

Challenges and opportunities with routinely collected data on the utilization of cancer medicines. Perspectives from health authority personnel across 18 European countries

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51 **Keywords:** New cancer medicines; Patient-level datasets; Pricing and reimbursement; Funding
52 concerns; Pharmaceutical policy; Cross-national collaboration; European countries

53

54 **Abstract**

55 **Background:** Rising expenditure for new cancer medicines is accelerating concerns that their costs
56 will become unsustainable for universal healthcare access. Moreover, early market access of new
57 oncology medicines lacking appropriate clinical evaluation generates uncertainty over cost-
58 effectiveness and increasing expenditure for unknown health gain. Patient-level data can complement
59 clinical trials and generate better evidence on the effectiveness, safety and outcomes of these new
60 medicines in routine care. This can support policy decisions including funding. Consequently, there is
61 a need for improving datasets for establishing real-world outcomes of newly launched oncology
62 medicines.

63 **Aim:** To outline the types of available datasets for collecting patient-level data for oncology among
64 different European countries. Additionally, to highlight concerns regarding the use and availability of
65 such data from a health authority perspective as well as possibilities for cross-national collaboration to
66 improve data collection and inform decision-making.

67 **Methods:** A mixed methods approach was undertaken through a cross-sectional questionnaire
68 followed-up by a focus group discussion. Participants were selected by purposive sampling to represent
69 stakeholders across different European countries and healthcare settings. Descriptive statistics were
70 used to analyze quantifiable questions, whilst content analysis was employed for open-ended questions.

71 **Results:** 25 respondents across 18 European countries provided their insights on the types of datasets
72 collecting oncology data, including hospital records, cancer, prescription and medicine registers. The
73 most available is expenditure data whilst data concerning effectiveness, safety and outcomes is less
74 available, and there are concerns with data validity. A major constraint to data collection is the lack of
75 comprehensive registries and limited data on effectiveness, safety and outcomes of new medicines.
76 Data ownership limits data accessibility as well as possibilities for linkage, and data collection is time-
77 consuming, necessitating dedicated staff and better systems to facilitate the process. Cross-national
78 collaboration is challenging but the engagement of multiple stakeholders is a key step to reach common
79 goals through research.

80 **Conclusion:** This study acts as a starting point for future research on patient-level databases for
81 oncology across Europe. Future recommendations will require continued engagement in research,
82 building on current initiatives and involving multiple stakeholders to establish guidelines and
83 commitments for transparency and data sharing.

84 1 Introduction

85 Cancer is a major global health challenge, with almost 10 million deaths annually currently and an
86 estimated 19.3 million new cases occurring in 2020 (1). This burden is consistently growing, with a
87 projected rise to 28.4 million new cancer cases globally in 2040 (1). Cancer also has a high and growing
88 economic burden, with an estimated US\$1.16 trillion spent on direct costs in 2010 and rising (2). In
89 Europe, between 1995 and 2018 direct costs due to cancer increased by 98% from €52 billion to €103
90 billion, constituting 6.2% of total health expenditure in 2018 (3). Much of this increase was attributed
91 to higher expenditure for cancer medicines (3). Overall, expenditure on oncology medicines in Europe
92 increased from €12.9 billion to €32.0 billion between 2009 and 2018 (3) and is expected to rise further.
93 This is attributed to the increasing prevalence of cancer, as well as the development and early launch
94 of new high-priced treatments, with over 500 companies currently investing in new cancer medicines
95 for more than 600 indications (4,5), exacerbated by the emotive nature of the disease (6,7). New cancer
96 medicines continue to dominate research and development activities among pharmaceutical companies
97 (8).

98 This issue of affordability of new cancer medicines is an increasing concern among European and other
99 countries (5,9–13), with the cost of cancer care accounting for up to 30% of total hospital expenditure
100 across Europe and rising (14). There are similar concerns in the US where expenditures on new
101 oncology medicines approved in 2018 alone could be as high as US\$39.5 billion per year if prescribed
102 to all eligible patients (15). Furthermore, there is a constant pressure to quickly fund and facilitate
103 market access to new oncology treatments, even with only limited clinical trial data, in order to try
104 and address continued unmet medical need (4). Consequently, current funding and reimbursement
105 models especially for new cancer medicines often place a heavy strain on healthcare systems and will
106 impact on the sustainability of universal healthcare in Europe (5,9). This has resulted in the
107 development of new pricing models including managed entry agreements (MEAs) and multiple criteria
108 decision analysis as well as better systems for the introduction and follow-up of new medicines
109 including horizon scanning and budget-forecast activities (5,16).

110 Various regulatory mechanisms have also been introduced including adaptive licensing (17–19),
111 accelerated assessments and conditional marketing approval, to facilitate authorization and funding of
112 promising candidate medicines early in their development (20,21). However, there are concerns with
113 such proposals due to the lack of robust evidence for improved outcomes of these new medicines when
114 used in routine clinical practice (16,39). In addition, currently new oncology treatments are often
115 evaluated based on Phase II and III trials using surrogate endpoints, which are easier to measure
116 (22,23). For instance, In the US in 2017, 21% of new medicines for patients with cancer were approved
117 by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) based on Phase I/II trials with 50% based on Phase II
118 trials (24). This is a concern for health authorities, as surrogate markers do not necessarily translate
119 into improved survival rates in practice, leaving considerable uncertainty in terms of the overall clinical
120 benefit and therapeutic value of new medicines (23,25–27). Uncertainty over cost-effectiveness due to
121 lack of appropriate evaluation data often leads to overestimating the clinical value of a new medicine,
122 higher prices and concerns regarding who should fund the new medicine until more data becomes
123 available (4,6,28). Consequently, studies undertaken with data collected in routine care are becoming
124 increasingly important as part of post-marketing activities to evaluate if the new medicines achieve the
125 desired outcomes to support continued funding (5,29).

