

Improving representativeness in trials: a call to action from the Global Cardiovascular Clinical Trialists Forum

Lynaea Filbey, Jie Wei Zhu, Francesca D'angelo, Lehana Thabane, Muhammad Shahzeb Khan, Eldrin Lewis, Manesh R Patel, Tiffany Powell-Wiley, J Jaime Miranda, Liesl Zuhlke, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Lynaea Filbey, Jie Wei Zhu, Francesca D'angelo, Lehana Thabane, Muhammad Shahzeb Khan, et al.. Improving representativeness in trials: a call to action from the Global Cardiovascular Clinical Trialists Forum. European Heart Journal, 2023, 44 (11), pp.921-930. 10.1093/eurheartj/ehac810. hal-03974761

HAL Id: hal-03974761 https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/hal-03974761

Submitted on 6 Feb 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 2 2	Improving representativeness in trials: A Position Statement from the Cardiovascular Clinical Trialists Forum
3 4	Lynaea Filbey, BArtSc ¹ , Jie Wei Zhu, MD ¹ , Francesca D'Angelo, BSc ¹ , Lehana Thabane
5	PhD ^{2,3,4} , Muhammad Shahzeb Khan MD ⁵ , Eldrin Lewis, MD, MPH ⁶ , Manesh R. Patel MD ⁵ ,
6	Tiffany Powell-Wiley MD MPH ^{7,8} , J. Jaime Miranda, MD, PhD ⁹ , Liesl Zuhlke MD ¹⁰ , Javed
7	Butler MD ¹¹ , Faiez Zannad MD PhD ^{12,13} , Harriette GC Van Spall, MD, MPH ^{1,2,4}
8	
9	Author Affiliations
10	¹ Department of Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada
11	² Research Institute of St. Josephs and Population Health Research Institute, Hamilton, Ontario,
12	Canada
13	³ Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa
14	⁴ Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, McMaster University,
15	Hamilton, Ontario, Canada
16	⁵ Division of Cardiology, Duke Clinical Research Institute, Duke University School of Medicine,
17	Durham North Carolina, USA
18	⁶ Cardiovascular Division, Stanford University School of Medicine, California, USA
19	⁷ Social Determinants of Obesity and Cardiovascular Risk Laboratory, Cardiovascular Branch,
20	Division of Intramural Research, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes
21	of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA
22	⁸ Intramural Research Program, National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities,
23	National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA
24	⁹ CRONICAS Center of Excellence in Chronic Diseases, Lima, Peru
25	¹⁰ South African Medical Research Council and Division of Paediatric Cardiology, University of
26	Cape Town and Red Cross War Memorial Children's Hospital, Cape Town, South Africa
27	¹¹ Department of Medicine, University of Mississippi Medical Center, Jackson MS and Baylor
28	Scott and White Research Institute, Dallas, USA
29	¹² Centre d'Investigations Cliniques Plurithématique 1433, Université de Lorraine, Institut
30	National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale 1116, Centre Hospitalier Régional
31	¹³ Universitaire de Nancy, French Clinical Research Infrastructure Network, Investigation
32	Network Initiative-Cardiovascular and Renal Clinical Trialists, Nancy, France
33	
34	Corresponding author:
35	Dr. Harriette Gillian Christine Van Spall
36 27	20 Copeland Avenue, David Braley Research Building, Suite C3-117
31 38	nannillon, Ontario LoL UAS, Canada. E-mail: Harriette VanSpall@phri ca. Twitter: @hyanspall
39	Disclosure: The remaining authors have nothing to disclose
40	Word count: 4822
41	Introduction

1 2	Cardiovascular disease (CVD) remains a leading cause of morbidity and mortality
3	worldwide, affecting both sexes equally and with a disproportionate burden on older individuals
4	and those living in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs). Trials with relatively
5	homogenous participants who are at risk of the outcome but have no complex comorbidities can
6	be efficient, provide precise estimates of treatment effect, and maximize the estimated safety of
7	an intervention. Adequate and timely enrollment are important to ensure that trials are completed
8	in time and under budget; this remains a major focus of clinical trialists. However, trials should
9	enroll participants who are representative of those living with disease to ensure that estimates of
10	treatment effect and safety are generalizable; subgroup analyses to assess for treatment
11	interactions with relevant variables can be undertaken; ¹⁻³ and that communities can benefit from
12	the research infrastructure and quality healthcare facilitated by trials ^{4,5} There are also ethical and
13	moral arguments for representativeness among research participants. ¹⁻⁵ Finally, enrolling more
14	representative populations would support the broad and rapid adoption of trial results into
15	communities and lead to more equitable improvement in health (Figure 1).
16	Despite increasing awareness of the importance of representativeness, participants
17	enrolled in CVD randomized controlled trials (RCTs) remain largely homogenous, leaving
18	certain groups consistently under-represented relative to disease distribution (Figure 2). ^{1,4-10}
19	While timely, efficient enrollment is often seen as a trade-off in achieving a representative trial
20	population, it does not have to be. This narrative review summarizes evidence regarding trends in
21	CVD trial enrollment and strategies that may increase representativeness in clinical trial
22	populations.

23 Under-represented groups in CVD trials

24 Older adults and children

1	Older adults (> 65 years of age) are underrepresented in CVD trials despite having the
2	greatest burden of CVD and a growing need for evidence-based cardiovascular care. ³ While the
3	incidence of many CVDs increase with age, older adults are commonly excluded from clinical
4	trials due to concerns about comorbidities, drug-drug interactions, and decline in physical and
5	cognitive ability. ³ As a result, clinical decisions are often informed by evidence from trials
6	involving younger, less comorbid patients in whom estimated treatment and safety effects may
7	be different. In recent years, there has been no significant increase in enrollment of older adults,
8	with only two large CVD trials specifically targeting older adults with heart failure (HF). ¹²
9	Furthermore, in a review on pharmacological management of ischemic heart disease, 53% of 839
10	clinical trials excluded older adults, most commonly over age 75 or 80. ¹³ Given the later age of
11	onset of CVD and HF in women, exclusion of older individuals may exacerbate the under-
12	enrollment of women in RCTs. ¹⁴
13	While pediatric cardiac conditions including congenital heart disease and
14	cardiomyopathies have a growing global burden with downstream sequelae, children are
15	underrepresented in cardiovascular trials. Rigorous studies examining the efficacy of

