



RESEARCH ARTICLE

## How to Measure the Generalizability of Clinical Trials

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## ABSTRACT

Randomized controlled trials are widely regarded as the gold standard in clinical research and public health. However, they have been criticized for potentially lacking generalizability, as trial participants may not fully represent the target patient population due to the inability to obtain a truly random sample for enrollment. Assessing and evaluating the generalizability of randomized controlled trials is an important issue that has not been addressed adequately in literature. Additionally, although the importance of describing clinical trial generalizability is recognized by clinical trial reporting guidelines (e.g., CONSORT), it provides no clear guidance on statistical tests or estimation procedures. In this paper, we compare five generalizability indexes, including Standardized Mean Difference, C-Statistic,  $\beta$ -Index, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Distance, and Lévy Distance. We simulate a patient population with a treatment effect size of 0.5 (Cohen's  $d$ ) and seven covariates that include gender, health insurance, race, baseline symptoms, comorbidity, age, and motivation. We then evaluate the performance of the five generalizability indexes using selected nonrandom and random clinical trial samples under different number of covariates and sample sizes. Our work supports the use of  $\beta$ -index and C-statistic due to their strong statistical performance, ease of interpretation and ability to clearly categorize generalizability into levels such as very high, high, medium or low. A  $\beta$ -index value between 1 and 0.8 (inclusive) or a C-statistic value between 0.5 and 0.8 (inclusive) indicates that the trial sample is very highly or highly representative of the patient population.

**Keywords:** clinical trial; generalizability; measurement; effect size; bias; simulation

## 1. Introduction

The primary interest of medical research is whether the intervention will be effective in the target population where the intervention may be implemented<sup>1</sup>. To generalize the research finding from a study to the target population, a study requires both random assignment of treatments to experimental units within the sample and random sampling from the population. The randomized controlled trial (RCT) is widely accepted as the gold standard in assessing the effectiveness of an intervention in medical research, as its random treatment assignment assures a causal treatment effect in expectation<sup>2-4</sup>. Despite the popularity of RCTs, random sampling or generalizability of RCTs has received less attention and is often ignored<sup>5-7</sup>. RCTs with low generalizability raises doubt about the effect of the intervention in the target population. In practice, most RCTs are limited in size due to geographical, logistical and budgetary issues, and patients in RCTs are rarely selected on a random basis from a well-defined population of interest<sup>3,6,8</sup>. A previous review of a cohort of 122 trials funded by the United Kingdom Medical Research Council and the National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) Health Technology Assessment discovered that only 31% of the trials achieved their targeted patient recruitment size and 45.1% achieved less than 80% of their original size<sup>9-10</sup>. Women, children, the elderly, and those with common comorbidities are frequently underrepresented or excluded from medical clinical trials<sup>11-15</sup>. Moreover, elderly patients may be underrepresented in clinical trials of drugs that are most likely to be prescribed for heart failure<sup>11</sup>, diabetes<sup>14</sup>, osteoarthritis<sup>16</sup>, cancer<sup>17</sup>, and cardiovascular disease<sup>18-19</sup>. In cancer trials, less than 5% of elderly patients are enrolled<sup>12,17,20,21</sup>, and only 27% adequately represented older adults and only 11% met the bar for minority racial and ethnic groups<sup>22</sup>. That underrepresentation is attributable primarily to age, race, performance status, comorbid conditions, and other factors such as gender, cancer type, cancer stage, and socioeconomic status<sup>20,21,23,24</sup>. Despite the increasing number of the elderly in the population and the relatively high incidence of cancer in this age group, most cancer trial participants are younger<sup>12,20,21</sup>. Additionally, Black cancer patients are less likely to participate in cancer trials compared to their White counterparts<sup>23</sup>. Currently, less than 1% of adult cancer trial participants are minorities, even though the minority population represents about one-third of the total US population<sup>20</sup>. Moreover, most trial enrollees had no or fewer comorbidities and better performance status than nonparticipants<sup>12,17,20,21,23</sup>, whereas cancer patients residing in rural areas and living on lower incomes or without health insurance are underrepresented<sup>17,20,21</sup>.

In November 2020, U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) issued a detailed guidance to enhance the diversity of RCT participants<sup>25</sup>. To improve participation, the guidance discusses how to broaden eligibility criteria, how to conduct consideration for logistical and participant-related factors, and how to broaden eligibility criteria for clinical trials of investigational drugs intended to treat rare diseases<sup>25</sup>. Since January 2022, the New England Journal of Medicine requires all research studies provide background information on the

race, ethnicity, age, sex, and gender of the broader population in a supplementary table<sup>26</sup>. The FDA will soon require researchers and companies seeking approval for late-stage clinical trials to submit a plan for ensuring diversity among trial participants and increase the number of participants from under-represented groups in drug testing<sup>27</sup>. Although the importance of describing clinical trial generalizability is recognized by clinical trial reporting guidelines (e.g., CONSORT), it provides no clear guidance on tests of or estimation procedures for the generalizability of the results from RCTs<sup>28</sup>.

Till now, several generalizability metrics have been proposed. Stuart et al. (2011)<sup>1</sup> suggested to use the standardized mean difference (SMD) between propensity scores from a RCT sample and propensity scores from the target population to measure the generalization of the RCT sample. Tipton (2014)<sup>29</sup> proposed generalizability metric  $\beta$ -index which measures the distributional similarity between the propensity scores from an RCT sample and the target population. Wang et al. (2017)<sup>3</sup> proposed to use the C-statistic to quantify the concordance of the two model-based propensity distributions. Kolmogorov–Smirnov Distance (KSD) and Lévy Distance (LD) are used to measure imbalance in an observational study<sup>30,31</sup>.

## Generalizability Index

### STANDARDIZED MEAN DIFFERENCE

Standardized mean difference (SMD) was proposed to quantify the similarity between target population and trial sample by using standardized mean difference of propensity scores from a target population and sample<sup>1</sup>. The propensity score is the conditional probability of treatment assignment given a vector of observed covariates<sup>32</sup>. Here, the propensity score is the conditional probability of selection in an RCT given preexisting covariates. SMD is defined as:

$$SMD = \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in \{S_i=1\}} \hat{P}_i - \frac{1}{N-n} \sum_{i \in \{S_i=0\}} \hat{P}_i \right) / \sigma$$

Where  $S_i$  indicates the membership in the sample ( $S_i = 1$ ) or in the population ( $S_i = 0$ );  $\hat{P}_i$  is the estimated propensity score for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subject;  $N$  and  $n$  represent the size of population and clinical trial sample, respectively; and  $\sigma^2$  is the estimate of the variance of the population propensity score. SMD is a modification to the propensity score methods commonly used in quasi experiments and observational studies to address treatment selection bias<sup>32</sup>.

### $\beta$ -Index

Tipton (2014)<sup>29</sup> proposed the  $\beta$ -index to measure the distributional similarity between the propensity scores from experimental samples and the target population. For a set of covariates  $X$  and propensity score  $s = s(X)$ , the index is defined as

$$\beta - \text{index} = \int \sqrt{f_s(s)f_p(s)} ds,$$

where  $f_s(s)$  is the distribution of propensity scores (or their logits) for the experimental sample and  $f_p(s)$  is the distribution of propensity scores (or their logits) for the population.

$\beta$ -index ranges from 0 to 1. A value of 0 indicates that the experimental sample and population are distantly different in the aspect of covariates X, while a value of 1 indicates that the experimental sample is like a random sample from the population. Possible rules of thumbs divide  $\beta$ -index into four categories:  $1.00 \geq \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.90$  indicating a *very high* level of generalization;  $0.90 > \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.80$  indicating a *high* level of generalization;  $0.80 > \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.50$  representing a *medium* level of generalization; and  $\beta\text{-index} < 0.50$  indicating a *low* level of generalization.

