Characteristics and data reporting of rare disease clinical trials:

Getting better but still room for improvement

Nina K. Mair[1], Jürgen Gottowik[1], Raul Rodriguez-Esteban[1] and Timothy J. Seabrook[1]

[1] Roche Pharmaceutical Research and Early Development, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd., Basel,

Switzerland.

Correspondence:

Nina K. Mair, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, 8057 Zürich, Telephone: +41 76 21

07073, E-Mail: mair.nina@virology.uzh.ch.

Word counts for text and abstract: Text, 5421 words; Abstract, 349 words

Figure/table count: 3 figures; 3 tables

Reference count: 39 references

ABSTRACT

Background

It is estimated that there are more than 7,000 rare diseases (RDs) worldwide, impacting the

lives of approximately 400 million people and only 5% have an approved therapy. Facing

special challenges, including patient scarceness, incomplete knowledge of the natural history

and only few specialized clinical sites, clinical trials (CT) are limited, making the data from

trials critical for research and clinical care. Despite the introduction of the U.S. Food and

Drug Administration Amendment Act (FDAAA) in 2007 requiring certain CTs to post results

on the registry ClinicalTrials.gov within 12 months following completion, compliance has

been reportedly poor. Here, we describe general characteristics of RD CTs, identify trends,

and evaluate result reporting practices under the FDAAA aiming to draw awareness to the

problem of non-compliance.

Methods

CTs conducted between 2008 and 2015 were extracted from the public U.S. trial registry

ClinicalTrials.gov using the text mining software I2E (Linguamatics). Disease names were

matched with rare disease names from the Orphanet Rare Disease Ontology (ORDO, v2.5,

Orphanet). Statistical analyses and data visualization were performed using GraphPad Prism

7 and R (v3.5). The Student's t-test was employed to calculate significance using p-value cut-

offs of <0.05 or <0.001.

Results

We analyzed 1,056 RD CTs of which 55.7% were phase 2, 7.7% phase 2/3 and 36.7% phase

3 trials. The studies were mostly one- and two-armed experimental CTs with the majority

(60.2%) being funded by industry. Cystic fibrosis and sickle cell disease represented the most

frequently investigated diseases (25.0% and 16.5%). Industry-led phase 2 RD CTs were

significantly ($p<0.0001$) shorter than their equivalent led by academia/non-profit (22 vs. 33

months). Screening CTs completed before the end of 2015, we found that of the 725 analyzed

studies, 55.2% predominantly phase 2 CTs, did not report results. Taking their potential

applicability to the FDAAA into account, 25.2% industry-funded and 28.0% academia/non-

profit-funded trials failed to disclose results on ClinicalTrial.gov.

Conclusion

RD CTs tend to be comparatively small, industry-funded studies focusing on genetic and

neurologic conditions. Sponsor-related differences in study design, duration, and enrollment

were observed. There are still substantial shortcomings when it comes to result publication.

Key words: ClinicalTrials.gov, rare disease, result publication, FDAAA

INTRODUCTION

In the U.S., rare diseases (RDs) are defined as affecting less than a total of 200,000 people, in

Europe the definition is based on a frequency of 1 in 2,000 or fewer people. It is estimated that

there are more than 7,000 RDs which together impact the lives of approximately 400 million

people worldwide[1], with only half of them being genetically characterized[2]. The medical need

is still high as only 5% of RDs currently have an approved therapy[3]. In order to foster research

in these largely underserved orphan diseases, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)

introduced the Orphan Drug Act in 1983 providing various incentives for the development of

treatments[4]. Despite this initiative being very successful with 745 FDA approvals (428 in the

last ten years), 99.9% of which filed by industry, more therapies are needed[5].

Clinical research in RDs faces challenges which usually have less impact on clinical trials

(CTs) conducted in common diseases. These include patient scarceness, incomplete knowledge

of the natural history and limited clinical sites able to treat these patients. This often results in

a limited number of CTs in each RD, making the data from trials critical for research and

clinical care. Despite the introduction of the U.S. Food and Drug Administration Amendment

Act (FDAAA) in 2007[6] requiring CTs matching specific criteria to post results on

ClinicalTrials.gov within 12 months following trial completion, compliance has been

reportedly poor, which may directly impact patient care and therapy development [7–9]. The

purpose of this report is to describe the general landscape of rare disease clinical trials (RD

CTs), identify trends, and also evaluate result reporting practices after the introduction of the

FDAAA with the goal of drawing awareness to the problem of non-compliance.

METHODS

Data sources

Trial records with a clinical trial identifier (NCT number), a brief/official title and a study start

and end date between 2008 and 2015 were extracted from the publicly accessible U.S. trial

registry ClinicalTrials.gov using the text mining software I2E from Linguamatics. The glossary

of common site terms, which can be found on ClinicalTrials.gov[10], was used to determine if a

CT was experimental, interventional, used an active comparator and other terms used in this

paper.

Data set development

In order to distinguish RD CTs from common disease CTs, ClinicalTrials.gov condition

specifications were matched with RD names from the Orphanet Rare Disease Ontology

(ORDO) version 2.5 provided by Orphanet. Trials studying (rare) malignancies and

communicable diseases were excluded, as well as all studies in phases 1, 1/2 and 4, and those

without a study phase. Oncology CTs were excluded as rare oncology diseases are often

included amongst other more common cancers as part of basket trials and thus did not reflect

a RD CT. Infectious disease CTs included many HIV and hepatitis studies, which are not rare

in much of the world and thus were excluded. Phase 1 studies comprise healthy subjects, not

reflecting RD patient populations.

Studies starting before 2008 were excluded, due to the introduction of the FDAAA in 2007, as

well as studies with a study status other than "completed". Finally, studies involving incorrectly

entered information into the "condition" field of the registry or studies that involved poisoning

or envenomations were manually removed. To examine result reporting, we generated a second

data set including studies with an indicated completion date beyond 2015, to provide the

responsible party with more than two years for the study results to be analyzed and entered on

ClinicalTrials.gov at the time of our analysis.

