UCSF UC San Francisco Previously Published Works

Title

Evaluating Demographic Representation in Clinical Trials: Use of the Adaptive Coronavirus Disease 2019 Treatment Trial (ACTT) as a Test Case.

Permalink https://escholarship.org/uc/item/8h81c15n

Journal Open forum infectious diseases, 10(6)

ISSN 2328-8957

Authors

Ortega-Villa, Ana M Hynes, Noreen A Levine, Corri B <u>et al.</u>

Publication Date

2023-06-01

DOI

10.1093/ofid/ofad290

Peer reviewed



Evaluating Demographic Representation in Clinical Trials: Use of the Adaptive Coronavirus Disease 2019 Treatment Trial (ACTT) as a Test Case

Ana M. Ortega-Villa,^{1,0} Noreen A. Hynes,² Corri B. Levine,³ Katherine Yang,^{4,0} Zanthia Wiley,⁵ Nikolaus Jilg,^{6,7,0} Jing Wang,⁸ Jennifer A. Whitaker,⁹ Christopher J. Colombo,^{10,11} Seema U. Nayak,¹² Hannah Jang Kim,^{13,14} Nicole M. Iovine,¹⁵ Dilek Ince,^{16,0} Stuart H. Cohen,¹⁷ Adam J. Langer,¹⁸ Jonathan M. Wortham,¹⁹ Robert L. Atmar,²⁰ Hana M. El Sahly,⁹ Mamta K. Jain,²¹ Aneesh K. Mehta,^{22,23} Cameron R. Wolfe,²⁴ Carlos A. Gomez,²⁵ Tatiana Beresnev,¹² Richard A. Mularski,^{26,27} Catharine I. Paules,²⁸ Andre C. Kalil,^{25,0} Angela R. Branche,²⁹ Annie Luetkemeyer,³⁰ Barry S. Zingman,³¹ Jocelyn Voell,³² Michael Whitaker,¹⁹ Michelle S. Harkins,³³ Richard T. DaveyJr,³² Robert Grossberg,³⁴ Sarah L. George,³⁵ Victor Tapson,³⁶ William R. Short,³⁷ Varduhi Ghazaryan,¹² Constance A. Benson,³⁸ Lori E. Dodd,¹ Daniel A. Sweeney,³⁹ and Kay M. Tomashek¹²

¹Biostatistics Research Branch, Division of Clinical Research, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, Rockville, Maryland, USA, ²Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA, ³Division of Infectious Disease, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, Texas, USA, ⁴Department of Clinical Pharmacy, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California, USA, ⁵Department of Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, ⁶Department of Medicine, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts, USA, ⁷Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, USA, ⁸Clinical Monitoring Research Program Directorate, Frederick National Laboratory for Cancer Research, Frederick, Maryland, USA, ⁹Molecular Virology and Microbiology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA, ¹⁰Department of Virtual Health and Department of Medicine, Madigan Army Medical Center, Tacoma, Washington, USA, ¹¹Department of Medicine, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, Maryland, USA, ¹²Division of Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA, ¹³Department of Community Health Systems, School of Nursing, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California, USA, ¹⁴National Patient Care Services, Kaiser Permanente, Oakland, California, USA, ¹⁵Division of Infectious Diseases and Global Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of Florida Health, Gainesville, Florida, USA, ¹⁶Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, USA, 17Division of Infectious Diseases, University of California, Davis, Sacramento, California, USA, 18 COVID-19 Emergency Response Team, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, 19 COVID-19–Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, ²⁰Department of Medicine, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA, ²¹Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, Texas, USA, ²²Division of Infection Diseases, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, ²³National Emerging Special Pathogens Treatment and Education Center, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, ²⁴Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina, USA, ²⁵Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Nebraska Medical Center, Omaha, Nebraska, USA, ²⁶Department of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Northwest Permanente, Kaiser Permanente Northwest, Portland, Oregon, USA, 27The Center for Health Research, Kaiser Permanente Northwest, Portland, Oregon, USA, 28Division of Infectious Diseases, Penn State Health Milton S. Hershey Medical Center, Hershey, Pennsylvania, USA, 29Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, University of Rochester Medical Center, Rochester, New York, USA, 30Department of Medicine. University of California. San Francisco, San Francisco, California, USA, ³¹Department of Medicine. Montefiore Medical Center, University Hospital for Albert Einstein College of Medicine. Bronx, New York, USA, ³²Laboratory of Immunoregulation, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institute of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA, 33Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care, Department of Internal Medicine, University of New Mexico Health Sciences Center, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA, 34Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Montefiore Medical Center/Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, New York, USA, ³⁵Department of Internal Medicine, Saint Louis University and St Louis Veterans Affairs Medical Center, St Louis, Missouri, USA, 36 Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, California, USA, 37 Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA, ³⁹Division of Infectious Diseases and Global Public Health, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, California, USA, and ³⁹Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care and Sleep Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, California, USA

Background. Clinical trials initiated during emerging infectious disease outbreaks must quickly enroll participants to identify treatments to reduce morbidity and mortality. This may be at odds with enrolling a representative study population, especially when the population affected is undefined.

