Crossroads of methodological choices in research synthesis: insights from two network meta-analyses on preventing relapse in schizophrenia

Giovanni Ostuzzi, Johannes Schneider-Thoma, Federico Tedeschi, Stefan Leucht, Corrado Barbui

ABSTRACT

In recent years, network meta-analyses have been increasingly carried out to inform clinical guidelines and policy. This approach is under constant development, and a broad consensus on how to carry out several of its methodological and statistical steps is still lacking. Therefore, different working groups might often make different methodological choices based on their clinical and research experience, with possible advantages and shortcomings. In this contribution, we will critically assess two network meta-analyses on the topic of pharmacological prevention of relapse in schizophrenia, carried out by two different research groups. We will highlight the implications of different methodological choices on the analysis results and their clinical–epidemiological interpretation. Moreover, we will discuss some of the most relevant technical issues of network meta-analyses for which there is not a broad methodological agreement, including the assessment of transitivity.

Pharmacological prevention of relapse in schizophrenia is a debated topic. Recently, two different research groups attempted to address this relevant clinical issue by synthesising data from randomised controlled trials (RCTs) using network meta-analysis (NMA) methodology.[1,2] In this contribution, jointly written by some of the researchers involved in both NMAs, similarities and differences of these two approaches are examined in order to discuss how different methodological choices can be applied to the same clinical problem and whether they contributed to differences in results and conclusions. As a second aim, we critically appraised some of the current technical issues of NMAs, exemplified in these two NMAs, suggesting possible future developments.

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE NMAS

Both NMAs included RCTs enrolling clinically stable adults with schizophrenia spectrum disorders (table 1), relying mostly on the definition of ‘clinical stability’ provided by primary studies, but with slight differences. Ostuzzi et al[2] additionally included those RCTs where, although individuals were not clearly defined as ‘clinically stable’, mean severity scores (eg, Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale) at baseline indicated relatively low levels of psychopathology, according to commonly employed cut-offs. This led to the inclusion of 14 RCTs (1486 individuals) that would have been otherwise excluded. Further, Schneider-Thoma et al[1] excluded individuals with prominent negative symptoms, considering that this specific subgroup of individuals may not be comparable (transitive) with the target population in different regards, while Ostuzzi et al did not apply this exclusion criterion. This accounted for some differences, such as amisulpride not being included in the network of Schneider-Thoma et al, as it was only investigated in trials for prominent negative symptoms. Overall, for the primary outcome (ie, relapse), Ostuzzi et al included 89 RCTs (22 275 participants) and Schneider-Thoma et al included 100 RCTs (16 812 participants). Despite similar inclusion criteria, only 44 RCTs contributed to this analysis for both NMAs.

We note that being more or less inclusive ultimately depends on methodological considerations, as well as the clinical perspective of the working group. On one hand, being inclusive might increase heterogeneity between studies and threaten the assumption of transitivity, which postulates that included RCTs should be similar in the distribution of all potential effect modifiers except for the treatments being compared.[3] On the other hand, a more inclusive approach might have the benefits of increasing the statistical power and the connectivity of the network, improving external validity and applicability of results by including a broader range of clinical features commonly seen in real-world practice.

Moreover, employing rating scales’ cut-off scores to include/exclude RCTs in meta-analyses is not a routine approach and could be questioned. In this case, ‘clinical stability’ is a complex construct that might not be exhaustively informed by symptom severity only. By contrast, as RCTs employ heterogeneous definitions of ‘clinical stability’, using a common cut-off could be a more consistent measure of symptom severity across different studies.

Similar considerations can apply to the construct of ‘relapse’ and how it should be measured. Both NMAs used the definition of relapse provided by the authors of primary studies, but Ostuzzi et al additionally imputed missing data from mean change scores, again using cut-off thresholds (ie, an increase of at least 25% of the baseline Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale at the end of the study). Although such thresholds have been
Table 1  Main differences between the two network meta-analyses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Schneider-Thoma et al,1 Lancet 2022</th>
<th>Ostuzzi et al,2 World Psychiatry 2022</th>
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<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Adults with schizophrenia spectrum disorders</td>
<td>Adults with schizophrenia spectrum disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clinically stable (as reported by primary studies)</td>
<td>Clinically stable (as reported by primary studies; alternatively, according to the mean baseline severity score)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Individuals with prominent negative symptoms were excluded</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intervention/comparison</td>
<td>All available oral and LAI second-generation antipsychotics as well as a selection of 19 first-generation antipsychotics</td>
<td>All available oral and LAI antipsychotics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>Relapse (as reported by primary studies)</td>
<td>Relapse (as reported by primary studies; if not available, imputed from mean change in severity score)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies included</td>
<td>RCTs</td>
<td>RCTs enrolling 50 or more participants</td>
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<td>Design</td>
<td>Bayesian network meta-analysis (using ORs as effect size measure for analysis; for presentation of results, ORs transformed to risk ratios to increase interpretability)</td>
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<td>Transitivity assessment</td>
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<td>Quality assessment</td>
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<td>CINEMA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>Quote: ‘As we found no clear differences between antipsychotics for relapse prevention, we conclude that the choice of antipsychotic for maintenance treatment should be guided mainly by their tolerability.’</td>
<td>Quote: ‘Based on these findings, olanzapine, aripiprazole and paliperidone are the best choices for the maintenance treatment of schizophrenia spectrum disorders, while both LAI and oral formulations of these antipsychotics are among the best-performing treatments and have the highest confidence of evidence for relapse prevention.’</td>
</tr>
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</table>
assumption should be assessed on a theoretical level before the NMA is conducted.12