### C-STATISTIC

C-statistic or area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) was proposed by Wang et al. (2017)<sup>3</sup> to quantify the concordance of the two model-based propensity score distributions<sup>33</sup>. The C-statistic has long been understood to quantify the strength of a set of covariates to discriminate between two classes and is a measure of goodness of fit for binary outcomes in logistic regression models. The C-statistic is equal to the area under receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve, which is a plot of sensitivity versus 1 minus specificity.

$$\text{C - statistic} = \int_0^1 \text{ROC}(t) dt$$

Hosmer and Lemeshow (2000)<sup>34</sup> suggested cut off points of the C-statistic for assessing discrimination of a model. Here, we applied their rules but in the opposite way when assessing generalizability of RCT. If the experimental sample is approximately a simple random sample from the target population, then C-statistic = 0.5 is considered as no discrimination (random selection);  $0.5 < \text{C-statistic} < 0.7$  is considered as poor discrimination (outstanding generalizability);  $0.7 \leq \text{C- statistic} < 0.8$  is considered as acceptable discrimination (excellent generalizability);  $0.8 \leq \text{C- statistic} < 0.9$  is considered as excellent discrimination (acceptable generalizability);  $\text{C- statistic} \geq 0.9$  is considered as outstanding discrimination (poor generalizability).

### Kolmogorov–Smirnov Distance

Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance (KSD) is defined as the maximum vertical distance between two cumulative distribution functions<sup>30,31</sup>.

$$\text{KSD} = \max_x |\hat{F}_s(x) - \hat{F}_p(x)|,$$

where  $\hat{F}_s(x)$  and  $\hat{F}_p(x)$  represent cumulative functions from two distributions. KSD reaches 0 when  $\hat{F}_s(x)$  and  $\hat{F}_p(x)$  are equivalent, and the similarity decreases when KSD increases, with a maximum value of 1. Low KSD indicates better balance in a cohort study or better RCT generalizability when  $\hat{F}_s(x)$  and  $\hat{F}_p(x)$  are cumulative distribution of propensity scores from the sample and population.

### LÉVY DISTANCE

Compared to Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance, Lévy distance (LD) measures both horizontal and vertical distance<sup>30-31</sup>. LD is the side length of the largest square that can be inscribed between two cumulative distribution functions:

$$LD = \min_{\epsilon} \{ \epsilon > 0: \hat{F}_p(x - \epsilon) - \epsilon \leq \hat{F}_s(x) \leq \hat{F}_p(x + \epsilon) + \epsilon \text{ for all } x \},$$

where  $\hat{F}_s(x)$  and  $\hat{F}_p(x)$  represent cumulative functions from two distributions. LD ranges from 0 to 1, with lower values indicating better balance in a cohort study or better RCT generalizability.

Unfortunately, there is still no consensus on which metrics should be used to measure the generalizability of an RCT. In this paper, we aim to compare various existing statistical indices for assessing the generalizability of RCTs. The remainder of this article is organized as follows. In Section 2, we simulate a target population with treatment effect size of 0.5 and 7 covariates. From the simulated population, random and nonrandom clinical trials with different covariates and sample sizes were created. In Section 3, we calculate and evaluate the 5 indexes described above. We aim to identify indices that are minimally affected by small sample sizes and limited observed covariates, while reliably capturing the bias introduced by trial selection. Our findings and conclusions are discussed in Section 4 and Section 5, respectively.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1 TARGET POPULATION

To simulate the target population, we started with a Bernoulli random variable, X, with marginal probability 0.5 for treatment assignment (new treatment versus a placebo). The outcome was a continuous variable (Y) conditioning on treatment and covariates via a linear regression model with an error term that follows the standard normal distribution. The population regression coefficient of the treatment was 0.5, which resulted in an effect size of 0.5 (Cohen's d, new treatment was 0.5 SD better than the placebo on a continuous outcome). Age was simulated under a truncated normal distribution with mean = 50 and SD = 14, and it ranged from 18 to 90. The regression coefficient of age was -0.01. The interaction coefficient between age and treatment was -0.01. A measure of motivation was simulated with mean = 4.5, SD = 2, and ranged from 0 to 10. The regression coefficient of motivation was 0.06. There was an interaction (0.06) between motivation and treatment. Baseline symptoms (BL) was simulated with mean=10 and SD=2. Regression coefficient of BL and interaction coefficient between BL and treatment were -0.03. Gender (coded 1 as female), race (coded 1 as white), comorbidity (coded 1 as having common medical conditions) and health insurance (coded 1 as having insurance) were simulated as dichotomous covariates with probabilities of 0.5, 0.7, 0.4, and 0.4, respectively. The regression coefficients were 0.1, 0.1, -0.1 and 0.1 for gender, race, comorbidity and insurance, respectively. The regression coefficients for the interactions with the treatment were 0.1, 0.1, -0.1 and 0.1 for gender, race, comorbidity and insurance, respectively. We then calculated Y using intercept  $\beta_0 = 20$  from a linear regression model (see reference 3 for details)<sup>3</sup>.

### 2.2 RANDOM TRIALS

Performances of generalizability metrics were first assessed under random trials, where the standard values

of SMD, KSD and LD are 0, standard values of  $\beta$ -Index is 1, and the standard value of C-Statistic is 0.5. Absolute bias and mean square error were used as two evaluation criteria. Absolute bias was defined as the absolute deviation of one index value from its standard values. Mean square error measured the average of the squares of the deviation. Metrics were assessed under two aspects: 1. robustness to sample size (from  $n=20$  to  $n=1000$ ) and 2. robustness to the number of observed covariates (from 1 to 7).

### 2.2.1 Robustness to Sample Size

Due to geographical, logistical and budgetary issues, most clinical trials are limited in size compared to observational studies<sup>6,8</sup>. Therefore, investigating the performance of different generalizability indexes with random trials of varying sample size is critically important. A functional generalizability measure should be least affected by the sample size, especially when sample size is small. An index which is closest to its standard value under random sampling regardless of sample size is favored. We generated 18 random clinical trials with sample sizes ranging from 20 to 1000 from the target population. 100 repeated trials were generated for each sample size.

### 2.2.2 Robustness to Number of Observed Covariates

It is well known that the propensity score is a conditional probability of assignment to one group vs. another group given the observed covariates<sup>32</sup>. Yet, failing to consider influential unobserved covariates results in potential hidden bias, which directly impairs the accuracy of the metrics built on propensity scores, e.g. SMD,  $\beta$ -Index, C-statistic, KSD, and LD. We selected 100 repeated random clinical trials with sample size 100 from the target population ( $n=1000000$ ). Propensity scores were generated based on different numbers of observed covariates. Aggregated values of 5 metrics from 100 repetitions were calculated based on propensity scores for each set of observed covariates.

## 2.3 NONRANDOM TRIALS

Inference from clinical trial results to a population requires that the trial subjects are randomly selected from the target population and that the treatment is randomly assigned within the trial. While randomization within the trial can usually be achieved, the randomness of the trial regarding the target population is hardly met. Therefore, comparing indexes and finding which one could measure the deviation of a trial from the patient population has extreme importance in assessing the quality of a trial. In order to explore how sample size and the number of observed covariates impact metrics for assessing the generalizability of nonrandom trials, we compared metrics among 5 circumstances: 1) nonrandom trial with sample size 400 and metrics calculated from 7 observed covariates, 2) nonrandom trial with sample size 100 and

metrics calculated from 7 observed covariates, 3) nonrandom trials with sample size 40 and metrics calculated from 7 observed covariates, 4) nonrandom trial with sample size 100 and metrics calculated from 3 observed covariates (motivation, race, and baseline symptom), and 5) nonrandom trial with sample size 100 and metrics calculated from 5 observed covariates (comorbidity, age, motivation, race, and BL). Nonrandom samples were generated from the population by adjusting the distributions of different covariates. The degree of non-randomness of a trial is quantified by bias (%), which was defined as  $100 * (\text{sample treatment effect} - \text{population treatment effect}) / \text{population treatment effect}$ . Biased samples with bias ranging between 1% to 100% were generated and all metrics were calculated for each selected sample<sup>3</sup>. When bias increases, SMD should increase from 0 to positive infinity; C-Statistic should increase from 0.5 to 1;  $\beta$ -Index should decrease from 1 to 0; and LD and KSD should increase from 0 to 1. Except for SMD, all other metrics have both lower bound and upper bound. Mean absolute error (MAE) and R square ( $R^2$ ) from a simple linear regression model were used to evaluate the metrics in predicting bias, with metric as a predictor and bias as the outcome. MAE was calculated as the average absolute error between predicted Bias from a linear fitted model and the true bias. 50 nonrandom samples were selected for each of the 5 scenarios, with bias ranging from 1.0% to 100.0%. For each defined bias, 100 repeated random clinical trials were selected. All 5 metrics were calculated for each sample, and the results from 100 samples were aggregated. MAE, and  $R^2$  are reported for each metric.

