



Health Technology Review

Methods Guide for Health Technology Assessment

1 Foreword

2 This methods guide describes the methods involved in conducting health technology assessment (HTA) at
3 Canada's Drug Agency (CDA-AMC). This methods guide will focus on the appraisal of the clinical evidence
4 for a drug product submitted by a sponsor to CDA-AMC to address the core HTA research question of
5 comparative effectiveness and harms. The goals in development of this manual were as follows:

- 6 • to highlight the types of clinical evidence that can inform the comparative effectiveness and harms of
7 a drug product
- 8 • to identify key methods and their use in the evaluation of clinical evidence for drug products
9 submitted to CDA-AMC for HTA
- 10 • to facilitate the generation and reporting of the clinical evidence by the sponsors
- 11 • to be transparent in how CDA-AMC reviewers appraise and report on the assessment of the
12 clinical evidence.

13 This methods guide was developed by first identifying core topics, collating and reviewing methods and
14 best practices internationally, and then selecting the appropriate methods as applicable to HTA conducted
15 in Canada for inclusion. This guide leverages existing methods documents from other provincial, national,
16 and international regulatory and HTA agencies, which are cited throughout. We consulted with and received
17 feedback from technical experts and other relevant parties, including Health Canada, l'Institut national
18 d'excellence en santé et en services sociaux (INESSS), international regulatory and HTA agencies,
19 representatives from the pharmaceutical industry and others who hold or generate data, clinicians,
20 patient organizations, and the general public. Modifications were then made to the draft based on the
21 feedback received.

22 This guidance is intended for use by those who generate and submit evidence, and those who conduct the
23 evidence appraisal. The aim is to be iterative, and periodically update or add to the guidance over time as
24 methods evolve or to address emergent issues.

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Abbreviations

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| AE | adverse event |
| GRADE | Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation |
| HTA | health technology assessment |
| IPD | individual patient data |
| ITC | indirect treatment comparison |
| LTE | long-term extension |
| MAIC | matching-adjusted indirect comparison |
| NMA | network meta-analysis |
| PFS | progression-free survival |
| PICO(T)(S) | population(s), intervention(s), comparator(s), outcome(s), time or time frame, study design or setting |
| RCT | randomized controlled trial |
| ROBINS-I | Risk of Bias in Nonrandomised Studies of Interventions |
| RWD | real-world data |
| RWE | real-world evidence |
| SR | systematic review |

1 Introduction

2 Health Technology Assessment at Canada's Drug Agency

3 The joint task force of the International Network of Agencies for Health Technology Assessment and Health
4 Technology Assessment International defines health technology assessment (HTA) as “a multidisciplinary
5 process that uses explicit methods to determine the value of a health technology at different points in its life
6 cycle. The purpose is to inform decision-making in order to promote an equitable, efficient, and high-quality
7 health system.”¹

8 HTA at Canada's Drug Agency (CDA-AMC) involves the development of reports that present appraisals
9 of the evidence: **clinical evidence** on the benefits and harms of a drug or medical device relative to
10 relevant comparators used in clinical practice across Canada; **economic evidence** on cost-effectiveness
11 and long-term value relative to other standard-of-care options; and **value considerations** including —
12 but not limited to — unmet needs, patients' perspectives and preferences, clinicians' perspectives and
13 preferences, perspectives of health care systems (including clinical experts and public drug plans), ethical
14 and environmental considerations, health system and societal impact, and other relevant factors. The HTA
15 reports are 1 of several types of input to the expert committees that inform nonbinding recommendations,
16 which are subsequently used in reimbursement decision-making by Canada's federal, provincial, and
17 territorial governments, except Quebec.

18 This methods guide focuses on the methods related to the **clinical evidence** for a drug product submitted
19 by a sponsor to CDA-AMC to address the core HTA questions of comparative effectiveness and harms,
20 and long-term value. While this methodological approach will apply to most drug product submissions
21 and resubmissions to CDA-AMC — referred to here as the reference case — unique circumstances for
22 specific drugs, indications, or other factors may warrant alternative approaches, which would be determined
23 on a case-by-case basis. This methods guide does not apply to clinical evidence reviews in which the
24 primary question does not pertain to comparative effectiveness and harms (or to interventions that are not
25 standalone drug products, such as drug-device combinations or companion diagnostics).

26 References are made to various tools, checklists, guidance documents, and other sources throughout this
27 methods guide. For each review, CDA-AMC considers which method(s) and tool(s) are most appropriate to
28 assess the clinical evidence, with documentation of the choice(s) by the reviewer in the clinical report.

29 It should be noted that while the appraisal of the clinical evidence informs the deliberation of the respective
30 expert committee, it is only 1 of the considerations (along with economic evidence and value considerations)
31 in the decision-making process and committee recommendation.

1 Assessment of the Clinical Evidence

2 Research Question and Scope

3 There are 3 core concepts regarding testing health care interventions and evidence-based medicine.

- 4 • Efficacy: Can it work?
- 5 • Effectiveness: Does it work in practice?
- 6 • Value: Is it worth it?²

7 The scope of the CDA-AMC clinical review report is informed by the HTA question of interest. For the
8 reference case — the assessment of the clinical evidence for a drug product submitted to CDA-AMC by a
9 sponsor — the core HTA question of interest is as follows:

10 What are the effectiveness and harms of the drug product under review relative to relevant comparators used in clinical practice in Canada?

11 For a drug product submitted to CDA-AMC for reimbursement consideration, the primary objective is
12 to evaluate the available clinical evidence that informs the efficacy or effectiveness and harms of the
13 drug product relative to relevant comparators in clinical practice in Canada. Efficacy describes whether
14 an intervention works under ideal circumstances; data are generated from clinical trials which prioritize
15 internal validity. Effectiveness assesses whether an intervention works in real-world settings trials; data are
16 generated from study designs that prioritize external validity. Relevant comparators are treatment alternatives
17 used in the population of interest and clinical setting of focus; typically, other drugs are used to treat patients
18 in Canada for the indication under review. Active comparators (i.e., nonplacebo interventions) are most
19 relevant in the assessment of comparative effectiveness. In cases where there are no active treatment
20 comparators, standard of care or best supportive care may also be considered as relevant comparators. The
21 question of interest is also applicable to long-term comparative effectiveness and harms outcomes.

22 Sponsor submissions to CDA-AMC in support of a drug product should clearly explain how each component
23 of the submitted clinical evidence informs the comparative effectiveness and harms of the drug product
24 under review. For a drug product resubmission, the principles outlined in this methods guide will still apply,
25 with the added requirement that the resubmission provides new evidence that also addresses any gaps or
26 uncertainties identified during the initial review.

27 The eligibility of studies for inclusion in the sponsor's clinical evidence submission should be informed by the
28 scope of the review, the definition of relevant estimands, and defined by PICO(T)(S):

- 29 • population(s)
- 30 • intervention(s)
- 31 • comparator(s)
- 32 • outcome(s)
- 33 • time or time frame (if relevant)

1 • study design or setting (if relevant).

2 For the reference case, expectations for the sponsor's evidence submission are as follows.

3 **Population**

4 The population should be defined by the approved or proposed Health Canada indication. In some cases,
5 CDA-AMC may accept a request from the sponsor to deviate from the Health Canada indication to align the
6 population with that defined in the sponsor's reimbursement request and/or pharmacoeconomic analysis.

7 Population subgroups (e.g., those grouped by age, sex, or disease severity) that are relevant to the
8 reimbursement recommendation, those of interest to patients, clinicians, and/or payers (e.g., public drug
9 programs), and those included in the sponsor's pharmacoeconomic submission should be specified as part
10 of the sponsor's clinical evidence submission.

11 **Interventions**

12 For the purposes of the review by CDA-AMC, the intervention is the drug product, formulation, dosage
13 range(s), and route(s) of administration under consideration or approved by Health Canada.

14 **Comparators**

15 CDA-AMC considers clinically relevant comparators to include drug products used in clinical practice in
16 Canada to treat patients described in the indication under review. These may include, but are not limited to:

- 17 • drug products with a Notice of Compliance for the indication under review and available (i.e.,
18 marketed) in Canada, and within the Health Canada–approved dosage range
- 19 • drug products that are not approved by Health Canada for the indication under review if they are
20 standard of care and their use is supported by evidence-based clinical practice guidelines (including
21 drug products available through Health Canada's Special Access Program)
- 22 • in rare circumstances, nondrug comparators that are relevant to clinical practice in Canada.

23 Sponsors should justify their selection of the relevant comparator(s) in their evidence submission package,
24 including why selected drug product comparators are included and why other drug products used for that
25 indication to treat patients in Canada are deemed not relevant. While the clinical evidence submission may
26 include comparators not considered in the Pharmacoeconomic Review (e.g., comparators that are not
27 publicly funded), all comparators used in the Pharmacoeconomic Review should be included in the clinical
28 evidence submission.

29 **Outcomes**

30 Target outcomes of interest in HTA are those that estimate the clinical benefit and thereby help estimate
31 the clinical value of the drug product. The assessment of health benefits considers clinically meaningful
32 end points such as mortality; morbidity; and patient-reported experiences and feelings, symptoms, health
33 behaviours, function, and health-related quality of life.³ Target outcomes that are important to patients,
34 clinicians, and/or health system decision-makers include both effectiveness and harms outcomes, that is,
35 adverse events (AEs), serious adverse events (SAEs), withdrawals due to AEs, and death.

1 Target outcomes of interest are selected from among primary and key secondary end points in the clinical
2 evidence submitted by the sponsor. These are defined by CDA-AMC reviewers and clinical experts, taking
3 into consideration input from patients and patient groups, clinicians, and the public drug plans, as well as
4 those identified in previous CDA-AMC or other HTA reviews relevant to the indication. CDA-AMC reviewers
5 may also consider core outcome sets, using sources such as the Core Outcome Measures in Effectiveness
6 Trials (COMET) database.⁴

7 **Surrogate Outcomes**

8 Surrogate outcomes are commonly defined⁵ as biomarkers or intermediate outcomes that are used to
9 substitute for patient-relevant final (or target) outcomes, and that reliably predict benefits or harms based
10 on epidemiologic, therapeutic, pathophysiologic, or other scientific evidence. This definition includes both
11 biomarkers (such as blood pressure and tumour response) and intermediate outcomes (such as progression-
12 free survival [PFS]) that may have potential direct relevance to patients.⁶ A surrogate outcome is used in
13 clinical trials as a substitute for the direct measurement of patients' preferences, functioning, and survival
14 when those end points are not available or when measuring them is not feasible.⁶⁻⁸ A consequence of use
15 of surrogate end points is the increase of the uncertainty of an intervention's "true value" (including clinical
16 efficacy or effectiveness, safety, and cost-effectiveness).⁵ This uncertainty is minimized in clinical trials
17 using adequately validated surrogate end points, for which there is statistical evidence that the treatment
18 effect on a surrogate end point is strongly predictive of the treatment effect on the relevant target outcome.³
19 The CDA-AMC reviewers may consult relevant sources to support the use of specific surrogate outcomes,
20 such as the Surrogate Outcome Table posted by the FDA.⁹ The uncertainty around long-term value may be
21 further mitigated by relevant real-world evidence (RWE) on validation, predictiveness, and correlation with
22 target outcomes.