126 In this context, real-world data collected outside randomized clinical trials (RCTs) is a powerful tool
127 that can be used to generate robust real-world evidence to support future health authority decisions,
128 including surrounding funding and reimbursement (30)(31). Real-world data collected in routine care
129 can derive from a number of sources including hospital and pharmacy registers, electronic health
130 records, administrative datasets, patient registers, population and healthcare surveys (32). Such data
131 can complement RCTs to help assess the effectiveness of new medicines in routine clinical care versus
132 their documented efficacy in trials (33–42). Real-world data has for instance been used in the
133 evaluation of real-world outcomes of olaparib treatment for ovarian cancer in Sweden (35).
134 Additionally, Frisk *et al.* (2018) in their follow-up studies using health authority databases in patients
135 with chronic hepatitis C demonstrated an overall cure rate of 96% with second-generation direct-acting
136 antivirals justifying continued funding (43). Post-launch studies have also been undertaken confirming
137 the effectiveness and safety of novel oral anticoagulants given initial concerns (44–46). We are also
138 seeing generally an increase in the use of real-world data to support reimbursement and funding
139 decisions (8).

140 Cancer registries have existed since the mid-20th century to monitor incidence, mortality and
141 prevalence in populations and are increasingly being expanded and linked to other sources of data on
142 medicine utilization as well as outcomes and effectiveness of oncology treatments (29,47,48). The
143 availability of registries to monitor overall drug utilization in Europe has been investigated in both
144 ambulatory care and hospitals (49,50). However, oncology medicines, especially new medicines, are a
145 specific challenge since these are neither completely covered among prescription registries nor in the
146 nationwide cancer registries (47). Consequently, there is a need to document the availability of such
147 resources among health authorities across Europe, as well as the type of data they collect, their
148 robustness and applicability to inform continued funding decisions. This builds on ongoing European
149 projects including the European Network of Centres for Pharmacoepidemiology and
150 Pharmacovigilance (ENCePP) programme. ENCePP aims to strengthen research regarding the benefit-
151 risk balance of medicines, including oncology medicines, in Europe by facilitating multi-centre,
152 independent post-authorisation studies based principally on observational research. Alongside this,
153 bringing together resources and expertise in pharmacovigilance and pharmacoepidemiology providing
154 a platform for cross-collaborations (51). This also builds on any post-authorisation efficacy studies as
155 part of registration with the European Medicines Agency (52).

156 As a result, this study aims to outline the types of datasets that are available especially among health
157 authorities regarding routinely collected patient-level data for oncology among different European
158 countries. This includes what kind of patient-level data is routinely collected and the extent of its use
159 from a health authority perspective. The objective being to better inform decision-making, including
160 continued funding for new expensive oncology medicines. Additionally, to explore and understand the
161 challenges and avenues for collaboration and data sharing across Europe principally among health
162 authority personnel. This is important given the recognized complexities with the sharing of
163 government and health authority data within and among countries, . Complexities include issues
164 surrounding security and privacy laws, technological challenges especially when combining different
165 datasets (record linkage), organizational and financial concerns surrounding data entry, regulatory
166 issues, limited government support and other political issues (53). However, we are aware there is a
167 need to make patient-level data more available for research purposes across Europe to improve future
168 patient care. We believe such discussions will contribute to improving accessibility, affordability and
169 appropriateness of potential life-saving cancer therapies as more data becomes available.

170 **2 Materials and Methods**

171 **2.1 Study design**

172 This study applied a mixed method approach consisting of a cross-sectional survey (54), with the
173 qualitative data collected simultaneously and integrated in the cross-sectional survey as open-ended
174 questions (Figure 1). A follow-up discussion was undertaken after the cross-sectional survey data was
175 collected to complement and further explore responses gathered from open-ended survey questions.
176 Analogous mixed-method approaches have been used before by the authors and collaborators when
177 conducting similar research on key topics across Europe (5,19,55–59), as well as by others in various
178 research fields (60–62).

179 **2.2 Setting and participant sampling**

180 The survey was conducted among key stakeholders across the healthcare sector, especially health
181 authority personnel and their advisers, from various European countries to represent different
182 perspectives and experiences. Purposive sampling was considered the most appropriate strategy for
183 this study as the main interest was to include key senior-level players that could provide the most up-
184 to-date and relevant information and insights on the topic from the standpoint of their professional
185 background. Consequently, key informants were purposefully selected to include clinicians,
186 oncologists and particularly health authorities personnel and their advisers responsible for pricing,
187 funding and reimbursement decisions for cancer medicines including new cancer medicines. They were
188 also selected based on their country to include a wide range of geographical locations, population sizes,
189 economic powers and health system organizations. Figure 2 and Table 1 illustrate the countries which
190 were involved in the study, broken down by these different characteristics, which were considered
191 important for the survey outcomes. In addition, snowball sampling was also used where appropriate to
192 identify additional senior-level stakeholders suggested through the initial contacts.

