



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *Contemporary roles of registries in clinical cardiology: When do we need randomized trials?*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/86986/>

Version: Publishers draft (with formatting)

Article:

Ieva, F, Gale, CP and Sharples, LD (2014) Contemporary roles of registries in clinical cardiology: When do we need randomized trials? *Expert Review of Cardiovascular Therapy*, 12 (12). 1383 - 1386. ISSN 1477-9072

<https://doi.org/10.1586/14779072.2015.982096>

Reuse

Unless indicated otherwise, fulltext items are protected by copyright with all rights reserved. The copyright exception in section 29 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 allows the making of a single copy solely for the purpose of non-commercial research or private study within the limits of fair dealing. The publisher or other rights-holder may allow further reproduction and re-use of this version - refer to the White Rose Research Online record for this item. Where records identify the publisher as the copyright holder, users can verify any specific terms of use on the publisher's website.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>



Contemporary roles of registries in clinical cardiology: when do we need randomized trials?

Journal:	<i>Expert Review of Cardiovascular Therapy</i>
Manuscript ID:	ERK-2014-0130.R1
Manuscript Type:	Editorials
Keywords:	Clinical Cardiology, Evidence Based Medicine, Clinical Registries, Routinely collected Data, Observational Data, Randomized Controlled Trials, Clinical Practice

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

TITLE

Contemporary roles of registries in clinical cardiology: when do we need randomized trials?

ABSTRACT

Clinical registries are established as tools for auditing clinical standards and benchmarking quality improvement initiatives. They also have an emerging role (as electronic health records) in cardiovascular research and, in particular, the conduct of Randomized Controlled Clinical Trials (RCTs). Whilst the RCT is accepted as the most robust experimental design, observational data from clinical registries has become increasingly valuable for RCTs. Data from clinical registries may be used to augment results from RCTs, identify patients for recruitment and as an alternative when randomization is not practically possible or ethically desirable. Here we appraise the advantages and disadvantages of both methodologies, with the aim of clarifying when their joint use may be successful.

KEYWORDS

Clinical Cardiology, Evidence Based Medicine, Clinical Registries, Routinely collected Data, Observational Data, Randomized Controlled Trials, Clinical Practice

BODY**Introduction**

Electronic health records have, in recent years, become increasingly important for the evaluating the quality of clinical care, the integration of clinical information and improvements in efficiency and cost effectiveness. In parallel with this, clinical registries have become established as tools for auditing clinical standards, and designing and benchmarking quality improvement initiatives. As a result, there has been a growth in the number, size and quality of clinical registries, particularly in the field of cardiology – many of which are now national in their coverage [1-4]. This development, coupled with an appreciation of the relevance of real “world data”, has resulted in a greater use of clinical registries for observational research. Although theoretical and practical difficulties may arise, with careful design and data linkage these registries can also be used effectively, in a clinical trial format, to test hypotheses [5].

Limitations of RCTs

The Randomized Controlled Clinical Trial (RCT) is almost universally accepted as the most robust experimental design for estimating the effects of interventions and is promoted as the preferred approach to ensure study quality in a hierarchical ‘pyramid of evidence’ [6]. If properly designed and conducted, RCTs provide an unbiased assessment of treatment effects in the trial population, **enable a reliable estimate of small to moderate effects**, and form the basis for recommendations regarding prevention and treatment programmes. These explanatory trials have strong internal validity. However, they are often conducted in (sometimes highly) selected populations rather than in the population presenting in clinical practice, and so such trials may have limited external validity [7]. For example, compared with patients enrolled in the Acute Study of Nesiritide in Decompensated Heart Failure (ASCEND-HF) trial, patients in a simultaneous registry differed significantly on clinical characteristics, treatments, and inpatient outcomes [8]. When Stuart and colleagues [9] used propensity-score-based metrics to quantify the similarity of participants in an RCT with a target population, it was found that unmeasured characteristics differing between the sample and population impacted on the generalizability of the study. Moreover, RCTs do not necessarily answer questions of primary interest, such as, “will the programme be effective in a target population in