Methods. We evaluated the utility of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's COVID-19–Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network (COVID-NET), the COVID-19 Case Surveillance System (CCSS), and 2020 United States (US) Census data to determine demographic representation in the 4 stages of the Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial (ACTT). We compared the cumulative proportion of participants by sex, race, ethnicity, and age enrolled at US ACTT sites, with respective 95% confidence intervals, to the reference data in forest plots.

Results. US ACTT sites enrolled 3509 adults hospitalized with COVID-19. When compared with COVID-NET, ACTT enrolled a similar or higher proportion of Hispanic/Latino and White participants depending on the stage, and a similar proportion of African American participants in all stages. In contrast, ACTT enrolled a higher proportion of these groups when compared with US Census and CCSS. The proportion of participants aged \geq 65 years was either similar or lower than COVID-NET and higher than CCSS and the US Census. The proportion of females enrolled in ACTT was lower than the proportion of females in the reference datasets.

Conclusions. Although surveillance data of hospitalized cases may not be available early in an outbreak, they are a better comparator than US Census data and surveillance of all cases, which may not reflect the population affected and at higher risk of severe disease.

Keywords. ACTT; COVID-19 clinical trials; representation evaluation.

Open Forum Infectious Diseases[®]

Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Infectious Diseases Society of America 2023. This work is written by (a) US Government employee(s) and is in the public domain in the US. https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofad290

Received 28 February 2023; editorial decision 08 May 2023; accepted 25 May 2023; published online 27 May 2023

Correspondence: Ana Maria Ortega-Villa, PhD, Biostatistics Research Branch, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, 5601 Fishers Ln, 4D10, Rockville, MD 20852, USA (ana.ortega-villa@nih.gov).

Historically, ethnic and racial minorities, women, children, and older adults have been underrepresented in clinical research due to multiple factors at the participant, investigator, and organizational levels [1–3]. This issue persists despite efforts to conduct more inclusive human subjects research [4–6]. During the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, some of these same groups were disproportionately affected as measured by higher hospitalization and mortality rates [7–10]. Despite this burden of disease, published reports have raised concerns that these populations were underrepresented in COVID-19 clinical trials [11–15].

Representation in clinical trials is generally defined as enrollment of participants proportional to those affected by the disease [16]. Representation helps to ensure the generalizability of the results, in addition to determining the safety and efficacy of a therapeutic intervention [17, 18]. Clinical trials undertaken during outbreaks of emerging infectious diseases must enroll rapidly to identify treatments to reduce morbidity and mortality. This may be at odds with the goal of representative enrollment initially because the risk profile for the disease may be unknown, leading to enrollment proportional to the population census, which may not be representative of those affected by the disease. Timely enrollment necessitates selection of experienced trial sites in high-incidence areas, which may preclude participation from individuals living in underserved urban settings and in rural areas.

Ensuring that a clinical trial enrolls a representative study population depends on both the fidelity of the trial demographic data and epidemiologic data collected outside of the trial. While real-time availability of accurate surveillance data was limited early in the COVID-19 pandemic, we hypothesized that for most emerging infectious diseases, national disease surveillance data would be the best comparator for such monitoring because it captures data on those most impacted by the disease. We speculated that the optimal comparator for an inpatient trial would be national surveillance data on people who are hospitalized with the disease. In this study, we utilized data from the United States (US) Census and 2 COVID-19 surveillance systems to evaluate representation in the Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial (ACTT), a series of 4 randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trials that evaluated novel therapeutics in adults hospitalized with COVID-19 [19-22].

METHODS

Clinical Trial Data

ACTT enrolled 4074 adults in the US and international sites in 4 stages: ACTT-1 (21 February 2020 through 19 April 2020; n = 1062) [19], ACTT-2 (8 May 2020 through 30 June 2020; n = 1033) [20], ACTT-3 (5 August 2020 through 21 November 2020; n = 969) [21], and ACTT-4 (1 December

2020 through 13 April 2021; n = 1010 [22] (Figure 1). The majority (3509 [86.1%]) of participants were enrolled at 69 US sites in 26 states and the District of Columbia (Supplementary Table 1). Eligibility criteria for each stage of ACTT are shown in the Supplementary Methods.

Definitions

Demographic data for ACTT were collected by participant selfreport or from a legally authorized participant representative. The race categories included American Indian or Alaska Native; Asian; Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander (hereafter Asian or Pacific Islander); Black or African American; White; multiple races; or not reported. The ethnicity categories include Hispanic or Latino; not Hispanic or Latino; and unknown or not reported (hereafter "unknown"). Age groups included 18–39 years, 40–64 years, and \geq 65 years. Sex was defined as male or female. Additional details can be found in the Supplementary Methods.