16 medications used in children with heart disease are lacking and most cardiovascular medications

are currently not labelled for pediatric use. Less than 25% of Food and Drug Administration

18 (FDA) approved drugs have sufficient pediatric data to support their dosing, safety, and efficacy

19 in children.¹⁵ A recent study in over 30,000 children hospitalized with cardiovascular conditions

20 revealed that 78% received more than one off-label cardiovascular medication.¹⁶ Treatment

21 decisions in children tend to be based on clinical experience, smaller observational studies, or

22 extrapolation from adult data rather than primary evidence. RCTs are important in pediatric

23 health to establish dosing and to generate evidence on the benefits and toxicities of

cardiovascular drugs in children. The reliance on anecdotal evidence and observational data to
establish the safety and effectiveness of therapies – and the withholding of possibly effective
therapies – puts children at greater risk than does the closely monitored setting of a clinical trial.
People of all ages living with physical and cognitive limitations are also underrepresented
in clinical trials.¹⁷ This extends to trials of healthcare services, which may be particularly
relevant in people with varying ability.¹⁷ Further research specific to the gaps in the
representation of people with disabilities in CVD research is needed.

8 Women

9 Despite widespread acknowledgement of the historical under-representation of women in 10 CVD clinical trials relative to disease prevalence, and the implications on trial generalizability, little progress has been made.^{2,4,6,9,18} Between 2000 and 2019, there were no significant changes 11 12 in the representation of women in heart failure trials, with women constituting only 25% of total participants, despite accounting for approximately 40% of the disease population.⁶ Under-13 14 representation of women relative to disease burden also occurred in trials for lipid-lowering therapies in the context of coronary heart disease.¹⁹ The evidence utilized to inform decisions 15 16 around drug dosing, treatment efficacy, and potential adverse effects is often extrapolated from studies in middle-aged White men, and therefore does not consider sex differences in 17 18 pathophysiology, risk factors, coronary artery and cardiac chamber size, drug metabolism, and treatment effect.⁴ These sex differences are relevant across drug and invasive interventions, 19 20 including cardiac or vascular device implantations, coronary revascularization, valve 21 replacement, and arrhythmia ablation.

Pregnancy and / or lactation – conditions that change physiology, volume of distribution,
 and drug metabolism – often serve as unjustifiable exclusion criteria due to an outdated

1	protection-by-exclusion ideology. ¹ This leaves pregnant and lactating women vulnerable, with
2	little safety or efficacy data to inform treatment decisions in clinical settings, and over-utilization
3	of historical treatments recommended on the basis of small studies, observational data, or
4	consensus of experts. ²⁰ Indeed, the guideline recommendations for most cardiovascular
5	conditions in pregnancy or lactation are informed by level C evidence. ²⁰ To date, pregnant and
6	lactating women remain susceptible to the dual risk of having potentially effective treatments
7	withheld or receiving treatments that may have a different efficacy and safety profile than
8	estimated in the clinical trials that excluded them.
9	Trial reporting around sex or gender does not include transgender individuals, ²¹ who are
10	marginalized in clinical care and at higher risk of poor cardiovascular outcomes due to social
11	factors and gender-affirming hormone therapy. ²² Gender differences are particularly relevant in
12	health service and behavioural interventions, but rarely considered. With little representation and
13	reporting around gender diverse populations, there are significant gaps in the evidence to be
14	bridged.
15	Black, Indigenous, and People of Colour
16	Although CVD disproportionally affects Black, Indigenous, People of Colour (BIPOC),
17	race and ethnicity data is under-reported and BIPOC participants remain underrepresented in
18	CVD RCTs. ^{8-9,19,23} Race and ethnicity are primarily social constructs that may influence
19	treatment effect and adverse events due to key differences in ancestry, comorbidities,
20	socioeconomic status, healthcare access, and quality of care received. There are biological
21	differences in drug metabolism given the unique genetic polymorphisms identified across ethnic

22 groups, and these influence can treatment response, both safety and efficacy.²³ For example,

23 Chinese Americans have a higher incidence of ACE inhibitor-induced cough than others in the

population.²⁴ Differences in clotting factors and enzyme mutations impact response to 1 2 anticoagulants, with evidence suggesting that Asian individuals may require lower doses and Black and Hispanic individuals may require higher doses.²⁵ These differences highlight the 3 4 importance of representative enrollment and reporting of race or ethnicity data in clinical trials. 5 However, systematic reviews reveal that only a minority of heart failure and atrial fibrillation trials reported race or ethnicity data.^{8,26} Among trials that did report race/ethnicity data, BIPOC 6 individuals were consistently under-represented.^{8,19,23} A review of acute coronary syndrome 7 RCTs demonstrated that BIPOC individuals accounted for less than 25% of all enrolled 8 participants.²³ The under-enrollment of BIPOC in cardiovascular drug trials is more pronounced 9 10 in Europe than North America; between 2015 and 2016, Black participants accounted for 14.5% 11 of United States-based cardiovascular drug trials and 1.3% of non-United States participants (primarily European).²⁷ These findings are consistent with an analysis of multi-national diabetes 12 13 trials, which found a ten-fold greater proportion of BIPOC individuals recruited in trials led in North America versus Europe.²⁸ 14

15 People in low- and middle-income countries

While treatments could translate to the greatest reduction in mortality and morbidity in 16 LMICs, where CVD cases and deaths are the greatest, individuals from these countries are the 17 least represented in CVD clinical trials.^{7,29} Benefits of engaging centers in LMICs in 18 19 multinational clinical trials include the opportunity to collaborate with investigators who offer a 20 unique perspective, test interventions in lower resource settings, obtain services at lower relative costs, enroll larger volumes of patients per center, and improve care by virtue of trial enrolment.⁷ 21 22 However, a review examining 414 heart failure (HF) RCTs found that less than 25% of trials 23 recruited participants from outside Europe and North America, and that North America and