To determine study location, all study locations in the contacts and locations section of each

study's ClinicalTrials.gov record were examined and counted. A site was counted every time

it was mentioned by a CT. Therefore, a single study site was included multiple times if it hosted

more than one CT during the time period examined.

To determine the sponsor, we extracted the responsible party as indicated on ClinicalTrials.gov

and manually allocated CTs to "industry" or "academia/non-profit" according to the source of

funding. "Industry" referred almost exclusively to registered for-profit companies, while

publicly funded entities, such as universities, foundations, associations and non-profit

organizations were allocated to "academia/non-profit". One study in the final data set of 1,056

studies could not be unambiguously allocated to a sponsor and was therefore excluded from

the respective analyses.

Statistical analyses and data visualization

Statistical analyses and data visualization were performed using GraphPad Prism 7. Microsoft

Excel was used for statistical calculations to analyze enrollment due to cell number limitations

in GraphPad Prism 7. For calculations of significance, Student's t-test was employed using p-

value cut-offs of <0.05 or <0.001 to demonstrate significant results.

RESULTS

Design characteristics of rare disease clinical trials (RD CTs)

An overview of the workflow resulting in the final data set comprising 1,056 RD CTs is shown

in **Fig 1**. Examining the general characteristics of the studies (**Table 1**), we found that trials

were equally distributed across all years from 2008 to 2015 (12.5 ± 1.8% trials per year). More

than half of the studies analyzed were in phase 2 (55.7%), followed phase 3 (36.7%) and 2/3

(7.7%). While phase 2 and phase 3 CTs showed a similar proportion of experimental (77.9%

and 75.5%) and active comparator (17.3% and 21.7%) study arm types, phase 2/3 CTs tended

to include more active comparator studies (29.6%) with 67.9% of the studies being

experimental. Here, 49.4% of all CTs are two-armed studies, followed by one-armed studies

(31.7%). A total of 60.2% CTs were industry-funded and 39.8% were academia/non-profit-

funded. While phase 2 and phase 3 CTs were predominantly industry-sponsored, with 53.9%

and 74.1%, respectively, academia/non-profit prevailed in phase 2/3 CTs (60.5%).

Study Start Year	n (%)	Study Phases	n (%)
2008	149 (14.1)	Phase 2	588 (55.7)
2009	138 (13.1)	Phase 2/3	81 (7.7)
2010	137 (13.0)	Phase 3	387 (36.7)
2011	146 (13.8)	**Number of Arms**	**n (%)**
2012	144 (13.6)	**Phase 2**	**588 (55.7)**
2013	130 (12.3)	1	200 (18.9)
2014	120 (11.4)	2	256 (24.2)
2015	92 (8.7)	3	76 (7.2)
Study Arm Type	**n (%)**	4	39 (3.7)
Phase 2	**588 (55.7)**	5	10 (0.9)

Active Comparator	102 (9.7)	6	3 (0.3)
Experimental	458 (43.4)	8	1 (0.1)
No Intervention	1 (0.1)	10	1 (0.1)
Other	14 (1.3)	22	1 (0.1)
N/A	13 (1.2)	N/A	1 (0.1)
Phase 2/Phase 3	**81 (7.7)**	**Phase 2/3**	**81 (7.7)**
Active Comparator	24 (2.3)	1	19 (1.8)
Experimental	55 (5.2)	2	50 (4.7)
Other	1 (0.1)	3	7 (0.7)
Placebo Comparator	1 (0.1)	4	5 (0.5)
Phase 3	**387 (36.6)**	**Phase 3**	**387 (36.7)**
Active Comparator	84 (8.0)	1	116 (11.0)
Experimental	292 (27.7)	2	215 (20.4)
Other	8 (0.8)	3	37 (3.5)
Placebo Comparator	1 (0.1)	4	12 (1.1)
N/A	2 (0.2)	5	2 (0.2)
		6	4 (0.4)
		7	1 (0.1)

Table 1. *Characteristics of the 1056 completed Phase 2, 2/3 and 3 CTs registered at*

ClinicalTrials.gov. For each study arm type, the overall distribution of the evaluated CTs is

highlighted in bold with the respective proportion of each study arm type listed below. The same

applies to the table depicting the number of study arms.

Disease categories

To generate a more comprehensive view of the RD CT landscape, we analyzed the disease

areas addressed in this data set. By leveraging the Orphanet Diseases 2.5 ontology, we were

able to map all but one trial to specific conditions. Each CT could be allocated to up to seven

diseases and each disease could be assigned to more than one category. The ten most common

rare disease categories were genetic disease (19.4%), neurologic disease (12.3%), respiratory

disease (8.2%), eye disease (6.4%), systemic or rheumatologic disease (5.9%), hematologic

disease (5.4%), renal disease (5.0%), infertility (4.7%), skin disease (4.4%) and developmental

defect (4.1%). These accounted for a total of 75.8% of all diseases. In fact, 92.9% (n=971) of

the RD CTs were mapped to at least one of the top 10 categories. In detail, 35.8% (n=378) of

the studies were mapped to one top-ten category, 21.8% (n=230) were mapped to two and

20.5% (n=216) to three.

Furthermore, we found that the top ten diseases account for 86.2% of all CTs with cystic

fibrosis (CF) accounting for 25.0%, followed by sickle cell disease (16.5%), hemophilia

(8.7%), Fabry disease (6.3%), fragile X syndrome (6.1%), Huntington disease (5.7%),

sarcoidosis (4.9%), systemic sclerosis (4.9%), Friedreich Ataxia (4.3%) and muscular

dystrophies (primarily Duchenne, but also Becker and oculopharyngeal muscular dystrophy)

(3.9%). To determine whether the ten most investigated diseases also reflect the leading

diseases in each category, the various conditions were analyzed based on their by the sponsor

designated category. While, CF dominates the "rare" categories genetic diseases (15.7%),

respiratory diseases (37.1%) and infertility (64.2%), sickle cell disease was found first in the

categories systemic or rheumatologic disease (16.9%) and renal disease (20.0%). The three

most researched conditions in other areas are hemophilia (29.3%) in hematologic disease,

alopecia (24.2%) in skin disease, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (12.1%) in neurologic

disease.