Reference Datasets

US Census

The 2020 Decennial Census Redistricting Data [23] were used to extract Census counts by race and ethnicity for the population aged ≥ 18 years for each state and the District of Columbia. The Vintage 2020 Population Estimate [24] was used for age and sex population proportions as 2022 data have not been released.

COVID-NET

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) COVID-19–Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network (COVID-NET) [25] is a population-based active surveillance system that collects county-level data about individuals who were hospitalized and severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) test positive within 14 days of admission. It collects data from approximately 250 acute care hospitals in 14 states. We used COVID-NET data from 12 of the 14 states where there were 24 ACTT sites (Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1, and Supplementary Methods).

CDC COVID-19 Case Surveillance System

The CDC COVID-19 Case Surveillance System (CCSS) [26] is a passive surveillance system that captures notifiable disease reports about individuals in an inpatient or outpatient setting who are SARS-CoV-2 test positive. CDC CCSS data were used to evaluate 45 ACTT sites not captured by COVID-NET (Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Figure 2). Supplemental Table 2 presents a comparison of the three reference datasets.

Statistical Analysis

We calculated and compared the proportion of participants by sex, race, ethnicity, and age groups in each stage of ACTT using a Pearson χ^2 test.

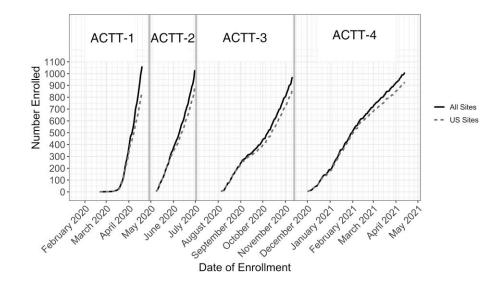


Figure 1. Number of participants enrolled by month and stage of the Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial (ACTT) and site location. Abbreviation: US, United States.

We compared de-identified data on sex, race, ethnicity, and age from participants enrolled at the US ACTT sites with US Census data, and CDC COVID-NET and CCSS data from the same geographic area and time. Results are presented separately for all comparator datasets as the geographic locations included in the estimates differ by comparator (Supplementary Table 1). We determined the percentage of cumulative enrollments by subgroup for each stage of ACTT and calculated the corresponding Clopper-Pearson 95% confidence intervals (CIs). We determined whether the corresponding reference data were contained in the ACTT 95% CI and, if they were not, the differences were considered statistically significant. Data are presented as forest plots displaying the ACTT enrollment cumulative proportion and 95% CI, and the reference data estimate and 95% CI. Analyses by state are presented in the Supplementary Figures 3-10 and Supplementary Material. No multiple comparison adjustments were performed. Analyses were performed using R version 4.1.3 software [27].

Patient Consent Statement

This secondary analysis of de-identified ACTT data was conducted as a quality assurance, quality improvement project. A description of the project was reviewed by the National Institutes of Health Office of Institutional Review Board Operations and by the CDC's National Center for Immunization and Respiratory Diseases. These offices determined that the project did not qualify as human subjects research as defined by federal regulations and therefore the activities proposed did not require institutional review board review or approval.

RESULTS

The demographic characteristics of the 3509 adults enrolled in the US ACTT sites varied by trial stage (Table 1). The proportion of American Indian or Alaska Native participants enrolled increased from 0.1% in ACTT-1 to 1.9% in ACTT-4. ACTT-1 had the highest proportion of Asian and Black or African American participants (8.8% and 25.9%, respectively), whereas ACTT-2 had the lowest enrollment of Asian (3.6%) and Black or African American (17.6%) participants. Hispanic or Latino enrollment varied across stages with similar enrollment in ACTT-3 (29.5%) and ACTT-4 (31.8%), the lowest enrollment in ACTT-1 (27%), and the highest enrollment in ACTT-2 (52.1%). The proportion of female participants in ACTT increased from 35.7% in ACTT-1 to 43.4% in ACTT-3. Participants in ACTT-2 tended to be younger (30.2% were aged \geq 65 years) than those enrolled in ACTT-1, ACTT-3, or ACTT-4 (36.2%, 38.6%, and 33.5%, respectively).

ACTT Representation Compared With US Census Data

Compared with US Census data, the proportion of participants aged \geq 65 years enrolled in ACTT was significantly higher than in the US population; the proportion of participants aged 18–39 years was significantly lower (Figure 2). A significantly higher proportion of Black or African American and Hispanic or Latino participants were enrolled in ACTT when compared to US Census data. A similar proportion of all other races were enrolled in ACTT except for White participants. A lower proportion of White participants were enrolled in ACTT-1 and ACTT-2 than in the US population, whereas a higher proportion were enrolled in ACTT-3. There was a higher proportion of participants with unknown race in ACTT-1 and ACTT-2 than reported in the US Census data. A significantly lower proportion of female participants were enrolled in ACTT than in the US population.