## 3. Results

### 3.1 RANDOM TRIAL

#### 3.1.1 Varying Sample Size

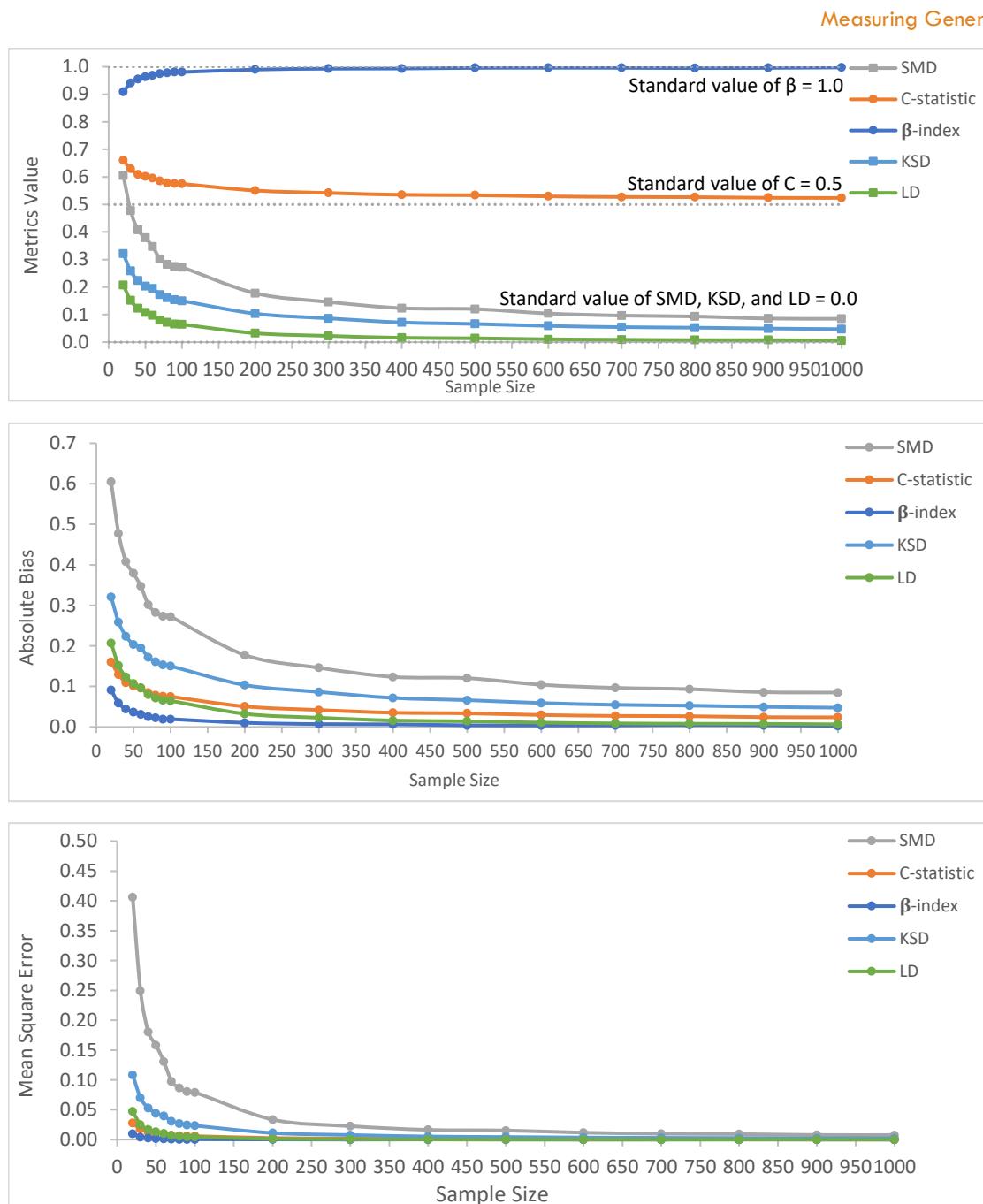
Table 1 presents the values of all metrics with increasing sample size for randomly selected trials, as well as their absolute bias (ABS) and mean square bias (MSE). SMD, C-statistics,  $\beta$ -index, KSD, and LD were closer to their standard values when sample size increased from 20 to 1000 (Figure 1).  $\beta$ -index (0.08851) had the least magnitude of change, compared to C-statistics (0.1366), LD (0.2011), KSD (0.2735), and SMD (0.5203). Both absolute bias and mean square bias decreased with increasing sample size for SMD, C-statistics,  $\beta$ -index, KSD and LD (Table 1, Figure 1). The absolute bias of  $\beta$ -index followed by LD and C-statistic, were smallest, while absolute bias of SMD was largest for all pre-defined sample sizes. Mean square bias, which presents the variation of metrics within repeated trials for each sample size, for  $\beta$ -index, followed by LD and C-statistics, was smallest among all metrics. Based on the results from random trials and varying sample size,  $\beta$ -index was least affected by small sample size and had the least variation within repeated trials.

**Table 1:** Comparison of five generalizability metrics based on random trials with varying sample size

Sample Size	SMD			C-statistic			β-index			KSD			LD		
	SMD	ABS	MSE	C	ABS	MSE	β	ABS	MSE	KSD	ABS	MSE	LD	ABS	MSE
20	0.6052	0.6052	0.4063	0.6604	0.1604	0.0278	0.9089	0.0911	0.0102	0.3209	0.3209	0.1086	0.2070	0.2070	0.0473
30	0.4775	0.4775	0.2493	0.6292	0.1292	0.0181	0.9413	0.0587	0.0043	0.2584	0.2584	0.0702	0.1516	0.1516	0.0253
40	0.4081	0.4081	0.1807	0.6093	0.1093	0.0130	0.9557	0.0443	0.0026	0.2239	0.2239	0.0529	0.1230	0.1230	0.0172
50	0.3792	0.3792	0.1582	0.6018	0.1018	0.0115	0.9633	0.0367	0.0017	0.2034	0.2034	0.0440	0.1073	0.1073	0.0130
60	0.3473	0.3473	0.1310	0.5960	0.0960	0.0099	0.9687	0.0313	0.0013	0.1952	0.1952	0.0398	0.0970	0.0970	0.0104
70	0.3022	0.3022	0.0977	0.5850	0.0850	0.0077	0.9747	0.0253	0.0008	0.1720	0.1720	0.0306	0.0798	0.0798	0.0071
80	0.2827	0.2827	0.0865	0.5785	0.0785	0.0066	0.9776	0.0224	0.0007	0.1608	0.1608	0.0270	0.0715	0.0715	0.0057
90	0.2737	0.2737	0.0805	0.5760	0.0760	0.0062	0.9807	0.0193	0.0005	0.1534	0.1534	0.0248	0.0659	0.0659	0.0049
100	0.2723	0.2723	0.0793	0.5748	0.0748	0.0060	0.9807	0.0193	0.0005	0.1503	0.1503	0.0235	0.0647	0.0647	0.0047
200	0.1776	0.1776	0.0336	0.5506	0.0506	0.0027	0.9897	0.0103	0.0003	0.1035	0.1035	0.0111	0.0325	0.0325	0.0012
300	0.1460	0.1460	0.0227	0.5418	0.0418	0.0019	0.9929	0.0071	0.0001	0.0865	0.0865	0.0078	0.0228	0.0228	0.0006
400	0.1235	0.1235	0.0164	0.5351	0.0351	0.0013	0.9935	0.0065	0.0002	0.0716	0.0716	0.0054	0.0158	0.0159	0.0003
500	0.1203	0.1203	0.0154	0.5336	0.0336	0.0012	0.9959	0.0041	0.0000	0.0662	0.0662	0.0045	0.0141	0.0141	0.0002
600	0.1041	0.1041	0.0117	0.5295	0.0295	0.0009	0.9963	0.0037	0.0000	0.0590	0.0590	0.0036	0.0105	0.0107	0.0002
700	0.0965	0.0965	0.0098	0.5273	0.0273	0.0008	0.9961	0.0039	0.0000	0.0546	0.0546	0.0031	0.0088	0.0088	0.0001
800	0.0933	0.0933	0.0093	0.5266	0.0266	0.0008	0.9951	0.0049	0.0002	0.0526	0.0526	0.0029	0.0075	0.0080	0.0001
900	0.0858	0.0858	0.0078	0.5243	0.0243	0.0006	0.9958	0.0042	0.0001	0.0496	0.0496	0.0026	0.0075	0.0076	0.0001
1000	0.0849	0.0849	0.0078	0.5238	0.0238	0.0006	0.9974	0.0026	0.0000	0.0474	0.0474	0.0024	0.0059	0.0065	0.0001
Change	0.5203			0.1366			0.0885			0.2735			0.2011		

Note: ABS represents absolute bias; MSE represents mean square error; population treatment effect = 0.5 and there are 7 covariates;

Standard values of SMD, C-statistic, β-index, KSD and LD are 0, 0.5, 1, 0 and 0.



