed” for “many months,” although those terms are not specifically defined, and
22 the medications used for prophylaxis bring risk of significant toxicity. At lower levels of
23 immunosuppression with a wide range of drugs, it is unclear and controversial when PJP
24 prophylaxis should be initiated or discontinued, resulting in variable practice patterns. An
25 EQuIPT trial of PJP prophylaxis in moderately immunosuppressed patients could be performed
26 to answer this long-standing question. The trial would likely take many years, due to the low
27 event rates associated with prophylaxis (including mild or severe hypersensitivity reactions,
28 kidney injury, *Clostridioides difficile* infection) and with lack of prophylaxis (PJP), but EQuIPT
29 trials are amenable to long durations and collection of multiple important endpoints once
30 informatics tools are working smoothly.
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40 *Colchicine for Primary Prevention of Cardiovascular Events.* In the Supplementary text, we
41 outline practical details of how such a study could be done within the US Veterans Affairs
42 healthcare system.
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46 **Limitations**

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49 Above all, our argument will face an uphill battle with the essential gate-keepers: IRBs and
50 ethics committees. However, for the EQuIPT approach to succeed, physicians will also need to
51 develop the mindset that by relinquishing their autonomy under appropriate circumstances, they
52 may deliver better care for their patients. Patients will need to be convinced that a doctor who
53 acknowledges uncertainty is not inferior to a doctor who speaks with great confidence, and that
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3 enrollment in a trial could improve care for that patient, although the physician should downplan
4 that possibility. The processes of abbreviated opt-in consent will only be used by physicians in
5 the US if they add very little time to a clinic visit. Some institutions may reasonably require an
6 electronic signature rather than accepting the provider's check-mark for consent to enroll, but
7 the process for obtaining the signature and documenting its having been obtained must be
8 simple.
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14 In order to ensure that patients are not enrolled inappropriately, prospects for abuse must be
15 sought and removed, such as monetary incentives for physicians to enroll patients. Making
16 enrollment in a study mandatory could only be entertained if at least one of the treatments being
17 studied truly could not be prescribed outside of the trial. The scope of research questions will
18 be limited to eligibility criteria and outcomes for which algorithms with high positive predictive
19 value can be developed, and by the essential feature that participation will not constrain other
20 aspect of patients' medical care and behavior any more than it would in usual care.
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27 It may be argued that a signature from a patient is a critical guarantee that the patient wished to
28 participate. We argue strongly that the presence of a signature, with or without an approved
29 consent form, provides no guarantee that the patient understands the study, nor even that the
30 informed consent process was conducted properly. The fact that study participants often have
31 little understanding of the studies in which they have enrolled probably represents an amalgam
32 of insufficient health knowledge and inadequate consent discussions.²¹ Finally, our proposal is
33 obviously focused on the US, and even within the US, it is most appealing in healthcare
34 systems with shared EHRs. Other countries may have regulations that define "minimal risk"
35 more stringently, or have privacy laws that would disallow removal of data from records without
36 consent even if individual patients cannot be identified. In low- and middle-income countries,
37 strategies already being used for pragmatic trials – simple eligibility criteria, objective outcomes,
38 low burden for data collection, and innovative use of app-based systems - may be the
39 cornerstone of successful trial conduct if EHRs are not available either for remote data
40 collection or for checking accuracy.²² While the access issue would not be entirely resolved, it
41 would be improved, and expanding use of EHRs should lead to additional improvements over
42 time. For trials that fall into the middle range in the spectrum of risk, i.e. EQUiPT, the mindset
43 that a discussion between provider and patient about participation in this type of study differs
44 little from a discussion about different treatment options should facilitate communication.
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Conclusion

EQUIPT trial designs so closely resemble usual practice that they bring minimal incremental risk beyond what is encountered in everyday care. The spectrum of trials for which an abbreviated “opt-in” consent process during clinical care is considered appropriate by IRBs needs to move beyond comparison of extremely similar interventions toward more ambitious questions. Use of sophisticated statistical analysis to analyze data and adapt treatment assignment adds rigor but not risk when compared to everyday practice. Even for interventions for which evidence is strong, every treatment decision is an “experimental therapy” for each patient, and the likelihoods of treatment success and adverse events can only be expressed as probabilities. Practicing physicians should want the growth of clinical knowledge to be based on solid evidence, with appropriate statistical analysis employed to tell us whether our experience is likely to reflect truth or random chance and to guide our future practice.