Characteristic US participant	ACTT-1 (n = 837)		ACTT-2 (n = 885)		ACTT-3 (n = 860)		ACTT-4 (n = 927)		$\chi^2 P$ Value ³
	837	(100.0)	885	(100.0)	860	(100.0)	927	(100.0)	
Race									<.0001
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	(0.1)	8	(0.9)	11	(1.3)	18	(1.9)	
Asian	74	(8.8)	32	(3.6)	32	(3.7)	39	(4.2)	
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	4	(0.5)	11	(1.2)	9	(1.0)	5	(0.5)	
Black or African American	217	(25.9)	156	(17.6)	160	(18.6)	188	(20.3)	
White	427	(51.0)	487	(55.0)	583	(67.8)	588	(63.4)	
Multiple races	3	(0.4)			5	(0.6)	4	(0.4)	
Unknown	111	(13.3)	191	(21.6)	60	(7.0)	85	(9.2)	
Ethnicity									<.0001
Not Hispanic or Latino	561	(67.0)	408	(46.1)	588	(68.4)	605	(65.3)	
Hispanic or Latino	226	(27.0)	461	(52.1)	254	(29.5)	295	(31.8)	
Not reported	22	(2.6)	4	(0.5)	5	(0.6)	10	(1.1)	
Unknown	28	(3.3)	12	(1.4)	13	(1.5)	17	(1.8)	
Age									<.0001
18–39 у	96	(11.5)	137	(15.5)	108	(12.6)	89	(9.6)	
40–64 y	438	(52.3)	481	(54.4)	420	(48.8)	527	(56.9)	
≥65 y	303	(36.2)	267	(30.2)	332	(38.6)	311	(33.5)	
Sex									.00775
Female	299	(35.7)	342	(38.6)	373	(43.4)	384	(41.4)	

Data are presented as No. (%) unless otherwise indicated.

Abbreviation: ACTT, Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial.

 ${}^{a}P$ values from Pearson χ^{2} tests to compare the distribution of demographic variables across the 4 ACTT trials.

ACTT Representation Compared With CDC COVID-NET Data

There was a similar proportion of participants aged \geq 65 years enrolled in ACTT-3 and reported by COVID-NET, while there was a lower proportion of this subpopulation enrolled in ACTT-1, ACTT-2, and ACTT-4 when compared with COVID-NET (Figure 3). In contrast, the proportion of participants aged 40-64 years enrolled in ACTT was significantly higher than the proportion detected by COVID-NET. There was a similar proportion of 18- to 39-year-old participants enrolled in ACTT as reported to COVID-NET. There was a higher proportion of Hispanic or Latino participants in ACTT-2 and ACTT-4 than in COVID-NET, while the proportion of Hispanic or Latino participants were similar between ACTT-1 and ACTT-3 and COVID-NET. The proportion of patients in COVID-NET with unknown ethnicity was higher than in ACTT-3 and ACTT-4 but was similar in ACTT-1 and ACTT-2. For every stage of ACTT, the proportion of American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, and Black or African American participants was similar to the proportion detected by COVID-NET. There was a higher proportion of White participants enrolled in ACTT-2 and ACTT-3 compared with COVID-NET, whereas the proportion of this subpopulation in ACTT-1 and ACTT-4 was similar to COVID-NET. The proportion of patients in COVID-NET with unknown race was statistically significantly higher than in ACTT. The proportion of female participants enrolled in

ACTT was significantly lower than the proportion of females identified by COVID-NET.

ACTT Representation Compared With CCSS Data

A significantly higher proportion of participants enrolled in ACTT were aged 40–64 years and ≥65 years when compared to those reported to CCSS; however, CSS included both hospitalized and nonhospitalized patients (Figure 4). In contrast, a significantly lower proportion of participants enrolled in ACTT were aged 18-39 years when compared to CCSS. The proportion of Hispanic or Latino participants enrolled in ACTT was significantly higher than the proportion reported to CCSS. However, a significantly higher proportion of the patients reported to CCSS had unknown or undocumented ethnicity and race compared with those enrolled in ACTT. Compared to CCSS data, there was a higher proportion of Black or African American participants and White participants in ACTT. Similarly, the proportion of Asian and Pacific Islander participants was significantly higher than reported to CCSS for all stages of ACTT except for ACTT-4, when the proportions were similar. A similar proportion of American Indian or Alaska Native participants were enrolled in all stages of ACTT except for ACTT-1 when none of the 45 ACTT sites enrolled participants from this population. The proportion of female participants enrolled in ACTT was significantly lower than the proportion of female patients reported to CCSS.