193 Participants were identified through known research networks, such as the European branch of the
194 International Society for Pharmacoepidemiology Special Interest Group for Drug Utilization Research
195 (EuroDURG), as well as the Piperska group of policymakers and their advisers across Europe focusing
196 on the rational use of medicines (63,64). Many of these senior-level decision makers and academics,
197 including some of the co-authors, have previously been involved through these networks in various
198 cross-national studies on diverse areas of pharmaceutical policy, providing drug utilization and
199 expenditure data, including on oncology medicines (4,59,65–67). The stakeholders were invited by

200 email to participate in the survey. The initial sample consisted of 56 participants selected through
201 purposive sampling and an additional 4 were included through snowball sampling. In total 60
202 stakeholders across 28 countries were contacted and invited to take part in the study.

203

204 **2.3 Data collection**

205 2.3.1 Questionnaire

206 Data was collected through a structured questionnaire, with quantifiable questions including yes/no
207 and a multiple choice format, as well as open-ended questions with a qualitative focus. A small pilot
208 discussion was initially conducted with 6 key stakeholders, among the invited participants, from
209 different European countries and regions (including Catalonia [Spain], Lithuania, Sweden, Poland and
210 Scotland [the United Kingdom]) all of whom had a deep knowledge in the field. This resulted in an
211 improved structuring of the survey as well as testing the feasibility and validity of the questions. A
212 complete version of the questionnaire was developed following the pilot discussion, and was pretested
213 with key selected informants to further refine the questions in terms of their clarity, focus and
214 importance of the topics covered, to enhance the questionnaire validity and robustness.

215 The final survey was distributed in electronic format (through the Zoho Survey platform (68)) to the
216 other identified stakeholders. The questionnaire was written in English and contained 20 questions,
217 which were organized into four topics: 1) general availability of cancer medicines; 2) pricing and
218 reimbursement systems; 3) types of databases collecting overall drug utilization and patient-level data
219 in oncology; 4) future improvements and developments in data collection and data sharing
220 (Supplementary file 1). The first two topics were included to gain understanding of the key issues
221 surrounding the availability of cancer medicines and funding decisions, which will be followed-up in
222 future research. The third and fourth topic more strictly pertain to this study and the outlined research
223 questions. The responses were collected over a period of two weeks between March 29 and April 14
224 2021.

225 2.3.2 Focus group discussion

226 A focus group discussion was additionally conducted after the questionnaire data was collected to
227 complement and consolidate understanding of the qualitative responses obtained to the open-ended
228 survey questions. Participants for the discussion were selected among the survey respondents based on
229 the extent of and need to clarify some of the open-ended responses provided. 19 respondents were
230 invited via email, and six eventually took part in the focus group discussion, which was held through
231 zoom. The discussion was moderated by two of the principal authors (BBG and BW) due to their
232 knowledge in this area to facilitate a stimulating and natural flow of the dialogue. The principal author
233 (AP) was the assistant moderator and mainly responsible for taking notes and observations during the
234 discussion. The session was videotaped after obtaining informed consent and the conversation was
235 transcribed to use for analysis.

236 **2.4 Data analysis**

237 2.4.1 Quantitative

238 Using the questionnaire platform Zoho Survey and Microsoft Excel (version 16.16.27), quantifiable
239 questionnaire data was analyzed with traditional descriptive statistics (frequencies, proportions, mean
240 and median). When stakeholders from the same country provided contrasting answers, this was
241 managed by checking back with the respondents for their interpretation of the questions and attempting

242 to reach a consensus. However, this was not always possible. In these instances, contrasting responses
243 within countries were maintained.

244 2.4.2 Qualitative

245 Open-ended answers and the focus discussion transcript were analyzed with content analysis (69),
246 focusing on the manifest content. The content analysis focused on generating the meaning units, codes
247 and categories that emerged from the open-ended questions and from the additional information
248 obtained through the focus discussion.

249 **2.5 Ethical considerations**

250 No ethical approval was sought for this project as the study did not involve handling of sensitive or
251 confidential data and the issues discussed were not likely to bring any personal risk to the participants.
252 In addition, the topic covered strictly pertained to the stakeholders' professional competence and
253 knowledge. Ethical considerations were made regarding completion of the questionnaire. This was
254 addressed by providing comprehensive information to the stakeholders concerning the context and aim
255 of the study. Participation was entirely voluntary, and participants indicated their consent to take part
256 in the questionnaire form before providing their answers, with the option to decline to answer to any
257 question or exit the questionnaire at any time. Furthermore, the voluntary option to include their name
258 and contact details was included and participants were informed that this would be used only if they
259 agreed to be further contacted for potential interviews. When conducting the focus group discussion,
260 the participants' informed consent was ascertained orally prior to recording the session. This is in
261 accordance with national regulations and institutional guidelines and is in line with previous projects
262 undertaken by the co-authors across a number of topics (5,16,19,55,56,59,70,71).

263 **3 Results**

264 **3.1 Response rate and respondent characteristics**

265 Out of the initial sample of 60 stakeholders that were invited to take part in the questionnaire, a total
266 of 25 stakeholders from 18 European countries (Figure 2) responded, resulting in a 42% response rate.
267 The respondents represented a varied mix of different professional backgrounds across the healthcare
268 settings (Table 2). In addition, a number of respondents were classified as "multiple affiliations" due
269 to their involvements between health authorities, healthcare services, and academia. The results from
270 the quantifiable survey responses are described in the following sections in terms of the proportion of
271 participants who answered the questions as not all questions were answered by all 25 respondents.