1
2
3 which it may be implemented?" [10]. That is, it is not always possible to be confident that results can be
4
5 applied to routine clinical practice [11-12]. Yet, clinical practice may change considerably as a result of a
6
7 'positive' RCT outcome and the intervention subsequently applied to a much wider patient group who are
8
9 less representative of the study population. **Last but not least, many RCTs are industry sponsored, which**
10
11 **may incur bias such as more favorable results and conclusions compared with sponsorship by other**
12
13 **sources. [13]**

16 17 **Strengths of registries**

18 The importance of the applicability of evidence to policy recommendations highlights the need to consider
19
20 evidence from clinically relevant situations, not all of which have been assessed by RCTs. Data from clinical
21
22 registries may be used to **formulate hypotheses for testing in RCTs** and, **with careful design and**
23
24 **incorporation of modern causal inference analysis methods**, may be used as an alternative when
25
26 randomization is not practically possible or ethically desirable. Although generally providing a lower
27
28 evidence-level than RCTs, observational studies can make an important contribution to the evidence base
29
30 when the study outcomes are clinically important, and the populations involved are representative.

31
32
33 Registries have value in clinical cardiology trials in a range of ways. They can inform trial design - providing
34
35 information on recruitment, baseline characteristics, exclusions, attrition and outcomes. For some
36
37 databases, in which reporting is complete due to regulatory body or other mandate, they can make trials
38
39 more efficient by allowing enhanced recruitment and follow up [14-16], easing the linkage among different
40
41 sources of data. Use of survival statistics linked to death registries at national level, in which information on
42
43 the long term mortality due to any cause can be obtained, has long been established. Such data have been
44
45 used both for trial design and alongside trial results. This serves to validate the results as well as put them
46
47 in a wider, more generalizable, context [17-19]. Furthermore, data routinely collected in cardiovascular
48
49 registries may be used for additional endpoints, and if necessary weighted by their importance to patients
50
51 [20]. Clinical registries and administrative, routinely-collected data have great potential for clinical research,
52
53 since they are population based and combine information from multiple centers. In so doing, if the design is
54
55 consistent across districts (and possibly between countries) of interest, and properly managed at a central
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 level, they could capture complete health system use. Finally, they are usually inexpensive compared with
4
5 RCTs [21].
6
7

8 **Limitations of registries**

9
10 Despite the wide range of benefits brought by registries to clinical practice, their *caveats* must be borne in
11
12 mind. The validity and practical utility of observational clinical research is dependent on a number of
13
14 factors including, good study design, excellent data quality, consistent data definitions, reliable linkage,
15
16 robust statistical methods and accurate interpretation especially if we are to infer causal relationships
17
18 between clinical treatments and outcomes. Moreover, it is crucial to state clearly in which situations
19
20 benefit from using clinical registries may arise, in order to encourage confidence in the validity of results
21
22 among clinical peers. Situations in which clinical registries may be of use, among others, are those where,
23

- 24 • there is an easily measured, universally recorded, objective outcome in a stable identifiable
25 population. For example, death within 30 days of primary percutaneous coronary intervention as
26 recorded in a national database [22];
- 27 • chronic conditions, requiring long-term follow-up are the primary focus of the study; for example
28 hospitalizations in patients with chronic heart failure;
- 29 • there is a limited funding, since answering the question under investigation is not profitable for
30 industry or not relevant to research charities' agendas. For example, a comparative effectiveness
31 analysis of New Oral Anticoagulant (NOAC) drugs [23];
- 32 • intervention vs. usual care evaluation is required. For example, the use of biomarkers to guide
33 heart failure treatment [24];
- 34 • external validity with less selection bias is necessary; For example, the impact of specific
35 antiplatelet therapies on major adverse cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events after acute
36 coronary syndrome [25];
- 37 • there is an aim/need to inform healthcare decisions. For example, the use of a risk score for the
38 evaluation of adherence to guideline recommended therapies in patients with acute coronary
39 syndrome;
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- cost-effectiveness analyses are needed, as for expensive highly desired treatment. For example, the use of transcatheter aortic valve implantation for aortic stenosis [26];
- other trials have failed to recruit. For example, TRIGGER-PCI which was stopped prematurely for futility because of a lower than expected incidence of the primary endpoint [27].