Compared to the entire corpus of 2,257,370 CTs entered in ClinicalTrials.gov, most studies in

ClinicalTrials.gov investigated cancers and other neoplasms (13.8%), followed by general

pathology (10.5%), nervous system diseases (9.2%), digestive system diseases (6.7%), heart

and blood diseases (6.6%) and behaviors and mental disorders (6.5%). Thus, RD CTs represent

a different spectrum of disease areas as compared to more common diseases. To summarize,

the majority of the investigated diseases in our data set are rare genetic and neurologic

conditions with the most extensively explored conditions being CF and sickle cell disease.

Intervention type

Next, intervention types across study phases together with sponsors were analyzed (**Table 2**).

Compared to ClinicalTrials.gov, where 45.6% (n=135,555) of all registered CTs involve drugs

and biologicals as primary intervention type[11], drug interventions (including small molecules)

constituted 78.5% (n=829) of the CTs in our data set, followed by biologicals (13.1%, n=138).

In detail, 81.3% (n=257) of phase 2 RD CTs conducted by industry were found to involve

drugs, followed by biologicals (14.2%, n=45) and devices (2.2%, n=7). Similarly, drugs and

biologicals with 78.7% (n=214) and 5.9% (n=16) respectively, made up the majority of phase

2 CTs in the academia/non-profit sector. Notably, academia/non-profit-led trials tended to

investigate intervention types beyond drugs or biologicals, such as dietary supplements,

devices or procedures. Phase 3 RD CTs were found to be almost exclusively industry-

sponsored and investigate drugs (78.4%) or biologicals (20.9%). Academia/non-profit CTs

focused on drugs (79.8%), but not on biologicals (1.0%). In summary, the majority of studies

investigate drugs with the main sponsor being industry, whereas academia/non-profit-led trials

tend to explore a broader range of intervention types.

Intervention Type per phase	Industry			Academia/Non-Profit		
	n (% per Phase)	n (% per Intervention Type)	n of CTs in this phase (%)	n (% per Phase)	n (% per Intervention Type)	n of CTs in this phase (%)
Phase 2	**316 (53.7)**			**272 (46.3)**		
Behavioral	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.9)	5 (100.0)	5 (1.8)
Biological	45 (7.7)	45 (73.8)	45 (14.2)	16 (2.7)	16 (26.2)	16 (5.9)
Combination Product	1 (0.2)	1 (100.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Device	7 (1.2)	7 (53.8)	7 (2.2)	6 (1.0)	6 (46.2)	6 (2.2)
Dietary Supplement	1 (0.2)	1 (11.1)	1 (0.3)	8 (1.4)	8 (88.9)	8 (2.9)
Drug	257 (43.7)	257 (54.6)	257 (81.3)	214 (36.4)	214 (45.4)	214 (78.7)
Genetic	1 (0.2)	1 (50.0)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.2)	1 (50.0)	1 (0.4)

Other	1 (0.2)	1 (11.1)	1 (0.3)	8 (1.4)	8 (88.9)	8 (2.9)
Procedure	3 (0.5)	3 (20.0)	3 (0.9)	12 (2.0)	12 (80.0)	12 (4.4)
Radiation	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.3)	2 (100.0)	2 (0.7)
Phase 2/Phase 3	**32 (39.5)**			**49 (60.5)**		
Behavioral	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.2)	1 (100.0)	1 (2.0)
Biological	14 (17.3)	14 (87.5)	14 (43.8)	2 (2.5)	2 (12.5)	2 (4.1)
Device	1 (1.2)	1 (25.0)	1 (3.1)	3 (3.7)	3 (75.0)	3 (6.1)
Dietary Supplement	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (4.9)	4 (100.0)	4 (8.2)
Drug	16 (19.8)	16 (30.2)	16 (50.0)	37 (45.7)	37 (69.8)	37 (75.5)
Other	1 (1.2)	1 (100.0)	1 (3.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Procedure	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.5)	2 (100.0)	2 (4.1)
Phase 3	**287 (74.4)***			**99 (25.6)***		
Behavioral	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.5)	2 (100.0)	2 (2.0)
Biological	60 (15.5)	60 (98.4)	60 (20.9)	1 (0.3)	1 (1.6)	1 (1.0)
Device	1 (0.3)	1 (25.0)	1 (0.3)	3 (0.8)	3 (75.0)	3 (3.0)
Dietary Supplement	1 (0.3)	1 (16.7)	1 (0.3)	5 (1.3)	5 (83.3)	5 (5.1)
Drug	225 (58.3)	225 (74.0)	225 (78.4)	79 (20.5)	79 (26.0)	79 (79.8)
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.3)	5 (100.0)	5 (5.1)
Procedure	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.0)	4 (100.0)	4 (4.0)

Table 2. *Intervention Type per Phase and Sponsor for 1055 completed phase 2, 2/3 and 3 CTs registered at ClinicalTrials.gov. One study was removed from the analysis since the sponsor could not be assigned unambiguously to any of the two categories.*

Study location

The selection of investigational sites can be pivotal for enrollment and overall study success and their number varies considerably depending on the sponsor. Out of the 1,056 trials in our data set, 632 (59.8%) entered at least one study site and, analyzing both sponsor categories separately, no significant difference was found. While 58.3% of all 635 CTs run by industry entered a study location, it was 62.1% of those run by academia/non-profit out of a total of 420. One study could not be allocated to a sponsor and was therefore excluded leaving 1,055 trials

for analysis. Although CTs from all around the world can be registered in ClinicalTrials.gov,

we found that 44.3% (n=4,431) of the study sites were located in the U.S.. Here, the sum of

counts by location does not equal the total CT number, as each location indicated by a study is

counted and a single study may be counted more than once. Analyzing the number of sites by

continent, the majority of sites are located in North America (48.5%, n=4,845) and Europe

(33.9%, n=3,387), followed by Asia (11.4%, n=1,141), Central and South America (2.9%,

n=286), Australia and Oceania (2.7%, n=269) and Africa (0.7%, n=72). The countries with the

most study sites were the U.S. with 4,431 sites, Germany with 621 sites, France with 566 sites,