23 For any use of a surrogate outcome, the clinical evidence underlying or justifying the use of a surrogate
24 — as well as the evidence for the validation of the surrogate — should be explicitly stated in the sponsor's
25 submission. For the surrogate outcome of interest to an indirect comparison, details on the surrogate
26 outcome definition for each individual trial should also be included in the sponsor's submission.

27 **Time**

28 The duration of follow-up should be adequate to capture the outcomes defined for the trial. The timing of
29 when the intervention is administered in the care or treatment pathway should also be considered and
30 justified.

31 **Study Design**

32 In general, systematic reviews (SRs) on efficacy and/or effectiveness are generally limited to randomized
33 trial designs. However, all trials submitted to Health Canada as pivotal, regardless of study design, as well as
34 nonpivotal phase III and IV randomized controlled trials (RCTs), should be included in the sponsor-submitted
35 SR for appraisal by CDA-AMC.

36 The study designs best suited to inform comparative effectiveness and harms are outlined in the CDA-AMC
37 reference case. When data from RCTs are not available or there are gaps in the clinical trial evidence, other

1 studies may be included in the sponsor submission on a case-by-case basis, such as single-arm trials, long-
2 term extension (LTE) studies, indirect treatment comparisons (ITCs), and RWE studies. Additional details on
3 relevant study designs and considerations for their appraisal can be found in subsequent sections.

4 **Target Estimands**

5 A useful framework for promoting clarity and transparency in evidence evaluation is when evidence is
6 reported using an estimand framework. Study objectives are translated into the main research question of
7 interest for a given study by defining an estimand, which is the detailed description of the treatment effect
8 that a study sets out to quantify for a specified outcome.¹⁰ By including such descriptions in study technical
9 reports, CDA-AMC can better understand the objectives of each individual study submitted for consideration,
10 and evaluate how well the design, analysis, and estimation align with the identified estimand. This will also
11 allow the CDA-AMC reviewer to assess how the targeted estimand of each individual study aligns with the
12 estimand that best addresses the Reimbursement Review question of interest from an HTA perspective.

13 Guidelines from the International Council for Harmonisation of Technical Requirements for Pharmaceuticals
14 for Human Use (ICH) have specified 4 attributes for describing an estimand for study: the population
15 or patients targeted by the scientific question, the outcome of interest, specifications for handling of
16 intercurrent events, and a population-level summary measure that is the basis for comparison.¹⁰ However,
17 when evaluating evidence for drug product Reimbursement Reviews from an HTA perspective, additional
18 attributes are considered important because such reviews often consider evidence that was not specifically
19 developed for the purpose of informing reimbursement from an HTA perspective.¹¹ Evidence originally
20 designed for informing regulatory decision-making often targets inference on estimands that evaluate the
21 efficacy of an intervention relative to placebo or standard of care, whereas the HTA question of interest
22 will generally target an estimand for evaluating the comparative effectiveness of an intervention relative
23 to relevant active comparators. Thus, to align with common reporting approaches in HTA, a standard
24 framework has been proposed for reporting the target estimand of a study to an HTA entity, referred to as the
25 population(s), intervention(s), comparator(s), outcome(s), summary effect measure, and intercurrent events
26 (PICOSI) framework.¹¹ Here, intercurrent events refer to those events of interest that occur after treatment
27 has been initiated that may impact the interpretation of the end point quantifying the treatment effect (e.g.,
28 the event modifies the treatment effect, such as in the use of rescue medications or other concomitant
29 treatments, or has implications for adherence to the treatment regimen, including premature treatment
30 discontinuation). CDA-AMC recommends reporting the target estimand for all comparative evidence
31 submitted for reimbursement considerations — including RCTs, nonrandomized studies, and RWE — using
32 this framework.¹¹

33 In the context of RCTs, for each individual trial included in the clinical evidence submission to CDA-AMC,
34 the target estimand for the primary end point(s) of the trial must be clearly identified in the technical report
35 (e.g., study protocol, statistical analysis plan, or Clinical Study Report). The estimand(s) for the primary end
36 point should be defined for the individual trial a priori (i.e., before data collection, analysis, or reporting).
37 As outlined previously, key information should also include sufficient details of the intervention and the
38 comparator(s) being evaluated to understand relevant intercurrent events and how these may impact the

1 primary end point(s). For study designs other than RCTs, these same principles should be applied where
2 possible. Submitters may also choose to present results from a trial that target alternative estimands,
3 including those for secondary and exploratory end points as well as analyses for the primary end point
4 targeting an alternative estimand.

5 CDA-AMC defines the estimand of interest for informing reimbursement decisions, applicable to any
6 outcome(s) relevant to decision-making, as the treatment effect that describes the comparative effectiveness
7 and safety of a drug product compared to all relevant comparators in clinical settings in Canada, where all
8 interventions are implemented in a manner that is consistent with how the interventions are used or are
9 anticipated to be used in clinical practice in Canada. This will generally align with the disease indication as
10 described in the product monograph submitted to and approved by Health Canada, and/or be consistent
11 with established clinical practice guidelines or clinical practice in Canada. Results that target alternative
12 estimands may provide important context to the reimbursement decision. Any alternative estimands for the
13 primary end point(s) and those for secondary and exploratory end points should be clearly described in the
14 evidence submission by the sponsor; results that correspond to these alternative estimands should be clearly
15 identified as such.

16 Evidence Base

17 The clinical evidence submitted by the sponsor should address the HTA question and scope, as previously
18 defined. The primary objective of the CDA-AMC review is to assess the drug product's comparative
19 effectiveness and harms relative to relevant comparators in the treatment landscape in Canada. Sponsor
20 submissions should include studies designed, conducted, and analyzed with methodological rigour to
21 minimize any bias and confounding. The submission should also include transparent reporting of study
22 design, analysis, data, and results.

23 Comparative clinical effectiveness is informed by decision-grade clinical evidence arising from multiple
24 sources. Explanatory trials — and in particular multicentre RCTs that are at low risk of bias, and rigorously
25 conducted SRs of these RCTs — are most likely to provide evidence that supports valid and causative
26 scientific conclusions for the drug product under review. For this reason, the certainty of conclusions about
27 the drug product under review from other study designs, including LTE studies and RWE, are generally
28 lower than those able to be drawn from high-quality RCTs. The trade-off is lesser external validity, and hence
29 the extent to which the study results can be generalized beyond the population defined in the trial (refer to
30 [Table 1](#)). Pragmatic clinical trials can overcome this limitation, as they are generally designed to evaluate
31 outcomes in the real world.

1 Table 1: Evidence Types for HTA Submissions

2

| Evidence type | HTA purpose | Key strengths | Key limitations |
|--|--|---|--|
| RCT: multi-arm, with multiple relevant active comparators ^a | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides direct evidence of comparative clinical efficacy and safety of the drug product under review compared to multiple relevant active comparators | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Designed to generate evidence that is least susceptible to biases and minimizes confounding, thus more likely to provide reliable and replicable estimates about comparative treatment effects relative to other study designs Allows for valid causal inference for all relevant comparators in the same clinical setting and patient population | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Often not feasible to design, conduct, and/or report data in a timely manner Limited generalizability to broader patient populations (poor external validity) Treatment landscape often evolves during the time to conduct the RCT; consequently, the RCT may not include comparators relevant to clinical practice in Canada Long-term outcomes are often unavailable |
| RCT: at least 1 relevant active comparator ^a | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides direct evidence of comparative clinical efficacy and safety of the drug product under review relative to at least 1 relevant comparator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Common evidence base type: designed to generate evidence that is least susceptible to biases and minimizes confounding, thus more likely to provide reliable estimates about comparative treatment effects than other study designs In some clinical settings, conducting multiple separate RCTs for each comparator may be more appropriate than a multi-arm RCT design | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Insights into comparative clinical effectiveness and safety relative to other relevant active comparators may require indirect comparison methodologies Limited generalizability to broader patient populations (poor external validity) Treatment landscape often evolves during the time taken to conduct the RCT; consequently, the RCT may not include comparators relevant to clinical practice in Canada Long-term outcomes are often unavailable |
| RCT: placebo-controlled ^a | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides direct evidence of clinical efficacy and safety | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Common evidence base type: designed to generate evidence that is least susceptible to biases and minimizes confounding, thus provides reliable estimates about treatment effect | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Insights into comparative clinical effectiveness and safety relative to other relevant comparators requires indirect comparison methodologies Limited generalizability to broader patient populations (poor external validity) Long-term outcomes are often unavailable |

| Evidence type | HTA purpose | Key strengths | Key limitations |
|--|--|--|--|
| NMA applied to SRs (of RCTs) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Synthesizes evidence using explicit and reproducible methods to systematically search for, select, critically appraise, and synthesize results of multiple primary studies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robust method to collate evidence from multiple primary studies to provide an objective summary of the balance of benefits and harms of an intervention for use by decision-makers • Can help to identify limitations of previous primary studies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability to draw high-certainty conclusions is reliant on the rigour of the NMA and SR methods and the conduct and characteristics of the included studies |
| Single-arm, open-label (interventional) trials | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May provide some evidence of clinical efficacy and safety | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commonly conducted in settings where an RCT is not feasible due to ethical or practical reasons (e.g., in rare disease settings in which the number of available patients is less than what is required to power an RCT) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insights into comparative clinical efficacy and/or effectiveness and safety relative to relevant comparators are typically of very low certainty, given methodologic limitations of external controls, indirect comparisons, and so on |
| RWE and other observational studies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May be supplemental to clinical trial evidence or may be the primary evidence base for a subpopulation, new indication, or label expansion • May provide direct evidence of comparative effectiveness and harms relative to the relevant comparator(s), or may substitute an RCT when it is not feasible (e.g., orphan drug development with a single-arm trial combined with an external control arm) • May address evidence gaps on long-term effectiveness and safety | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compared to RCTs, these study designs may have good external validity, generating findings that are more generalizable to broader patient populations and clinical settings, complex treatment strategies, and so on | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vulnerable to confounding and other biases (poor internal validity), thus typically less able to produce robust estimates of treatment effects compared to RCTs |
| Long-term extension (clinical) study | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides evidence on longer-term efficacy and safety | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows for the identification of side effects that may not have been observed during short-term use of interventions • Allows for the evaluation of durability of the treatment response | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open-label and single-arm; often not designed to generate direct evidence on comparative long-term effectiveness and safety due to feasibility and other biases • Higher risk of missing data due to increasing attrition rates over time |

1 HTA = health technology assessment; NMA = network meta-analysis; RCT = randomized controlled trial; RWE = real-world evidence; SR = systematic review.