Combining RCT and registry data sources

With the availability of enhanced computational power, in recent years it has become easier to model the complexity and the constraints characterizing contemporary healthcare systems, so that synthesis of data from both RCTs and registries is possible. For instance, in the UK the appraisal of new treatments often involves the use of decision models which take account of evidence from RCTs (providing robust treatment effects) and registries (providing long-term survival estimates and baseline estimates of clinical risk) [16].

The desire for the joint use of RCTs and registries that, therefore, overcome the weaknesses of each type of study and take advantage of their benefits, has also led to innovative research designs such as the “Cohort Multiple Randomised Control Trials” [28]. In this design, the randomization is embedded in routinely presenting patient cohorts in order to eliminate selection bias, thus retaining the characteristics of normal clinical practice, but also maintaining the unbiased treatment allocation afforded by randomisation. The Thrombus Aspiration during ST-Segment Elevation Myocardial Infarction (TASTE) trial [29] enrolled participants from the national comprehensive Swedish Coronary Angiography and Angioplasty Registry (SCAAR), part of the wider SWEDEHEART registry [2]. This registry holds data on consecutive patients from all 29 Swedish and 1 Icelandic coronary intervention centers, is funded solely by national health authorities, and provides immediate and continuous feedback on processes and quality of care measures. All baseline and procedural data are entered online. The primary end point, 30-day all-cause mortality, was obtained from the national population registry. The secondary end points, for which data were obtained from the SWEDEHEART registry and the national discharge registry, included among others 30-day rates of myocardial infarction and stent thrombosis. After providing initial verbal consent, patients who fulfilled the study inclusion criteria were randomly assigned, in a 1:1 ratio, to thrombus aspiration followed by PCI or to

1
2
3 PCI only. This study achieved high recruitment rates at a much lower cost than a conventional RCT, and
4
5 provided the clinical community with timely and generalizable results.
6
7

8 This is an example of how the joint use of clinical registries and RCTs may help mitigate some of the
9
10 limitations characterizing the single methodologies. In the future, it is likely that much greater quantities of
11
12 routine healthcare data will be collected and made available. If properly managed, these data may be used
13
14 to enrich clinical information and possibly to monitor and evaluate results of classical trials in wider
15
16 populations over time, increasing the applicability and effectiveness of research.
17
18
19
20
21
22

23 KEY ISSUES

24 Clinical Registries

25 *Pros*

- 26 • Provide evidence from clinically relevant situations, which may not have been assessed by RCTs.
- 27 • Can be used when randomization is not practically possible or ethically desirable.
- 28 • Inform trial design in clinical cardiology providing information on recruitment, baseline
29 characteristics, exclusions, attrition and outcomes.
- 30 • **Generate hypotheses for testing in RCTs.**
- 31 • Make trials more efficient by allowing enhanced recruitment and follow up, easing the linkage
32 among different sources of data.
- 33 • Provide strong external validity.
- 34 • Are population based and can capture complete health system use.
- 35 • Less expensive than RCTs.
- 36 • **Mitigate industry bias.**

37 *Cons*

- 38 • Validity and practical utility dependent on study design and data quality.

- Management and linkages still to be improved at national level.
- Not always suitable for inferring causal relationships between clinical treatments and outcomes.