**Figure 1:** Value of generalizability metrics and their absolute bias and mean square error with increasing sample size

### 3.1.2 Varying Number of Observed Covariates

Tables 2 presents the values, absolute bias (ABS) and mean square bias (MSE) of all indexes with increasing number of observed covariates, for random samples of size 100. The magnitude of change for  $\beta$ -index (0.0375) was smaller compared to LD (0.0481), C-statistics (0.0523), KSD (0.062), and SMD (0.1861) with increasing number of covariates. The absolute bias and mean square bias of SMD, C-statistic, KSD, and LD increased with increasing number of observed covariates, while there was no constant

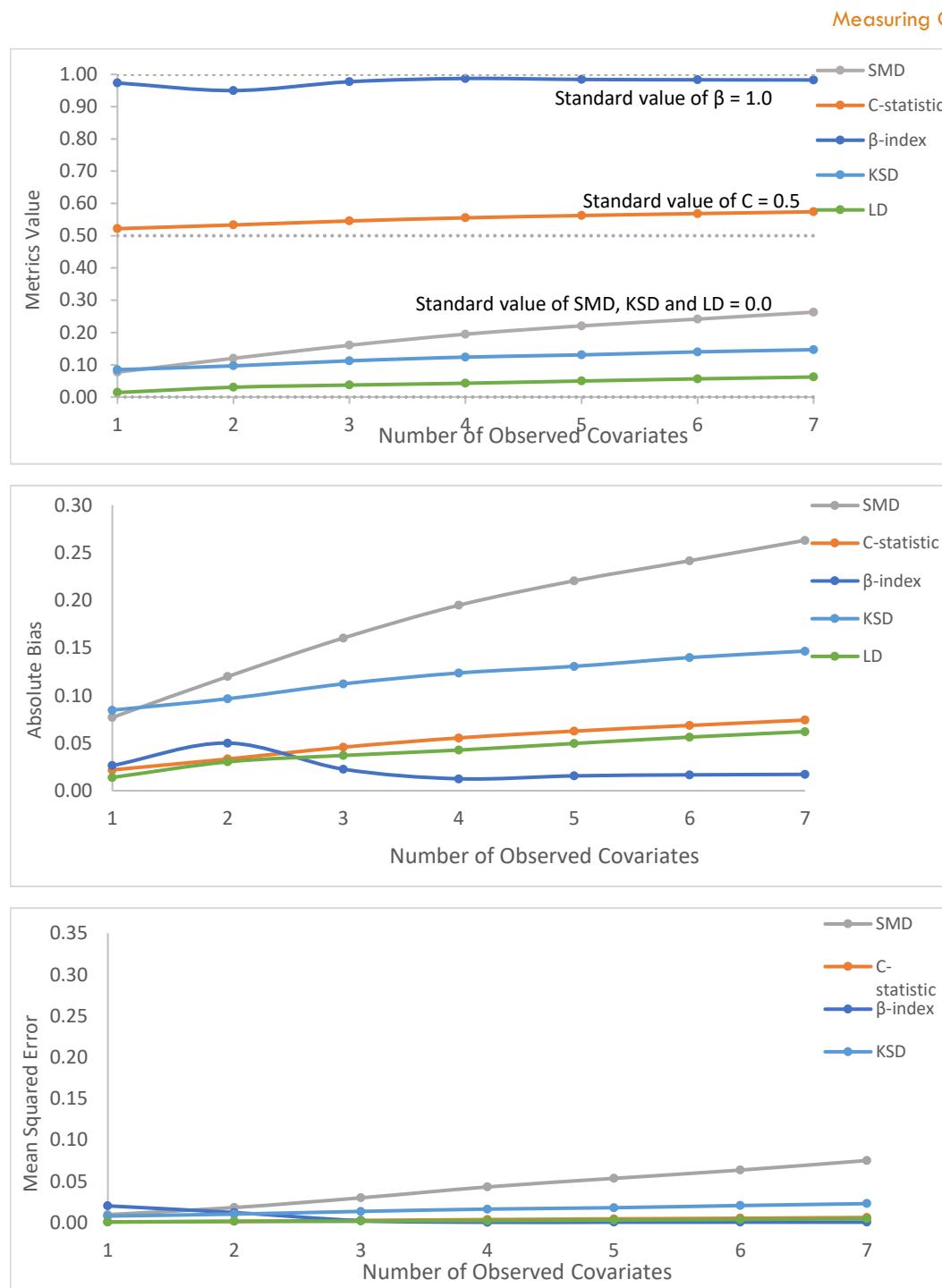
increasing/decreasing pattern for the absolute bias and mean square bias for  $\beta$ -index (Table 2). The absolute bias of  $\beta$ -index was almost 0 for all pre-defined covariate numbers and was smallest among all the metrics when number of covariates  $> 2$  (Table 2, Figure 2). The mean square bias for  $\beta$ -index was smaller compared to other metrics when number of covariates  $> 3$ . Overall,  $\beta$ -index seemed to be least affected by the varying number of covariates.

**Table 2:** Comparison of five generalizability metrics based on random trials with different number of observed covariates (from 1 to 7) for sample size of 100

Covariate	SMD			C-statistic			$\beta$ -index			KSD			LD		
	SMD	ABS	MSE	C	ABS	MSE	$\beta$	ABS	MSE	KSD	ABS	MSE	LD	ABS	MSE
1	0.0770	0.0770	0.0095	0.5219	0.0219	0.0007	0.9736	0.0264	0.0201	0.0847	0.0847	0.0078	0.0140	0.0140	0.0004
2	0.1200	0.1200	0.0180	0.5334	0.0334	0.0014	0.9500	0.0500	0.0120	0.0966	0.0966	0.0101	0.0303	0.0303	0.0014
3	0.1604	0.1604	0.0298	0.5457	0.0457	0.0025	0.9773	0.0227	0.0022	0.1122	0.1122	0.0134	0.0370	0.0370	0.0018
4	0.1949	0.1949	0.0430	0.5555	0.0555	0.0035	0.9875	0.0126	0.0002	0.1237	0.1237	0.0162	0.0427	0.0427	0.0023
5	0.2205	0.2205	0.0534	0.5626	0.0626	0.0043	0.9844	0.0156	0.0003	0.1307	0.1307	0.0179	0.0497	0.0497	0.0029
6	0.2416	0.2416	0.0634	0.5686	0.0686	0.0051	0.9833	0.0167	0.0004	0.1399	0.1399	0.0205	0.0563	0.0563	0.0037
7	0.2631	0.2631	0.0750	0.5742	0.0742	0.0060	0.9828	0.0172	0.0004	0.1467	0.1467	0.0228	0.0621	0.0621	0.0045
Change	0.1861			0.0523			0.0375			0.062			0.0481		

Note: ABS represents absolute bias; MSE represents mean square error; population treatment effect = 0.5

Standard values of SMD, C-statistic,  $\beta$ -index, KSD and LD are 0, 0.5, 1, 0 and 0.



**Figure 2:** Value of generalizability metrics and their absolute bias and mean square error with varying number of observed covariates.