Europe were overrepresented in trials relative to global burden of disease.⁷ Only 3% of trials 1 2 recruited participants from Africa, which had the lowest participant-to-prevalence ratio of 0.1.⁷ 3 Without regional evidence, care that accounts for important differences in risk factors, etiologies, 4 and access to health services is not provided, and health decisions are made based on studies that are not generalizable.²⁹⁻³⁰ 5 6 Because of limitations in trial reporting, the representation of individuals with 7 intersectional identities that are under-represented in trials, for example, BIPOC women in 8 LMICs, is unknown. 9 Barriers to representative trial enrollment 10 There are numerous barriers that may limit the enrollment of certain demographic groups 11 in CVD clinical trials. 12 Historic marginalization of BIPOC 13 Ongoing mistrust of scientific research discourages some underrepresented communities 14 from participating in trials and engaging with healthcare systems, although this may vary across 15 countries. The Tuskegee study of the natural history of untreated syphilis in Black men and the 16 propagation of tissue from Henrietta Lacks without consent are just two examples of the harm inflicted on Black people in research.³¹ Indigenous people have been similarly harmed by 17 18 unethical research, including malnutrition experiments in starving children in Canadian residential schools.³¹ There is awareness of structural racism in healthcare and research settings, 19 20 particularly in the USA, but discrimination persists. This perpetuates distrust of research among some BIPOC, likely posing a barrier to clinical trial participation.^{31,32} 21

22 Recruitment and consent

1 Recruitment in ambulatory settings is independently associated with the under-enrollment 2 of women in CVD trials,⁶ and may be related to the under-referral to or lack of access for women 3 with CVD to specialized ambulatory care clinics.^{4,8} A lack of cultural competence in trial 4 recruitment strategies can also serve as a barrier.²⁹ For example, participants must often be fluent 5 in English to consent to or enroll in clinical trials.¹

6 Fears regarding trial participation among both potential participants and researchers may limit enrollment or consent of some groups of patients.^{15,20} Ethical issues around informed 7 consent in the setting of possible harm may affect children.¹⁵ Parents are frequently hesitant to 8 9 enroll their children in studies due to fears around lack of intervention from assignment to a 10 placebo group and concerns regarding exposing children to potential risks without clear benefit. 11 Similar fears pertain to pregnant or lactating women, who may hesitate to consent regardless of whether the intervention can plausibly harm a fetus or a breastfeeding child.²⁰ Drug and device 12 interventions are independently associated with the under-enrollment of women;⁶ the role of 13 14 differential rates of consent for these interventions, potentially due to safety concerns that are 15 inadequately unaddressed, is unclear.

16 Eligibility criteria

17 Restrictive eligibility criteria can limit the participation of equity-deserving groups 18 including older adults, children, and women.^{1,6,10,15,19,20} Eligibility criteria are used in trials to 19 select patients who are most likely to respond to intervention and least likely to experience 20 adverse effects, whilst accruing the events required to demonstrate treatment effect to promote 21 trial efficiency. Certain groups of patients must be excluded from trial participation based on 22 scientifically plausible risk of harm. However, when trial exclusion criteria are too broad and 23 without adequate justification, results may not be generalizable to large portions of the

1 population living with disease. In RCTs published in major medical journals over a 12-year span, 2 age was the basis of exclusion in 72% of all trials with adults over 65 excluded from 38.5% of 3 trials and children under 16 excluded from 60.1% of trials; age-related exclusion criteria were poorly justified in 78.4% of these trials.¹ Patients were also commonly rendered trial-ineligible 4 5 due to comorbid conditions like physical disabilities, cognitive impairment, polypharmacy, and visual/hearing deficits that are common in older adults.¹ Additionally, a review of 283 trials 6 7 published in major medical journals showed that 39% of studies excluded patients on the basis of 8 sex-specific criteria, 10.6% on the basis of communication or language barriers and 2.1% on the basis of ethnicity.¹ The widespread use of sex-specific exclusion criteria – not only pregnancy 9 10 and lactation, but also the presence of a functioning uterus or the lack of birth control – renders a 11 large subset of women ineligible for clinical trial participation and is independently associated with the under-enrollment of women after adjusting for other trial design factors.^{6,20} A review of 12 13 317 heart failure RCTs showed that sex-specific exclusion criteria were present in 81 (26%) trials, none of which provided justification for their use of sex-specific exclusion criteria.⁶ These 14 sex-specific exclusions are common even in exercise trials among healthy participants.³³ The 15 16 widespread conflation of pregnancy with lactation in exclusion criteria is another concern as drugs that may be teratogenic may not be secreted in breast milk, and vice versa. The research 17 18 paternalism that commonly excludes women in childbearing years from trial participation, 19 regardless of the intervention and regardless of the feasibility of pregnancy, has been accepted without question.²⁰ 20 *Follow-up processes* 21

Participant burden poses financial and social barriers to trial participation. The time and
 cost of attending frequent in-person follow-up visits may be more difficult for individuals who

face social and financial barriers to participation.²⁻³ Importantly, there is intersectionality
between lower socioeconomic and under-represented sex and racial or ethnic groups. Lost wages
and travel expenses may disproportionately affect these groups. For individuals who rely on
caregivers for transportation, like some older adults, or who have caregiver responsibilities, like
many women, frequent follow-up visits may be inaccessible.²⁻³ These effects may be exacerbated
for individuals from rural regions.

7 Homogenous trial leadership

8 Diversity in the gender and geography of trial leaders is associated with greater trial 9 representativeness. In a bibliometric analysis of trials published over two decades, men-only trial 10 leadership was independently associated with the under-enrollment of women participants relative to trials with at least one woman leader (OR 1.32, 95% CI 1.12-3.54;P=0.047).⁶ Another 11 bibliometric review adjusted analysis demonstrated that trial leadership by at least one woman 12 13 was independently associated with 8.4% (95% CI, 1.9%-15%; P=0.013) increase in BIPOC 14 enrollment and twice the odds of reporting race and ethnicity data (OR 2, 95% CI 1.1-3.8;P=0.028) than trial leadership by men.^{6,8} Reasons for this are unclear, and may include 15 16 purposeful attention to cultural competency, inclusion of under-represented groups, and designs 17 that minimize participant research burden in trials led by women, although these need further exploration.⁶⁻⁸ In another systematic review, trial leadership outside Europe and North America 18 19 was independently associated with ten-fold odds of recruitment in regions outside Europe and North America, possibly due to greater local access to recruitment pools.⁷ Benefits of diverse 20 21 trial leadership may extend beyond trial representativeness; diverse trialists are more likely to have diverse authorship teams and steering committees,³⁴ may ask research questions and design 22

trial protocols that address the needs of under-represented populations, and may work to increase
 research capacity, infrastructure, and human capital in diverse communities.^{8,31}

