

Designing Clinical Trials

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Sponsored by the Clinical and Translational Science Institute (CTSI) and the Department of Population Health / Division of Biostatistics



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Outline

- Overview of Clinical Trial phases
- Phase I Trials
- Phase II Trials
- Phase III Trials
 - Endpoints
 - Eligibility
 - Randomization
 - Blinding
 - Power and Sample Size
 - Data Monitoring
 - Alternative Study Designs



Phases of Human Research

- Ideal clinical trial: randomized, doubleblinded
- Traditionally four phases of research
 - I=Establish safety, dose-finding, PK studies
 - II=Establish biological activity or potential efficacy
 - III=Randomized comparison of treatment
 - IV=Long-term surveillance in broader population
 - Some hybrid phases (I/II, II/III)



Phase I Trials

• Goal:

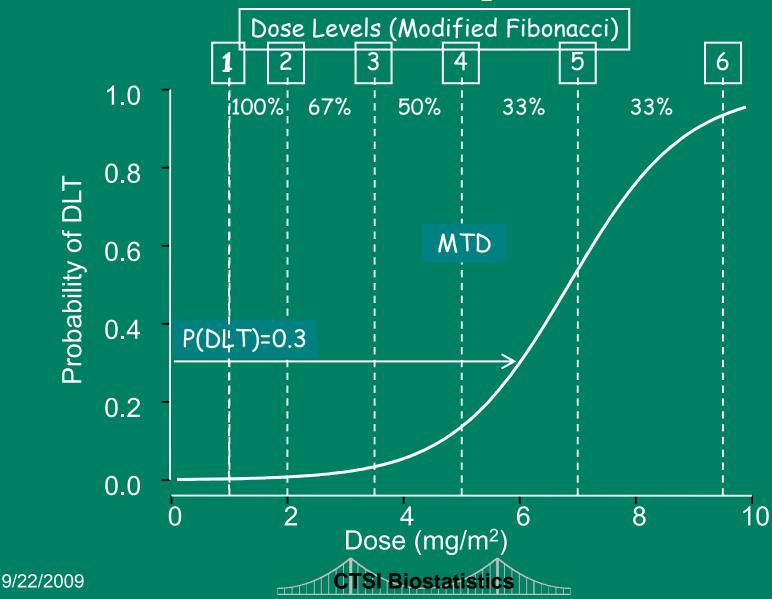
- How well is the drug tolerated in small numbers of individuals?
- Toxicity screening and determination of maximum tolerated dose (MTD)
- Phase IA Healthy subjects
- Phase IB Diseased subjects, failures on conventional therapy
- Small studies < 10 per dose
- Dose escalation or de-escalation plan
- Efficacy measured but not the main objective

Phase I Trials

- Maximum Tolerated Dose:
 - Highest possible dose with an "acceptable" rate of dose-limiting toxicities
 - "acceptable" toxicity rate set by investigators because of potential for benefit to patients
 - Example:
 - Dose which produces grade III or worse toxicities in no more than 1 in 3 patients (cancer studies)



Dose Response



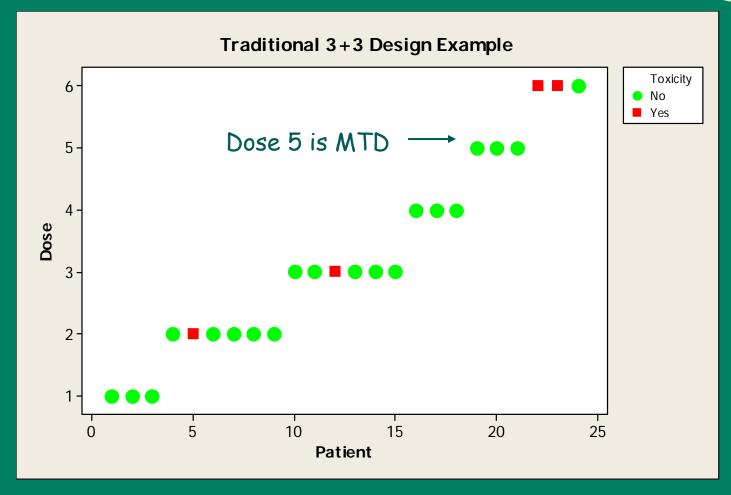
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Traditional 3+3 Design