## 3.2 NONRANDOM TRIAL

Based on 7 observed covariates and sample sizes 40, 100, and 400, we selected nonrandom trials with bias from 1.8% to 99.4%. Table 3 presents all metrics with increasing sample bias. SMD (0 for random trial) increased from 0.24 to 11.38, C-statistic (0.5 for

random trial) increased from 0.57 to 0.98,  $\beta$ -index (1 for random trial) decreased from 0.98 to 0.22, KSD (0 for random trial) increased from 0.12 to 0.88, and LD (0 for random trial) increased from 0.06 to 0.84.

**Table 3:** Comparison of five generalizability metrics based on non-random trials with 7 observed covariates and sample size of 40, 100 and 400.

Sample	Sample Size 40							Sample Size 100							Sample Size 400						
	ES	Bias	SMD	C	$\beta$	KSD	LD	ES	Bias	SMD	C	$\beta$	KSD	LD	ES	Bias	SMD	C	$\beta$	KSD	LD
1	0.5093	1.9%	0.50	0.63	0.94	0.25	0.15	0.5101	2.0%	0.33	0.59	0.97	0.18	0.09	0.5090	1.8%	0.24	0.57	0.98	0.12	0.06
2	0.5170	3.4%	0.67	0.68	0.90	0.32	0.23	0.5195	3.9%	0.46	0.63	0.94	0.23	0.15	0.5218	4.4%	0.41	0.61	0.92	0.20	0.18
3	0.5238	4.8%	0.58	0.66	0.92	0.29	0.19	0.5233	4.7%	0.56	0.66	0.90	0.28	0.22	0.5233	4.7%	0.50	0.64	0.89	0.25	0.23
4	0.5435	8.7%	0.76	0.70	0.88	0.36	0.27	0.5423	8.5%	0.67	0.68	0.91	0.30	0.24	0.5432	8.6%	0.65	0.67	0.88	0.29	0.27
5	0.5552	11.0%	0.77	0.70	0.88	0.35	0.26	0.5524	10.5%	0.67	0.68	0.91	0.31	0.23	0.5495	9.9%	0.61	0.67	0.91	0.27	0.24
6	0.5687	13.7%	0.77	0.71	0.89	0.36	0.26	0.5678	13.6%	0.69	0.69	0.92	0.31	0.22	0.5689	13.8%	0.66	0.68	0.93	0.28	0.21
7	0.5737	14.7%	0.82	0.71	0.88	0.37	0.27	0.5782	15.6%	0.76	0.70	0.90	0.33	0.25	0.5754	15.1%	0.72	0.69	0.92	0.30	0.24
8	0.5794	15.9%	0.83	0.72	0.88	0.37	0.27	0.5837	16.7%	0.78	0.71	0.90	0.34	0.25	0.5853	17.1%	0.73	0.70	0.93	0.31	0.23
9	0.5886	17.7%	1.04	0.76	0.83	0.44	0.35	0.5874	17.5%	0.93	0.75	0.86	0.41	0.34	0.5879	17.6%	0.90	0.74	0.88	0.38	0.33
10	0.5967	19.3%	1.06	0.77	0.82	0.45	0.36	0.5957	19.1%	0.98	0.76	0.85	0.42	0.35	0.5932	18.6%	0.93	0.75	0.88	0.39	0.33
11	0.6039	20.8%	1.06	0.77	0.83	0.46	0.36	0.6053	21.1%	1.01	0.76	0.86	0.42	0.33	0.6055	21.1%	0.97	0.75	0.88	0.40	0.32
12	0.6309	26.2%	1.21	0.79	0.80	0.48	0.38	0.6263	25.3%	1.11	0.78	0.83	0.44	0.35	0.6245	24.9%	1.07	0.77	0.86	0.42	0.33
13	0.6395	27.9%	1.34	0.80	0.77	0.52	0.41	0.6386	27.7%	1.21	0.79	0.81	0.47	0.37	0.6380	27.6%	1.15	0.78	0.84	0.44	0.34
14	0.6462	29.2%	1.28	0.80	0.78	0.50	0.40	0.6409	28.2%	1.20	0.79	0.82	0.47	0.36	0.6385	27.7%	1.16	0.78	0.84	0.44	0.34
15	0.6541	30.8%	1.39	0.81	0.75	0.52	0.41	0.6554	31.1%	1.31	0.80	0.79	0.49	0.38	0.6537	30.7%	1.28	0.80	0.82	0.47	0.37
16	0.6721	34.4%	1.60	0.83	0.71	0.55	0.45	0.6754	35.1%	1.53	0.83	0.74	0.53	0.42	0.6741	34.8%	1.47	0.82	0.78	0.51	0.40
17	0.6767	35.3%	1.62	0.83	0.71	0.56	0.45	0.6772	35.4%	1.51	0.82	0.75	0.52	0.42	0.6749	35.0%	1.48	0.82	0.77	0.51	0.40
18	0.6906	38.1%	1.81	0.85	0.67	0.60	0.49	0.6895	37.9%	1.69	0.84	0.71	0.55	0.45	0.6882	37.6%	1.62	0.84	0.75	0.53	0.43
19	0.6924	38.5%	1.87	0.86	0.66	0.60	0.50	0.6961	39.2%	1.78	0.85	0.69	0.57	0.47	0.6968	39.4%	1.70	0.84	0.73	0.54	0.45
20	0.7119	42.4%	2.03	0.87	0.63	0.62	0.52	0.7026	40.5%	1.90	0.86	0.67	0.58	0.49	0.7050	41.0%	1.82	0.85	0.71	0.56	0.47
21	0.7175	43.5%	2.20	0.88	0.60	0.64	0.55	0.7174	43.5%	2.06	0.87	0.64	0.61	0.52	0.7191	43.8%	2.04	0.87	0.67	0.59	0.50
22	0.7274	45.5%	2.40	0.89	0.57	0.67	0.58	0.7259	45.2%	2.24	0.88	0.61	0.63	0.54	0.7279	45.6%	2.21	0.88	0.65	0.61	0.53
23	0.7279	45.6%	2.33	0.89	0.58	0.66	0.57	0.7284	45.7%	2.37	0.89	0.59	0.64	0.56	0.7326	46.5%	2.33	0.89	0.63	0.63	0.55
24	0.7421	48.4%	2.68	0.91	0.54	0.69	0.61	0.7432	48.6%	2.57	0.90	0.57	0.67	0.58	0.7450	49.0%	2.56	0.90	0.60	0.66	0.57
25	0.7705	54.1%	2.65	0.89	0.54	0.67	0.59	0.7659	53.2%	2.26	0.87	0.60	0.61	0.52	0.7685	53.7%	2.29	0.88	0.63	0.60	0.51
26	0.7717	54.3%	2.49	0.88	0.56	0.64	0.55	0.7693	53.9%	2.49	0.89	0.57	0.63	0.55	0.7714	54.3%	2.48	0.89	0.60	0.62	0.54
27	0.7980	59.6%	3.00	0.91	0.49	0.70	0.62	0.7923	58.5%	2.83	0.90	0.53	0.67	0.59	0.7946	58.9%	2.83	0.90	0.56	0.65	0.57
28	0.7987	59.7%	2.96	0.91	0.50	0.70	0.62	0.8003	60.1%	2.93	0.91	0.52	0.67	0.59	0.7991	59.8%	2.84	0.90	0.55	0.66	0.58
29	0.8061	61.2%	2.92	0.91	0.50	0.69	0.61	0.8081	61.6%	2.96	0.90	0.51	0.67	0.58	0.8086	61.7%	2.89	0.90	0.54	0.65	0.57
30	0.8168	63.4%	3.30	0.91	0.46	0.71	0.63	0.8157	63.1%	3.12	0.91	0.49	0.68	0.61	0.8149	63.0%	3.07	0.91	0.53	0.67	0.59
31	0.8291	65.8%	3.60	0.92	0.44	0.73	0.65	0.8299	66.0%	3.44	0.92	0.46	0.70	0.62	0.8319	66.4%	3.42	0.92	0.49	0.69	0.62
32	0.8461	69.2%	3.90	0.93	0.41	0.75	0.67	0.8425	68.5%	3.79	0.93	0.43	0.72	0.64	0.8454	69.1%	3.70	0.92	0.46	0.70	0.63
33	0.8570	71.4%	4.06	0.93	0.40	0.75	0.67	0.8560	71.2%	4.03	0.93	0.41	0.73	0.65	0.8586	71.7%	3.97	0.93	0.44	0.72	0.65
34	0.8655	73.1%	4.24	0.94	0.38	0.76	0.68	0.8685	73.7%	4.33	0.94	0.39	0.74	0.67	0.8704	74.1%	4.28	0.94	0.42	0.73	0.66
35	0.8772	75.4%	4.60	0.94	0.36	0.77	0.70	0.8792	75.8%	4.54	0.94	0.37	0.76	0.69	0.8790	75.8%	4.50	0.94	0.40	0.74	0.67