3 Limited research infrastructure

4 Inadequate research infrastructure in LMICs and in some rural regions in higher income 5 countries limit trial participation of individuals living in these regions. The World Health 6 Organization found that while 7% of African countries have moderately developed research capacity, greater than 90% have minimal or no research capacity.³⁰ With limited research 7 8 capacity due to a combination of factors such as insufficient access to funding, lack of 9 institutional resources including electronic medical records, and public uncertainty in research, there are fewer locally-led trials to recruit participants from these regions.³⁰ Still, even in the 10 11 LMICs where significant progress has been made in capacity building and regulatory framework, 12 industry sponsors do not venture much in enrolling patients in these countries. While 13 international research collaboration has become more common, some of these partnerships have 14 been criticized for employing a paternalistic approach that promotes "hit-and-run" research 15 which is conducted by high-income researchers in low-income countries without promoting 16 sustainable capacity development, meaningfully involving local investigators, or addressing questions relevant to local populations.³⁰ 17

18 Despite efforts from regulatory and funding agencies to promote representative 19 enrollment in clinical trials beginning in the 1990s, progress has been slow. The United States 20 Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has published guidance for sponsors to promote 21 representative enrollment, while the National Institutes of Health (NIH) ties funding to the 22 inclusion women and diverse racial and ethnic groups in trials.³⁵⁻³⁷ Similar guidance documents 23 for representativeness and for sex and gender based analysis have been published in the United

1 Kingdom by the National Institute for Health and Care Research and in Canada by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research. ³⁸⁻⁴⁰ Despite these recommendations, trials continue to have 2 3 inadequate representativeness. Among 142 NIH-funded RCTs published in 2015, only 13% of 4 trials analyzing or reported outcomes by race or ethnicity, and 15% of trials enrolled less than 30% women.⁴¹ Temporal trends in the enrollment of women in heart failure trials published in 5 6 high impact journals have not changed over 20 years, although enrollment of BIPOC and reporting of results according to sex or gender and race or ethnicity has increased.^{6,8,21} 7 8 **Strategies to Increase Representativeness of CVD Clinical Trial Participants** 9 Several multi-level strategies could increase representative enrollment of participants in 10 CVD RCTs. Importantly, the knowledge gaps in any under-represented group are likely 11 amplified in individuals with overlapping marginalized identities, such as female patients who are BIPOC.³¹ As such, trial teams should pay particular attention to including individuals with 12 13 intersectional identities in clinical trials. 14 Trial Level Strategies 15 Clinical trials can be designed to increase representativeness in CVD trials, with purposeful strategies applied at each trial step. Community-based participatory research and 16 engagement of people with lived experience as research partners and steering committee 17 18 members can be useful in improving trial design and enhancing trust in the research enterprise. 19 Collaboration with community advisory boards and patient advocacy groups can inform research 20 questions, enhance trial recruitment, and improve knowledge dissemination and implementation in the community.⁴² 21

Recruitment strategies can be designed to promote diversity. Meaningful research
 partnerships between trial teams, patients, and community organizations can effectively engage

1 under-represented communities, build trust, and address the socioeconomic and cultural factors 2 that influence patient willingness to participate in trials. Recruitment strategies that include 3 digital platforms and community-based settings can aid in diversifying participants. The use of 4 digital communication tools provides opportunities to increase the scale of clinical trials and 5 eliminate barriers created by in-person recruitment. Mobile-application-based recruitment approaches can be effective in increasing gender, race and ethnicity representativeness.⁴³ Trial 6 7 sites can be selected strategically to increase the enrollment of historically marginalized groups. 8 Machine learning algorithms can be used to connect eligible patients to trials through the use of 9 natural language processing which could be used to analyze clinical trial databases and electronic 10 medical records, identify eligible patients based on demographics, and connect them to the right trials.⁴⁴ Adaptive enrichment strategies based on interim analysis of who is enrolled could help 11 12 shift recruitment efforts towards groups that are under-represented.

13 Input from patient partners could be used to create recruitment materials that are tailored 14 to the cognition, literacy, language, and culture of individuals living with disease in the region of 15 recruitment; the costs associated with translation can be a deterrent but should be considered an 16 ethical and scientific obligation and accounted for in grant funding requests. Finally, adaptive 17 recruitment strategies, which provide the opportunity to continuously modify recruitment strategies to meet participant diversity targets, could be considered.² Prioritizing inclusivity and 18 19 cultural competence in all study processes and materials may not only enhance diverse 20 enrollment, but also translate to better adherence to the intervention and better trial retention. Pragmatic and well-justified eligibility criteria can facilitate more representative 21 enrollment.¹ Sex-specific eligibility criteria that broadly render women of childbearing age 22

justified by biological probability or pre-trial evidence of harm.^{1,6} Similarly, exclusion criteria
based on age and comorbidities should be adequately justified (Table 1) and those based on
language, race or ethnicity, education level, socioeconomic status, cognitive ability, physical
ability, written or spoken language ability, or chronic health conditions should be avoided.¹
When there is uncertainty regarding the safety of intervention in certain populations, experts (e.g.
obstetrical specialists for trials involving pregnant women) could be consulted and included in
the trial committees.

8 Consent processes that are carefully designed to match the needs of the participants, 9 accounting for health literacy, language, culture, and level of education, can promote the 10 engagement of diverse individuals. Positive patient- or family-facing interactions in the consent 11 process may help potential participants make better informed decisions regarding trial participation.^{15,45} This may be especially important in BIPOC patients, women, and other 12 13 marginalized individuals who exhibit mistrust in medical research due to systemic 14 discrimination. Digital consent tools can make the research consent process more accessible to 15 some and can be offered based on patient preference.