A trial with adaptive assignment to groups based on previous results aims to benefit many of the patients enrolled in the study, not just patients treated after publication. This mindset rejects the assertion that research and clinical care are fundamentally at odds, a theme of the LHS framework, and EQUIPT trials would align with a proposed ethical framework for LHS.^{7 16} Use of an “opt-in” embedded in the EHR should not be a burden on providers and should improve the likelihood that they will properly inform patients about the risks and uncertain benefits of proposed treatments inside or outside of a trial. Would physicians enroll patients in studies of clinical research questions for which EQUIPT trial designs are appropriate, or would they and their patients prefer to retain all decision-making? It is easy to envision pilot studies that would simultaneously address clinically important questions and assess the feasibility and acceptability of EQUIPT trials (Figure 2).

With embedding of all data used for eligibility and outcomes, EQUIPT studies could be conducted in a much wider range of clinic settings than traditional RCTs, which, if desire to improve care through trial participation is appropriately acknowledged, corrects an inequity. Finally, we note that “doing nothing” is an active decision with “risk” and therefore ethical implications.¹⁸ Risk exists on a spectrum, and unnecessary barriers to evidence generation should be removed to reflect this reality. As electronic medical data continue to become more amenable to analysis, the more problematic it is if barriers remain in place to prevent them from

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being used in the most rigorous and efficient ways possible to answer important questions and advance the health of the population in ways that would not be achieved otherwise.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Spectrum of risk associated with participation in interventional clinical research, and proposed proportional gradations in the complexity of the processes of informed consent. RCTs = randomized controlled trials. EQuIPT = embedded, quantified, integrated-into-practice trials (see main text).

Figure 2. Design of a pilot study to measure the adoption of an EQuIPT study, in addition to answering a clinical question.

Contributorship Statement:

Contributorship: Both authors (PM and WBE) contributed equally to the content, including development of ideas, literature review, writing, and review of the final manuscript. The manuscript does not involve experimental methods or acquisition of data.

Data Sharing Statement:

No additional data are available.

Patient and Public Involvement Statement:

As this is a preliminary concept and thought-generating manuscript, there was no patient or public involvement. Future formative work will include these key stakeholders.

Table 1. Essential features of EQUiPT trials.

- Embedded in an electronic health record, without collection of data outside of the EHR
- Adaptive group assignment – adaptive randomization is preferred. Initial randomization probability should be based on the best available evidence (e.g., inconclusive trials, observational studies, expert opinion, or survey of physicians about their practice patterns).
- Eligibility criteria screens are conducted remotely using only EHR data, and then are confirmed or refuted by the physician at the point of care.
- Outcomes are measured remotely without involving direct contact between the research team and the patient.
- Patient is verbally informed about the risks and uncertain benefits of interventions as would occur during usual care.
- Patient is informed about the nature of the research project: it addresses a question about which the medical community and the patient's physician are uncertain.
- Opt-in by the patient and oral consent process, documented by a templated note in the EHR, i.e. the patient may decline participation and decide on treatment in discussion with the physician.
- No financial incentive to the physician or patient.
- Minimal research training required: no additional research background for the physician beyond the simple technical requirements of trial participation and patient enrollment.
- IRB / Ethics board review, project and data management, and scientific and regulatory oversight are conducted at one experienced coordinating center with other features decentralized.