Japan with 429 sites, Canada with 414 sites and the UK with 395 sites as well as Italy and

Spain, with 326 and 251 sites, respectively. Approximately one third of RD CTs were run at a

single site (34.7%, n=219), followed by 14.9% with up to five sites, 12.5% with up to ten sites

and 9.7% with up to 15 sites. 4.6% and 5.4% of the studies had up to 15 and 25 study sites,

respectively, and 1.6% indicated more than 100. The remaining 16.8% were scattered between

25 and 100 study sites. Moreover, industry-led trials significantly increased the number of

study sites with ascending study phase. Accordingly, the mean location number for industry in

phases 2, 2/3 and 3 was 15.0 (median of 7.5), 23.0 (median of 18.0) and 32.7 (median of 23.5),

while for academia the location numbers per phase were 3.1 (median of 1.0), 4.6 (median of

1.0) and 9.6 (median of 1.0). Compared to the entire trial corpus present on ClinicalTrials.gov,

where 40% of the CTs indicated trial sites in the U.S. (35% U.S. only and 5% U.S. and non-

U.S.), we found that RD CTs tend to be more often conducted in the U.S. (44.3%). In summary,

the vast majority of trials entered in ClinicalTrials.gov are conducted in North America and

Europe and despite a correlation between higher numbers of study centers and industry

funding, studies run at only one site are the most common.

Participant enrollment

CT patient recruitment is critical and can be especially challenging in RD CTs due to patient

scarceness and dispersion. The enrollment numbers in our data set follow the typical trend

observed in common diseases in that the number of participants increases with progressing

study phase. Participant numbers were heterogeneous, as reflected by considerable standard

deviation values. The median patient recruitment for industry CTs in phases 2, 2/3 and 3 was

40.0 (interquartile range (IQR), 21-76), 77.5 (IQR, 50-227), and 80.5 (IQR, 37-191),

respectively, vs. 26.0 (IQR, 12-47), 35.0 (IQR, 20-88) and 60.0 (IQR, 23-110) for

academia/non-profit CTs. This enrollment difference between sponsor types was significant

($p<0.05$) in phases 2 and 2/3. The mean enrollment was approximately 96% (industry) and 83%

(academia/non-profit) higher than the median. Of the 73,071 participants enrolled in industry-

funded trials, 59.4% had been recruited for phase 3 CTs, followed by 33.6% for phase 2 CTs,

and 6.9% for phase 2/3 CTs. Academia/non-profit enrolled 44.0% of a total of 24,959

participants in phase 3 CTs, 40.7% in phase 2 CTs, and 15.3% in phase 2/3 CTs. Analyzing

gender eligibility in RD CTs we found that the majority of the studies, 89.3%, admitted

participants of any sex, while 7.1% and 3.6% of RD CTs enrolled only male or female subjects,

respectively. In summary, industry-led trials in all phases enrolled consistently more patients

than academia/non-profit-funded trials, with notable variability as reflected by the standard

deviation in enrollment.

Participant Age

A RD can affect anyone irrespective of age, but at least half of RDs manifest themselves in

early childhood. To determine if this is reflected in RD CTs, the participant age was assessed.

Therefore, the entries for the ClinicalTrials.gov categories "participant age", "participant

minimum age" and "participant maximum age" were retrieved and summarized in **Table 3**. A

minimum age for participants was entered for 92.9% (n=981). Of the CTs showing a minimum

age, 88.2% allowed patients under 18 years to be enrolled. In contrast, only 56.3% of the studies

indicated an upper age limit for participants. Of those, 41.6% indicated an extended age of

eligibility above 65 years and a notable fraction (15.2%) of trials set the maximum age between

11 and 18 years. While extracting the minimum and maximum age limits was fairly

straightforward, the analysis of the participant age, filled out by 96.8% of the studies, proved

complicated due to the lack of uniformity of the information entered. After manual

categorization into age groups, we were able to visualize the data (**Fig. 2**). Even though around

three quarters of the studies set the upper age limit to more than 60 years, numerous studies put

their focus on a younger population, mirrored by the high proportion of studies indicating a

minimum participant age below 18.

Participant Minimum Age	n (%)	Participant Maximum Age	n (%)
< 1 year	24 (2.5)	< 1 year	15 (2.5)
1-10 years	204 (20.8)	1-10 years	31 (5.2)
11-18 years	637 (64.9)	11-18 years	90 (15.2)
19-35 years	66 (6.7)	19-35 years	47 (7.9)
36-65 years	50 (5.1)	36-65 years	164 (27.6)
65<	0 (0.0)	65<	247 (41.6)
Total	**981 (100)**	**Total**	**594 (100)**

269 ***Table 3.*** *Participant minimum and maximum age as indicated by RD CTs in our data set (n=1056).*

Study duration

Another aspect of CTs is study duration, as calculated in this analysis from the study start to

the study completion date. We found that phase 2 studies conducted by industry were, with a

median duration of 22 months (IQR, 14-33), significantly ($p<0.0001$) shorter than their

academia/non-profit-led equivalent, with a median duration of 33 months (IQR, 22-47)(**Fig.**

3). This trend could be similarly observed in phase 3 CTs, with industry conducting shorter

studies with a median of 27 months (IQR, 18-41) versus 34.5 months (IQR, 19-52) for

academia/non-profit CTs (p<0.05). In contrast, the study duration did not differ significantly

in phase 2/3 CTs between industry and academia/non-profit with a median of 29 (IQR, 21-37)

and 31 (IQR, 18-48), respectively. In summary, industry-funded phase 2 and 3 RD CTs are of

a shorter duration than studies led by academia/non-profit.