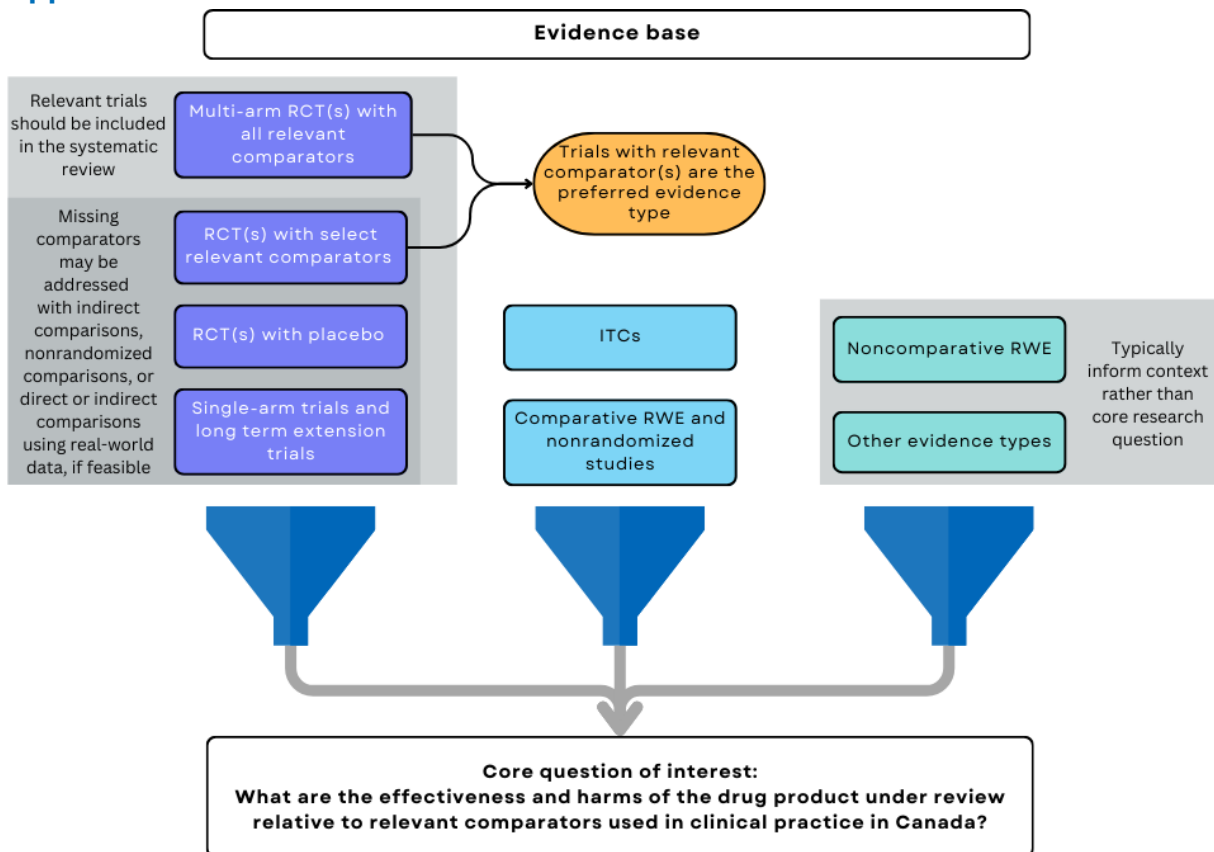
2 *RCTs can have varying degrees of pragmatism; those that are more explanatory will have more limited generalizability, while those that are more pragmatic will have greater generalizability.

1 In the absence of direct head-to-head clinical trial evidence, indirect comparisons are acceptable alternatives
 2 for providing comparative evidence, provided that the methodology is appropriate, the indirect comparison
 3 is of sufficient quality, and methods and results are reported transparently. Indirect comparisons typically
 4 include, but are not limited to, network meta-analyses (NMAs) or population-adjusted indirect comparison
 5 methodologies such as matching-adjusted indirect comparisons (MAICs) (refer to [Table 2](#)).

6 Observational and RWE studies, including single-arm clinical trials in which there is an external control arm
 7 (historical control or contemporaneous cohort), may be considered on a case-by-case basis when it is not
 8 feasible or ethical to conduct an RCT, or when there are uncertainties in the clinical interventional trial and/or
 9 indirect comparison evidence. Long-term evidence on effectiveness and harms may come from LTE clinical
 10 trials, or from observational evidence drawing upon real-world data (RWD) sources such as disease and
 11 drug registry data, administrative health data, and pharmacovigilance data.

12 The purpose, key strengths, and limitations of different study designs for the purpose of HTA evidence
 13 appraisals are outlined in [Table 1](#). The general approach to the assessment of clinical evidence at CDA-AMC
 14 is outlined in [Figure 1](#).

1 **Figure 1: Appropriateness of Clinical Evidence Types for Inclusion in the CDA-AMC**
 2 **Appraisal to Address the HTA Question of Interest**



3
 4 ITC = indirect treatment comparison; RCT = randomized controlled trial; RWE = real-world evidence.

1 The framework depicted in [Figure 1](#) is based on the relative strength of evidence of each evidence type
 2 as described in [Table 1](#). The focus of the CDA-AMC assessment is based on the certainty of evidence for
 3 clinically important benefits and harms relative to relevant comparators, and the generalizability to clinical
 4 practice in Canada for the population specified by the indication of the drug product under review.

5 The following sections outline CDA-AMC methods for appraising the following evidence submitted
 6 by sponsors:

- 7 • **Comparative clinical efficacy or effectiveness and harms:** RCTs, SRs of RCTs, indirect
 8 comparisons
- 9 • **Long-term evidence:** LTE clinical studies
- 10 • **Other evidence:** RWE and observational studies

11 Evaluating the Evidence

12 Evidence Sources and Methods Overview

13 SR of Pivotal and Other Clinical Trials

14 Pivotal trials and RCTs are identified by the sponsor using a systematic search and selection procedure
 15 in adherence with relevant procedural guidance,¹² which includes transparency on the methods used. The
 16 review team at CDA-AMC completes subsequent steps of the SR, including data extraction and verification,
 17 critical appraisal, summary or synthesis (in the case of 2 or more submitted studies that are adequately
 18 similar in their PICOTS elements), and certainty of evidence assessment based on the studies submitted by
 19 the sponsor.

20 A CDA-AMC reviewer abstracts the characteristics and results of the studies included in the sponsor-
 21 submitted SR, with independent verification.

22 CDA-AMC recommends the inclusion of both absolute (e.g., mean difference, risk difference) and relative
 23 (e.g., risk ratio, odds ratio) between-group differences and confidence intervals to adequately interpret the
 24 clinical importance of effect estimates and to facilitate the certainty of evidence appraisal. For time-to-event
 25 outcomes, CDA-AMC requires estimates of between-group differences in event or event-free probabilities
 26 with 95% confidence intervals, which are often estimated using Kaplan-Meier curves, with accompanying
 27 data on the number of patients at risk at distinct time intervals, or hazard ratios from Cox regression
 28 analyses.¹³ In the absence of this information, the CDA-AMC review team may not be able to fully assess the
 29 clinical importance of the estimated effect for a given outcome, and this uncertainty would be reflected in the
 30 clinical report.

31 When 2 or more submitted trials are adequately similar in PICO(T)(S), their outcome data are described
 32 together using a narrative summary,^{14,15} where the size and direction of effect as well as the sample size
 33 and/or number of events of each contributing study are considered. The CDA-AMC review team does not
 34 synthesize study results statistically (e.g., via meta-analysis); however, statistical syntheses and integrated

1 summaries of effectiveness submitted by the sponsor may be considered on a case-by-case basis
2 and appraised according to relevant guidance.¹⁶ The methods for synthesis should adhere to accepted
3 methodological standards (e.g., FDA guidance for integrated summaries of effectiveness;¹⁷ Cochrane
4 guidance for meta-analysis)¹⁸ and be informed by an a priori protocol. The methods should be reported
5 in adequate detail to allow for critical appraisal by the CDA-AMC review team (e.g., in adherence to the
6 Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses [PRISMA] 2020 reporting items).¹⁹
7 In all cases, the characteristics and results of the individual studies contributing to the synthesis should be
8 reported alongside pooled estimates of effect. When multiple trials are submitted but are considered too
9 dissimilar in their PICO(T)(S), their results are presented separately.

10 **LTE Studies**

11 Table 1 outlines the purpose, key strengths, and limitations of LTE studies.

12 LTE studies of pivotal trials and other RCTs are included in the CDA-AMC appraisal of the evidence when
13 these have been completed or interim analyses are available. Only LTE evidence submitted by the sponsor
14 is included. When no evidence from LTE studies has been submitted by the sponsor, this is reported
15 explicitly in the CDA-AMC clinical report.

16 Open-label extension studies are appraised using the same methodological approaches as outlined in the
17 SR section: data abstraction, appraisal of internal and external validity, synthesis or summary of results, and
18 interpretation of the clinical importance of effect estimates for relevant outcomes. The certainty of evidence
19 is not formally assessed using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation
20 (GRADE)²⁰ approach (refer to the Certainty of Evidence section for more details), but relevant domains are
21 considered when interpreting the findings.

22 **Indirect Evidence**

23 In the absence of head-to-head studies comparing 2 or more interventions of interest to provide direct
24 evidence of comparative effectiveness and harms of the drug product under review, ITCs that follow
25 internationally accepted reporting guidance and standards may be used to address the review question.²¹
26 Only ITCs submitted by the sponsor are considered in the CDA-AMC review. Various statistical methods
27 can be used to conduct ITCs, including NMA and population-adjusted methods. The validity of the results
28 produced by ITC methods depends on how well the underlying assumptions of the particular method are
29 fulfilled. Therefore, the decision to proceed with an ITC should be preceded by a feasibility assessment that
30 provides support to the underlying assumptions of the method; all assumptions and their rationale should be
31 reported in the sponsor submission.