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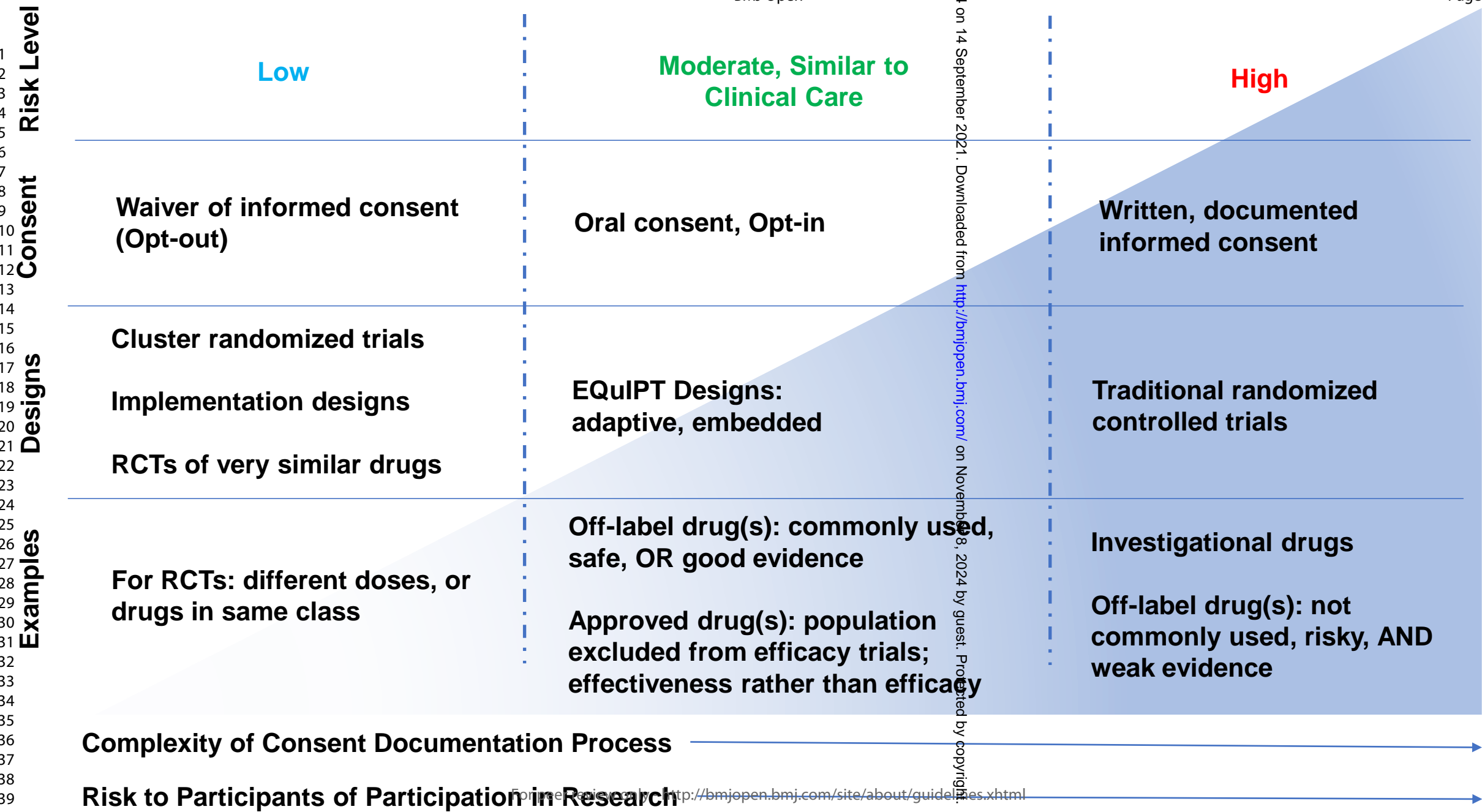
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Clinician Decision Regarding Enrollment

Patient Decision Regarding Enrollment

Data Decision:
Treatment Assignment

Data-decision arm yields
randomized data

Collect data (all sites):

- Clinician behavior
 - Participation, withdrawal
 - Prescriptions written
 - Patient inclusion, withdrawal
- Patient outcomes
 - Medical
 - Medication adherence