272

273 **3.2 Overview of oncology datasets across countries**

274 3.2.1 Availability and use of databases

275 According to the responses from most stakeholders (n=21/25), there are different types of organizations
276 collecting drug utilization data across the countries, as displayed in Figure 3A. A summary of the
277 situation concerning datasets in each country is also available in the Appendix (Supplementary File 2).
278 Concerning hospital records, 76% (n=16/21) of respondents said these are used to collect data for
279 hospital medicines (inpatient care within their healthcare system), while this is less of a case for
280 ambulatory care medicines (outpatient care) (24%, n=5/21). In contrast, prescription registers were
281 predominantly indicated for collecting ambulatory medicine data (71%, n=15/21). Many respondents
282 also documented the availability of national cancer registries that collect data for ambulatory (52%,

283 n=11/21) and inpatient care (57%, n=12/21). This pertains to Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Malta,
284 Norway, Poland, Scotland, Slovakia and Sweden (Supplementary file 2). A smaller proportion of
285 respondents also indicated that regional cancer registries are employed to collect data in ambulatory
286 (19%, n=4/21) and hospital (24%, n=5/21) care. Furthermore, some countries have specific drug
287 programs or dedicated registers that collect data for oncology medicines both from hospital (48%,
288 n=10/21) and ambulatory care (43%, n=9/21). This is the case for Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Malta,
289 Norway, Poland, Romania, Catalonia and Sweden (Supplementary file 2).

290 “Other” types of databases also exist as specified by 29% (n=6/21) of respondents. Examples include
291 the Scottish Prescribing Information Systems that records information for prescription medicines from
292 community pharmacies as well as electronic prescribing for some hospital medicines; the National
293 Health Insurance Fund and National Council on Pricing and Reimbursement in Bulgaria, which collect
294 data and maintain registers for reimbursed and used medicines; and the French national claims data
295 collected through the National Health Data System. In Sweden, register and clinical data can also be
296 available through the Information Network for Cancer Care, a common platform to pool together
297 different cancer registries (Supplementary file 2). Overall, 74% (n=17/24) of stakeholders considered
298 that databases that collect drug utilization data for oncology do not differ from structures that collect
299 drug utilization data in general, with the exception of specific drug registries.

300 Concerning data access and use, 63% (n=24/25) of respondents answered that there are specific
301 regulations that limit data access and sharing, usually limited to data owners. According to the
302 stakeholders’ responses (n=25) (Figure 3B), databases or registries can be accessed or used by
303 reimbursement agencies (84%, n=21/25), hospitals (56%, n=14/25), health professionals (52%,
304 n=13/25), and Ministries of Health (48%, n=12/25). In contrast, data is less available for public access
305 (12%, n=3/25) and for pharmaceutical companies (4%, n=1/25) (Figure 3B). 68% (n=17/25) of
306 participants also specified “other”, referring to possibilities of data availability for public use, research
307 and academia, usually upon request and permission. This is the case for Germany, Austria, Sweden,
308 France, Slovakia, Scotland, Catalonia and Hungary (Supplementary file 2).

309

310 3.2.2 Characteristics of the data collected

311 67% of respondents (n=16/24) agreed that both individual-level and aggregated data is collected in
312 their country. As shown in figure 4A, the most widely available data in the majority of countries is
313 medicine expenditure data, which is recorded both for medicines prescribed in ambulatory (90%,
314 n=19/21) and hospital care (86%, n=18/21). A number of stakeholders also mentioned that data on
315 diagnosis (ambulatory care: 67%, n=14/21; hospital care: 71%, n=15/21), indication (ambulatory care:
316 52%, n=11/21; hospital care: 67%, n=14/21) and treatment duration (71%, n=15/21) is collected for
317 both ambulatory and hospital settings.

318 As specified by 43% (n=9/21) of the respondents, data on medicines safety such as adverse events is
319 also recorded, as well as data on effectiveness measures such as survival, progression-free survival and
320 quality of life (ambulatory care: 43%, n=9/21; hospital care: 48%, n=10/21). According to the
321 responses, some countries only appear to collect safety data, such as Romania, Scotland and Sweden,
322 or effectiveness data, as seen in Bulgaria and Lithuania. In contrast, both types of evidence were
323 collected in Hungary, Italy, Norway, France, Poland, and Catalonia. Information on medicine
324 dispensing is available in fewer countries for ambulatory (19%, n=4/21) and hospital (14%, n=3/21)
325 care, as was stated by respondents from France, Hungary, Italy and Catalonia. Limited data on Patient
326 Reported Outcome Measures is currently being collected among the involved countries, and this was
327 indicated as available only by Scotland. The option “Other” was chosen when referring to instances

328 where no precise schemes for data collection are established and the type of data recorded depends on
329 individual registries or facilities collecting the data.

330 With regards to data robustness and validity, figure 4B shows 35% (n=8/23) of respondents answered
331 that there are limitations with data robustness, and 26% (n=6/23) that there are problems of poor
332 validity. In contrast, 22% (n=5/23) believed the data gathered is robust and well validated, whilst 17%
333 (n=4/23) had no knowledge or experience regarding this.

334 Another aspect of interest regarding the type of drug utilization data is how up to date the information
335 collected is (Figure 4C). Concerning database update, 33% (n=5/15) of respondents agreed this can
336 occur annually, 20% (n=3/15) weekly and 13% (n=2/15) answered on a monthly basis. In terms of
337 analyzing the data stored, 36% of respondents suggested the data is analyzed monthly and 29%
338 annually, versus 7% saying this is undertaken on a weekly basis. Over 40% of respondents picked
339 “other” as an option, referring to uncertainty of the answer, lack of knowledge or difficulty in providing
340 a defined answer due to variation in how the data is collected and analyzed across databases.