16 Efforts can be made to reduce the unique barriers to follow-up that individuals of diverse 17 identities face when participating in clinical trials. Women, BIPOC, older adults, and people 18 living in LMICs experience a variety of social challenges, including lower socioeconomic status.²⁹⁻³⁰ Consulting with patients, community organizations, and local healthcare workers may 19 20 provide trial teams with a better understanding of the unique barriers to trial participation and 21 follow-up that some groups face. Solutions for these barriers may include reimbursing 22 participants for costs associated with transportation and childcare, offering flexible clinic hours, 23 utilizing remote follow up when possible, and accommodating individuals with physical and

cognitive disabilities. Site-less trials are becoming more popular and rely exclusively on virtual
 encounters.⁴⁶ Trials can be embedded in registries or administrative datasets for clinical
 outcomes such as death or hospitalization to be determined without research burden on patients.
 ⁴⁷⁻⁴⁸

5 Trial analysis and reporting could present evidence that better informs the care of patients 6 living with disease. Subgroup analysis and tests for effect modification can provide evidence on 7 whether treatment effect varies by subgroups in the trial population. Demographic characteristics 8 that may affect prognosis or treatment effect should be thoroughly investigated. Tools like the 9 Instrument for assessing the Credibility of Effect Modification Analyses (ICEMAN) can aid this analysis.⁴⁹ Trial reporting should include baseline characteristics disaggregated by demographic 10 11 variables like sex and race/ethnicity. Furthermore, reporting consent rates by demographic 12 variables, and reflecting on potential barriers to consent for different groups may be fruitful in promoting inclusion in future trials.^{6,21} Adequate analysis and reporting, along with pooled 13 14 analyses of conceptually similar trials, may generate more robust and generalizable forms of 15 evidence.

16 Institutional Level Strategies

Equal opportunity in academic settings can promote better representation of diverse populations in clinical trial leadership. Diversity amongst trial leadership facilitates gender, racial, and ethnic representation in CVD clinical trials. To harness the strength of women and BIPOC as clinical trial leaders, academic settings should create an inclusive and equitable institutional culture, including research salary support, advancement, and mentorship opportunities to build and maintain capacity for women and diverse researchers (Figure 3). By conducting rigorous longitudinal monitoring of inequities within their organizations, institutions

4 Cultural competency training can create trial teams that are well-equipped to understand the unique needs of diverse trial populations.³¹ Staff on a culturally competent trial team will 5 6 understand historical and current health inequities and the ways that research can alleviate them.³¹ Cultural humility – reflecting on one's own cultural identity and aiming to unlearn 7 8 cultural beliefs deeply rooted in global power imbalances – can provide researchers with a perspective that cracks the ethnocentric lens through which Western research is conducted.³¹ For 9 10 example, the trial team for a trial testing a digital health intervention spent time cultivating relationships and understanding the values of African American women at risk of CVD.⁵⁰ This 11 12 involved creating a community advisory board with members from faith-based and community 13 organizations to help with trial design and execution, consulting with community members on 14 appropriate cultural messaging for the intervention, and recruiting participants through churches and community centers.⁵⁰ 15

16 Training a diverse group of clinical trialists may promote more equitable trials in the future. The CardioVascular Clinical Trialists (CVCT) Future trialists fellowship program and the 17 18 US National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (NHLBI) supports the development of early career 19 researchers from underrepresented backgrounds, providing awardees the opportunity to serve on trial steering committees.⁵¹ Societies such as the American College of Cardiology and American 20 21 Heart Association as well as catalyst organizations provide diverse investigators with short 22 training courses and networking opportunities. The European Society of Cardiology offers a 23 master's degree in clinical trials, with a focus on applicants from under-represented regions of

the world.¹⁰ Individual scientists can make a difference by funding individuals from underrepresented regions of the world to train as clinical trialists; the senior author of this manuscript
has started such a fellowship program.

4 Global Level Strategies

5 Increasing the representativeness of CVD trials worldwide involves action at the global 6 level to improve infrastructure in regions with low research capacity. Strategies to increase 7 research capacity involve international research collaboration, citizen engagement, and promoting research readiness in the healthcare system.³⁰ International collaboration that builds 8 9 sustainable and equitable partnerships can provide better access to funding and technology, 10 improve representative trial enrollment, increase internationally recognized scientific output, and investigate research priorities that are pertinent to the local population.^{7,29-30} Global organizations 11 12 like the CVCT Middle East, Mediterranean and Africa (CVCT-MEMA) aim to connect 13 stakeholders, promote collaboration, and enhance research capacity in the area. The necessary 14 human capital and expertise to lead CVD trials can be fostered by increasing opportunities for 15 remote research training and fellowships, exchange programs, and visiting professorships. Grants 16 and travelling fellowships from high-income countries, pharmaceutical and device companies, or professional societies could provide a promising solution to improving local LMIC research 17 capacity.7,29-30 18

Action at the global level should involve funding policy that incentivizes representative trial enrollment and encourages accountability. Industry and grant funding agencies such as the US NHLBI and Global Alliance for Chronic Disease (GACD) can ensure more equitable policies by explicitly requiring inclusion of locally situated investigators for multicenter trials to ensure adequate representation.⁵¹ Although industry sponsors have started to recognize the importance of adequate representation by instating a Chief Diversity Officer, further transparency with
 clearly outlined goals and responsibilities are required in order to ensure accountability and
 monitoring of progress.³⁰

4

A call to action: enrollment and reporting

5 We call on the global scientific community to prioritize representative inclusion in CVD 6 clinical trials. By implementing strategies throughout the research enterprise, the CVD clinical 7 trial landscape can become one that serves the entire population equitably. We encourage trialists 8 and institutions to hold themselves accountable to this goal and suggest a five-year timeframe for 9 clinical trials to achieve representative enrollment with a participant-to-prevalence ratio of 0.8-10 1.2 for age, sex, and ethnicity in a given region. A participant-to-prevalence ratio in this range 11 ensures that trial participants reflect those living with the disease. Over this time, we advocate 12 for an approach that improves trial design, analysis, and results. Meaningful improvements in 13 trial design first require the identification of key demographic variables pertaining to a research 14 question and evaluation of their potential effect on prognosis and treatment. Trial teams should 15 adopt inclusive recruitment strategies, eliminate unjustified exclusion criteria, and reduce 16 barriers to trial participation. Trials should report results that inform care for populations living 17 with disease by reporting baseline characteristics that include sex or gender, race or ethnicity, 18 regional of enrollment. Consent rates and trial flow should be disaggregated by sex to assess the reasons and extent of under-representation in treatment effect estimates.²¹ Within trial analysis, 19 20 trialists should plan subgroup analysis of the primary outcome that include key demographic 21 variables that could modify treatment effect; and use evidence-based tools for analysis like the ICEMAN instrument for robust subgroup analysis.⁴⁹ Adverse events should also be 22 disaggregated by sex.²¹ Subgroup analysis should be incorporated into the abstract, methods, 23

results, and discussion of a paper. Finally, we call upon trialists and institutional leaders
worldwide to increase recruitment of trial participants from under-represented regions by
collaborating to promote sustainable research development in LMICs. In absence of trial
representativeness and biological plausibility of variation in treatment or safety effect in an
under-represented group, results should be applied to all demographic groups so that we do not
doubly jeopardize underrepresented groups and deprive them of care.