RCTs

Pros

- Are the most robust experimental design for estimating the effects of interventions.
- Preferred approach to ensure study quality.
- Provide an unbiased assessment of treatment effects in the trial population.
- Strong internal validity.
- **Detect small to moderate effects reliably.**

Cons

- Often conducted in selected population - limited external validity.
- Are (sometimes prohibitively) expensive.
- **May incur industry bias.**

REFERENCES

[1] Gale CP, Weston C, Denaxas S *et al.* NICOR Executive. Engaging with the clinical data transparency initiative: a view from the National Institute for Cardiovascular Outcomes Research (NICOR). *Heart* 2012; 98 (14): 1040-1043.

[2] Jernberg T, Attebring MF, Hambræus K, *et al.* The Swedish Web-system for enhancement and development of evidence-based care in heart disease evaluated according to recommended therapies (SWEDEHEART). *Heart*. 2010; 96 (20): 1617-1621.

1
2
3 [3] NCDR – National Cardiovascular Data Registry: the American College of Cardiology suite of data.
4
5 [\[https://www.ncdr.com/webncdr/home/\]](https://www.ncdr.com/webncdr/home/)
6
7

8 [4] Ieva F. Designing and mining a multicenter observational clinical registry concerning patients with Acute
9
10 Coronary Syndromes. New diagnostic, therapeutic and organizational strategies for patients with Acute
11
12 Coronary Syndromes (eds: N. Grieco, A.M. Paganoni, M. Marzegalli). Springer-Verlag Italia 2013; chap. 3:
13
14 47-60
15
16

17 [5] Torgerson DJ, Roberts C. Randomisation methods: concealment. *BMJ* 1999; 319: 375
18
19

20 [6] Ho PM, Peterson PM, Masoudi FA. Evaluating the Evidence: Is There a Rigid Hierarchy. *Circulation* 2008;
21
22 118: 1675-1684
23
24

25 [7] Olsen R, Bell S, Orr L, Stuart EA. External Validity in Policy Evaluations that Choose Sites Purposively.
26
27 *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management* 2013; 32(1): 107-121.
28
29

30 [8] Ezekowitz JA, Hu J, Delgado D, *et al.* Acute heart failure: perspectives from a randomized trial and a
31
32 simultaneous registry. *Circ Heart Fail* 2012; 5 (6): 735-741.
33
34

35 [9] Stuart E, Cole SR, Bradshaw CP, Leaf PJ. The use of propensity scores to assess the generalizability of
36
37 results from randomized trials. *JRSS-A* 2011; 174: 369-386.
38
39

40 [10] Schwartz D, Lellouch J. Explanatory and pragmatic attitudes in therapeutical trials. *J Chronic Dis* 1967;
41
42 21: 637-648.
43
44

45 [11] Alexander PE, Bero L, Montori VM, Brito JP. World Health Organization recommendations are often
46
47 strong based on low confidence in effect estimates. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology* 2014; 67.
48
49

50 [12] Venekamp RP, Rovers MM, Hoes AW, Knol MJ. Subgroup analysis in randomized controlled trials
51
52 appeared to be dependent on whether relative or absolute effect measures were used, *Journal of Clinical*
53
54 *Epidemiology* 2014; 67: 410-415.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 [13] Lundh A, Sisonondo S, Lexchin J, *et al.* Industry sponsorship and research outcome. Cochrane Database
4
5 Syst Rev. 2012; 12: MR000033. doi: 10.1002/14651858.MR000033.pub2
6

7
8 [14] Dascanio V, Birks Y, Clark L, *et al.* Randomized cohort trial was shown to be feasible for evaluating
9
10 treatments in low back pain. J Clin Epidemiol. 2014; 67 (8): 940-946.
11

12
13 [15] Fröbert O, Lagerqvist B, Olivecrona GK, James SK *et al.* Thrombus Aspiration during ST-Segment
14
15 Elevation Myocardial Infarction. The new England journal of medicine 2013; 369 (17): 1587-1597
16

17
18 [16] NICE – National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (<https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance>)
19

20
21 [17] Tannen RL, Weiner MG, Xie D. Use of primary care electronic medical record database in drug efficacy
22
23 research on cardiovascular outcomes: comparison of database and randomized controlled trial findings.
24
25 BMJ 2009; 338: b81.
26