341 Finally, the possibility of linking databases and registries across ambulatory and hospital settings
342 within countries was also addressed in the questionnaire (Figure 4D). 45% (n=9/20) of the stakeholders
343 answered that linking datasets is possible in ambulatory care and 60% (n=12/20) said so for databases
344 in hospital settings. This pertains to Germany, Lithuania, Malta, Romania, Sweden, France, Catalonia,
345 Hungary and Scotland. On the other hand, participants from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Slovenia,
346 Croatia, Bulgaria, Italy and Slovakia answered linking datasets is not possible in their country neither
347 in ambulatory care (55%; n=11/20) nor hospital care (40%; n=8/20).

348

349

350 **3.3 Challenges and opportunities for collaboration and improving data collection**

351 The following key themes that were investigated through a qualitative analysis of open-ended questions
352 and follow-up discussion are presented: 1) advantages and disadvantages of current data collection
353 systems, 2) suggestions to improve data systems, 3) barriers and opportunities to cross-national
354 collaboration.

355 **3.3.1 Advantages and disadvantages of current data collection systems**

356 **The established database systems.** The state of currently established databases was represented both
357 as an advantage and disadvantage (Figure 5). In countries where comprehensive registries to collect
358 drug utilization data across both ambulatory and hospital care settings are in place, this is seen as an
359 advantage of current data collection systems, i.e. one that allows for the collection of ample information
360 on medicine consumption, often with quite large population coverage. Nonetheless, in many countries
361 there is a lack of registries and databases for patient-level and drug utilization data. In addition, even
362 where available within one country, data collection systems are not always consistent in collecting data
363 across regions, healthcare settings or therapeutic areas.

364 **Availability and extent of data collected.** A key drawback with the current data collection systems is
365 that there is often limited data, mainly focusing on aggregated data for volumes and expenditure,
366 compared to limited reporting of actual patient-level data on effectiveness, safety and patient outcomes
367 measures (Figure 5). In line with this, the quality and detail of the evidence collected represents a
368 concern as there are often gaps in the measures and variables that are recorded, which makes it difficult
369 to accurately monitor and analyze treatment regimens, outcomes and adverse events (Figure 5). Most
370 participants felt that a major hurdle to the efficient use and availability of data is that it is often not

371 possible or very difficult to link data between datasets and healthcare settings within countries let alone
372 across countries.

373 **Regulations for data access and use.** Closely linked to the availability and extent of data collected,
374 many stakeholders suggested that strict regulations for data access and use represent further limitations
375 in the data collection systems (Figure 5). The legal barriers in terms of data ownership and data
376 protection exacerbate issues in accessibility of the data. Consequently, even when data is collected, it
377 is often not available for analysis and use outside of the scope of hospitals, reimbursement agencies or
378 other institutions responsible for gathering evidence and information for specific purposes.

379 **Resources for data collection.** A final issue that emerged as a drawback of current data systems is the
380 resources - or lack thereof - needed for data collection (Figure 5). Many current information systems
381 require oncologists, clinicians and physicians to enter the data manually, which represents a high
382 additional workload and is time-consuming. In addition, the lack of dedicated staff, financial resources
383 and IT infrastructure to speed and facilitate data recording can result in data not being accurately
384 recorded and in low reporting rates, further exacerbating issues with data quality, validity and
385 robustness.

386
387

388 3.3.2 Suggestions to improve data systems

389 **Improving policies and guidelines for data collection.** Participants suggested the establishment of
390 better guidelines and regulations for data access as a step towards improving data systems. Namely,
391 there is pressing need for more transparency in publishing data and strengthening opportunities to use
392 the available evidence for analysis and observational studies. However, mindful of existing security
393 and privacy regulations within countries in terms of data collection and analysis. The promotion of
394 further incentives for healthcare professionals to collect and provide detailed routine clinical data to
395 health authority and other key stakeholder groups is also a potential step to improve the current
396 datasets. Building on comparisons and successful examples from different countries through health
397 authority cooperation is also a key step for future improvements in the prompting of real-world
398 evidence, as well as developing common data models to pool and analyze data from different sources
399 both within and among countries.

400 **Investing in databases.** Stakeholders discussed how addressing guidelines for data collection and
401 access should be accompanied by further investment in current and future databases, with many
402 countries requiring the introduction of registries and information systems where they are not available
403 at present. Moreover, previously established databases necessitate expanded coverage at national and
404 regional levels, and encompassing different healthcare settings including hospital and ambulatory care,
405 as well as promote systems and common data models that allow information to be more easily linked
406 across databases and healthcare settings.

407 **Allocating resources for data collection.** A further area that was highlighted by the participants was
408 the importance of allocating more resources to data collection in terms of having dedicated people and
409 competent staff other than medical professionals involved in reporting data to alleviate workloads. In
410 addition, enhanced resources and infrastructure for automatization in data capture and entering would
411 also simplify and improve the data collection process.