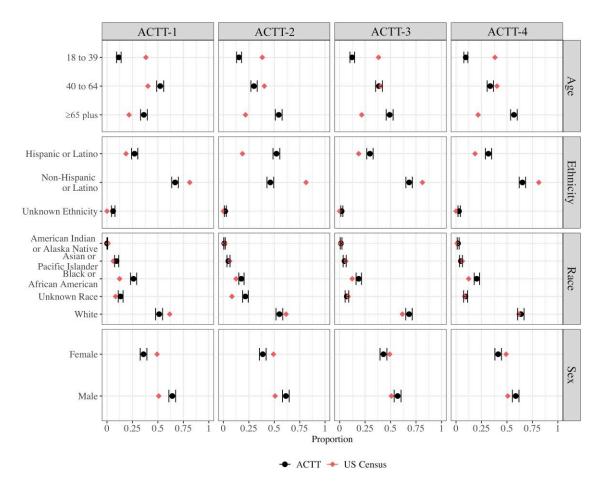


Figure 2. Demographics of participants enrolled in United States (US) Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial (ACTT) sites compared with the US Census. The US Census proportion corresponds to the 2020 estimate and was presented for each stage of ACTT. Circles and error bars represent ACTT proportions and associated 95% confidence intervals (Cls); Diamonds correspond to US Census reported values and estimates. Differences were considered statistically significant if the US Census proportion was not contained within the ACTT enrollment Cl.

Analyses by state are provided in Supplementary Figures 3–10.

DISCUSSION

The conclusion that ACTT achieved appropriate representation of ethnic and racial minorities, women, and older adults depended greatly on which dataset was used for comparison and the stage of ACTT examined. Despite including participants from relatively limited geographic areas, COVID-NET had characteristics that made it a superior comparator. Both ACTT and COVID-NET included only hospitalized individuals whereas the CCSS included both outpatients and hospitalized individuals. COVID-NET provided complete data on race and ethnicity compared to CCSS. COVID-NET data may be a better comparator because it records cases by county versus state level, which may be a more precise comparator for the catchment area of an individual trial site. When compared with COVID-NET, ACTT representation largely mirrored the demographics of US patients hospitalized with COVID-19 with respect to traditionally underrepresented groups: older adults, Hispanic or Latino, and Black or African American. In contrast, our comparison with US Census data highlighted its inability to serve as a comparator to assess whether trial enroll proportionally to those most impacted by the disease.

Older adults were well represented in ACTT, reflecting that most patients hospitalized with COVID-19 were older adults with more severe disease, a key enrollment eligibility criterion [28, 29], whereas in other COVID-19 trials, older adults were underrepresented [12, 30]. Conversely, 18- to 39-year-olds were underrepresented in ACTT, using the CCSS comparator. This was anticipated because CCSS includes outpatients who tend to be younger and less likely to develop severe disease requiring hospitalization.

Female participants were underrepresented in ACTT even when compared to hospitalized patients detected by COVID-NET. This was not entirely unexpected since among adults hospitalized with COVID-19, women were less likely than men to have severe disease [31, 32], which may have

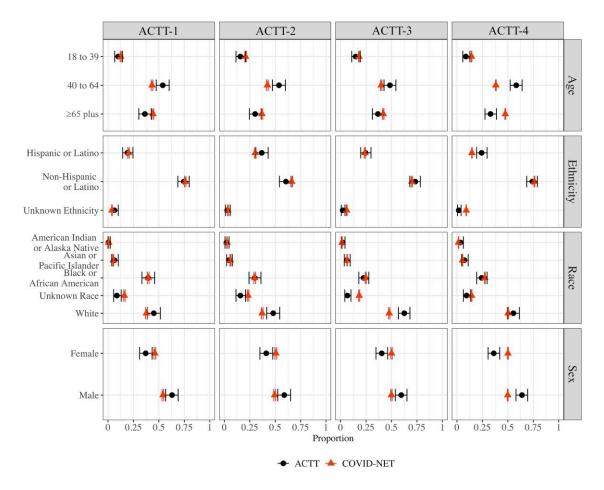


Figure 3. Demographics of participants enrolled in United States Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial (ACTT) sites compared with participants reported to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's COVID-19—Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network (COVID-NET). Circles and error bars represent ACTT proportions and associated 95% confidence intervals (Cls); triangles and error bars correspond to COVID-NET estimates and 95% Cls. Differences were considered statistically significant if the CO-VID-NET proportion was not contained within the ACTT enrollment Cl.

impacted their trial eligibility. ACTT required a baseline level of disease severity and an anticipated hospital stay of at least 72 hours to allow the time necessary to evaluate the investigational study product. However, we cannot rule out other factors that may have contributed to female underrepresentation [1, 33].

ACTT was able to achieve representation over time by adding trial sites serving highly affected populations, contrary to an early characterization of ACTT [13]. To do this, we added trial sites with more patient diversity, hired staff who recruit and enroll non-English-speaking patients, and translated the informed consent form into 9 languages. Hispanic or Latino participants were particularly well represented in ACTT; the proportion enrolled was similar or higher than that identified by COVID-NET. Enrollment by race in ACTT was similar to that reported by COVID-NET for ACTT-1 and ACTT-4, whereas there was a higher proportion of White participants enrolled in ACTT-2 and ACTT-3 despite efforts to enroll a racially diverse population.