Clinician Decision
Regarding Treatment

Clinician-decision arm yields
only observational data

Participating Medical Center

Electronic Health Record (EHR)
Screens Patients

Patient Eligible

Patient Ineligible

Clinician Alerted Regarding
Eligibility

Patient Not Offered
Enrollment

Patient Offered Enrollment

Patient Opts Out

Patient Opts In

Treatment A

Treatment B

SUPPLEMENTARY TEXT

US Regulations on Informed Consent and Privacy in Research

Two sets of regulations govern the need to obtain informed consent for research in the US: 45 CFR Part 46 (containing the Department of Health and Human Services' "Common Rule," revised 2018) and 21 CFR Parts 50 and 56 (Food and Drug Administration, FDA), for studies that involve use of FDA-regulated products, even if no Investigational New Drug application or Investigational Device Exemption is required. The need for informed consent can be waived or altered by an Institutional Review Board (IRB) if all criteria listed in section 46.116(f)(3) of the Common Rule are met:

- (i) The research involves no more than minimal risk to the subjects;
- (ii) The research could not practicably be carried out without the requested waiver or alteration;
- (iii) If the research involves using identifiable private information or identifiable biospecimens, the research could not practicably be carried out without using such information or biospecimens in an identifiable format;
- (iv) The waiver or alteration will not adversely affect the rights and welfare of the subjects; and
- (v) Whenever appropriate, the subjects or legally authorized representatives will be provided with additional pertinent information after participation.

Rules for the *documentation* of informed consent are found in section 46.117. However, if only a waiver of the requirement for documentation (i.e. a signed informed consent form) is sought, then the usual 9 specific "Basic" elements of informed consent in 46.116(b) and 8-9 specific additional elements of informed consent in 46.116(c) must be included in the consent process, which must also be conducted using the 6 General requirements in 46.116(a).

In contrast, FDA regulations for IRB review (21 CFR 56.109) provide circumstances for waiver of *documentation* of informed consent (again with the criterion of "no more than minimal risk"), but do not yet include provisions for waiver of *consent* itself, except in the setting of life-threatening emergencies (50.23 and 50.24).¹ However, in a step toward reconciliation with the revised Common Rule after passage of the 21st Century Cures Act in 2016, the FDA issued a

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3 Guidance in 2017 entitled “IRB Waiver or Alteration of Informed Consent for Clinical
4 Investigations Involving No More Than Minimal Risk to Human Subjects,” containing criteria
5 virtually identical to those in the Common Rule.
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9 In addition to documenting informed consent, persons who enroll in research studies in the US
10 also typically provide written authorization for collection and use of their Protected Health
11 Information (PHI), in compliance with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of
12 1996 (HIPAA), which includes a Privacy Rule described in 45 CFR Part 164. An IRB or Privacy
13 Board may approve a waiver of authorization [164.512(i)(1)(i)] if specific criteria are met
14 [164.512(i)(2)(ii)]: no more than a minimal risk to the privacy of individuals, including adequate
15 plans to protect identifiers from improper use, reuse, retention, or disclosure; inability to
16 practicably conduct the research without a waiver; and inability to practicably conduct the
17 research without use of PHI.
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25 It is easy to demonstrate that inexpensive pragmatic trials cannot be conducted without the
26 waiver of written consent (criteria ii and iii). As long as participation is voluntary and research
27 questions have clinical equipoise, the studies will not adversely affect the rights and welfare of
28 subjects (criterion iv), and linkage of trial results to implementation ensures that patients may be
29 informed of results (criterion v). The only challenging case to make is that a controlled trial of
30 therapeutics imposes “minimal risk.”^{2 3} Per US regulations [45 CFR 46.102(j), 21 CFR 50.3(k)],
31 “*Minimal risk* means that the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the
32 research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or
33 during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.” We propose
34 that in modern medicine, prescription drugs constitute “daily life” and have often been proved to
35 do more good than harm – a standard that many physical examination maneuvers and tests
36 would not meet assuming the physician takes action on perceived abnormal findings.
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Adaptive Designs of EQuIPT Trials

In order for risk to mirror that of clinical care, and to achieve a smooth transition from evidence-gathering to implementation, a core element of EQuIPT designs is that intervention assignment changes based on previously collected results. This approach, whether or not it involves randomization, mimics decision-making made in usual clinical care, which is often anchored on experience and expert opinion, both of which evolve. EQuIPT aims to quantify the results of this experience and use it to guide evolution of practice rationally.

We regard use of an adaptive design as essential to regarding a trial as conferring minimal risk beyond what is inherent in clinical practice, because practice should change as new data are obtained. In contrast, there is not a sound reason that the design must mimic the typical decision-making processes of physicians, as long as such a design does not confer additional risk.