412 3.3.3 Barriers and opportunities for cross-national collaboration

413 **Challenges of promoting collaborations in the short term.** Whilst there is agreement that cross-
414 country collaboration is an important factor to promote the collection of meaningful data especially in

415 the cancer field, the general opinion reflects current barriers and challenges that often hinder efficient
416 cooperation and improvements (Figure 6). These include the many differences in the availability and
417 structures of health authority and other databases across countries as well as how health systems are
418 organized in the provision of care. Consensus is that much has to be achieved first within individual
419 countries to improve their data collection before potentially strengthening collaborations cross-
420 nationally. On this front, the engagement of multiple stakeholders from different professional and
421 healthcare settings is considered a key opportunity to share knowledge and to obtain meaningful
422 patient-level data for oncology. Nevertheless, this can also represent a barrier to collaboration as it can
423 be difficult to reach consensus especially with important organizational issues as well as potential
424 involvement with commercial organizations. Moreover, issues with legal frameworks to data access
425 and sharing can also hinder the establishment of cross-national cooperation for common datasets to
426 improve availability of individual-level data across Europe.

427 **Recommendations and legislations.** To facilitate engagement at the European level, stakeholders
428 consider the most feasible way forward involves maintaining and promoting further engagement in
429 cross country research projects and networks. This could foster a better understanding of the situation
430 concerning the availability of patient level-datasets for oncology across Europe, and identify common
431 visions and targets to encourage smoother cooperation between health authorities and others across
432 countries through the establishment of guidelines and common models for data collection, analysis and
433 data-sharing.

434 3.4 Cancer medicine availability, pricing and reimbursement

435 Various key cancer medicines were mentioned to be the current focus across countries in terms of their
436 prices, expenditure and patient use. As this was an open question and not answered by all respondents,
437 it is difficult to quantify the medicines. However, an overview of the different oncology medicines
438 mentioned is available in Supplementary file 3 and will be the subject of future research projects.

439 Overall, a wide variety of medicines was specified for individual countries. The following medicines
440 were mentioned by multiple countries: Ibrutinib, Nivolumab, Paclitaxel, Palbociclib, Pembrolizumab,
441 Trastuzumab which suggests these oncology medicines could be of common interest in terms of
442 priority therapeutic indications, consumption and budget concerns. We will be following this up in
443 future research projects.

444 Among most countries, funding of oncology medicines is regulated at the national level both for
445 ambulatory (88%, n=22/25) and hospital (64%, n=16/25) medicines. In fewer instances, funding is
446 managed at the regional level (for hospital medicines) or at both levels (Supplementary file 4, A).
447 MEAs or other risk-sharing arrangements are commonly used mechanisms to establish pricing
448 agreements, with 82% (n=18/22) respondents indicating there are 5 or more operating nationally, and
449 56% (n=5/9) regionally (Supplementary file 4, B). MEAs and other similar schemes involve
450 confidential discounts (67%, n=16/24), price: volume agreements (63%, n=15/24) and price: cap
451 agreements (58%, n=14/24), and to a lesser extent outcome schemes (46%, n=11/24). 64% of
452 respondents also specified “other” arrangements, including pay-back schemes, budget caps,
453 procurement by tendering, conditional reimbursement among others (Supplementary file 4, C).

454 4 Discussion

455 Our findings show that there is appreciable variation and fragmentation in the availability of registries
456 and databases, including health authority/ health insurance company databases, to collect patient-level
457 data in oncology across Europe. This includes cancer registries, prescription registers and hospital

458 records, as well as registries for specific drug programs, which is typically collected data for use in the
459 context of health authorities such as reimbursement agencies, Ministries of Health, as well as hospitals.
460 There are also differences in the type of data collected, where aggregate expenditure data is the most
461 widely available. However, patient-level data concerning diagnosis, treatment and indication, as well
462 as effectiveness and safety of medicines, is collected to a lesser extent, particularly concerning outcome
463 measures.

464 Our study also highlights the main concerns associated with current patient-level datasets for oncology.
465 These include the lack of comprehensive registries across countries and healthcare settings, and the
466 limited evidence available on effectiveness, safety and patient outcomes of new cancer medicines,
467 especially with regards to medicines prescribed for inpatients in hospitals. Major hurdles with data
468 ownership limit data accessibility and use, as well as possibilities for linking datasets, and the data
469 collection process is time-consuming for health professionals who need to compile registries. This
470 requires more financial resources to invest in dedicated staff and better information systems to facilitate
471 the recording of data. Fostering cross-national collaboration among health authorities and establishing
472 better guidelines for transparency, publishing and strengthening data sharing are an important aspect
473 moving forward.

474 The variation and fragmentation in the availability of databases and type of data collected is in part
475 influenced by the different types of healthcare financing systems such as national health services or
476 insurance-based models (Table 1), how different countries manage funding and reimbursement at the
477 national or regional level, and how this can vary for medicines dispensed in ambulatory or inpatient
478 care (72). These differences are also reflected in the varying patterns in uptake and availability of new
479 oncology medicines that have been observed across Europe (3,72,73). Furthermore, different funding
480 mechanisms are increasingly being adopted across Europe, including MEAs and risk-sharing schemes,
481 to address the affordability issue of new cancer medicines, which will likely influence their uptake and
482 the type of data collected to support these schemes (5,74). Consequently, funding policies and health
483 financing structures may impact the different types of data reporting systems available. The many
484 sources of patient-level data observed across Europe, as well as the scope and quality of data gathered,
485 may also reflect the incentives there are for its collection and how the data is subsequently used. For
486 instance, in countries where health data is owned by health insurances and reimbursement agencies,
487 the type of data available might focus on expenditure and consumption and be limited for the region
488 covered by that service; consequently, it is more difficult to collect data on a national scale (32). In
489 contrast, some countries with nationally or regionally organized health systems are more advanced in
490 terms of registries and electronic health records with large population coverage, allowing for
491 information to be linked and integrated across care settings (32).