7 Conclusion

8 The continued under-enrollment of older adults, children, women, BIPOC, and those 9 from LMIC reduces the generalizability of high-quality RCTs, ultimately exacerbating existing 10 health inequities that negatively impact these populations. Strategies at several levels – global, 11 institutional, and trial design - could facilitate more diverse participant enrollment. 12 Representativeness in CVD trials could ensure that estimates of treatment efficacy and safety are 13 generalizable, that subgroups are balanced and powered for meaningful analysis, and that there is 14 equitable evidence available to guide decisions at the point-of-care, ultimately creating a culture 15 of health justice within cardiology.

16 Credit statement

HGCV conceived the manuscript and supervised the work. LF, JWZ, FD and HGCV
drafted and edited the manuscript. All authors edited the manuscript and approved the final
version.

20 Data availability

21 No new data were generated or analysed in support of this research.

22 **References**

1	1.	Van Spall HGC, Toren A, Kiss A, Fowler RA. Eligibility criteria of randomized
2		controlled trials published in high-impact general medical journals: a systematic sampling
3		review. JAMA. 2007;297(11):1233-1240. doi: https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.297.11.1233.
4	2.	Filbey L, Khan MS, Van Spall HGC. Protection by inclusion: Increasing enrollment of
5		women in cardiovascular trials. Am Heart J Plus: Cardiology Research and Practice.
6		2022;13. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ahjo.2022.10009.
7	3.	Michos ED, Van Spall HGC. Increasing representation and diversity in cardiovascular
8		clinical trial populations. Nat Rev Cardiol. 2021;18(8):537-538 doi:
9		https://doi.org/10.1038/s41569-021-00583-8.
10	4.	Sullivan K, Doumouras BS, Santema BT, Walsh MN, Douglas PS, Voors AA, et al. Sex-
11		Specific Differences in Heart Failure: Pathophysiology, Risk Factors, Management, and
12		Outcomes. Can J Cardiol. 2021;37:560-571. doi:
13		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cjca.2020.12.025
14	5.	Masoudi FA, Havranek EP, Wolfe P, Gross CP, Rathore SS, Steiner JF, et al. Most
15		hospitalized older persons do not meet the enrollment criteria for clinical trials in heart
16		failure. Am Heart J. 2003; 146(2):250-257. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-
17		8703(03)00189-3.
18	6.	Whitelaw S, Sullivan K, Eliya Y, Alruwayeh M, Thabane L, Yancy CW, et al. Trial
19		characteristics associated with under- enrolment of females in randomized controlled
20		trials of heart failure with reduced ejection fraction: a systematic review. Eur J Heart Fail.
21		2021;23(1):15-24. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/ejhf.2034.
22	7.	Zhu JW, Le N, Wei S, Zuhlke L, Lopes RD, Zannad F, et al. Global representation of
23		heart failure clinical trial leaders, collaborators, and enrolled participants: a bibliometric
24		review 2000–20. Eur Heart J Qual Care & Clin Outcomes. 2021; qcab058. doi:
25		https://doi.org/10.1093/ehjqcco/qcab058.
26	8.	Wei S, Le N, Zhu JW, Breathett K, Greene SJ, Mamas MA, et al. Factors Associated
27		With Racial and Ethnic Diversity Among Heart Failure Trial Participants: A Systematic
28		Bibliometric Review. Circ Heart Fail doi:
29		https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCHEARTFAILURE.121.008685.
30	9.	Tahan AS, Vaduganathan M, Greene SJ, Fonarow GC, Fiuzat M, Jessup M, et al.
31		Enrollment of Older Patients, Women, and Racial and Ethnic Minorities in Contemporary

1	Heart Failure Clinical Trials: A Systematic Review. JAMA Cardiol. 2018 October
2	1;3(10):1011-1019. doi: https://doi.org/10.1001/jamacardio.2018.2559
3	10. Van Spall HGC, Lala A, Deering TF, Casadei B, Zannad F, Kaul P, et al. Ending Gender
4	Inequality in Cardiovascular Clinical Trial Leadership: JACC Review Topic of the Week.
5	J Am Coll Cardiol. 2021;77(23):2960-72. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2021.04/038
6	11. Flather MD, Shibata MC, Coats AJ, Van Veldhuisen DJ, Parkhomenko A, Borbola J, et
7	al. Randomized trial to determine the effect of nebivolol on mortality and cardiovascular
8	hospital admission in elderly patients with heart failure (SENIORS). Eur Heart J. 2005;
9	26(3):215-225. doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehj115
10	12. Massie BM, Carson PE, McMurray JJ, Komaida M, McKevie R, Zile MR, et al.
11	Irbesartan in patients with heart failure and preserved ejection fraction. N Engl J Med.
12	2008 Dec 4;359(23). doi: https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa0805450
13	13. Bourgeois FT, Orenstein L, Ballakur S, Mandl KD, Ioannidis JPA. Exclusion of Elderly
14	People from Randomized Clinical Trials of Drugs for Ischemic Heart Disease. J Am
15	Geriatr Soc. 2017 Nov;65(11):2354-2361. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/jgs.14833.
16	14. Luy M, Minagawa Y. Gender gaps–Life expectancy and proportion of life in poor health.
17	Health Rep. 2014;25(12):12-19. doi: https://doi.org/10.1097/FJC.0b013e31820d1c54
18	15. Li JS, Cohen-Wolkowiez M, Pasquali SK. Pediatric cardiovascular drug trials, lessons
19	learned. J Cardiovasc Pharmacol. 2011;58(1):4-8. doi:
20	https://doi.org/10.1097/FJC.0b013e31820d1c54.
21	16. Pasquali SK, Hall M, Slonim AD, et al. Off-label use of cardiovascular medications in
22	children hospitalized with congenital and acquired heart disease. Circ Cardiovasc Qual
23	Outcomes. 2008;1:74-83. doi: https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCOUTCOMES.108.787176
24	17. Spong CY, Bianchi DW. Improving Public Health Requires Inclusion of
25	Underrepresented Populations in Research. JAMA. 2018;319(4):337-338. doi:
26	https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2017.19138
27	18. Vogel B, Acevedo M, Bairey N, Chieffo A, Figree GA, Guerrero M, et al. The Lancet
28	women and cardiovascular disease Commission: reducing the global burden by 2030.
29	The Lancet Commissions. 2021;397(10292):p2385-2438. doi:
30	https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(21)00684-X