Measuring Generalizability																								
36	0.8835	76.7%	4.95	0.95	0.34	0.78	0.71	0.8852	77.0%	4.88	0.94	0.36	0.76	0.69	0.8864	77.3%	4.81	0.94	0.39	0.75	0.68			
37	0.8972	79.4%	5.57	0.95	0.32	0.80	0.73	0.8952	79.0%	5.22	0.95	0.34	0.77	0.70	0.8964	79.3%	5.23	0.95	0.37	0.76	0.70			
38	0.9070	81.4%	5.77	0.96	0.31	0.82	0.75	0.9058	81.2%	5.78	0.96	0.32	0.80	0.73	0.9057	81.1%	5.66	0.96	0.35	0.78	0.73			
39	0.9139	82.8%	6.35	0.96	0.29	0.83	0.76	0.9139	82.8%	6.07	0.96	0.31	0.81	0.74	0.9115	82.3%	5.97	0.96	0.34	0.79	0.73			
40	0.9264	85.3%	6.87	0.96	0.27	0.84	0.77	0.9261	85.2%	6.58	0.96	0.29	0.82	0.76	0.9256	85.1%	6.50	0.96	0.32	0.80	0.75			
41	0.9358	87.2%	7.64	0.97	0.26	0.84	0.78	0.9374	87.5%	7.40	0.97	0.27	0.83	0.77	0.9381	87.6%	7.12	0.97	0.30	0.81	0.76			
42	0.9434	88.7%	7.65	0.97	0.25	0.85	0.79	0.9445	88.9%	7.52	0.97	0.26	0.84	0.78	0.9407	88.1%	7.20	0.97	0.30	0.82	0.77			
43	0.9498	90.0%	8.54	0.98	0.23	0.87	0.81	0.9466	89.3%	8.29	0.97	0.25	0.85	0.80	0.9439	88.8%	8.02	0.97	0.28	0.84	0.79			
44	0.9506	90.1%	8.28	0.97	0.24	0.85	0.80	0.9500	90.0%	7.85	0.97	0.26	0.84	0.78	0.9494	89.9%	7.68	0.97	0.28	0.83	0.78			
45	0.9590	91.8%	9.01	0.97	0.23	0.86	0.80	0.9568	91.4%	8.47	0.97	0.24	0.85	0.80	0.9537	90.7%	8.20	0.97	0.27	0.84	0.79			
46	0.9591	91.8%	8.75	0.98	0.23	0.87	0.81	0.9579	91.6%	8.46	0.97	0.24	0.85	0.79	0.9576	91.5%	8.26	0.97	0.27	0.84	0.79			
47	0.9654	93.1%	9.13	0.98	0.22	0.87	0.81	0.9658	93.2%	8.98	0.98	0.24	0.85	0.80	0.9656	93.1%	8.79	0.97	0.26	0.84	0.79			
48	0.9737	94.7%	9.65	0.98	0.22	0.88	0.82	0.9729	94.6%	9.48	0.98	0.23	0.87	0.81	0.9726	94.5%	9.27	0.98	0.25	0.85	0.81			
49	0.9933	98.7%	11.98	0.98	0.19	0.89	0.84	0.9943	98.9%	11.61	0.98	0.20	0.88	0.83	0.9910	98.2%	10.78	0.98	0.23	0.87	0.83			
50	0.9971	99.4%	12.40	0.98	0.18	0.90	0.84	0.9955	99.1%	11.65	0.98	0.20	0.88	0.83	0.9972	99.4%	11.38	0.98	0.22	0.88	0.84			

Note: ES represents trial effect size; population true treatment effect = 0.5; there are 7 covariates; all measurements are calculated based on sample size 40, 100 and 400 and all 7 covariates.

To uncover the potential impact of number of observed covariates on the 5 indexes, we simulated nonrandom trials and calculated 5 indexes based on 3 observed covariates and 5 observed covariates for sample size of 100 (Table 4). With 3 covariates, few variations were observed for all metrics (SMD, between 0.15 and 0.17; C-statistic, between 0.54 and 0.55;  $\beta$ -index ranged from 0.96 and 0.98; KSD, 0.11; LD, between 0.03 and 0.04)

when bias was  $\leq 48.6\%$ . When bias increased from 48.6% to 99.0%; SMD (0 for random trial) increased from 0.17 to 2.27; C-statistic (0.5 for random trial) increased from 0.55 to 0.90;  $\beta$ -index (1 for random trial) decreased from 0.98 to 0.50; KSD (0 for random trial) increased from 0.11 to 0.67, and LD (0 for random trial) increased from 0.04 to 0.62.

**Table 4:** Comparison of five generalizability metrics based on non-random trials with sample size 100 and 3, 5 and 7 covariates

Sample	ES	Bias	SMD			C-statistic			$\beta$ -index			KSD			LD		
			3	5	7	3	5	7	3	5	7	3	5	7	3	5	7
1	0.5101	2.0%	0.16	0.21	0.33	0.55	0.56	0.59	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.11	0.13	0.18	0.04	0.05	0.09
2	0.5195	3.9%	0.17	0.22	0.46	0.55	0.56	0.63	0.96	0.98	0.94	0.11	0.13	0.23	0.04	0.05	0.15
3	0.5233	4.7%	0.15	0.21	0.56	0.54	0.56	0.66	0.98	0.98	0.90	0.10	0.13	0.28	0.03	0.05	0.22
4	0.5423	8.5%	0.16	0.40	0.67	0.54	0.61	0.68	0.99	0.94	0.91	0.11	0.21	0.30	0.03	0.15	0.24
5	0.5524	10.5%	0.17	0.38	0.67	0.55	0.61	0.68	0.98	0.96	0.91	0.11	0.20	0.31	0.04	0.12	0.23
6	0.5678	13.6%	0.16	0.43	0.69	0.54	0.62	0.69	0.98	0.96	0.92	0.11	0.21	0.31	0.04	0.13	0.22
7	0.5782	15.6%	0.15	0.50	0.76	0.54	0.64	0.70	0.98	0.95	0.90	0.11	0.25	0.33	0.03	0.16	0.25
8	0.5837	16.7%	0.15	0.53	0.78	0.54	0.65	0.71	0.98	0.95	0.90	0.11	0.25	0.34	0.03	0.16	0.25
9	0.5874	17.5%	0.17	0.71	0.93	0.55	0.70	0.75	0.98	0.88	0.86	0.11	0.34	0.41	0.04	0.29	0.34
10	0.5957	19.1%	0.16	0.72	0.98	0.55	0.70	0.76	0.98	0.88	0.85	0.11	0.35	0.42	0.04	0.29	0.35
11	0.6053	21.1%	0.16	0.77	1.01	0.54	0.72	0.76	0.98	0.88	0.86	0.11	0.36	0.42	0.04	0.28	0.33
12	0.6263	25.3%	0.17	0.88	1.11	0.54	0.74	0.78	0.98	0.88	0.83	0.11	0.40	0.44	0.04	0.29	0.35
13	0.6386	27.7%	0.17	0.97	1.21	0.55	0.76	0.79	0.97	0.86	0.81	0.11	0.42	0.47	0.04	0.31	0.37
14	0.6409	28.2%	0.15	0.97	1.20	0.54	0.76	0.79	0.98	0.86	0.82	0.11	0.42	0.47	0.03	0.31	0.36
15	0.6554	31.1%	0.16	1.07	1.31	0.54	0.77	0.80	0.98	0.84	0.79	0.11	0.45	0.49	0.04	0.33	0.38
16	0.6754	35.1%	0.15	1.27	1.53	0.54	0.80	0.83	0.98	0.80	0.74	0.11	0.49	0.53	0.04	0.38	0.42