Result reporting among rare disease clinical trials

In 2007, the FDAAA was introduced requiring the posting of results for eligible studies on

ClinicalTrials.gov within twelve months after study completion (FDAAA section 801). A CT

qualifies as eligible or applicable to the FDAAA if the drug, biological or device under

investigation has been manufactured in the U.S. or its territories, or if the CT has at least one

study site in the U.S. or its territories. To examine result reporting, a second data set of (n=725

CTs) consisting of 55.9% phase 2, 7.6% phase 2/3, and 36.6% phase 3 CTs was generated

(further information provided in **Supplementary table 1**). Overall, 44.8% (n=325) trials had

entered results while 55.2% (n=400) had not. Of those that failed to report results, 65.8% were

phase 2, 9.8% were phase 2/3, and 24.5% were phase 3 CTs. Industry reported consistently

more results over all years (2008-2015) with a total of 56.3% (n=243) reporting RD CTs.

Strikingly, only 28.0% (n=82) of studies conducted by academia/non-profit did likewise. To

explore if sponsors in the non-reporting data set were meeting their obligations under the

regulations, we extracted the RD CTs which were identified as including at least one U.S. site

(n=134) or using a drug manufactured within the U.S. (n=1). For the remainder of the studies

(n=265) determining if the FDAAA was applicable could not be easily concluded from the

information included in ClinicalTrials.gov, thus a random sample of approximately 25%

(n=67) were examined manually. The majority (n=53, 79.1%) of the studies in this sample were

not applicable to the FDAAA, while four (6%) CTs were identified as applicable. The

remaining ten (14.9%) studies in this sample did not provide enough information for a clear

categorization. We found that one of the studies that was not applicable displayed the status

"results submitted" with no results entered in the respective entry field meaning that the results

might currently be under evaluation. Extrapolating the manually extracted data set of 67 studies

to the results of the overall number of non-reporting trials, we estimated that 20.8% of the

included 725 CTs failed to report results although required by U.S. law. Thereof, 105 CTs

(24.3%) are industry-funded and 46 CTs (15.7%) academia/non-profit-funded studies. Adding

trials with unclear applicability (0.9% industry- and 12.3% academia/non-profit-led CTs), the

overall proportion of result non-reporting CTs, although (potentially) legally required,

increases to 25.2% and 28.0% for studies initiated by industry and academia/non-profit,

respectively. In summary, more than half of the industry-funded and roughly one third of

academia/non-profit-funded RD CTs report results online after study completion. Of those that

unambiguously fall under the regulation of the FDAAA, CTs sponsored by academia/non-

profit enter results more often than industry-led CTs, with the latter posting more results online

on a voluntary basis. However, including also potentially applicable CTs, result reporting

practices do not differ between sponsors.

DISCUSSION

We conducted a landscape analysis of completed phase 2, 2/3 and 3 RD CTs registered in the

ClinicalTrials.gov database, including CTs from all disease areas except oncology and

infectious diseases. RD CTs were shown to be mostly sponsored by industry, which is in line

with previous findings in more common diseases[12]. Academia/non-profit CTs prevail in phase

2/3 possibly because CTs in this phase often explore already approved drugs in new

populations, or for extended indications. This falls in line with a previous observation of

academia-led trials peaking predominantly before phase 3[13]. The present industry dominance

in phase 3 CTs, which often are needed for regulatory approval, can be linked to those trials

characteristically being large and of longer duration rendering them costly. Similar to previous

reports, drug interventions represent the most frequent type of intervention in our data set[14].

Unsurprisingly, industry focused on drugs and biologicals in all phases, with biologicals more

common in phase 2/3. Academia/non-profit, although similarly focused on drugs, explored a

broader array of interventions, including devices and dietary supplements. That might be

partially due to the challenges posed by the nature and diversity of the dietary supplements

branch and its globally varying regulations among different jurisdictions or governmental

dominance in this field[15]. The strong presence of academia/non-profit sponsors in CTs around

biologicals and drugs could be due to research done on approved drugs aiming to extend their

scope towards new applications or patient groups in RDs. As previously reviewed[16],

pharmaceutical companies and academics are entering into collaborations to repurpose

approved or discontinued drugs for other indications, including RDs. This may explain the

increased numbers of non-industry sponsored phase 2/3 trials. Overall, comparing our data with

similar data in ClinicalTrials.gov, no differences between our RD data set and the CTs in more

common diseases could be detected and intervention types employed in RD research, with the

largest group being phase 2 CTs investigating drugs conducted by industry, reflect the common

practice in general clinical research[17].

Most RD CTs are genetic or neurologic diseases. The high prevalence of genetic CTs in the

RD data set is to be expected, as the majority of RDs are thought to be genetic in origin[18].

Among these, CF is the most researched disease, representing also the most common genetic

disease in Caucasian children counting 70,000 cases worldwide. This substantial number of

patients, paired with early screening policies and a molecular understanding of the disease

facilitates the setup of CT and thereby therapy development[19-20], leading pharmaceutical

companies to conduct studies in this field[21]. Similar reasons might apply for neurologic

disorders, the second focus of CTs in our data set, which occur relatively frequently in the

pediatric population[22]. These observations are in line with what can be found for common

diseases present in ClinicalTrials.gov, where nervous system disorders are the most researched

disease area, followed by neoplasms and general pathologies. In contrast, digestive system

diseases, heart and blood diseases, and behaviors and mental disorders were highly represented

in ClinicalTrials.gov, but not in our RD data set. Therefore, although rare diseases are

numerous, the vast majority of clinical trials focus on a few disease categories and conditions,

such as CF. Furthermore, we found Huntington disease (HD) representing the top disease in

rare eye disorders, followed by uveitis. Although HD is not primarily an eye disorder, a

possible explanation for this finding could be a common endpoint in this disease (Unified

Huntington's Disease Rating Scale), including ocular assessments causing its misclassification

as eye disorder. This example highlights the difficulties that can occur when analyzing data

from Clinicaltrials.gov that has not been curated or reviewed critically.

In line with a recently published study[23], we identified North America and Europe as the

regions and the U.S. and Germany as the countries with the most study locations. The high

proportion of U.S.-led CTs could be explained by the strong presence of the pharma industry

compared to other countries with the ensuing availability of financial and infrastructural

resources as well as the strong presence of active patient associations and foundations that play

a key role in advancing research[21]. Japan, Australia, Argentina and South Africa were the

countries with most CTs in Asia, the Oceania region, Middle and South America and Africa,

respectively. However, 40.2% of CTs did not report a location, biasing the data and its

interpretation. In accordance with a previous report analyzing the International Clinical Trial

Registry Platform (ICTRP), we found Japan to be the country with the most CT sites in Asia[23].