32 The type of methods used for the submitted ITC should be those most likely to provide valid estimates given
33 the review question and available evidence. The choice of ITC method should be based on the feasibility of a
34 connected network, the evidence of heterogeneity between and within studies, the overall number of relevant
35 studies, and the availability of individual patient data (IPD). For example, the Bucher method and NMAs
36 provide suitable options when no IPD are available, whereas MAICs and simulated treatment comparisons
37 are common techniques in the case of single-arm studies²² (refer to [Table 2](#) for more details). If multiple

1 methods could be suitable, then the chosen method should be justified, considering the potential impact of
 2 that choice on the treatment effect estimates. If 1 or more ITCs are available in the published literature, the
 3 rationale for undertaking a new ITC (rather than relying on literature-based ITC[s]) or for selecting 1 or more
 4 ITCs for submission among multiple overlapping published ITCs should be justified. In such instances, the
 5 sponsor should aim to balance methodological quality (e.g., risk of bias), recency, and relevance.

6 When comparisons use IPD for the treatment and/or comparator in a population-adjusted comparison,
 7 the comparisons are potentially at greater risk of statistical manipulation to achieve the desired result(s).
 8 Therefore, it is important that analysis methods are clearly specified in the protocol or statistical analysis
 9 plan and the rationale for why IPD were used should be transparently reported in the sponsor submission.
 10 When IPD from RWD sources are used to create an external control for comparison with IPD from a
 11 single-arm trial, CDA-AMC would consider this to be RWE instead of an ITC and would appraise such
 12 studies as per methodology for comparative RWE (e.g., the yet unpublished International Society for
 13 Pharmacoepidemiology RWE Appraisal tool).

14 Unadjusted (naive) ITCs that compare the results of individual arms from different trials as if they had come
 15 from the same RCT, or that compare the individual effects of 2 drugs from different trials with a common
 16 comparator, are not appropriate for drawing conclusions about the comparative effectiveness and harms
 17 of treatments and comparators and are discouraged. These comparisons have an increased chance for
 18 confounding factors to influence the results leading to biased and potentially misleading estimated treatment
 19 effects. If submitted, such ITCs are interpreted by CDA-AMC reviewers considering the known limitations
 20 and other evidence available within the sponsor's submission.

21 **Methods for ITCs**

22 [Table 2](#) shows a summary of commonly used methods for ITCs, along with key considerations. However,
 23 ITC methods are a rapidly evolving field; therefore, [Table 2](#) is not intended to be a comprehensive list of all
 24 possible methods.

25 **Table 2: Summary of Commonly Used ITC Methods for HTA**

26

| ITC type | Type of trial data | Description and key considerations |
|--|----------------------|--|
| Adjusted indirect comparison (Bucher method) | Aggregate trial data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simplest form of ITC • Estimates the relative treatment effect for a treatment in a simple network of common comparators • Preserves within-study randomization • Must meet assumptions of exchangeability (similarity and homogeneity), transitivity, and consistency: for the NMA to be valid, exchangeability should be plausible for every possible indirect comparison and consistency should be demonstrated for every direct and indirect comparison |

| ITC type | Type of trial data | Description and key considerations |
|--------------------------------|--|---|
| Mixed treatment comparison NMA | Aggregate trial data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Includes both direct evidence from head-to-head trials and indirect evidence derived through a common comparator treatment Preserves within-study randomization Must meet assumptions of exchangeability, transitivity, and |
| | | <p>consistency: for the NMA to be valid, exchangeability should be plausible for every possible indirect comparison and consistency should be demonstrated for every loop of evidence within the network</p> |
| MAIC | Individual patient data and aggregate trial data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Typically includes IPD for the drug product under review and aggregate trial data for the comparator(s) Applies propensity score weighting to balance the study populations' baseline characteristics before performing indirect comparison Anchored comparisons require adjustment for all effect modifiers Unanchored comparisons require adjustment for all effect modifiers and all prognostic factors |
| STC | Individual patient data and aggregate trial data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows comparison between treatment and comparator using IPD and aggregate data Applies regression-based modelling of the relationship between baseline characteristics and outcomes Regression model is fit to the trial with IPD for the outcome of interest and is then used to predict or simulate the expected outcome in the trial population with aggregate data only Anchored comparisons require adjustment for all effect modifiers Unanchored comparisons require adjustment for all effect modifiers and all prognostic factors |
| ML-NMR | Individual patient data and aggregate trial data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extension of the NMA framework to synthesize evidence from a mix of IPD and aggregate data across a network of trials comparing multiple treatments (2 or more studies) Fits an individual-level regression model using IPD from at least 1 trial to allow the inclusion of patient-level prognostic factors and effect modifiers that may influence treatment effects The individual-level model is integrated over the joint covariate distribution from trials where only aggregate data are available Only applies to an anchored network Allows for covariate-adjusted inferences from a network of trials for several comparators Often limited by the lack of sufficient number of aggregate data trials for each treatment to meet the shared effect modifier assumption |

¹ IPD = individual patient data; MAIC = matching-adjusted indirect comparison; ML-NMR = multilevel network meta-regression; NMA = network meta-analysis; STC =
² simulated treatment comparison.

3 Studies Addressing Gaps in the Clinical Interventional Trial Evidence

4 The purpose for inclusion of any additional studies should be explicitly detailed in the sponsor submission.

5 The only studies addressing gaps that are considered in the CDA-AMC review are the ones submitted by

6 the sponsor, that is, CDA-AMC does not search and extract other study data from publications or from other

1 sources. Sponsors are encouraged to engage and consult with CDA-AMC as early as possible to help
 2 ensure reviewers understand how the supplementary evidence will help address critical gaps in the clinical
 3 trial data (i.e., additional evidence on selected populations [subgroups, or expansion beyond the population
 4 as described by the indication], other dosing regimens or treatment durations, effectiveness and safety,
 5 comparative effectiveness and safety, or long-term [comparative] effectiveness and safety, and so on).
 6 Refer to the subsequent section on RWE for additional details.

7 **Critical Appraisal of Pivotal and Other Clinical Interventional Trial Evidence**

8 For each submitted trial, internal validity is appraised for each relevant effect estimate by 1 CDA-AMC
 9 reviewer with independent verification. To assist in the appraisals, reviewers may consult the tool(s) deemed
 10 most appropriate for the study design. In some cases, no relevant tool may exist, and reviewers may instead
 11 refer to methodological best practices. Where applicable, reviewers will document the choice of tool(s)
 12 applied in the clinical evidence appraisal in the CDA-AMC clinical report.

13 External validity is appraised at the level of the body of evidence from the submitted clinical trials. Relevant
 14 tools may also be consulted for this appraisal.

15 To facilitate the appraisals, the sponsor-submitted evidence should be reported in accordance with relevant
 16 minimum reporting standards such as the Standard Protocol Items: Recommendations for Interventional
 17 Trials (SPIRIT) statement²³ and the Consolidated Standards in Reporting Trials (CONSORT) guidance²⁴
 18 and relevant extensions.²⁵ It is also expected that sponsors report the estimands of interest within their
 19 submission. Insufficient reporting may impact the ability of CDA-AMC reviewers to comprehensively appraise
 20 the sponsor-submitted evidence.

21 **Internal Validity**

22 Central to the appraisal of internal validity is the assessment of the risk of bias, which is defined as
 23 “a systematic error, or deviation from the truth, in results.”²⁶ Biases can result in underestimation or
 24 overestimation of true intervention effects. Since it is usually not possible to quantify the extent of bias with
 25 certainty,⁷ only the risk of bias is discussed in the review; the direction of the potential bias is reported when it
 26 can be predicted.

27 The evidence appraisal includes specific aspects of study design and conduct that have empirically been
 28 observed to introduce bias.^{27,28} Risk of bias is appraised at the level of the reported effect(s) of interest for
 29 each important outcome. Most commonly, the relevant effect is that of assignment to the intervention (i.e.,
 30 the treatment policy estimand).

31 The specific domains of risk of bias that are appraised are unique to the design(s) of the study (or studies)
 32 under review. The most common designs included within clinical evidence submissions to CDA-AMC are
 33 parallel-group RCTs and single-arm trials submitted as pivotal trials to Health Canada. Relevant tools that
 34 may be consulted include the Cochrane Risk of Bias Tool version 2 (RoB 2)²⁷ and the National Institute for
 35 Health and Care Excellence (NICE) Methodology Checklist for RCTs.²⁹

1 Domains of Bias Assessed in Parallel-Group RCTs²⁷

- 2 • **Bias in the randomization process** includes an appraisal of the adequacy of the methods for
3 generating and concealing the randomization sequence before the assignment of patients to the
4 interventions. This also includes checking for imbalances in baseline demographic and disease
5 characteristics across treatment groups as an indicator of the success of the randomization in
6 achieving prognostic balance.
- 7 • **Bias due to deviation from the intended interventions** includes an appraisal of the adequacy
8 of methods to blind participants, caregivers, and personnel to the assigned treatment following
9 randomization. Potential inadequacies include open-label trials, or when it is likely that patients and/
10 or outcome assessors became unblinded (e.g., due to treatment-related specific AEs). In those
11 cases, this domain also includes an appraisal of whether deviations from the intended interventions
12 (e.g., failure to implement the interventions as intended, lack of adherence, treatment crossover,
13 or implementation of nonprotocol interventions such as concomitant treatments) occurred due to
14 trial context.
- 15 • **Bias due to missing outcome data** includes an appraisal of whether complete outcome data are
16 available for all, or nearly all randomized participants, and if not, whether missing outcome data
17 are differential across distributions of baseline covariates, and/or at risk of inducing confounding.
18 When outcome data are missing, this includes an appraisal of whether the missingness depends
19 on the true value of the outcome and certain measured or unmeasured patient characteristics (i.e.,
20 missing at random or missing not at random). When available, sensitivity analyses are examined to
21 appraise whether the results are sensitive to the assumptions of the missing data imputation based
22 on statistical model.
- 23 • **Bias in measurement of the outcome** includes an appraisal of the appropriateness of the method
24 or tool used to measure the outcome (refer to “Validity of Outcome Measures”). Particular attention
25 is paid to differential misclassification of the outcome, measurement error, and the adequacy of
26 methods to blind outcome assessors, who may be study participants in the case of patient-reported
27 outcomes, to the assigned treatment. Where inadequacy in blinding exists (e.g., in open-label trials or
28 when it is likely that patients and/or outcome assessors became unblinded due to treatment-related
29 specific AEs), this includes an appraisal of how the outcome may have been influenced by knowledge
30 of the treatment assignment (degree of subjectivity).
- 31 • **Bias in selection of the reported result** includes an appraisal of whether the available effect
32 estimates are the result of analyses that were prespecified in the study protocol and/or statistical
33 analysis plan before unblinding of outcome data, whether the numerical results presented are likely to
34 have been chosen from multiple available outcome measurements or analyses of the data (e.g., due
35 to a favourable magnitude or direction of effect).