Measuring Generalizability																	
17	0.6772	35.4%	0.16	1.25	1.51	0.54	0.80	0.82	0.98	0.80	0.75	0.11	0.48	0.52	0.04	0.37	0.42
18	0.6895	37.9%	0.16	1.42	1.69	0.54	0.82	0.84	0.97	0.77	0.71	0.11	0.52	0.55	0.04	0.41	0.45
19	0.6961	39.2%	0.15	1.50	1.78	0.54	0.83	0.85	0.97	0.75	0.69	0.11	0.54	0.57	0.04	0.43	0.47
20	0.7026	40.5%	0.17	1.60	1.90	0.55	0.84	0.86	0.98	0.73	0.67	0.11	0.55	0.58	0.04	0.45	0.49
21	0.7174	43.5%	0.16	1.79	2.06	0.54	0.86	0.87	0.97	0.69	0.64	0.11	0.58	0.61	0.04	0.49	0.52
22	0.7259	45.2%	0.15	1.92	2.24	0.54	0.87	0.88	0.98	0.67	0.61	0.11	0.61	0.63	0.03	0.51	0.54
23	0.7284	45.7%	0.16	1.87	2.37	0.55	0.86	0.89	0.98	0.67	0.59	0.11	0.60	0.64	0.04	0.50	0.56
24	0.7432	48.6%	0.17	2.06	2.57	0.55	0.88	0.90	0.98	0.64	0.57	0.11	0.62	0.67	0.04	0.53	0.58
25	0.7659	53.2%	0.47	1.46	2.26	0.63	0.82	0.87	0.94	0.75	0.60	0.22	0.52	0.61	0.14	0.41	0.52
26	0.7693	53.9%	0.43	1.40	2.49	0.63	0.81	0.89	0.94	0.77	0.57	0.22	0.50	0.63	0.13	0.40	0.55
27	0.7923	58.5%	0.41	1.66	2.83	0.62	0.84	0.90	0.93	0.71	0.53	0.21	0.56	0.67	0.12	0.46	0.59
28	0.8003	60.1%	0.46	1.70	2.93	0.64	0.84	0.91	0.94	0.70	0.52	0.23	0.56	0.67	0.13	0.46	0.59
29	0.8089	61.8%	0.60	1.84	2.96	0.67	0.86	0.90	0.91	0.67	0.51	0.28	0.58	0.67	0.19	0.48	0.58
30	0.8157	63.1%	0.60	1.86	3.12	0.67	0.86	0.91	0.90	0.67	0.49	0.29	0.58	0.68	0.19	0.48	0.61
31	0.8299	66.0%	0.72	1.97	3.44	0.70	0.86	0.92	0.87	0.64	0.46	0.33	0.59	0.70	0.24	0.49	0.62
32	0.8425	68.5%	0.79	2.23	3.79	0.72	0.88	0.93	0.86	0.60	0.43	0.35	0.62	0.72	0.26	0.52	0.64
33	0.8560	71.2%	0.95	2.38	4.03	0.75	0.89	0.93	0.82	0.58	0.41	0.40	0.64	0.73	0.30	0.54	0.65
34	0.8685	73.7%	1.11	2.60	4.33	0.78	0.90	0.94	0.78	0.54	0.39	0.44	0.66	0.74	0.36	0.56	0.67
35	0.8792	75.8%	1.22	2.74	4.54	0.79	0.90	0.94	0.75	0.52	0.37	0.47	0.67	0.76	0.39	0.58	0.69
36	0.8852	77.0%	1.34	2.94	4.88	0.81	0.91	0.94	0.71	0.50	0.36	0.50	0.69	0.76	0.43	0.60	0.69
37	0.8952	79.0%	1.48	3.18	5.22	0.83	0.92	0.95	0.68	0.47	0.34	0.53	0.70	0.77	0.46	0.62	0.70
38	0.9058	81.2%	1.55	3.35	5.78	0.84	0.92	0.96	0.67	0.46	0.32	0.54	0.71	0.80	0.47	0.62	0.73
39	0.9139	82.8%	1.65	3.45	6.07	0.85	0.93	0.96	0.64	0.45	0.31	0.57	0.72	0.81	0.50	0.64	0.74
40	0.9261	85.2%	1.58	3.82	6.58	0.84	0.93	0.96	0.66	0.42	0.29	0.55	0.74	0.82	0.48	0.66	0.76
41	0.9374	87.5%	1.64	4.16	7.40	0.85	0.94	0.97	0.64	0.40	0.27	0.56	0.75	0.83	0.50	0.68	0.77
42	0.9445	88.9%	1.73	4.37	7.52	0.85	0.94	0.97	0.63	0.39	0.26	0.57	0.77	0.84	0.51	0.69	0.78
43	0.9466	89.3%	2.04	4.82	8.29	0.88	0.95	0.97	0.57	0.36	0.25	0.63	0.79	0.85	0.58	0.72	0.80
44	0.9500	90.0%	1.75	4.50	7.85	0.86	0.95	0.97	0.62	0.38	0.26	0.58	0.77	0.84	0.52	0.70	0.78
45	0.9568	91.4%	2.04	4.97	8.47	0.88	0.95	0.97	0.56	0.36	0.24	0.63	0.79	0.85	0.58	0.72	0.80
46	0.9579	91.6%	1.86	4.96	8.46	0.87	0.95	0.97	0.60	0.36	0.24	0.60	0.79	0.85	0.53	0.72	0.79
47	0.9658	93.2%	1.86	5.13	8.98	0.87	0.96	0.98	0.60	0.35	0.24	0.60	0.80	0.85	0.54	0.73	0.80
48	0.9729	94.6%	2.01	5.51	9.48	0.88	0.96	0.98	0.58	0.33	0.23	0.63	0.81	0.87	0.57	0.75	0.81
49	0.9943	98.9%	2.30	6.72	11.61	0.90	0.97	0.98	0.53	0.29	0.20	0.66	0.83	0.88	0.62	0.78	0.83
50	0.9955	99.1%	2.27	6.84	11.65	0.90	0.97	0.98	0.53	0.29	0.20	0.67	0.84	0.88	0.62	0.78	0.83

Note: ES represents effect size; population is built based on treatment effect=0.5 and 7 covariates; all measurements are calculated based on sample size 100 and 3, 5 and 7 covariates observed.

Table 5 shows the  $R^2$  and MAE for the five generalizability indexes by sample size and number of covariates. When 7 covariates were taken into account and sample size varied,  $\beta$ -index outperformed other indexes in predicting bias ( $R^2$ : 0.986-0.994) and exhibited lower variability (MAE: 0.017-0.0251).  $R^2$  of  $\beta$ -index closely approximated 1 with sample sizes

ranging from 40 to 400. When sample size was fixed at 100 and either 5 or 7 covariates were observed,  $\beta$ -index also exhibited the best performance in terms of  $R^2$  and MAE. However, C-statistics ( $R^2=0.865$ ; MAE=0.084) performed better than  $\beta$ -index and others, when sample size was 100 and 3 covariates were observed.

**Table 5:**  $R^2$  and MAE of five generalizability indexes under different sample sizes and number of covariates

	Sample Size	Number of Covariates	SMD	C-statistic	$\beta$ -index	KSD	LD
$R^2$	40	7	0.8340	0.9300	<b>0.9940</b>	0.9730	0.9810
	100	7	0.8440	0.9230	<b>0.9920</b>	0.9700	0.9800
	400	7	0.8520	0.9180	<b>0.9860</b>	0.9680	0.9800
MAE	40	7	0.1010	0.0670	<b>0.0170</b>	0.0388	0.0317
	100	7	0.0986	0.0701	<b>0.0197</b>	0.0405	0.0301
	400	7	0.0971	0.0725	<b>0.0251</b>	0.0415	0.0288
	Sample Size	Number of Covariates	SMD	C-statistic	$\beta$ -index	KSD	LD
$R^2$	100	3	0.8190	<b>0.8650</b>	0.7970	0.8550	0.8400
	100	5	0.8490	0.9020	<b>0.9630</b>	0.9340	0.9440
MAE	100	3	0.1033	<b>0.0840</b>	0.1070	0.0883	0.0943
	100	5	0.0958	0.0795	<b>0.0448</b>	0.0673	0.0598

Note: MAE represents mean absolute error

#### 4. Discussion

While randomized controlled trials are widely considered as the gold standard in medical research, they are criticized because of potential lack of generalizability, as specific groups of trial patients may be underrepresented compared to the target patient population. Few research studies have addressed how to assess and evaluate the generalizability of RCTs. As we know, patients are rarely selected on a random basis from a well-defined patient population of interest into a clinical trial. As patients cannot be forced to join a trial, it is not always possible to have a random sample for a clinical trial. Women, children, the elderly, and those with common comorbidities are frequently underrepresented or excluded from clinical trials. A random and representative sample is one indispensable assumption for generalizing results from a RCT to the general patient population. Determining how a representative RCT sample might be is extremely important. Yet, we can never know how well a treatment effect estimate can be generalized to the patient population without data from the patient population. What we can do is to calculate the generalizability index when a clinical trial is completed. This simulation study evaluated existing statistical methods for generalizability including SMD, C-statistic,  $\beta$ -Index, as well as KSD and LD. There are no conclusive rules of thumb for the SMD. The fact that SMD ranges from 0 to infinity without upper limit may also impair the practicality of the SMD. In contrast, rules of thumb for C-statistic (from 0.5 to 1) and  $\beta$ -Index (from 1 to 0) are well-defined and they are confined within boundary intervals. While KSD and LD range from 0 to 1, little research has proposed cutoff points for them.