While the mentioned report attributes the shift away from "traditional" CT sites in Western

countries to lower study costs in other countries, the study location for RD CTs could be more

influenced by patient prevalence, the availability of specialized care centers and specific

legislation fostering RD research[24-25].

Considering the general scarceness of patients and experts/specialized care centers in RDs, it

is not surprising that half of the trials indicate at most five sites. In contrast, almost two thirds

of the trials indicated more than one study site, pointing towards the implementation of more,

but smaller study sites in RD research. Support for this hypothesis might be provided by Bell

and Smith et *al.* who, looking at interventional CTs, found that RD CTs have less study sites

compared to non-RDs[26]. The correlation we found between industry-funded CTs and an

increased number of study sites could be linked to the different financial support received

compared to academia/non-profit.

Although phase 2 CTs prevail in our data set, most participants were enrolled in phase 3 CTs,

with the majority enrolled in industry sponsored CTs. A study analyzing common disease CTs

of all phases reported an overall enrollment rate below 100 participants for 62% of studies,

which was the same percentage we observed in phase 3 CTs in ClinicalTrials.gov. Examining

phase 2 and 2/3 RD CTs, the proportion of studies enrolling 100 or less patients rose to 87.8%

and 72.8%, respectively. Comparing our data set to the aforementioned study based on the

respective median enrollment, we found comparable accrual numbers between RD CTs overall

and therein described oncology trials, whilst mental health and cardiovascular CTs were higher

at 85 and 100, respectively. It is somewhat surprising that the number of patients in RD CTs

and non-RD CTs are similar, as we expected RD CTs to enroll fewer patients as previously

indicated in a study comparing rare with non-rare disease CTs[26]. While this study describes

mostly early phase CTs with fewer participants, most of the patients in our data set were

enrolled in phase 3 CTs. Additionally, the limited power of small studies to show significant

clinical efficacy, might be avoided by study sponsors resulting in higher accrual numbers.

Reasons for less participant accrual in non-RD CTs could be competing trials targeting similar

participant populations or even an increased focus on small sub-populations within a larger

disease area. This indicates that CTs in RDs and more common diseases may be becoming

more similar and both may have issues with recruitment of sufficient numbers of patients to

draw firm conclusions. Notably, we observed great heterogeneity between trials enrolling few

patients, sometimes in single digits and trials enrolling hundreds or thousands, a phenomenon

that has also been previously reported[17].

Gender disparity in biomedical research, which may insert a bias in clinical findings and

therefore may lead to a disadvantage in clinical practice for women, is recognized and has been

described before[17,27,28,29]. Although we did not observe a significant gender bias in RD CTs,

we found that out of all studies recruiting only patients from a specific gender, twice as many

recruited only male patients than female, which could be partially attributed to the

aforementioned historic and general underrepresentation of women in CTs.

The age of eligibility for study subjects is crucial in many diseases, often influencing the overall

study success. The majority of RDs are thought to be genetic disorders, which present already

in early childhood or adolescence, thereby necessitating an early therapy start[30–32].

Consequently, RD CTs had a wide age range with the majority including pediatric patients,

unlike in more common diseases that can occur throughout life[17,26].

CT participation is often associated with great efforts by (pediatric) patients and their family

members, thus the study duration can have a major impact on participant compliance and

retention in the study. We found a direct correlation between the study duration and study

phase, which is in line with common clinical research practices such as monitoring procedures,

larger sample sizes, time to analyze larger data sets including side effects etc. in phase 3 studies.

The fact that industry-funded CTs are significantly shorter than academia-/non-profit-led CTs

could be attributed to the former usually having more resources, which allows for more sites,

thereby increasing patient recruitment velocity. Comparing RD CTs to all phases of nephrology

or cardiology studies, no significant difference could be detected in the overall study duration[14].

Clinical research is essential for clinical decision making and providing the best standard of

care for patients. Since the enactment of the FDAAA in 2007, CT result reporting is no longer

only ethically desirable, but also mandatory within twelve months upon trial completion.

However, this rule only applies to studies investigating a drug, biological or device

manufactured in the U.S. or studies indicating at least one study site in the U.S. or within its

territories[6]. Our analysis of studies completed before 2015 showed that after at least two years

following completion less than half of all analyzed RD CTs posted results on ClinicalTrial.gov.

A previous study on result reporting under FDAAA regulations found that only 22% of the

CTs report results timely, with only 10% doing so on a voluntary basis. Additionally, the

authors stated that result reporting occurs in only 40% of industry-funded and 9% not solely

industry-funded CTs with phase 3 studies being the most frequently reported CTs[7]. Despite

opposition of the FDA[33], an unofficial analysis conducted by the U.S. National Institutes of

Health (NIH) confirms that industry performs better than public sponsors (NIH and NIH-

funded), when it comes to timely result reporting, with 52% vs. 35%, respectively[34]. A recent

study analyzing the availability of phase 3 and 4 RD CT results on ClinicalTrial.gov found that

68% of the trials affected by the FDAAA reported results[35]. In our data set, phase 2 trials

account for roughly two thirds of the non-reporting CTs we identified. Studies registered with

the EU Clinical Trials Register (EUCTR), which requires result disclosure within 12 months

after trial completion, performed similarly, with only half of the applicable CTs posting

results[36]. This recent report also found that CT result reporting was linked to later study phases

and industry funding. Drawing a final conclusion on the result reporting rate between the two

sponsor categories in our data set is not obvious due to the incompleteness of the information

provided online. Considering only studies that clearly apply to the FDAAA, industry funding

is shown to be associated with a higher degree of non-reporting in RD CTs. However, including

potentially applicable CTs, academia/non-profit and industry fall abreast. This importantly

highlights the need for complete information in order for external parties to be able to draw

transparent conclusions. Generally, industry trials in RDs were associated with better overall

result posting even when not required by the FDAAA, potentially due to more strictly regulated

and overseen follow-up processes and the fact that industry-funded trials tend to be larger and

larger studies are more likely to be published[37].