36 Domains of Bias Assessed in Other Trial Designs

37 Additional domains are appraised for other pivotal trial designs that did not use randomization to allocate
38 patients to comparison groups. Relevant tools that may be consulted include those intended for the appraisal

1 of nonrandomized studies, including the Cochrane Risk of Bias in Nonrandomised Studies of Interventions
2 (ROBINS-I) tool.²⁸ Domains of bias include, but are not limited to, the following.²⁸

- 3 • **Bias due to confounding** includes an appraisal of the potential for baseline or time-varying
4 measured or unmeasured confounding between the intervention and the outcomes of interest;
5 whether there was the ability to measure all relevant confounding variables, and whether the
6 measurement was valid and reliable; and whether appropriate study design and/or analysis methods
7 were used to control for all important confounding domains. Unmeasured confounding can also be
8 assessed (e.g., through negative controls and other quantitative bias assessment methods).
- 9 • **Bias in selection of participants** includes an appraisal of whether selection into the study was
10 based on characteristics observed after the start of the intervention, whether follow-up and the start
11 of the intervention correspond for most participants (i.e., inception or lead-time bias), and/or whether
12 interventions are defined in such a way that there is a period in which the outcome cannot occur (i.e.,
13 immortal time bias), and whether appropriate analysis methods were used to correct for potential
14 selection bias.
- 15 • **Bias in classification of the interventions** includes an appraisal of whether intervention status was
16 classified correctly for all or most participants, whether the information used to define intervention
17 groups was collected at the start of the intervention, and whether there is the potential for differential
18 misclassification of the interventions between groups (e.g., due to knowledge of the outcome or risk
19 of the outcome).

20 Considerations for Single-Arm Trials and LTE Studies

21 Generally, causal interpretations cannot be drawn from single-arm trials.³⁰ Due to the lack of randomized
22 comparator, observed effects may be attributable to the effect of the drug product, placebo effects, or the
23 natural history of the disease. When drawing conclusions from single-arm pivotal trials, evidence reviewers
24 consider their internal validity as well as information external to the trial (e.g., natural history, external control
25 estimates, clinical expert input) to estimate the benefits and harms of the drug product relative to patients
26 who were not treated.

27 A European Medicines Agency reflection paper has outlined potential sources of bias that can be considered
28 for single-arm designs,³¹ some of which apply to open-label RCTs, and others apply to RWE or observational
29 studies. LTE studies, which are often single-arm in design, are appraised using the same methodological
30 approaches as those used for single-arm trials submitted as pivotal evidence.

31 Other Considerations

32 Other critical appraisal points may be considered depending on the individual study design and
33 circumstances. In addition to domains of bias, the adequacy of control for multiple comparisons (risk of type
34 I error or erroneously rejecting the null hypothesis) across end points and interim analyses is appraised. End
35 points not controlled for multiplicity are considered to provide supportive evidence. Other items that may be
36 appraised include but are not limited to issues such as the study's power to detect a statistically significant
37 effect, inconsistency in effect estimates across studies, the precision of the effect estimates, the adequacy of
38 the length of follow-up, the plausibility of assumptions underlying statistical models, the appropriateness of

1 noninferiority margins, the impact of interim analyses and early stopping, and potential limitations of specific
2 end point types (e.g., composite or surrogate end points).

3 **Validity of Outcome Measures**

4 Reviewers appraise the validity of outcome measurement instruments used within studies included in the
5 submission, based on evidence supporting validity submitted by the sponsor and considering relevant
6 guidance documents.³²⁻³⁴ This may also be supplemented with clinical expert opinion or other relevant
7 literature as needed. This includes an assessment by the CDA-AMC review team of the relevance of the
8 selected instrument(s), and the following properties:³⁵

- 9 • **content validity:** the degree to which the content of the instrument reflects the concept that it is
10 intended to measure
- 11 • **construct validity:** the adequacy with which scores of the instrument are consistent with hypotheses
12 (e.g., relationships with scores on other instruments, differences across relevant groups, relationships
13 with other outcomes) about the concept that it is intended to measure
- 14 • **criterion validity:** the degree to which scores of the instrument are consistent with a reference
15 standard (e.g., comparing abbreviated to full versions of an instrument)
- 16 • **reliability:** the degree to which error across a series of measurements is minimized, such that scores
17 for the same measure, in the same individuals, would be similar when measured repeatedly; this
18 includes scores using a different set of items from within the same tool (internal consistency), over
19 time by the same rater (test-retest), by different raters at 1 time (interrater), or by the same rater at
20 different times (intrarater)
- 21 • **responsiveness:** the degree to which an instrument can detect changes in the concept of interest
22 over time.

23 Additionally, when the sponsor has submitted evidence supporting minimally important differences, reviewers
24 appraise the quality of that evidence, considering methodological best practices as appropriate,^{36,37} and
25 drawing on the published literature as needed. The strength of evidence supporting the validity of a surrogate
26 end point is also appraised (refer to the section on Outcomes: Surrogate Outcomes).^{38,39}

27 **External Validity**

28 External validity is sometimes termed generalizability, applicability, or directness. Important factors that may
29 influence the generalizability of the findings to patients living in Canada should be defined for each PICO(T)
30 (S) element. Evidence that is considered generalizable comes from studies that enrol patients who are
31 reflective of those seen in clinical practice in Canada; for example, studies that measure outcomes relevant
32 to patients, clinicians, and public drug plans, are assessed at clinically relevant follow-up times, and occur in
33 clinical practice settings relevant to Canada, as with pragmatic trials.

34 **Interpretation of Subgroup Effects**

35 Relevant subgroup effects are presented and appraised for the primary end points of included trials.
36 Subgroup analyses for other end points may be presented and appraised when relevant to decision-making.
37 CDA-AMC reviewers consider that any subgroup analyses (within or across trials) submitted by sponsors

1 are typically used to assess consistency of treatment effects across groups of patients. Subgroup analyses
 2 may be used to explore subgroup differences, identify a subgroup of the population where the benefit is more
 3 evident, within a trial evidence of benefit to the full trial population is equivocal or unconvincing.^{40,41}

4 Ideally, the results of subgroup analyses are presented visually on forest plots. Commonly, CDA-AMC
 5 reviewers visually inspect point estimates and confidence intervals across various subgroups for consistency
 6 in direction and magnitude. When effects appear consistent, this might be considered to strengthen the
 7 applicability of the results across the full trial population.⁴¹

8 In some cases, the indication and/or reimbursement request may be for a single subgroup of the full
 9 population within included trials. In these cases, the focus of the appraisal is on the single subgroup alone,
 10 not all subgroups.

11 If there is evidence of potential effect modification (i.e., there is observed variability in estimated effects
 12 by patient or disease characteristics) believed to be potentially relevant to decision-making, reviewers
 13 may assess the credibility of the effect modification using appropriate tools (e.g., Instrument to Assess the
 14 Credibility of Effect Modification Analyses [ICEMAN]),⁴² which would be cited in the CDA-AMC clinical report.
 15 Considerations include the following:⁴²

- 16 • whether the direction of the effect modification was hypothesized a priori
- 17 • whether the effect modification was supported by prior evidence
- 18 • whether a test for interaction suggested that chance was an unlikely explanation for the apparent
 19 effect modification
- 20 • whether the investigators tested only a small number of effect modifiers or considered the number
 21 (e.g., via multiplicity control) in their statistical analysis
- 22 • for continuous variables, whether arbitrary cut points were avoided
- 23 • any other considerations that may increase or decrease the credibility, on a case-by-case basis.

24 Interim Results

25 In certain situations, interim results are submitted for appraisal by the CDA-AMC review team. The potential
 26 for overestimation of the treatment effect should be noted for interim study results, thus the adequacy of
 27 adjustments for multiplicity are appraised by the CDA-AMC reviewer, in addition to other considerations listed
 28 in this methods guide that apply to all HTA appraisals of final results.

29 Certainty of Evidence Assessment

30 *Framework and Domains Considered*

31 The certainty in the body of clinical trial evidence (which may be composed of 1 or more pivotal trials or
 32 other RCTs) for each selected effectiveness or harm comparison outcome is assessed according to GRADE
 33 guidance.²⁰ The certainty of evidence from RCTs begins at *high* and is rated down (to *moderate*, *low*, or *very*
 34 *low*) for uncertainty related to the following factors:⁴³

- 35 • study limitations (risk of bias)

1 • inconsistency in effects across studies

2 • indirectness

3 • imprecision in effects

4 • publication bias.

5 The certainty of evidence from bodies of evidence composed of pivotal studies that did not use
6 randomization to allocate patients to comparison groups (including single arms trials, with or without a
7 comparison to an external control estimate) is generally started at low (acknowledging the likely risk of
8 selection bias and residual confounding), with the opportunity to rate up (to moderate or high) when, in the
9 absence of other serious limitations:⁴³

10 • there is a large magnitude of effect

11 • there is a dose-response gradient

12 • all plausible residual confounders or biases would reduce an apparent treatment effect.

13 The certainty of evidence for outcomes assessed in single-arm trials without any formal external comparison
14 is generally started at very low without the opportunity to rate up, acknowledging that this study design
15 does not allow for definitive conclusions regarding the efficacy or harms of a drug product relative to any
16 comparator.

17 For each relevant outcome, the CDA-AMC review team prioritizes rating certainty in a clinically important
18 effect, based on information submitted by the sponsor (e.g., minimally important differences when provided
19 by the sponsor, literature, and/or consultation with clinical expert[s]). When no threshold for clinically
20 important (relative) treatment effect can be determined, the review team may assess certainty in any effect
21 (i.e., non-null effect). In such cases, the clinical importance of the estimated between-group differences is
22 uncertain and is explicitly described as such.

23 **Summary of Findings Tables**

24 Results of the certainty of CDA-AMC evidence appraisals are reported in Summary of Findings tables,⁴⁴
25 including footnotes to transparently detail the reasons for rating the certainty of evidence down (or in rare
26 cases, rating up).²⁰

27 **Critical Appraisal of ITCs**

28 ITCs are increasingly used to evaluate the comparative effectiveness and harms of treatments and
29 comparators in the absence of direct head-to-head trials. However, ITCs make assumptions that, if violated,
30 can lead to biased results. Few validated ITC appraisal tools and checklists exist, but CDA-AMC reviewers
31 may use appropriate tools to aid in their appraisals. Other HTA organizations have technical guidance for
32 the conduct and reporting of ITCs that may also be helpful to CDA-AMC reviewers for critically appraising
33 sponsor-submitted ITCs. For example, technical guidance documents are available from the NICE
34 Decision Support Unit,⁴⁵⁻⁴⁹ as well as from the International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes
35 Research.^{21,50} When applicable, reviewers will document the choice of tool(s) applied in the ITC appraisal in
36 the CDA-AMC clinical report.