1	19. Khan SU, Khan MZ, Subramanian CR, Riaz H, Khan MU, Lone AN, et al.
2	Participation of Women and Older Participants in Randomized Clinical Trials of Lipid-
3	Lowering Therapies. JAMA Netw Open. 2020;3(5):e205202. doi:
4	https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.5202.
5	20. Van Spall HGC. Exclusion of pregnant and lactating women from COVID-19 vaccine
6	trials: a missed opportunity. Eur Heart J. 2021;42(28):2724-2726. doi:
7	https://doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehab103
8	21. Au M, Whitelaw S, Khan MS, Mamas MA, Mbuagbaw L, Mulvagh SL, et al. A
9	Systematic Review of Sex-specific Reporting in Heart Failure Clinical Trials: Trial
10	Flow and Results. JACC Advances. 2022; in press. doi:
11	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacadv.2022.100079
12	22. Streed CG, Beach LB, Caceres BA, Dowshen NL, Moreau KL, Mukherjee M, et al.
13	Assessing and Addressing Cardiovascular Health in People Who Are Transgender and
14	Gender Diverse: A Scientific Statement From the American Heart Association.
15	Circulation. 2021;144:3.136-e.148. doi:
16	https://doi.org/10.1161/CIR.000000000000000000000000000000000000
17	23. Brown NJ, Ray WA, Snowden M, Griffin MR. Black Americans have an increased rate
18	of angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor-associated angioedema. Clin Pharmacol Ther.
19	1996;60:8-13. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0009-9236(96)90161-7.
20	24. Tseng DS, Kwong J, Rezvani F, Coates AO. Angiotensin-converting Enzyme-related
21	Cough among Chinese-Americans. Am J Med. 2010;123(2):183.e11-183-e15. doi:
22	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2009.06.032
23	25. Gibson CM, Yuet WC. Racial and Ethnic Differences in Response to Anticoagulation: A
24	Review of the Literature. J Pharm Practice. 2021;34(5):685-693. doi:
25	https://doi.org/10.1177/0897190019894142
26	26. Khan MZ, Munir MB, Khan SU, Subramanian CR, Khan MU, Asad ZUA, et al.
27	Representation of women, older patients, ethnic, and racial minorities in trials of atrial
28	fibrillation. Pacing Clin Electrophysiol. 2021;44(3):423-431. doi:
29	https://doi.org/10.1111/pace.14178
30	27. US Department of Health and Human Services Food and Drug Administration 2015-
31	2016 global participation in clinical trials report. Available from: https://www.fda.gov/

1	28. Zhang J, Van Spall HGC, Wang Y, Thabane L, Wang R, Lig G. Enrollment of Black,
2	Indigenous, and Other People of Colour in Multicountry Randomized Controlled Trials
3	of Diabetes Conducted in North America and Europe. Diabetes Care. 2022;45(7):e116-
4	117. doi: https://doi.org/10.2337/dc22-0261
5	29. Gaziano TA, Bitton A, Anand S, Abrahams-Gessel S, Murphy A, et al. Growing
6	epidemic of coronary heart disease in low- and middle-income countries. Curr Probl
7	Cardiol. 2010;35(2):72-115. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpcardiol.2009.10.002
8	30. Zannad F, Sobhy M, Almahmeed W, Balghith M, Butler J, Dziri S, et al. Clinical
9	research in Africa And Middle East: roadmap for reform and harmonisation of the
10	regulatory framework and sustainable capacity development. JoGHR. 2019;3:e2019082.
11	doi: https://doi.org/10.29392/joghr.3.e2019082
12	31. Zhu JW, D'Angelo F, Miranda J, Yancy CW, Cupido B, Zannad F, et al. Incorporating
13	cultural competence and humility to increase ethnic and racial representativeness in
14	cardiovascular clinical trials. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2022;80(1):89-92. doi:
15	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2022/05.001
16	32. Kennedy BR, Mathis CC, Woods AK. African Americans and their distrust of the health
17	care system: healthcare for diverse populations. J Cult Divers. 2007;14(2):56-60.
18	https://tuckerpub.com/jcd.html
19	33. Zhu JW, Reed JL, Van Spall HGC. The underrepresentation of female athletes in sports
20	research: considerations for cardiovascular health. Eur Heart J. 2022;43(17):1609-1611.
21	doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehab846
22	34. Eliya Y, Whitelaw S, Thabane L, Voors AA, Douglas PS, Van Spall HGC. Temporal
23	Trends and Clinical Trial Characteristics Associated with the Inclusion of Women in
24	Heart Failure Trial Steering Committees: A Systematic Review. Circ Heart Fail. 2021
25	Aug;14(8):e008064. doi: https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCHEARTFAILURE.120.008064
26	35. US Department of Health and Human Services Food and Drug Administration.
27	Enhancing the Diversity of Clinical Trial Populations — Eligibility Criteria, Enrollment
28	Practices, and Trial Designs: Guidance for Industry. 2020. FDA-2019-D-1264.
29	https://www.fda.gov/
30	36. US Department of Health and Human Services Food and Drug Administration. Diversity
31	Plans to Improve Enrollment of Participants From Underrepresented Racial and Ethnic