27
28 [18] Weiner MG, Xie D, Tannen RL. Replication of the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study using a
29
30 primary care medical record database prompted exploration of a new method to address unmeasured
31
32 confounding. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2008; 17: 661–670.
33

34
35 [19] Tannen RL, Weiner MG, Xie D. Replicated studies of two randomized trials of angiotensin converting
36
37 enzyme inhibitors: further empiric validation of the “prior event rate ratio” to adjust for unmeasured
38
39 confounding by indication. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2008; 17: 671–685.
40

41
42 [20] Ferreira-González I, Busse JW, Heels-Ansdell D, *et al.* Problems with use of composite end points in
43
44 cardiovascular trials: systematic review of randomised controlled trials. BMJ 2007; 14, 334(7597): 786.
45

46
47 [21] Lauer MS, D'Agostino RB, Sr. The randomized registry trial--the next disruptive technology in clinical
48
49 research? N Engl J Med 2013; 369(17): 1579-1581.
50

51
52 [22] Ludman PF. British Cardiovascular Intervention Society Registry for audit and quality assessment of
53
54 percutaneous coronary interventions in the United Kingdom. Heart 2011; 97 (16): 1293-1297.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 [23] Kang N1, Sobieraj DM. Indirect treatment comparison of new oral anticoagulants for the treatment of
4 acute venous thromboembolism. *Thromb Res.* 2014; 133 (6): 1145-1151.
5
6

7
8 [24] Felker GM, Ahmad T, Anstrom KJ. Rationale and Design of the GUIDE-IT Study: Guiding Evidence Based
9 Therapy Using Biomarker Intensified Treatment in Heart Failure. *JACC Heart Fail.* 2014
10
11

12
13 [25] Chin CT, Roe MT, Fox KA, *et al.* TRILOGY ACS Steering Committee. Study design and rationale of a
14 comparison of prasugrel and clopidogrel in medically managed patients with unstable angina/non-ST-
15 segment elevation myocardial infarction: the TaRgeted platelet Inhibition to cLarify the Optimal strateGy to
16 medically manage Acute Coronary Syndromes (TRILOGY ACS) trial. *Am Heart J.* 2010; 160 (1): 16-22.
17
18
19
20
21

22
23 [26] Babaliaros V, Devireddy C, Lerakis S, *et al.* Comparison of Transfemoral Transcatheter Aortic Valve
24 Replacement Performed in the Catheterization Laboratory (Minimalist Approach) Versus Hybrid Operating
25 Room (Standard Approach): Outcomes and Cost Analysis. *JACC Cardiovasc Interv.* 2014; 7 (8): 898-904.
26
27
28

29
30 [27] Trenk D, Stone GW, Gawaz M, *et al.* A randomized trial of prasugrel versus clopidogrel in patients with
31 high platelet reactivity on clopidogrel after elective percutaneous coronary intervention with implantation
32 of drug-eluting stents: results of the TRIGGER-PCI (Testing Platelet Reactivity In Patients Undergoing
33 Elective Stent Placement on Clopidogrel to Guide Alternative Therapy With Prasugrel) study. *J Am Coll*
34 *Cardiol.* 2012; 59 (24): 2159-2164.
35
36
37
38
39

40
41 [28] Relton C, Torgerson D, O’Cathain A, Nicholl J. Rethinking pragmatic randomised controlled trials:
42 introducing the “cohort multiple randomised controlled trial” design. *BMJ* 2010; 340: c1066
43
44
45

46
47 [29] Fröbert O, Lagerqvist B, Gudnason T, *et al.* Thrombus Aspiration in ST-Elevation myocardial infarction
48 in Scandinavia (TASTE trial): a multicenter, prospective, randomized, controlled clinical registry trial based
49 on the Swedish Angiography and Angioplasty Registry (SCAAR) platform: study design and rationale. *Am*
50 *Heart J* 2010; 160: 1042-8.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60