1 To facilitate the appraisals, the sponsor-submitted evidence should be reported in accordance with relevant
 2 minimum reporting standards, such as the PRISMA extension for NMAs (PRISMA-NMA),⁵¹ with consideration
 3 for the updated guidance in PRISMA 2020 (*PRISMA Extension for Reviews Incorporating NMA*).¹⁹ While
 4 there is a GRADE approach to the assessment of the certainty of NMA estimates, this application of GRADE
 5 is not currently used by CDA-AMC reviewers at this time. Sponsors are encouraged to provide a thoroughly
 6 detailed and transparent technical report of the evidence base and assumptions underlying the ITC results to
 7 improve the interpretability and credibility of the ITC findings.

8 Feasibility Assessment

9 An important part of the critical appraisal is identifying whether a submitted ITC was feasible. It is a best
 10 practice to assess the feasibility of conducting an ITC before starting the analysis. This involves evaluating
 11 whether there is enough high-quality data and appropriate conditions to ensure the comparison will be valid
 12 and reliable. The sponsor's submitted ITC technical report should document the feasibility assessment and
 13 support the decision to proceed with the ITC. If the methods and results of the feasibility assessment are
 14 not reported or a feasibility assessment was not conducted, then this will be indicated in the CDA-AMC
 15 clinical report.

16 In brief, the feasibility assessment should include the following elements.

- 17 • **Evidence synthesis:** This takes the form of an ITC based on a systematic literature review to identify
 18 all relevant studies and treatment comparisons following the PICO(T)(S) framework. Sponsors may
 19 leverage the SR to identify pivotal and other trial evidence for their submission. The process and
 20 rationale for identifying, selecting, and including or excluding relevant RCTs should be provided in the
 21 technical report.
- 22 • **Network structure evaluation:** This is a network diagram to visualize direct and indirect
 23 comparisons among treatments, to allow the determination of whether methods for connected
 24 (anchored) or unconnected (unanchored) networks are feasible.
- 25 • **Determination of availability of IPD:** This involves the identification of trials that have IPD available
 26 to inform the use of population-adjustment methods, and to assess the quality and completeness of
 27 IPD for capturing key effect modifiers and prognostic factors.
- 28 • **Check of similarity and homogeneity:**
 - 29 ◦ **Similarity:** This involves the assessment of distributions of potential effect modifiers across trials
 30 to judge plausibility of the constant relative effects assumption (similarity) required for NMAs.
 31 A comprehensive list of potential effect modifiers should be established before conducting the
 32 evidence synthesis. This list should be informed at least by findings from prior studies on the
 33 therapeutic indication and by clinical expert input. The process for identifying relevant effect
 34 modifiers and the rationale for which ones were considered to apply to the comparisons should
 35 be transparently documented. Numerous qualitative and quantitative methods exist for assessing
 36 similarity. These range from visually comparing study designs and PICO characteristics to meta-
 37 regression analysis to assess the impact of study-level covariates on treatment effects between
 38 trials. Combining descriptive and statistical approaches is more likely to detect similarities and

differences between studies than relying on a single method. The process should be systematic, thorough, and transparently documented.

- **Homogeneity:** Statistical methods like the Q-test and the I^2 heterogeneity measure are suitable for assessing heterogeneity. However, statistical tests for homogeneity are generally underpowered for detecting heterogeneity. A positive test often signals that heterogeneity exists, but a negative test should be interpreted as inconclusive for homogeneity. Thus, statistical tests for homogeneity should always be conducted and reported, but conclusions regarding homogeneity should also be informed by descriptive comparisons.

- **Study quality:** Risk of bias assessment of relevant effect estimates in each trial should be done before the analysis and may impact the makeup of the base-case model. The included studies should be of similar quality and free from systematic biases that could affect the comparative treatment effect estimates. High variability in study quality can violate the exchangeability assumption. The rationale for why a trial of, for example, lower internal validity (high risk of bias) was included in (or excluded from) the base-case model should be reported and sensitivity analyses performed to explore the impacts on the results from the decision.

The feasibility assessment should clearly describe how these factors were used to determine if the available evidence network can produce comparisons relevant to the target populations and decision context.

18 ITC Limitations

19 [Table 3](#) describes, at a high level, considerations in the assessment of the sponsor-submitted ITC(s). The 20 feasibility assessment for conducting an ITC, if provided, will help inform this appraisal.

21 Table 3: Considerations for the Assessment of ITCs

22

| Area of consideration | Topic | Sample guiding questions or principles |
|------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| General considerations | Rationale for use of ITC | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why is the ITC required? Justification for use of the ITC should be provided given that ITCs have the potential for less certainty relative to direct evidence due to the assumptions that must be met. • What does the ITC add if direct head-to-head evidence vs. relevant comparators is available? |
| | Research question | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the research question that the ITC addresses? Is the estimand adequately defined? • Is the research question relevant to the review objectives? If not, are deviations adequately justified? • Was the target population specified in the research question described? Details about how the target population relates to the Health Canada indication, reimbursement request, or other subpopulations (e.g., by specific lines of treatment) should be included. |

| Area of consideration | Topic | Sample guiding questions or principles |
|---|--|---|
| Assessing the evidence base and network | Systematic literature review | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Was there a predefined protocol? Are deviations from the protocol adequately justified? • Were inclusion or exclusion criteria per the PICO(T)(S) framework clearly defined? Are the PICO(T)(S) relevant? |
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Was there a comprehensive literature search? • Do methods for study selection and data extraction minimize error and bias? • Was the study selection, data extraction, and risk of bias assessment performed independently by 2 reviewers or done by 1 reviewer and checked by another? • Were included studies described in adequate detail, and is justification provided for excluded studies? |
| | Network geometry | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there a connected network of trials linking the treatment(s) of interest through a common comparator(s)? • In a connected network, is the rationale for the choice of common comparator(s) provided? • Are there closed loops (direct evidence)? • Are the number of studies contributing to each comparison provided? |
| | Assumptions (exchangeability [similarity or homogeneity], transitivity, consistency) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there sufficient similarity across trials in terms of study design, populations, interventions, and outcomes? • Are the distributions of potential effect modifiers sufficiently balanced across trials in the network? • Is there evidence of heterogeneity for pairwise comparisons? • Was the quality of the individual trials assessed and reported? Comment on the approach used and its appropriateness to interpret trials with a high risk of bias. • Is there a risk of inconsistency between direct and indirect evidence? |
| Assessing the analysis methods | Network and adjustments | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If a connected network exists, were standard NMA methods used when assumptions appeared plausible? • If population adjustment was used, is clear justification provided for why this was needed (e.g., nonconnected network)? • Are the assumptions underpinning the anchored vs. unanchored comparison(s) described and met? |
| | Statistical methods | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Were the statistical procedures transparently described in sufficient detail? • Was appropriate rationale provided for the choice of statistical procedures? • Do methods for study selection and data extraction minimize error and bias? • Was a satisfactory method used to appraise risk of bias for each relevant effect estimate? • Tools that may be leveraged in the appraisal of ITCs include the AMSTAR 2⁵² tool to assess quality and ROBIS⁵³ tool to assess risk of bias. |

1 AMSTAR 2 = A MeaSurement Tool to Assess systematic Reviews 2; ITC = indirect treatment comparison; NMA = network meta-analysis; PICO(T)(S) = population(s),
 2 intervention(s), comparator(s), outcome(s), time or time frame, study design or setting; ROBIS = Risk of Bias in Systematic Reviews; vs. = versus.

3 Real-World Evidence

Real-World Data⁵⁴

RWD are data relating to patient status and/or the delivery of health care collected from a variety of sources, and can include electronic medical records, clinical and disease registries, and administrative databases.

Real-World Evidence⁵⁴

RWE is evidence on the use, safety, effectiveness, and cost of health technologies that is derived from RWD.

4
 5 Prospectively planned RCTs continue to be the most robust study design for estimating the causal effects of
 6 interventions. However, the generalizability of RCTs is often limited, and RCTs may not address all research
 7 questions relevant to assessments of comparative clinical effectiveness and harms. Additionally, the conduct
 8 of RCTs is not always feasible in certain diseases or disorders (such as rare diseases, because of the limited
 9 number of patients), or for ethical reasons (in populations such as children, patients who are pregnant, or
 10 older adults).

11 Best practices in using RWE includes the need to integrate it with other evidence sources.

12 Examples of situations where additional RWE studies may fill gaps in the clinical evidence include:

- 13 • primary evidence for situations in which it is not feasible or ethical to conduct a robust RCT that will
 14 address the HTA question of comparative effectiveness and harms
- 15 • to address evidence gaps and/or remaining uncertainties regarding comparative
 16 effectiveness and harms
- 17 • to provide evidence of long-term safety and effectiveness (durability of treatment effect)
- 18 • additional evidence on selected populations (subgroups, or expand beyond the population as
 19 described by the indication), or on other dosing regimens or treatment durations
- 20 • to supplement clinical trial data by providing additional data on patient-reported outcome measures
 21 and patient-reported experience measures related to patient preferences, values, health,
 22 experiences, or goals for care and treatments, collected outside of a controlled clinical trial
- 23 • to provide contextual information (note that the types of evidence outlined subsequently are not
 24 generally part of the clinical evidence submitted by the sponsor to address the research question of
 25 comparative clinical effectiveness or harms, or long-term [comparative] effectiveness; these evidence
 26 types may provide input to the health economic analyses, or other information to contextualize
 27 decision-making):
 - 28 ◦ the use of medication in the real world (e.g., duration of treatment, persistence, adherence)

- 1 ◦ burden of illness studies to characterize health conditions and patient populations (as defined
2 by the indication, or a subpopulation), and/or to understand the current treatment setting (local
3 standard of care treatments, care pathway from diagnosis through treatments, and so on)
4 ◦ input for economic models: incidence and prevalence, baseline rates of events transition
5 probabilities, health care resource utilization, and so on.

6 Reporting of RWE

7 The CDA-AMC *Guidance for Reporting Real-World Evidence*⁵⁴ provides guidance on the clear, complete,
8 and transparent reporting of study methodology and findings, as outlined in [Table 4](#). This fosters credibility
9 and trust in the results and facilitates appraisal by CDA-AMC reviewers.