Probability-based: adaptive randomization

In adaptive randomization, the probabilities of randomization to different arms change based on the positive or negative outcomes seen previously in the trial in a Bayesian manner. At the onset of the study, the probability need not be an arbitrarily chosen 0.5. Probabilities to use at the start of a period of adaptive randomization could be determined by polling of physicians or content experts, collection of data on medication use in practice, making an estimate based on the literature, or the novel approaches we will describe in the next sections.

Although no practicing physician would make a decision by using a random number and a probability between 0 and 1, it could be appropriate for a trial algorithm to make such an assignment as mimicking the behavior of the medical community. For example, if 70% of physicians would choose treatment A based on what is known so far, then giving that treatment assignment a probability of 0.7 is similar to a patient randomly selecting a provider and receiving the typical care provided by that practitioner.⁴ Determining how that probability should change as results are obtained includes several options, such as randomized play-the-winner, contextualized multi-armed bandit, and others.⁵

Most recently successful strategy

“Recency bias” is a tendency to make decisions on the basis of one’s most recent experience. However, in the setting of having little indication to prefer one approach over another, basing the next decision on the most recent result, or a string of results, is reasonable and is defensible to incorporate into a trial design, especially in a very small trial or early in a trial that will use a different mechanism when more data are available. This is the original “play the winner” design, but we refer to it as “most recent” to distinguish it from the “randomized play the winner” and “winning strategy” approaches. Depending on the clinical event being assessed, a “most recent” design could either give the treatment that succeeded most recently, or the opposite of the treatment that failed most recently.

Use the winning strategy

This approach is easiest to defend as not requiring consent for research because it is based on data and does not involve randomization: the treatment that is working better so far in the study is assigned. The decision-making is no different than if a physician were using well-established evidence or were basing the decision on experience in the absence of evidence, or were polling a group of colleagues and following the majority opinion. The “winning strategy” approach is most likely to be appropriate once criteria for a likely winner have been met, but more data are needed to strengthen the evidence – or to call the previous results into question. Further, because the transition toward the “better” treatment occurs naturally over time, and because the assignment is embedded within the EHR, evidence generation and implementation are coupled, potentially increasing the translation of new data into clinical practice.

Clinical Trials with Waivers of Consent: Current Approaches

To date, IRBs have agreed to waive the requirement for informed consent for RCTs under three circumstances: trials with minimal-risk interventions that do not require additional study-specific procedures, trials that compare very similar interventions, and trials in which randomization occurs at the level of the physician or practice, rather than at the level of the individual patient (cluster randomized trials).

Examples of minimal-risk interventions are vitamin supplementation, behavioral interventions,⁶ and efforts to improve communication or monitoring. Many such studies include study-specific data collection and therefore require informed consent or HIPAA authorization, but if conducted as a simple study embedded in the EHR with objective outcomes, and particularly without limitations on other behaviors for study participants, they could reasonably be conducted without consent.

For medications or other interventions that confer risk, the only studies approved with a waiver of consent thus far have compared extremely similar interventions that are both considered standard of care: two ways of delivering insulin,⁷ or two thiazide diuretics (NCT02185417). Even an innovative pragmatic study of two doses of aspirin (NCT02697916) involved a typical informed consent form (facilitated by an online option) and on-site study staff, and therefore was projected to cost \$17 million.⁸ There is disagreement about whether a trial may be considered “minimal risk” if it compares two different standards-of-care that are thought to have similar quantitative risks or risk/benefit ratios.^{2,3} Some have regarded qualitative differences in risk (e.g., one medication causes fatigue and another causes nausea) as sufficient reason to require consent,^{3,9} whereas others focus on the presence of protocolized limitations on other aspects of care or behavior as a key criterion to require consent, which is the stance that we share.²

Cluster randomization has been used, especially for minimal risk interventions in which the outcome is best expressed or evaluated at the group level, e.g., public health interventions, strategies for implementation, and evaluation of institutional policies. For interventions involving risk or a high probability of benefit to individual patients,¹⁰ there should be a compelling reason that the intervention must be made on a group level, rather than just as a mechanism for avoiding informed consent requirements when the research question is one that should normally require individual consent. The more risk or benefit to individual patients that is involved, the