1 Populations in Clinical Trials; Draft Guidance for Industry, 2020. FDA-2019-D-1264. 2 https://www.fda.gov/ 3 37. National Institutes of Health (NIH). NIH Policy and Guidelines on the Inclusion of 4 Women and Minority Subjects as Research. 2017. NOT-OD-18-014. Available from: 5 https://grants.nih.gov/grants/guide/notice-files/NOT-OD-18-014.html. 6 38. National Institute for Health and Care Research. Improving inclusion of under-served 7 groups in clinical research: Guidance from INCLUDE project. 2020. Available from: 8 https://www.nihr.ac.uk/ 9 39. Health Canada. Guidance Document: Considerations for Inclusion of Women in Clinical 10 Trials and Analysis of Sex Differences. 2013. Available from: 11 https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/ 12 40. Canadian Institutes of Health Research. How CIHR is supporting the integration of 13 SGBA. 2017. https://cihr-irsc.gc.ca/e/50837.html 14 41. Geller SE, Koch AR, Roesch P, Filut A, Hallgren E, Carnes M. The More Things 15 Change, the More They Stay the Same: A Study to Evaluate Compliance With Inclusion 16 and Assessment of Women and Minorities in Randomized Controlled Trials. Acad Med. 17 2018 Apr;93(4):630-635. doi: https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.00000000002027 18 42. Caesar J, Peters-Lawrence MH, Mitchell V, Powell-Wiley TM. The Communication, 19 Awareness, Relationships and Empowerment (C.A.R.E.) Model: An Effective Tool for 20 Engaging Urban Communities in Community-Based Participatory Research. Int J 21 Environ Res Public Health. 2017 Nov;14(11):1422. doi: 22 https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14111422 23 43. Mahalingaiah S, Fruh V, Rodriguez E, Konanki SC, Onnela J, de Figureido Veiga A, et 24 al. Design and methods of the Apple Women's Health Study: a digital longitudinal cohort 25 study. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2022;226(4):545-e1. doi: 26 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajog.2021.09.041 44. Averbuch T, Sullivan K, Sauer A, Mamas MA, Voors AA, Gale CP, et al. Applications 27 28 of artificial intelligence and machine learning in heart failure. EHJ-DH. 2022;3(2):311-29 322. doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/ehjdh/ztac025

1	45. Van Spall HGC, Averbuch T, Damman K, Voors AA. Risk and risk reduction in trials of
2	heart failure with reduced ejection fraction: absolute or relative?. Eur J Heart Fail.
3	2021;23(9):1437-44. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/ejhf.2248
4	46. Spertus JA, Birmingham MC, Nassif M, Damaraju CV, Abbate A, Butler J, et al. The
5	SGLT2 inhibitor canagliflozin in heart failure: the CHIEF-HF remote, patient-centered
6	randomized trial. Nat Med. 2022;28:809-813. doi: https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-022-
7	01703-8
8	47. Van Spall HGC, Lee SF, Xie F, Ko DT, Thabane L, Ibrahim Q, et al. Knowledge to
9	action: rationale and design of the Patient-Centered Care Transitions in Heart Failure
10	(PACT-HF) stepped wedge cluster randomized trial. Am Heart J. 2018 May 1;199:75-82.
11	doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ahj.2017.12.013
12	48. Van Spall HGC, Lee SF, Xie F, Oz UE, Perez R, Mitoff PR, et al. Effect of patient-
13	centered transitional care services on clinical outcomes in patients hospitalized for heart
14	failure: the PACT-HF randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2019; 26;321(8):753-61. doi:
15	https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2019.0710
16	49. Schandelmaier S, Briel M, Varadhan R, Schmid C, Devasenapathy N, Hayward RA, et al.
17	Development of the Instrument to assess the Credibility of Effect Modification Analyses
18	(ICEMAN) in randomized controlled trials and meta-analyses. CMAJ.
19	2020;192(32):e901-e906. doi: https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.200077
20	50. Tamura K, Vijayakumar NP, Troendle JF, Curlin K, Neally SJ, Mitchell VM, et al.
21	Multilevel mobile health approach to improve cardiovascular health in resource-limited
22	communities with Step It Up: a randomised controlled trial protocol targeting physical
23	activity. BMJ Open. 2020;10:e040702. doi: https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2020-
24	040702
25	51. Global Cardiovascular Clinical Trialists Forum. Accessed May 26, 2021.
26	https://www.globalcvctforum.com/young-trialists.
27	







Table 1 Justification scheme for eligibility criteria being considered for an RCT. *Adapted from*

Adequate justification for exclusion	Inadequate justification for exclusion
Lack of consent	Is not an adequate justification for exclusion
 Trial participation is likely to cause harm There is unacceptable or known risk of harm from the intervention There is unacceptable risk of harm from withholding the intervention (i.e. allocation to placebo) Individual is unlikely to receive benefit from the intervention Individual is unlikely to receive benefit from the intervention Individual is unlikely to have the condition of interest or a phenotype that will respond to the intervention Individual is not at risk for the outcome during the follow-up period Individual is at imminent risk of death or the outcome (i.e. unmodifiable risk) Effect of intervention will be difficult to establish Individual has a cointervention that will influence the treatment effect Individual has a comorbidity that will make the treatment response difficult to detect 	 AND Exclusion is based on ≥ 1 of the following factors Age Sex or gender Sex-specific conditions (menstruation, pregnancy, lactation) Race, ethnicity, culture, or religion Spoken or written language ability Educational background Socioeconomic status Cognitive ability Physical ability or disability Chronic health condition

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
0	
/	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
10	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24 25	Table 1 A deguate and inadeguate justification for evoluting individuals from DCTs. A dented
25 26	from Van Spall HGC Toren A Kiss A Fowler RA JAMA 2007 ¹
20	Figure 1. Justification for increasing representativeness of under-represented groups in
28	cardiovascular randomized clinical trials
29	Figure 2. Under-represented groups in cardiovascular randomized clinical trials
30	Figure 3. Factors associated with under-representation of certain demographic groups in
31	cardiovascular trial participation
3Z	Central mustration. Barriers to under-enrollment of diverse populations in cardiovascular

- 33 clinical trials and strategies to achieve representative enrollment
- 34