10 **Table 4: Summary of the CDA-AMC Guidance for Reporting Real-World Evidence**⁵⁴

11

| Section | Key considerations |
|--|---|
| Section 1: Study design and research questions | Establish the aims or study design and describe key elements of the study (e.g., estimand). Develop the protocol a priori. Describe study governance. |
| Section 2: Setting and context | Include important information to contextualize the data source and the study setting. |
| Section 3: Data specifications — access, cleaning methods, and linkage | Describe how the data were accessed, cleaned, collected, and linked. |
| Section 4: Data sources, data dictionary, and variables | Detail all data sources; provide a data dictionary. |
| Section 5: Participants | Describe who is in the study and how they were identified. |
| Section 6: Exposure definitions and comparators | Describe exposures and/or comparators and how they were defined and captured. |
| Section 7: Outcomes | Define and explain all study outcomes (primary, secondary, and exploratory) and why they were selected. |
| Section 8: Bias, confounding, and effect modifiers or subgroup effects | Report all procedures used to address potential sources of bias and confounders and expected influence on the study results. Describe any relevant effect modifiers or subgroup analyses. |
| Section 9: Statistical methods | Provide details of statistical methods and rationale for selection. Share code. |
| Section 10: Study findings | Report all key results (estimated effect measures, measures of precision). Report all adjusted and unadjusted results. Avoid selective reporting. |
| Section 11: Interpretation and generalizability | Provide an interpretation of the primary and secondary study results. Discuss the internal and external validity of the results. |
| Section 12: Limitations | Provide a consideration of limitations of the study, including the impact of bias and confounding. |

12 CDA-AMC = Canada's Drug Agency; RECORD-PE = Reporting of Studies Conducted Using Observational Routinely Collected Health Data Statement for
13 Pharmacoepidemiology; STROBE = Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology.

14 Note: Commonly used reporting tools include RECORD-PE⁵⁵ and STROBE.⁵⁶

1 **Appraisal of RWE**

2 All RWE is appraised generally as per usual methodology for appraisal of observational studies. Appraisal of
3 the evidence from real-world studies of comparative effectiveness, including clinical trials that use RWD to
4 form an external control arm, may be facilitated by the use of tools such as the yet unpublished International
5 Society for Pharmacoepidemiology RWE Appraisal tool, and the ROBINS-I tool,²⁸ or other tools as deemed
6 appropriate by the CDA-AMC reviewer. The application of a selected appraisal tool would be documented in
7 the clinical report.

8 Appraisal domains considered include data source and quality, study design, data analysis,
9 confounding, and bias.

10 **Data source and quality:** RWE utilizes various data sources, including but not limited to electronic health
11 records, health care administrative databases, patient registries, and pharmacy and lab data. CDA-AMC
12 reviewers consider the relevance of the data source(s) and the suitability of the data elements within
13 the database to generate information that would address the research question of the RWE study; the
14 sponsor should provide sufficient detail to facilitate this assessment. Incomplete, inaccurate, or missing
15 data can lead to flawed analyses and unreliable conclusions.⁵⁷ Relevant tools, such as the International
16 Society for Pharmacoepidemiology and Outcomes Research SUITABILITY checklist for assessing RWD from
17 electronic health records,⁵⁸ may be used by CDA-AMC reviewers in the appraisal of data quality for relevant
18 comparative RWE studies.

19 **Study design:** High-quality nonrandomized studies can produce valid estimates of relative treatment effects
20 in certain situations, provided appropriate study design and statistical methods are used to minimize and
21 control for bias and confounding. Common study design principles to improve that likelihood include target
22 trial emulation, inclusion of new users of the drug product rather than those who have been using the drug
23 product for some time (prevalent users), the use of active comparators or alternate interventions for the
24 same indication, negative controls (non-users), and target or final clinical outcomes such as mortality. These
25 study design elements are best depicted graphically,⁵⁹ which facilitates the appraisal of the appropriateness
26 of the study design to address the research question by the CDA-AMC reviewer.

27 **Data analysis, bias, and confounding:** CDA-AMC reviewers consider the appropriateness of the
28 statistical analysis, including the types of methods chosen and whether all known confounding variables
29 are appropriately controlled. Biases can result in underestimation or overestimation of true intervention
30 effects. RWE has greater vulnerability to biases, hence the assessment of a lower certainty in the treatment
31 effect relative to other relevant comparators or different care options. Domains of bias assessed by the
32 International Society for Pharmacoepidemiology's RWE appraisal tool for comparative RWE studies
33 include: the potential for bias due to exposure or outcome misclassification (misclassification bias), study
34 design biases due to study design decisions (e.g., immortal time bias), the potential for bias due to residual
35 confounding, the potential for bias due to suboptimal implementation of propensity scores, and the potential
36 for bias due to missing and suboptimal handling of missing data. The 7 domains of bias assessed in
37 the ROBINS-I assessment tool are: confounding, selection bias, bias in measurement classification of
38 interventions, bias due to deviations from intended interventions (performance bias), bias due to missing

- 1 data, bias in the measurement of outcomes, and selective reporting bias.²⁸ Refer also to the earlier section
 2 describing common risk of bias assessments in other trial designs.
- 3 Any scenario or sensitivity analyses undertaken should be detailed in the sponsor submission, as these may
 4 support the estimation of the relative treatment effect and mitigate uncertainty.

5 **Outputs of the Clinical Evidence Review**

6 **Informative Statements**

7 Informative statements on the CDA-AMC appraisal of the sponsor-submitted clinical evidence are intended
 8 to inform the committee in their deliberation. Both GRADE and other informative statements are intended
 9 to support the committee in efficient deliberations by explicitly summarizing the level of certainty of any
 10 statements about the clinical evidence in a consistent and transparent manner.

11 **GRADE Informative Statements**

12 GRADE informative statements⁶⁰ are used to describe the certainty of evidence included in the SR (pivotal
 13 trials and other RCTs) for each important outcome, both in the Summary of Findings tables and in the CDA-
 14 AMC reviewer report text. The statements describe the magnitude, direction, and certainty of the observed
 15 effects, as follows:

- 16 • results in high-certainty evidence
- 17 • likely results in moderate certainty evidence
- 18 • may result in low-certainty evidence
- 19 • very uncertain, very low-certainty evidence.

20 **Other Informative Statements**

21 CDA-AMC reviewers will use informative statements in order to facilitate the clear and transparent reporting
 22 of the findings of the CDA-AMC evidence appraisal. Some examples of potential informative statements are
 23 shown here.

24 Based on the (direct or indirect) comparison, patients (as per indication) treated with (the intervention)
 25 (description of change [e.g., improved or had similar effect, or other appropriate terminology];
 26 the efficacy comparison end point[s]); compared to (relevant comparator[s]). Relative safety and
 27 tolerability were (description of change [e.g., improved or similar to]) (relevant comparator[s]).

28 (This would be followed by the [summary of] evidence to support the informative statement.) For example,
 29 where drug X is the drug product under review:

30 Based on direct comparison, patients with disease or condition ABC treated with drug X
 31 demonstrated improved overall survival (OS) compared to drug Y. Safety and tolerability were similar
 32 for drug X compared to drug Y.

33 Evidence: The previous statements are based on results from Study 123: RCT of X versus Y in
 34 (patient population), with primary end point of OS.

1 An alternative example might be as follows:

2 In a MAIC including multiple studies, patients with condition ABC (as per approved indication) treated
 3 with drug X had improved OS compared to drug Y, and similar OS compared to drug Z. Harms were
 4 similar across drug treatments based on the rate of SAEs including death, common AEs, and rates of
 5 discontinuation of treatment.

6 Evidence: The previous statements are based on a MAIC (summary of supporting evidence).

7 If RWE is submitted to address evidence gaps of (comparative) effectiveness and safety, or long-term
 8 benefits and harms:

- 9 • list the uncertainties (from clinical interventional trials)
- 10 • state if the RWE was designed to address the research question(s) that would address the
 11 evidence gap(s)
- 12 • provide conclusions from the RWE assessment.

13 For example:

- 14 • Uncertainties were efficacy in the population beyond that defined in trials, in particular patients with
 15 efficacy versus relevant active comparators (Y) or (Z), and duration of response beyond (number)
 16 weeks of treatment; that is, long-term effectiveness and safety.
 - 17 ◦ Regarding the **efficacy in the population beyond that defined in trials**: The sponsor submitted
 18 1 RWE study to provide additional evidence in the population with (condition). While these studies
 19 do add to the evidence for a positive effect on outcome (defined) as assessed by (outcome
 20 measure) in (patient population), this study did not address the evidence gap cited for the patient
 21 population defined in the pivotal clinical trials (references), and the outcome (defined) in those
 22 trials, as assessed by (outcome measure).
 - 23 ◦ No new direct evidence was submitted to address the evidence gap of **efficacy or effectiveness**
 24 (based on improvement of [outcome] as assessed by [outcome measure]) **versus active**
 25 **comparators Y or Z, or long-term effectiveness and safety**.
 - 26 ◦ The new ITC did not overcome the limitations of the original ITC; uncertainties noted in the
 27 appraisal of the original ITC were not addressed by this new ITC. Hence, there is **no greater**
 28 **certainty in the comparative effectiveness and safety of drug X versus the other relevant**
 29 **comparators of Y and Z**, based on this new ITC.

30 Evaluation of Economic Evidence

31 Refer to *Guidelines for the Economic Evaluation of Health Technologies: Canada* for more information on
 32 this topic.⁷

1 Value Considerations Contributing to Decision-Making

2 The framework for deliberation and the resulting committee reimbursement recommendation is not only
3 based on clinical or economic evidence, but also other value considerations, including but not limited to
4 patient preferences and values, ethics, and health equity.

5 HTA aims to determine the value of a health technology at different points in its life cycle. Alongside clinical
6 effectiveness, safety, costs and economic implications, relevant dimensions of value include ethical, social,
7 organizational, and environmental considerations, alongside wider implications for patients, caregivers, and
8 other populations.⁶¹ These elements of value may vary depending on the perspective taken, the parties
9 involved, and the decision context. CDA-AMC reviews examine a number of value elements alongside
10 clinical comparative effectiveness and safety. Though these are not the focus of this methods guide,
11 elements of these are detailed in what follows.

12 Qualitative Research

13 The qualitative team engages with qualitatively-derived information to provide an analysis of the
14 expectations, experiences, and perspectives of patients, clinicians, caregivers, policy-makers, product
15 developers, and other relevant parties on a drug product under review. These methods mainly include
16 qualitative evidence synthesis and rapid qualitative evidence synthesis. Other methods may include
17 interview-based studies and consensus approach studies (e.g., Delphi). Data collection may be informed
18 by literature reviews and patient, caregiver, and clinician engagement summaries. The findings can be used
19 to assess:

- 20 • the quality of life and experiences of patients with a disease or condition; this can also include
21 caregiver and clinician perspectives
- 22 • the impact of treatments, tests, and health systems on the quality of life and experiences of patients
23 with a disease or condition; this can also include caregiver and clinician perspectives
- 24 • the experiences and perspectives of patient subpopulations who have a disease or condition and
25 are receiving (or not receiving) a treatment or test; this can also include caregiver and clinician
26 perspectives.