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3 more ethically problematic it is to conduct a cluster-randomized trial,¹⁰ especially if patients are
4 not told they are participants in a clinical trial^{11 12} or if physicians are required to participate.
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Example of an adaptive, embedded trial with abbreviated consent: colchicine for primary prevention of cardiovascular events

Research Question

The anti-inflammatory drug colchicine has recently been shown, in two pivotal randomized trials, to reduce the incidence of major cardiovascular events in patients with a previous event (secondary prevention).^{13 14} Since this is a relatively safe drug that has been used for other reasons for decades, there should be interest in whether it can also reduce incidence of cardiovascular events in patients without known cardiovascular disease but with risk factors. As precedents, statins are well-established for primary prevention, and also aspirin but only for a subset of patients at high risk. A trial for primary prevention would presumably need to be several times larger than the trials for secondary prevention because of a lower event rate. Considering that retrospective studies about colchicine and cardiovascular risk came to varying conclusions, it is reasonable to assume that only a controlled trial could provide trustworthy data for primary prevention, as was true for secondary prevention. Finally, although the colchicine RCTs enrolled patients in a highly relevant clinical context (the vast majority were already taking the other medications recommended for secondary prevention), a pragmatic trial to assess real-world effectiveness of colchicine would add value to the literature even if focused on secondary prevention, and the informatics tools developed for an embedded trial could be used to encourage use of colchicine for whichever patient populations are found to benefit.

Setting

The Veterans Health Administration includes 152 medical centers and approximately 1,400 additional community-based outpatient clinics throughout the US. Although the details of the EHRs differ somewhat among centers, they are similar enough that the clinical data can be collected and harmonized in a nationwide database (Corporate Data Warehouse, CDW), which is frequently updated and can be queried from any VA site with appropriate security controls and technical expertise. VA pharmacies all use the same formulary of prescription drugs. The CDW collects both structured and unstructured data, so that algorithms can be used that require use of clinic notes or operative reports (e.g., via natural language processing) in order to have high positive predictive value for identifying disease phenotypes. One downside of the VA database is that patients often get additional care outside the VA system, and the data from

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3 other sources that can be linked are limited to administrative data (e.g., diagnostic codes,
4 medications, dates) from the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services, which does not
5 include private insurers.
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8 9 *Eligibility Criteria*

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12 Multiple risk estimators have been developed for use in patients without known cardiovascular
13 disease, and they use similar data that are usually available as structured data in EHRs, such
14 as age, sex, race, blood pressure, one or more cholesterol variables, history of diabetes,
15 smoking status, and use of medications such as aspirin or statins. The VA-ASCVD is one such
16 calculator, and a cut-off would be chosen as the inclusion criterion. Exclusion criteria for use of
17 colchicine should include severe chronic kidney disease, advanced liver cirrhosis, and a small
18 number of medications that greatly reduce its metabolism or elimination, all of which should be
19 identifiable through the EHR using diagnostic codes, lab test results, and pharmacy data.
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26 27 *Embedded Tools to Communicate with Provider and Patient*

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30 The best method to notify the provider about a patient's likely eligibility and to solicit interest
31 would probably require several iterations of discussion between providers and IT professionals.
32 At some point before the patient's visit to primary care, a notification should be sent through the
33 EHR. The provider then might simply be asked whether s/he would consider approaching the
34 patient about the trial, and check yes, no, or defer until a later visit. If yes, then during the visit,
35 the provider would be given suggested information about colchicine and cardiovascular disease
36 to discuss with the patient (similar to what would be said during a clinical visit outside of a trial)
37 in the EHR, with a link to print a brief information sheet about colchicine and about the study.
38 The bottom of the information box in the EHR would then indicate whether the patient wished to
39 participate. If yes, then a link would appear for a randomization program outside the EHR,
40 which would then inform the provider whether or not to order colchicine through the usual
41 pharmacy procedures.
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50 51 *Ascertainment of Cardiovascular Events*