The finding that RD CTs adhere more strictly to the FDAAA than CTs overall might be due to

ethical obligations towards these patients and the high value of clinical data from a CT, which

may be the only one performed in a patient population. RD CTs also include many pediatric

patients and pediatric CTs were found more likely to be completed[38]. Regardless of the reasons,

it is encouraging to note that RD CTs are reported at a higher rate than other CTs. Ultimately,

CTs need to overcome the widely recognized and general deficit of consistent and transparent

data sharing practices, not only to improve patient care, but also to value the participants who

help advancing science and future patients.

CONCLUSION

This study provides insights into the landscape of RD CTs. RD clinical research was found to

be rather industry-funded and focused on treatments involving drugs or biologicals, with many

studies including a relatively small number of participants and patients starting from very early

in life. Generally, industry funding was linked to larger trials, including higher enrollment and

more study locations, but slightly shorter study duration compared to academia/non-profit

trials. Finally, CTs in rare diseases make results more often publicly available than what has

been previously reported for all studies entered in ClinicalTrial.gov, but improvements are still

needed to make all data readily available for the public.

Limitations

There are some limitations in this study to be taken into consideration. First, ClinicalTrials.gov does not cover all trials conducted worldwide. However, there is a reported 80% overlap between ClinicalTrials.gov and the WHO ICTRP portal[18]. Secondly, there is no single standard ontology for the description of clinical research and, despite extensive manual data curation efforts, the data set may still contain misclassified studies. Conversely, some CTs may have been excluded from our study, due to the disease under study not conforming to the ORDO naming convention. Efforts were made to identify, correct or remove erroneous or ambiguous as well as carelessly entered data prior to analysis, however, an element of uncertainty remains. Additionally, a notable fraction of studies may provide divergent information on ClinicalTrials.gov and EUCTR, making comparisons difficult[39]. Although the FDAAA was introduced to increase transparency, this legislation came with certain limitations; For example, its applicability to studies with at least one study site or an item manufactured in the U.S. or U.S. territories. It is, however, not evident which studies are applicable and which ones are exempt. Even though we attempted to address this limitation by examining a random sample of 25% of the trials manually, errors may still be present. In this study, early proof-of-concept trials, which can be impactful on the scientific community, e.g. in order to avoid duplicity of resources, are not reviewed. Finally, this study represents a snapshot of RD CTs as they were entered in March 2018 and some study details may have been added after we retrieved the data.

REFERENCES

1.   de Vrueh R, Baekelandt ERF, de Haan JMH. Priority Medicines for Europe and the
        World "A Public Health Approach to Innovation" Update on 2004 Background Paper

Background Paper 6.19 Rare Diseases. 2013.

2.   Boycott KM, Vanstone MR, Bulman DE, MacKenzie AE. Rare-disease genetics in the

era of next-generation sequencing: discovery to translation. Nat Rev Genet. 2013;

3;14:681.

3.   Global Genes. RARE Facts. 2018. https://globalgenes.org/rare-facts/. Accessed 6 Nov

2018.

4.   Food and Drug Administration. Orphan Drug Act - Relevant Excerpts. 2013.

https://www.fda.gov/industry/designating-orphan-product-drugs-and-biological-

products/orphan-drug-act-relevant-excerpts. Accessed 7 Nov 2018.

5.   Food and Drug Administration. Orphan Drug Designations and Approvals. 1983.

https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/opdlisting/oopd/. Accessed 7 Nov 2018.

6.   U.S. Public Law 110-85; Section 801. Food and Drug Administration Amendments

Act (FDAAA) of 2007. 2007.

7.   Prayle AP, Hurley MN, Smyth AR. Compliance with mandatory reporting of clinical

trial results on ClinicalTrials.gov: cross sectional study. BMJ. 2012;344:d7373.

8.   Riveros C, Dechartres A, Perrodeau E, Haneef R, Boutron I, Ravaud P. Timing and

Completeness of Trial Results Posted at ClinicalTrials.gov and Published in Journals.

PLOS Med. 2013;10:e1001566.

9.   Powell-Smith A, Goldacre B. The TrialsTracker: Automated ongoing monitoring of

failure to share clinical trial results by all major companies and research institutions.

F1000Research. 2016;5:2629.

10. U.S. National Library of Medicine. ClinicalTrials.gov - Glossary. 2018.

https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/about-studies/glossary. Accessed 11 Nov 2018.

11. U.S. National Library of Medicine. ClinicalTrials.gov - Trends. 2018.

https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/resources/trends. Accessed 11 Nov 2018.

12.   Anderson ML, Chiswell K, Peterson ED, Tasneem A, Topping J, Califf RM.

527   Compliance with Results Reporting at ClinicalTrials.gov. N Engl J Med. 2015;

528   11;372:1031–9.

529   13.   Chen R, Desai NR, Ross JS, Zhang W, Chau KH, Wayda B, et al. Publication and

530   reporting of clinical trial results: cross sectional analysis across academic medical

531   centers. BMJ. 2016;352:i637

532   14.   Inrig JK, Califf RM, Tasneem A, Vegunta RK, Molina C, Stanifer JW, et al. The

533   landscape of clinical trials in nephrology: a systematic review of Clinicaltrials.gov.

534   Am J Kidney Dis. 2014;63:771–80.

535   15.   Dwyer JT, Coates PM, Smith MJ. Dietary Supplements: Regulatory Challenges and

536   Research Resources. Nutrients. 2018;10:41.

537   16.   Pushpakom S, Iorio F, Eyers PA, Escott KJ, Hopper S, Wells A, et al. Drug

538   repurposing: progress, challenges and recommendations. Nat Rev Drug Discov.

539   2018;18:41.

540   17.   Califf RM, Zarin DA, Kramer JM, Sherman RE, Aberle LH, Tasneem A.