Research study designs should include enrollment targets reflective of those affected by the disease, and researchers must monitor recruitment and find real-time solutions to overcome barriers. Notably, representative enrollment may be difficult to achieve if the product safety profile requires exclusion criteria that disproportionately affect certain groups. For example, participants with severe renal disease were ineligible to participate in ACTT, a criterion that has been previously documented to systematically exclude Black or African American participants [34, 35]. In addition, social determinants of health that disproportionately affect underserved communities, such as lack of healthcare insurance, economic instability, and limited healthcare literacy, contribute to both decreased access to healthcare and willingness to participate in research [36, 37]. In ACTT, we worked to limit barriers to enrollment by minimizing data collection including follow-up after initial hospital discharge and limiting eligibility restrictions. Importantly, all potential barriers to representative enrollment require consideration early in the trial design.

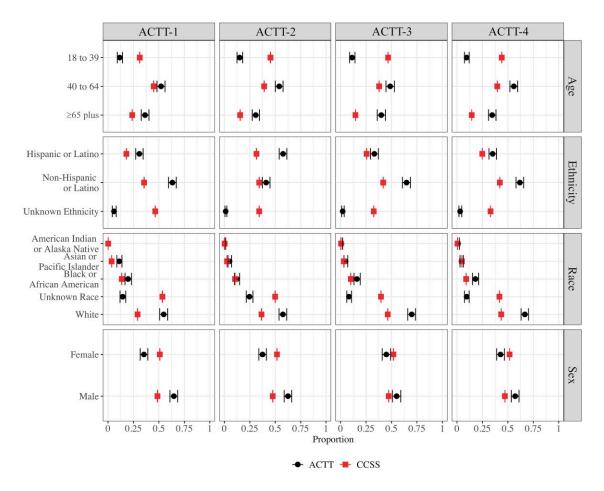


Figure 4. Demographics of participants enrolled in United States (US) Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trial (ACTT) sites compared with participants reported to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's COVID-19 Case Surveillance System (CCSS). Circles and error bars represent ACTT proportions and associated 95% confidence intervals (CIs); squares and error bars correspond to CCSS estimates and 95% Cls. This figure contains ACTT sites not covered by the COVID-19–Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network, with the exception of New York and California (see Methods). Differences were considered statistically significant if the US Census proportion was not contained within the ACTT enrollment Cl.

Achieving a representative study population may be difficult during the pandemic. The ability to achieve adequate representation is largely dependent upon timely and accurate demographic data both within and outside the trial. During study design, demographic enrollment goals and criteria for pausing enrollment of overrepresented demographic groups should be specified. This decision may have to be based on the US Census data until data sources that describe the populations most impacted by the infectious disease become available.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, reporting of both epidemiological data and results of clinical trials by race and ethnicity has been inadequate [14, 38, 39]. In ACTT, 96% of all participants had these data collected; unfortunately, comparator data had a higher proportion of unknown ethnicity and race among persons with COVID-19 reported to CCSS. While the ideal surveillance comparator data may not be available early in an outbreak, even passive surveillance data is important because US Census data may not reflect the population affected by an emerging infectious disease [40]. Active surveillance systems with more complete data, such as COVID-NET, may be ideal; however, they may have a limited geographic catchment area. When compared to COVID-NET, the most appropriate dataset for this assessment, ACTT enrolled participants whose demographics were most consistent with those of hospitalized participants with COVID-19. Designing and executing a recruitment strategy that makes representation a core element, and monitoring enrollment demographics, is important to achieve adequate representation. The selection of a comparator dataset to evaluate and monitor representation should be done in advance whenever possible to avoid potential selection bias. Representative clinical trial enrollment is essential to ensure generalizability to the populations for which interventions will be used.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary materials are available at *Open Forum Infectious Diseases* online. Consisting of data provided by the authors to benefit the reader, the posted materials are not copyedited and are the sole responsibility of the

authors, so questions or comments should be addressed to the corresponding author.

Notes

Acknowledgments. The authors thank Christopher A. Taylor, PhD, and Fiona Havers, MD (COVID-19–Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network [COVID-NET]) for their collaboration, as well as Alyssa La Regina (Clinical Monitoring Research Program Directorate, Leidos Biomedical Research), John Beigel (Director of Clinical Research, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases [NIAID]), Dean Follmann (Assistant Director of Biostatistics, NIAID), Diane Adger-Johnson (Health Science Program Officer, NIAID), Rebecca Favor (Senior Health Science Policy Analyst, Office of Extramural Research, National Institutes of Health [NIH]), and Dawn Corbett (NIH Inclusion Policy Officer, Office of Extramural Research, NIH) for their review and support.

Disclaimer. The opinions expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not represent the official views of the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of Health and Human Services, nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the US government.