27 Ethical Considerations

28 For certain CDA-AMC drug reviews deemed to be of higher complexity, or when particularly salient ethical
29 considerations may arise, a dedicated Ethics Review will also accompany the Clinical and Economic
30 Evidence Reviews.

31 The objective of the Ethics Review is to identify and describe ethical considerations associated with the use
32 of the drug product under review for its indicated purpose, including considerations related to the disease
33 context, evidentiary basis, the use of the drug product, and impact on health systems.

1 The Ethics Review addresses several research questions, including but not limited to:

- 2 • What ethical considerations arise in the context of the indicated disease or condition, including
3 considerations related to diagnosis, treatment, and outcomes?
- 4 • What ethical considerations arise in relation to the evidence (e.g., clinical and economic data) used to
5 evaluate the drug product under review?
- 6 • What ethical considerations arise in relation to the use of the drug product under review for patients,
7 their caregivers, and their clinicians?
- 8 • What are the ethical considerations for health systems related to the drug product under review?

9 **Overview of Methods for Ethics Reviews**

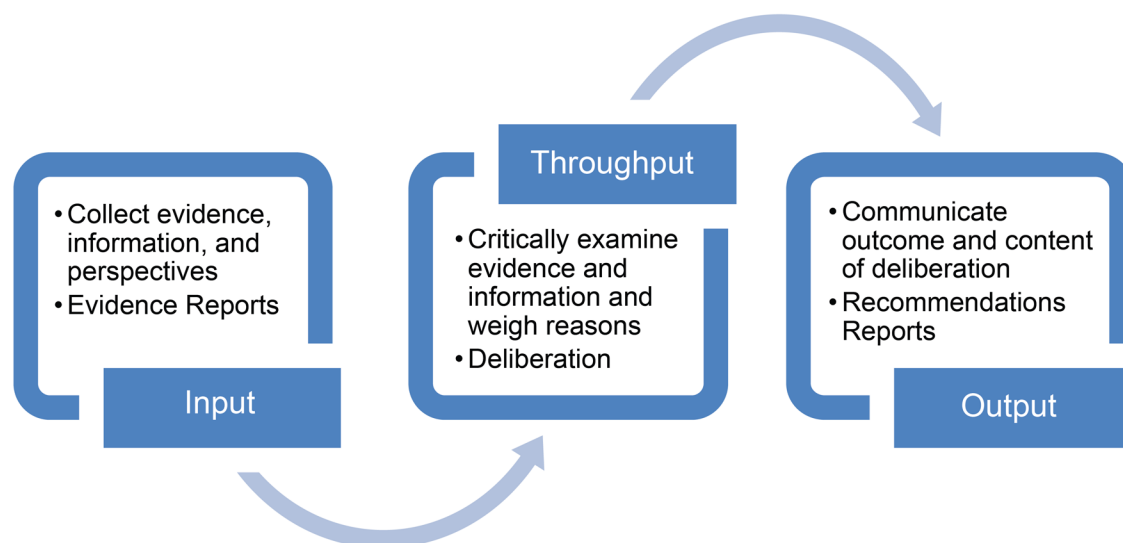
10 Guiding questions identified in the EUnetHTA Core Model 3.0 Ethics Analysis Domain,³ and supplemented
11 by relevant questions from the Equity Checklist for Health Technology Assessments (ECHTA),⁶² drive the
12 identification of ethical and equity considerations relevant to the use of the drug product under review in
13 the treatment of the relevant disease or condition. These guiding questions are organized and analyzed to
14 respond to the research questions.

15 The data used to inform ethics reviews draws on patient and clinician groups, clinical expert, and public drug
16 program input collected during the CDA-AMC Reimbursement Review and a complementary search of the
17 published literature.

18 **Deliberation**

19 During the expert committee meetings, committee members review CDA-AMC Evidence Reports and
20 supporting materials (products of the input phase, described in the following figure), which assess the
21 evidence, information, and perspectives relevant to the drug product or other health technology under review.
22 Following deliberation (the throughput phase), the committees issue recommendations or guidance (the
23 output phase).

Figure 2: Input, Throughput, and Output



1 Adapted from: Bond K et al.⁶³

2 During the expert committee meetings, committee members review CDA-AMC Evidence Reports and
 3 supporting materials from interested parties (products of the input phase) that assess the evidence,
 4 information, and perspectives relevant to the health technology under review. Following deliberation
 5 (throughput phase), the committees issue recommendations or guidance (output phase).

6 The guiding principles for deliberative processes reflect the overarching goals of the health systems that our
 7 recommendations are intended to support:

- 8 • need: allocating health care resources according to the severity and urgency of health conditions,
 9 capacity to benefit, and the acceptability, availability, and effectiveness of alternative health
 10 technologies
- 11 • patient benefit: prioritizing health technologies that deliver net positive outcomes and improvements
 12 for individual or population health
- 13 • health system sustainability: meeting the health and health care needs of the population in a way that
 14 leads to optimal health in the present without compromising availability of resources to current and
 15 future generations
- 16 • health equity: distributing health care resources and arranging health care practices and systems
 17 to minimize unfair or avoidable disparities in health outcomes and experiences of care across the
 18 population.

19 These guiding principles are operationalized in the deliberation using a deliberative framework.

20 In evaluating health technologies, the expert committees are asked to consider 5 domains of value ([Table 5](#)):

- 21 • clinical value
- 22 • unmet clinical need

- 1 • distinct social and ethical considerations
- 2 • economic considerations
- 3 • impacts on health systems.

4 Table 5: Summary of Deliberative Framework Domains

5

| Domain | Description |
|---|--|
| Clinical value | The value that patients derive from a health technology in terms of its effect on their health and health-related quality of life. The determination of the clinical value of a health technology requires the measurement of its clinical benefits and harms and an assessment of the impact of these effects on patients. Clinical benefits and harms are assessed against relevant comparators. |
| Unmet clinical need | Morbidity and/or mortality arising from a condition or symptom that is not addressed effectively by available treatments. |
| Distinct social and ethical considerations | The social and ethical implications of health technologies not already assessed in other domains and how they affect patients, caregivers, populations, and the organization of health systems. It includes nonclinical needs, which are the social, psychological, and logistical factors that influence the appropriateness, accessibility, and acceptability of a health technology beyond its direct clinical outcomes. It also examines the broader social and ethical considerations related to the design, evaluation, and implementation of health technologies. |
| Economic considerations | Economic evidence to inform the financial, human, or other resource implications associated with the technology under review, and whether it is worthwhile to allocate resources to the technology under review given its expected clinical benefits. Considerations may include the potential resource or cost impacts of the technology under review versus relevant comparator(s). |
| Impacts on health systems | Two distinct but interrelated components: organizational feasibility of adoption is the ease with which the health technology can be implemented in the health system while realizing its clinical value, while economic feasibility of adoption examines how the adoption of a health technology will economically impact the payer or budget holder. |

6 Process Elements

- 7 The *Procedures for Reimbursement Reviews* document⁶⁴ outlines the procedures for the CDA-AMC
- 8 Reimbursement Review processes, including those used for oncology drugs, non-oncology drugs, and
- 9 plasma protein and related products reviewed through the interim process.

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1 Appendix 1: Glossary

2 Note that the terms and definitions in this glossary may change over time as language and vocabulary
3 continues to evolve. The terms and definitions included in this list may not be standardized, and their use
4 may vary between individuals, groups, and regions.

5 The [HTA Glossary](#) may also be helpful.

6 Table 6: Glossary of Terms

7

| Term | Definition |
|---|--|
| Appraisal of evidence, critical appraisal | “The process of assessing and interpreting scientific research results by systematically analysing their validity, clinical and statistical significance, and clinical relevance.” ⁶¹ |
| Assessment | “A scientific process used to describe and analyse the properties of a health technology—its safety, efficacy, feasibility and indications for use, cost and cost-effectiveness, as well as social, economic and ethical consequences.” ⁶¹ |
| Drug product | Products eligible for review, or under review, by CDA-AMC. Refer to <i>Procedures for Reimbursement Reviews</i> ⁶⁴ for eligible products. |
| Effectiveness | The effect of a drug (or other technology) observed under routine conditions (in contrast to efficacy). |
| Efficacy | The effect of a drug (or other technology) observed under ideal conditions, such as a clinical trial (in contrast to effectiveness). |
| Estimand | A precise description of the treatment effect that reflects the research question in a clinical trial. It includes the following attributes: treatment and comparator treatment, population, end point, how intercurrent events will be handled in the analysis, and the population summary for the end point. ⁶⁵ A single study may have several estimands. |
| Index date | Generally, this refers to the start of the observational period in a retrospective study of administrative or other health care data. In a comparative effectiveness study of administrative health care data, it would generally refer to the start of exposure to a drug. The index date can vary and should be defined in each study. |
| Intermediate outcome | A clinical end point, such as a measure of a function or of a symptom (i.e., disease-free survival, symptom frequency, functional capacity), but not the ultimate end point of the disease, such as survival or the rate of irreversible morbid events. Improvement in an intermediate outcome due to treatment is well perceived and can be of value to patients even if it does not lead to improvement of morbidity or mortality. |
| Pivotal trial | A study designed to support the efficacy and safety of a drug for a regulatory submission. |
| Reimbursement review | Reimbursement Reviews performed by CDA-AMC are comprehensive assessments of the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness, as well as patient and clinician perspectives, of a drug or drug class. The assessments inform nonbinding recommendations that help guide the reimbursement decisions of Canada's federal, provincial, and territorial governments, with the exception of Quebec. ⁶⁶ |
| Surrogate outcome | A biomarker or intermediate outcome used to substitute for a patient-relevant final (or target) outcome that reliably predicts benefit or harm based on epidemiologic, therapeutic, pathophysiologic, or other scientific evidence. This definition includes both biomarkers (e.g., blood pressure, tumour response), and intermediate outcomes (such as PFS), which may have potential direct relevance to patients. ⁶ |

| Term | Definition |
|------------------------|--|
| Target (final) outcome | Target outcomes of interest in HTA are those that estimate the clinical benefit and thereby help estimate the clinical value of the drug product . The assessment of health benefits considers clinically meaningful end points such as mortality, morbidity, and patient-reported experiences and feelings, symptoms, health behaviours, function, and health-related quality of life. ³ |

¹ CDA-AMC = Canada's Drug Agency; HTA = health technology assessment; PFS = progression-free survival.



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