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54 The cardiovascular events collected in almost all trials include myocardial infarction, coronary
55 revascularization (angioplasty/stenting or surgical bypass), stroke, peripheral revascularization,
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3 and hospitalization for heart failure, all of which have had algorithms developed in multiple
4 EHRs. An entirely EHR-based study should probably focus on these objective outcomes and
5 steer clear of angina and transient ischemic attacks, although use of diagnostic codes for these
6 less-severe events could be collected as secondary outcomes. As a quality-control measure,
7 detection of a major cardiovascular event (within the VA EHR or externally) could prompt a
8 message to the primary care provider in the EHR to confirm or refute the occurrence of such an
9 event, and to estimate a date if the event is only detected through use of diagnostic codes on an
10 outpatient basis at some point after the event occurred.
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16 17 *Ascertainment of Adverse Events*

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20 The groups receiving or not receiving colchicine could be compared for the occurrence of a
21 huge range of future medical problems, although some would be pre-specified. For this study,
22 the rate of side effects severe enough to be equivalent to a major cardiovascular study would be
23 extremely low. However, for some research questions, both the outcomes being prevented and
24 medication toxicities could have similar magnitudes and both be used to alter the randomization
25 ratio. An example would be thromboembolic events versus major bleeding events. Weighting
26 of events could be used as well, but for this study pooling “major cardiovascular events” into one
27 primary endpoint has a long history of use.
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34 35 *Quality Control*

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38 As above, the primary care provider plays a key role in deciding whether a patient is truly
39 eligible and appropriate to consider for enrollment, in adjudicating cardiovascular events, and
40 also in determining whether colchicine should be stopped due to toxicity. Pharmacy records
41 provide data on how often a prescription is being filled and therefore a good estimate of
42 medication use. This is a particular strength of the VA CDW database, since patients who
43 receive care outside the VA almost uniformly fill their outpatient prescriptions at the VA.
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49 50 *Adaptive Randomization*

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52 A statistician skilled in Bayesian trial design would be relied upon to specify how often the
53 randomization ratio should be re-calculated and what the changes should be based on the data
54 observed. Criteria to stop the study due to excess harm or very low likelihood of benefit should
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3 be developed in advance. The initial randomization ratio could be 1:1 or determined by informal
4 polling of the institution's cardiologists. In contrast, if the study were a pragmatic trial for
5 secondary prevention, the initial ratio should favor colchicine, on the basis of results from the
6 RCTs.
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10 11 *Implementation*

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14 The EHR-based dialogue used to communicate trial eligibility and enrollment procedures to the
15 provider could, with little modification, be modified into a decision-support tool to identify
16 patients in regular practice for whom colchicine might be appropriate, and then facilitate delivery
17 of high-quality information to patient. If the local community were to be enthusiastic about use
18 of colchicine for secondary prevention based on the literature, such tools could be developed for
19 routine clinical use and trial use simultaneously.
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25 *Caveats*

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28 This example is based on a healthcare system with which we are very familiar, and which has
29 established mechanisms for gathering and analyzing data from a frequently-updated nationwide
30 database, communicating through an EHR that is used both at large medical centers and small
31 community-based clinics, automatically converting such dialogues into permanent notes in the
32 EHR, ordering medications and tracking prescriptions, and even linkage to outside data
33 sources. The methods for doing so are known to only a small number of trained professionals,
34 so an efficient system for running EQuIPT studies would benefit from – and probably would
35 require – a network of stable coordinating centers (such as the VA has) rather than assembling
36 a group as needed for each study. It is easy to envision economies of scale with expansion of
37 such a program.
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46 We have also chosen a research question in which eligibility and outcomes should be relatively
47 easy to assess, and in which it is appropriate to use a well-established pooled primary
48 cardiovascular outcome as the only indication to change the randomization ratio, and in which
49 there is support for the hypothesis from RCTs for a closely related topic. However, “low-
50 hanging fruit” is a good place to start for developing and refining novel methods, and advances
51 in use of EHR data for disease phenotyping will broaden the range of research questions.
52 Progress made using the LHS framework for retrospective data will provide hypotheses to test
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3 in controlled prospective LHS trials, which almost by definition will have adequate methods for
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