Financial support. This work utilized data from the CDC COVID-19 Case Surveillance System (CCSS) and COVID-NET. COVID-NET is supported by the CDC through an Emerging Infections Program cooperative agreement (grant number CK17-1701) and through a Council of State and Territorial Epidemiologists cooperative agreement (grant number NU38OT000297-02-00). This analysis used data from the Adaptive COVID-19 Treatment Trials (ACTT-1, doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2007764; ACTT-2, doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2031994; ACTT-3, doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(21) 00384-2; and ACTT-4, doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(22)00088-1). The ACTT trials were sponsored and primarily funded by the NIAID/NIH, Bethesda, Maryland. These trials have been funded in part with federal funds from the NIAID and the National Cancer Institute/NIH (contract number HHSN261200800001E 75N910D00024, task order number 75N91019F00130/ 75N91020F00010), and by the Department of Defense, Defense Health Program. These trials have been supported in part by NIAID/NIH (award numbers UM1AI148684, UM1AI148576, UM1AI148573, UM1AI148575, UM1AI148452, UM1AI148685, UM1AI148450, and UM1AI148689) and by the governments of Denmark, Japan, Mexico, and Singapore. The trial site in South Korea received funding from the Seoul National University Hospital. Support for the London International Coordinating Centre was also provided by the United Kingdom Medical Research Council (MRC_UU_12023/23). The sites and investigators involved with collection of data during the ACTT-1, ACTT-2, ACTT-3, and ACTT-4 trials are noted in the individual trial manuscripts [19–22].

Potential conflicts of interest. N. J. reports salary support to his institution by Sagent Pharmaceuticals. D. I. has received clinical trial funding paid to her institution from Gilead Sciences. M. K. J. has received grant funding paid to her institution from Gilead Sciences. R. A. M. has received grants and research funding to his institution from Gilead Sciences, Pfizer, Sanofi, and GlaxoSmithKline (GSK). A. R. B. has received grant funding to her institution from Pfizer, Merck, and Cynavac, and has consulted for Janssen and GSK. A. L. has received research grant support to her institution from Gilead. R. G. has received research funding from Gilead Sciences and GSK. W. R. S. has received clinical trial funding paid to his institution from Gilead Sciences. C. A. B. has received contracts and grants to her institution from Gilead Sciences. All other authors report no potential conflicts.

References

- Boden-Albala B. Recruitment, inclusion, and diversity in clinical trials. In: Dankwa-Mullan IP, Perez-Stable EJ, Gardner KL, Zhang X, Rosario AM, eds. The science of health disparities research. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons; 2021:413–28.
- van Marum RJ. Underrepresentation of the elderly in clinical trials, time for action. Br J Clin Pharmacol 2020; 86:2014–6.