541   Characteristics of Clinical Trials Registered in ClinicalTrials.gov, 2007-2010. JAMA.

542   2012;307:1838–47.

543   18.   EURORDIS Rare Diseases Europe. About Rare Diseases. 2015.

544   https://www.eurordis.org/about-rare-diseases. Accessed 6 Nov 2018.

545   19.   Mayer-Hamblett N, Boyle M, VanDevanter D. Advancing clinical development

546   pathways for new CFTR modulators in cystic fibrosis. Thorax. 2016;71:454-461.

547   20.   Bell SC, De Boeck K, Amaral MD. New pharmacological approaches for cystic

548   fibrosis: Promises, progress, pitfalls. Pharmacol Ther. 2015;145:19–34.

549   21.   Rowe SM, Borowitz DS, Burns JL, Clancy JP, Donaldson SH, Retsch-Bogart G, et al.

550   Progress in cystic fibrosis and the CF Therapeutics Development Network. Thorax.

2012;67:882–90.

22. Huang Y, Yu S, Wu Z, Tang B. Genetics of hereditary neurological disorders in

children. Transl Pediatr. 2014;3:108–19.

23. Jeong S, Sohn M, Kim JH, Ko M, Seo H-W, Song Y-K, et al. Current globalization of

drug interventional clinical trials: characteristics and associated factors, 2011-2013.

Trials. 2017;18:288.

24. Aymé S. RC. 2012 Report on the State of the Art of Rare Disease Activities in Europe

of the European Union Committee of Experts on Rare Diseases.

25. Tsukamoto K, Carroll KA, Onishi T, Matsumaru N, Brasseur D, Nakamura H.

Improvement of Pediatric Drug Development: Regulatory and Practical Frameworks.

Clin Ther. 2016;38:574–81.

26. Bell SA, Tudur Smith C. A comparison of interventional clinical trials in rare versus

non-rare diseases: an analysis of ClinicalTrials.gov. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2014 Nov

26;9:170.

27. Hamberg K. Gender bias in medicine. Womens Health (Lond.). 2008;4:237–43.

28. Ramasubbu K, Gurm H, Litaker D. Gender Bias in Clinical Trials: Do Double

Standards Still Apply? J Womens Health Gend Based Med. 2001;10:757–64.

29. Choi EK, Kim MJ, Lim NK, Park HY. Review of the Registration in the Clinical

Research Information Service. J Korean Med Sci. 2016;31:1–8.

30. Jimenez-Sanchez G, Childs B, Valle D. Human disease genes. Nature. 2001;409:853–

5.

31. McClellan J, King M-C. Genetic Heterogeneity in Human Disease. Cell.

2010;141:210–7.

32. Yum K, Wang ET, Kalsotra A. Myotonic dystrophy: disease repeat range, penetrance,

age of onset, and relationship between repeat size and phenotypes. Curr Opin Genet

Dev. 2017;44:30–7.

33.   Hawkes N. FDA disagrees with BMJ study that found clinical trials were not being

reported. BMJ. 2012;344:e3277.

34.   Marin Dos Santos DH, Atallah ÁN. FDAAA legislation is working, but

methodological flaws undermine the reliability of clinical trials: a cross-sectional

study. PeerJ. 2015;3:e1015.

35.   Dechartres A, Riveros C, Harroch M, Faber T, Ravaud P. Characteristics and Public

Availability of Results of Clinical Trials on Rare Diseases Registered at

Clinicaltrials.gov. JAMA Intern Med. 2016;176:556–8.

36.   Goldacre B, DeVito NJ, Heneghan C, Irving F, Bacon S, Fleminger J, et al.

Compliance with requirement to report results on the EU Clinical Trials Register:

cohort study and web resource. BMJ. 2018;362:k3218.

37.   Brænd AM, Straand J, Jakobsen RB, Klovning A. Publication and non-publication of

drug trial results: a 10-year cohort of trials in Norwegian general practice. BMJ Open.

2016;6:e010535.

38.   Dufetelle E, 't Jong GW, Kaguelidou F. Randomized controlled trials in pediatric

Ípatients had higher completion rates than adult trials: a cross-sectional study. J Clin

Epidemiol. 2018;100:53–60.

39.   Fleminger J, Goldacre B. Prevalence of clinical trial status discrepancies: A cross-

sectional study of 10,492 trials registered on both ClinicalTrials.gov and the European

Union Clinical Trials Register. PLoS One. 2018;13:e0193088.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. *Flowchart showing the data set development including the applied filtering steps to*

select the data sets for analysis. The first data set comprising 1,056 CTs conducted between

2008 and 2015 is used for the analysis of characteristics of RD CTs. The second data set

serves to investigate result publication practices among RD CTs.

Figure 2. *Graphic representation of age restrictions for participants of the RD CTs in our*

data set. Of the total of 1,056 CTs that were analyzed, 1,022 entered age specifications.

Figure 3. *Comparison of study duration in months between industry- and academia/non-*

profit-sponsored RD CTs. This analysis is based on the data set comprising 1,056 studies.

DECLARATIONS

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The general datasets generated and analyzed during the current study are available in the ClinicalTrials.gov repository, https://clinicaltrials.gov/. Moreover, the specific datasets used and analyzed during the current study are available from Timothy J. Seabrook (timothy_j.seabrook@roche.com) on reasonable request.

Competing interests

NKM was employed at F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd at the time of study conception, data collection and analysis. JG, RRE, and TJS are employees of and hold shares in F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd. We attest that we herein have disclosed any and all financial or other relationships that could be construed as a conflict of interest and that all sources of financial support for this study have been disclosed.

Funding

This research was supported by F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd. The funding body was not part of the study design, data collection, analysis, and interpretation, or in writing the manuscript.

Authors' contributions

The study was conceived by JG, RRE, and TJS. Data acquisition, curation and analysis were

performed by NKM. The results were interpreted by all authors. The manuscript was

compiled by NKM and revised by JG, RRE, and TJS. All authors read and approved the final

manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Dr. Winnie Yeung for advice and assistance with the statistical analysis.

Footnotes

Not applicable.