Second, Ostuzzi et al excluded small studies (including less than 50 participants), considering that they tend to show higher heterogeneity and they may bias estimates due to omission of publications with non-significant findings in case of publication bias.13 However, as noticed by Zhang et al, omission of studies from NMAs, regardless of the reason, may have a substantial impact on estimated results14 and is therefore not recommended in general.15 Considering that sample size did not act as an effect modifier, inclusion of small studies could have led to higher precision of estimates in Ostuzzi et al. However, it is also possible that it could have led to higher heterogeneity and subsequently reduced precision in the random-effects NMA model as it is the case in Schneider-Thoma et al.

Third, the two working groups used different approaches to the analysis, namely Bayesian (Schneider-Thoma et al) and frequentist approach (Ostuzzi et al). As noted by Seide et al, the former approach is more prone to the risk of overconservativeness and bias in case of small-to-negligible heterogeneity, while the latter to the one of anti-conservativeness and bias in case of high heterogeneity.16 Overall, an underestimation of the variance, along with the exclusion of small trials (typically associated with a higher heterogeneity), might have contributed to the lower estimated heterogeneity found by Ostuzzi et al.

Fourth, the two statistical analyses differ in the effect size measure used. Ostuzzi et al analysed risk ratios of relapse, whereas Schneider-Thoma et al analysed ORs (and then transformed the NMA results to risk ratios for presentation to increase interpretability). This illustrates that it is currently not clear but vividly discussed which effect size measure should be used in meta-analysis of binary outcomes, since both approaches are prone to criticisms.17 18

Fifth, the qualitative assessment of included RCTs and of pooled estimates might suffer from a certain degree of discretion, possibly leading to different data interpretation. The Cochrane Risk of Bias V2 (RoB2) includes five domains of bias, each of which includes a series of ‘signalling questions’ to help the researcher judge if the RCT has a ‘low’ or ‘high’ risk of bias, or if there are ‘some concerns’.8 After comparing the RoB2 overall judgements of the 44 RCTs included by both working groups for the outcome relapse, we found an agreement of 73.9%, indicating a low inter-rater reliability (k=0.0899, SE=0.1197), consistently with previous observations.19 Further, in order to assess the overall confidence in pooled estimates of the NMA, the CINeMA (Confidence in Network Meta-Analysis) approach was employed.20 This methodology is broadly based on the GRADE (Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation) framework, and aims to assess six domains, namely within-study bias (based on the RoB2 judgements), reporting bias, indirectness, imprecision, heterogeneity and incoherence. This approach, although largely automatized through a web-based application, still requires some methodological decisions throughout the process, such as defining the cutoff for clinically relevant effect, and defining how to summarise ‘within-study bias’ and ‘indirectness’ across contributions for each network estimate as well as how the overall judgement is reached (because different domains are interconnected and therefore should be considered jointly). Different approaches might often change the overall CINeMA report, affecting certainty in the reliability and applicability of results. Therefore, clinical and policy conclusions strongly based on the certainty of evidence might be criticised as being excessively discretionary. As for our example, despite the two NMAs providing largely similar results, conclusion somehow differed. Ostuzzi et al indicated three best-performing antipsychotics supported by moderate-to-high certainty of evidence against placebo for both long-acting and oral formulations (table 1), while Schneider-Thoma et al refrained from recommending specific antipsychotics because, according to their evaluations, none reached high certainty of evidence, and few statistically clear differences emerged between individual medications.

CONCLUSIONS

NMAs are increasingly carried out in many fields of healthcare, and their results can largely inform the development of clinical practice guidelines and health policy actions. However, such analyses require a number of methodological choices, which can notably vary across different working groups. Although some of these technical issues can be developed further, and hopefully agreed upon by methodologists and be systematically applied to ensure the most accurate results, some other are largely dependent on clinical and research experience, and cannot be easily standardised. This should be regarded as a possibility and not a limit, as long as implications are critically and transparently discussed. It remains imperative that any methodological decisions should be indicated in advance in the study protocol, in order to avoid post-hoc choices based on review findings, and ultimately enhance transparency and replicability of results.

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