- Davis CM, Jones BL. Increasing meaningful representation of children in clinical trials to inform science and achieve health equity. JAMA Pediatr 2022; 176: e220139.
- Freedman LS, Simon R, Foulkes MA, et al. Inclusion of women and minorities in clinical trials and the NIH Revitalization Act of 1993—the perspective of NIH clinical trialists. Control Clin Trials 1995; 16:277–85.
- US Food and Drug Administration. Guideline for the study and evaluation of gender differences in the clinical evaluation of drugs; notice. Fed Regist 1993; 58: 39406–16.
- US Food and Drug Administration. Enhancing the diversity of clinical trial populations—eligibility criteria, enrollment practices, and trial designs guidance for industry. Available at: https://www.fda.gov/media/127712/download. Accessed December 2022.
- Adhikari S, Pantaleo NP, Feldman JM, Ogedegbe O, Thorpe L, Troxel AB. Assessment of community-level disparities in coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) infections and deaths in large US metropolitan areas. JAMA Netw Open 2020; 3:e2016938.
- Karaca-Mandic P, Georgiou A, Sen S. Assessment of COVID-19 hospitalizations by race/ethnicity in 12 states. JAMA Intern Med 2021; 181:131–4.
- Rossen LM, Ahmad FB, Anderson RN, et al. Disparities in excess mortality associated with COVID-19—United States, 2020. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2021; 70:1114–9.
- Mackey K, Ayers CK, Kondo KK, et al. Racial and ethnic disparities in COVID-19-related infections, hospitalizations, and deaths: a systematic review. Ann Intern Med 2021; 174:362–73.
- Saleem D, Gusman E, Manson DK, et al. Ethnic and sex representation in trials shaping best practice for COVID-19. Ann Am Thorac Soc 2021; 18:371–2.
- Prendki V, Tau N, Avni T, et al. A systematic review assessing the underrepresentation of elderly adults in COVID-19 trials. BMC Geriatr 2020; 20:538.
- Chastain DB, Osae SP, Henao-Martinez AF, Franco-Paredes C, Chastain JS, Young HN. Racial disproportionality in Covid clinical trials. N Engl J Med 2020; 383:2486–7.
- Borno HT, Zhang S, Gomez S. COVID-19 disparities: an urgent call for race reporting and representation in clinical research. Contemp Clin Trials Commun 2020; 19:100630.
- Gardiner T, Cooke G, Fidler S, Cooper N, Young L. The under-representation of BAME patients in the COVID-19 recovery trial at a major London NHS Trust. J Infect 2021; 82:84–123.
- Yates I, Byrne J, Donahue S, McCarty L, Mathews A. Representation in clinical trials: a review on reaching underrepresented populations in research. Clin Res 2020; 34:27–34.
- Mauvais-Jarvis F, Berthold HK, Campesi I, et al. Sex- and gender-based pharmacological response to drugs. Pharmacol Rev 2021; 73:730–62.
- Maher D, Ailabouni N, Mangoni AA, Wiese MD, Reeve E. Alterations in drug disposition in older adults: a focus on geriatric syndromes. Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol 2021; 17:41–52.
- Beigel JH, Tomashek KM, Dodd LE, et al. Remdesivir for the treatment of Covid-19—final report. N Engl J Med 2020; 383:1813–26.
- Kalil AC, Patterson TF, Mehta AK, et al. Baricitinib plus remdesivir for hospitalized adults with Covid-19. N Engl J Med 2021; 384:795–807.
- Kalil AC, Mehta AK, Patterson TF, et al. Efficacy of interferon beta-1a plus remdesivir compared with remdesivir alone in hospitalised adults with COVID-19: a double-bind, randomised, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. Lancet Respir Med 2021; 9:1365–76.
- Wolfe CR, Tomashek KM, Patterson TF, et al. Baricitinib versus dexamethasone for adults hospitalised with COVID-19 (ACTT-4): a randomised, double-blind, double placebo-controlled trial. Lancet Respir Med 2022; 10:888–99.
- US Census Bureau. 2020 decennial census redistricting data (Public Law 94-171). Washington, DC: US Census Bureau; 2021.
- 24. US Census Bureau. Vintage 2020 population estimates. Washington, DC; US Census Bureau; 2020.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19)–Associated Hospitalization Surveillance Network (COVID-NET). Atlanta, GA: CDC; 2020.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. COVID-19 response. COVID-19 case surveillance data access, summary, and limitations. Atlanta, GA: CDC; 2020.
- 27. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; **2021**.
- Pennington AF, Kompaniyets L, Summers AD, et al. Risk of clinical severity by age and race/ethnicity among adults hospitalized for COVID-19—United States, March–September 2020. Open Forum Infect Dis 2021; 8:ofaa638.
- Chen Y, Klein SL, Garibaldi BT, et al. Aging in COVID-19: vulnerability, immunity and intervention. Ageing Res Rev 2021; 65:101205.

- Veronese N, Petrovic M, Benetos A, et al. Underrepresentation of older adults in clinical trials on COVID-19 vaccines: a systematic review. Ageing Res Rev 2021; 71:101455.
- Vahidy FS, Nicolas JC, Meeks JR, et al. Racial and ethnic disparities in SARS-CoV-2 pandemic: analysis of a COVID-19 observational registry for a diverse US metropolitan population. BMJ Open 2020; 10:e039849.
- Bennett TD, Moffitt RA, Hajagos JG, et al. Clinical characterization and prediction of clinical severity of SARS-CoV-2 infection among US adults using data from the US National COVID Cohort Collaborative. JAMA Netw Open 2021; 4:e2116901.
- Hathaway C. A patent extension proposal to end the underrepresentation of women in clinical trials and secure meaningful drug guidance for women. Food Drug Law J 2012; 67:143–76.
- Kronish IM, Fenn K, Cohen L, et al. Extent of exclusions for chronic conditions in breast cancer trials. JNCI Cancer Spectr 2018; 2:pky059.
- Adams-Campbell LL, Ahaghotu C, Gaskins M, et al. Enrollment of African Americans onto clinical treatment trials: study design barriers. J Clin Oncol 2004; 22:730–4.

- 36. Hernandez ND, Durant R, Lisovicz N, et al. African American cancer survivors' perspectives on cancer clinical trial participation in a safety-net hospital: considering the role of the social determinants of health. J Cancer Educ 2022; 37:1589–97.
- Davis TC, Arnold CL, Mills G, Miele L. A qualitative study exploring barriers and facilitators of enrolling underrepresented populations in clinical trials and biobanking. Front Cell Dev Biol 2019; 7:74.
- Ossom-Williamson P, Williams IM, Kim K, Kindratt TB. Reporting and availability of COVID-19 demographic data by US health departments (April to October 2020): observational study. JMIR Public Health Surveill 2021; 7: e24288.
- Douglas MD, Respress E, Gaglioti AH, et al. Variation in reporting of the race and ethnicity of COVID-19 cases and deaths across US states: April 12, 2020, and November 9, 2020. Am J Public Health 2021; 111:1141–8.
- Xiao H, Vaidya R, Liu F, Chang X, Xia X, Unger JM. Sex, racial, and ethnic representation in COVID-19 clinical trials: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Intern Med 2022; 183:50–60.