When all covariates are observed but sample size varies, we observed that  $\beta$ -index had the smallest bias and

variation with random trials. According to the cutoff points of the  $\beta$ -index suggested by Tipton (2014)<sup>29</sup>, a  $\beta$ -index bigger or equal to 0.90 suggests a very high level of generalization. While a C-statistic between 0.5 and 0.7 is considered as poor discrimination in assessing fit of models<sup>33</sup>, we use this range as an indicator of excellent generalizability in our study. Our results show that  $\beta$ -index stayed above 0.90 and C-statistic stayed between 0.52 and 0.66 as sample size increased from 20 to 1000, suggesting that  $\beta$ -index and C-statistic are reliable in reflecting random selection even when the sample size was small. SMD is sensitive to sample size, as the range of SMD with sample size from 20 to 1000 was largest (0.60515 - 0.08486) compared to other metrics. As we mentioned previously, SMD larger than 0.25 SD or 0.1 SD is considered as a large deviation. From our observation, however, SMD tended to be larger than 0.25 SD when sample size  $\leq 100$ , and it was larger than 0.1 SD when sample size  $\leq 600$ . SMD might not be a reliable choice, especially when measuring the generalizability of an RCT which has a small sample size. LD was close to its standard value (0) when sample size was bigger than 70, the bias of LD was smaller than other metrics, except for  $\beta$ -index. Yet, the C-statistic was better than LD with sample size  $< 70$ . Our simulated random trials found that the KSD did perform as well as  $\beta$ -index, C-statistic, and LD as its absolute bias was larger than those metrics.

We observed that the  $\beta$ -index was least affected by number of observed covariates compared to other metrics, for randomly selected samples with a sample size of 100. The absolute bias of  $\beta$ -index was least among all metrics when observed covariates  $\geq 3$ . The  $\beta$ -Index and C-statistic excellently reflected the randomness of the selected trials, as values of the  $\beta$ -index were over 0.95

( $\beta$ -index  $\geq 0.90$  suggests a very high level of generalizability) and values of the C-statistic were less than 0.58 (between 0.5 and 0.7 is considered as excellent generalizability) with number of observed covariates varying from 1 to 7. SMD was larger than 0.1 SD when the number of covariates  $>1$  and was larger than 0.25 SD when number of covariates  $>6$ . Again, SMD failed to show the random status of selected samples if we use the current proposed thresholds. With nonrandom trials based on sample size 400 and 7 covariates observed, our results showed that  $\beta$ -index, followed by LD and KSD, was most associated with bias, compared to other metrics.  $\beta$ -index also had higher prediction ability and lowest mean absolute error between the predicted bias and true bias. When all covariates were observed but sample size was reduced (100 and 40), we did not find significant differences for SMD, C-statistic,  $\beta$ -index, KSD and LD.

$\beta$ -Index performed well for both random and non-random samples. It is based on the distributions of propensity scores rather than only the average difference of the propensity scores from the sample and the population.  $\beta$ -Index did not perform well when the number of covariates was too small. It's easy to interpret the  $\beta$ -Index value and use in clinical trials as it ranges from 0 to 1, and has the following rules of thumb:  $1.00 \geq \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.90$  indicating a very high level of generalization;  $0.90 > \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.80$  indicating a high level of generalization;  $0.80 > \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.50$  representing a medium level of generalization; and  $\beta\text{-index} < 0.50$  indicating a low level of generalization. On average, C-statistics performed well. When the number of covariates was small, C-statistics still performed well. It ranges from 0 to 1 and has the following Rules of thumb: C-statistic = 0.5 is considered as no discrimination (random selection);  $0.5 < \text{C-statistic} < 0.7$  is considered as poor discrimination (outstanding generalizability);  $0.7 \leq \text{C-statistic} < 0.8$  is considered as acceptable discrimination (excellent generalizability);  $0.8 \leq \text{C-statistic} < 0.9$  is considered as excellent discrimination (acceptable generalizability);  $\text{C-statistic} \geq 0.9$  is considered as outstanding discrimination (poor generalizability). It's easy to interpret C-statistics and use in clinical trials. The SMD did not perform well because it is based on mean differences of the propensity scores, and summarizing mean differences is insufficient for assessing generalizability. There are no rules of thumb for the SMD and it is not easy to interpret. On average, both KSD and LD performed well. They focus on comparing cumulative densities, range from 0 to 1, but do not have clear rules of thumb and are not easy to interpret.

In our study, we aimed to identify a generalizability metric that reliably captures the deviation of clinical trial samples from the target patient population. Our

simulation results suggest that both the  $\beta$ -index and the C-statistic offer the best performance and could serve as reliable and practical metrics for assessing generalizability in clinical trials. While the KSD and LD performed reasonably well, they lack clear rules of thumb and are less user-friendly. The SMD, on the other hand, demonstrated poor performance and similarly lacks an established interpretive standard.

## 5. Conclusion

The development of better generalizability metrics for clinical trials remains an important need. The objective of this paper was to demonstrate methods for estimating generalizability indexes and to guide clinical researchers in interpreting these measures. Our work has resulted in recommending the use of the  $\beta$ -index and C-statistic due to their statistical performance, because they are easy to interpret, and because clear categories of generalizability can be determined such as very-high, high, medium, or low levels of generalizability.  $\beta$ -index ranges from 0 to 1, and C-statistics ranges from 0.5 to 1. A  $\beta$ -index value of 1 or a C-statistic value of 0.5 suggests the trial sample closely reflects the characteristics of patient population, demonstrating very high generalizability. In contrast, a  $\beta$ -index value of 0 or a C-statistic value of 1 suggests the trial sample deviate significantly from the patient population, resulting in very low generalizability. The  $\beta$ -index can be used to create four level-of-generalizability categories:  $1.00 \geq \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.90$  indicating a very-high level of generalizability;  $0.90 > \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.80$  indicating a high level of generalizability;  $0.80 > \beta\text{-index} \geq 0.50$  representing a medium level of generalizability; and  $\beta\text{-index} < 0.50$  indicating a low level of generalizability. Like the  $\beta$ -index, the C-statistic can be used to create four level-of-generalizability categories. We proposed the following cut-off points for the C-statistic:  $0.5 \leq \text{C-statistic} < 0.7$  indicating a very-high level of generalizability;  $0.7 \leq \text{C-statistic} < 0.8$  indicating a high level of generalizability;  $0.8 \leq \text{C-statistic} < 0.9$  indicating a medium level of generalizability; and  $\text{C-statistic} \geq 0.9$  indicating a low level of generalizability. The  $\beta$ -index is recommended if researchers have measured all or most of the relevant covariates that predict selection into the experimental sample. The C-statistic is recommended if researchers have measured a small number of the relevant covariates that predict selection in the trial sample. Our paper provides guidance for clinical doctors and trialists on how to estimate, interpret, and report statistical indexes of generalizability for clinical trials. Trialists should report a generalizability index after completing a trial and encourage requests from CONSORT, academic journals, and the FDA to incorporate generalizability indexes in clinical trial reporting.

## Conflict of Interest

The Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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