492 Our findings concerning the challenges and opportunities to improve data collection accentuate the
493 many concerns associated with the current availability of oncology datasets among health authorities
494 and others, and the type and quality of clinical data being collected. They also underline how, despite
495 the availability of technology and information systems, practice and reality are quite different from
496 expectations that establishing comprehensive cross-country patient-level datasets are easily feasible.
497 As highlighted, fragmentation of registries and databases is an issue across and within countries, and
498 reflects the different capacities, financial and technological resources available to establish detailed
499 and accurate data networks (75). Electronic health records and registries might be specific to certain
500 healthcare settings but not available in others, and there are little guidelines, criteria and lack of
501 common data models to ensure uniform collection of data within countries, let alone across borders.
502 Furthermore, there are still significant hurdles restricting access and secondary use of patient data for
503 research and healthcare purposes (53), even for researchers working with health authority data to

504 address key health policy issues. These include barriers due to ownership and lack of transparency in
505 data use, as well as data privacy and protection laws, hindering the possibility to extensively link
506 datasets to obtain and harness routine data to inform policy decisions (32,75).

507 Nevertheless, there are examples of positive changes moving forward, reflected by a number of
508 initiatives across Europe. The Scottish Cancer Medicines Outcome Program (CMOP) is a noteworthy
509 example in pooling together different datasets available to make better use of data for safety,
510 effectiveness and treatment outcomes for the different oncology medicines (76). The program has
511 demonstrated success in linking registries and electronic records, as well as collecting more patient-
512 level data on quality of life and Patient Reported Outcome Measures (42,76). In addition to CMOP in
513 Scotland, another interesting initiative is the Systemic Anti-Cancer Therapy datasets in the United
514 Kingdom, which routinely collects and reports data on cancer patients, regimens and treatments
515 outcomes through the National Health Service (77). Its wide population coverage and ability to link
516 across different routine care databases within the National Health Service are key strengths that allow
517 for collection of comprehensive evidence to support decision-making on delivery of care and
518 complement RCT evidence for medicines with uncertainty over their clinical value, to better inform
519 funding decisions (77). Along the same lines, the Catalan Health Services experience with registries
520 allowed for the consolidation of a Patient and Treatment Registry across all public hospitals in
521 Catalonia, collecting exhaustive information on treatments, indications and clinical variables and can
522 be linked to other registries (78). The information collected is analysed and integrated in decision-
523 making concerning MEAs, re-assessment of medicines and indicators based on effectiveness to assess
524 quality and rational use of medicines. This also allows health authorities to discuss the results with
525 hospitals and clinicians with respect to their practices and to review and follow-up on the Catalan
526 Health Services recommendations (79). Real-world data initiatives have also taken shape in the
527 Scandinavian countries. For instance, in Sweden studies concerning ovarian and prostate cancers have
528 demonstrated the value of harnessing real-world data from registries and health records to investigate
529 and understand the longer-term outcomes of cancer treatments (35,80). Nonetheless, it is interesting to
530 note that despite the long history of Nordic countries with establishing cancer registries (81), there
531 seems to be no clear lead in real-world data initiatives compared to other countries mentioned. In
532 contrast, promising activities are arising across European regions, creating opportunities for
533 comparisons and a shared learning environment.

534 **4.1 Strengths and limitations**

535 The involvement of key senior-level players representing various professional backgrounds in different
536 healthcare settings across European countries is a major strength of the study alongside the wide range
537 of countries included in this study. Nevertheless, this study has several limitations. Since the intention
538 was to select specific stakeholders in individual countries no sample size calculation was conducted as
539 this was not considered appropriate. Nonetheless, this, along with the relatively small sample of 25
540 stakeholders, limits the generalizability of the quantitative findings. Additionally, as the survey
541 contained different questions spanning medical practice, funding and policy, respondents' background
542 may have limited the extent of responses for some questions over the others. Furthermore, it is
543 important to consider that the responses provided are based on the stakeholders' knowledge and
544 experience in the field, which may have biased the interpretation of survey questions. For instance,
545 participants from a health authority perspective are usually more informed regarding issues of policy
546 and funding, and may have more knowledge regarding datasets collecting information on expenditure,
547 consumption and volume rather than looking at patient outcomes. On the other hand, oncologists,
548 clinicians, pharmacists and other healthcare professionals might be more knowledgeable with issues
549 concerning the effectiveness and safety of different oncology medicines and the situation concerning
550 data collected at the patient-level.

551 Concerning the qualitative aspect of the methodology, this principally allowed an opportunity to gain
552 a general overview and understanding regarding the main issues and opportunities to improve datasets
553 in the future. In view of this, the open-ended questions and discussion was potentially limited in terms
554 of depth of understanding and reaching saturation, and perhaps further group discussions or interviews
555 with additional stakeholders could have yielded additional knowledge. Consequently, the objective and
556 scope did not allow for an extensive exploration of this topic nor an in-depth review of all databases
557 available in each country. Despite these limitations, the findings are believed to be valid given the
558 seniority and range of different stakeholders approached across Europe.

559 **4.2 Conclusions and future implications**

560 We believe the data presented here are the most recent and updated knowledge at present as provided
561 among European countries involving key stakeholder groups, but this could quickly change in the near
562 future. Nevertheless, this study has important implications for the future of real-world data collection
563 for oncology, particularly as this area will likely develop as a high priority for policy agendas. With
564 the increasing number of high-priced medicines that are launched with immature data, expenditure and
565 opportunity costs need to be accounted for by payers to balance finite healthcare budgets with the
566 necessity to provide access to safe and cost-effective cancer medicines. These concerns can be
567 addressed by collecting more data on the performance of a new medicine in routine care, to re-define
568 funding decisions and better allocate resources for healthcare (44,82). Consequently, through this study
569 we highlight the imperative need to move forward in collecting standardized datasets for oncology.

570 To achieve this, a key step will be to continue involving multiple health authority and other
571 stakeholders across the healthcare sectors and build a more common understanding of the value of real-
572 world data on a European level in order to establish the necessary technology, infrastructure and
573 resources to incentivize data collection for oncology and improve its quality and availability across
574 countries. In line with this, building on current initiatives and promoting European-wide cooperation
575 and research engagements will lay the ground for defining clear and common guidelines for
576 implementing data use and develop information platforms for data sharing and linkage (32,75). Overall,
577 this study has important relevance in terms of pharmaceutical policy, as the collection of more robust
578 and comprehensive data on patient outcomes, drug performance, effectiveness and safety can help re-
579 shape pricing, reimbursement and funding policies, regulatory processes, drug utilization policies as
580 well as promote accessibility, affordability and appropriateness of new cancer medicines.

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596 **5 Tables and Figure Captions**

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Table 1. Country information broken down by population, economic power and type of health system.

Country	Population in 2020 (millions) (83–85)	GDP per capita in 2020 (€) (86–89)	Health system (90)
Austria	8.9	42 300	Social health insurance
Germany	83.2	40 490	Social health insurance
Scotland (United Kingdom)	5.5	33 744**	National health service
France	67.3	33 960	Social health insurance
Norway	5.4	59 180	National health service
Sweden	10.3	45 910	National health service
Lithuania	2.8	17 510	Social health insurance
Italy	59.6	27 780	National health service
Catalonia (Spain)	7.7	32 577***	National health service
Malta	0.5	25 310	National health service
Slovenia	2.1	22 310	Social health insurance
Slovakia	5.4	16 770	Social health insurance
Poland	39	13 640	Social health insurance
Hungary	9.8	13 940	Social health insurance
Croatia	4.1	12 170	Social health insurance
Romania	19.3	11 290	Social health insurance
Bulgaria	6.9	8 750	Social health insurance
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.5*	5031****	Social health insurance

NB: Population for Bosnia and Herzegovina is from 2019.

**NB: GDP for Scotland is from 2019 and was taken in GBP. It was converted to euros through the European Central Bank currency converter (91) with the exchange rate for 2019.

***NB: GDP for Catalonia is from 2019.

****NB: GDP for Bosnia and Herzegovina was in US dollars. It was converted to euros through the European Central Bank currency converter (91) with the exchange rate for 2020.

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Table 2. Respondent breakdown by professional setting.

Respondent profession	Total n	Total %
Academic (research institute, university)	12	48
Healthcare professional (pharmacist, health services)	3	12
Health Authority (health insurance, social security, HTA*, medicine agency)	5	20
Multiple affiliations (university hospitals, academic institutions and health services or authorities)	5	20
Total	25	100

*HTA = Health Technology Assessment

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622 **Figure 1.** Visual representation of the study design steps for data collection, analysis and interpretation.

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624 **Figure 2.** Map of countries included in the survey according to geographical region as defined by EU
625 Vocabularies (92). Map generated through MapChart (93). It is important to note that Scotland and
626 Catalonia are included in the study as independent entities from the respective countries (United
627 Kingdom and Spain), with autonomous decision-making power including in the healthcare sector.

628

629 **Figure 3.** Types of databases for oncology (A, n=24) and entities that may use the collected data (B,
630 n=25), according to the participants.

631

632 **Figure 4.** Types of oncology data recorded (A, n=24), perceived data robustness and validity (B, n=23),
633 frequency of data update and analysis (C, n=22) and possibilities for data linkage (D, n=22), according
634 to the participants. PROMs = Patient Reported Outcome Measures.

635

636 **Figure 5.** Main advantages and disadvantages of data collection systems for oncology identified by the
637 participants.

638

639 **Figure 6.** Key opportunities and barriers outlined by the participants for cross-country collaborations
640 to improve data collection systems for oncology across Europe.

641

642 **6 Conflict of Interest**

643 The authors declare there are no financial or personal interests that might have influenced them in
644 conducting the research and writing this article. However, a number of the authors either work for
645 health authorities or are advisers to them.

646

647 **7 Author Contributions**

648 A.P conducted the research, wrote the manuscript text and prepared the figures. B.G. and B.W.
649 supervised the work of A.P and provided guidance throughout the research process as well as in
650 drafting and reviewing the manuscript. All other authors were involved in data collection and
651 contributed to revision of the final manuscript.

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976 **11 Supplementary Material**

977 Supplementary Files 1, 2, 3, 4.

978

979 **12 Ethical considerations**

980 No ethical approval was sought for this project as the study did not involve patients or the handling of
981 sensitive or confidential data and the issues discussed were not likely to bring any personal risk to the
982 participants. This is in line with previously published research by the co-authors and in line with
983 national regulations and Karolinska Institute guidelines under which the research took place. Ethical
984 considerations were made by obtaining participants' informed consent

985

986 **13 Data Availability Statement**

987 The dataset generated and analysed during the current study is not publicly available as it is not part of
988 any public repository and was collected for this study. As data reflects the stakeholders' experiences
989 further raw data concerning questionnaire responses is available from the corresponding author on
990 reasonable request and with permission of all involved co-authors and participants