- Patients enrolled in groups of 3 for each dose level.
 - None of 3 experience DLT- increase dose level
 - 1 of 3 experience DLT enroll additional 3 patients
 - >1 of 3 experience DLT stop; MTD was reached at previous dose
 - If <2 out of 6 experience DLT then increase dose level
 - If 2 or more out of 6 experience DLT, then MTD was reached at previous dose.



Traditional 3+3 Design





Traditional 3+3 Design

- Drawbacks of 3+3 design
 - -Biased estimate of MTD (too low)
 - MTD defined based on 33% DLT rate
 - Moves slowly through the doses
- Advantages:
 - Simple: No statistical modeling needed



Other Phase I Designs

- Continual Reassessment Method (O'Quigley, Biometrics 1990):
 - After each patient's outcome is known, re-fit the dose-toxicity curve
 - Estimate MTD based on the estimated curve
 - Enroll next patient at estimated MTD.
 - Many modifications to this principle
 - More flexible, better statistical properties than 3+3 design
 - Requires collaboration with statistician





Phase II Trials

- Goal: Determination if treatment has any biological activity, estimation of biological activity, estimation of rate of adverse events
- Single well described treatment regimen
- Small sample sizes <40-50
- Used to select treatment for Phase III trials
- Tighter inclusion/exclusion criteria than Phase III trial – who will benefit most?
- "Quicker" outcome measures if possible
- Often two-stage design



Phase II Trials: Goals

Estimation of outcome

- Construct confidence intervals for outcome
- Outcome often binary (yes/no) with success probability p
- Establishing efficacy
 - Often uses historical control success rate (p_0)
 - Declare effective if Hypothesis test rejects $H_0: p = p_0$
 - Equivalently, if confidence interval for p does not contain p_0 .
 - Significance level alpha = probability of declaring treatment promising when p=p₀



Phase II Trial Example

- Augmenting high-dose chemotherapy with Interleukin-2 activated autotransplant, for metastatic breast carcinoma (Toh BMT 2000)
- 33 patients with de novo or relapsed stage l to III breast cancer between 1996-1998.
 - 2 yr. PFS=35% (95% CI of 15-54%)
 - 2 yr. OS=78% (95% CI of 62-94%).
 - Collected toxicity data 2 grade III toxicities
 - Collected engraftment data all engrafted
- Historical control 29 patients between 1993 and 1997
 - 2 yr. PFS=17%, 2 yr. OS=61%. Not sig. Diff.



Phase II Trials: Sample Size

- Precision of estimation:
 - larger n yields narrower confidence interval
 - Specify targeted width of CI or margin of error (half-width)
- Power: Chance of declaring treatment effective when p=p₁
 - Larger n yields greater power
 - Specify p₀, p₁, significance level, power
- Example: Steroids for grade II-IV acute GVHD: historically CR rate=35%
 - New agent: Want 80% power to detect improvement in CR rate to 55%. With one-sided test, alpha=0.05, n=35

Two-Stage Designs

- Want to minimize the number of patients treated with an ineffective treatment
- Choose n₁ patients in first stage
 - If r₁ or fewer respond then declare the treatment a failure and stop
 - If $>r_1$ respond then add $n-n_1$ patients (total=n)
- If more than r respond out of n then declare the treatment a success; o/w declare it a failure
- Requires short-term primary endpoint

Two-Stage Design

- Example: Suppose we want to compare a new treatment against a historical control with response rate 0.1. Want 80% power when response rate is 0.3, with α=0.05
- EN=Expected sample size
- PET=Probability of Early Termination

		Reject drug if			
p ₀	p ₁	≤r ₁ /n ₁	≤ r/n	EN(p ₀)	PET(p ₀)
0.1	0.3	1/10	5/29	15.0	0.74

Two-Stage Designs

- Simon (Cancer Treatment Reports, 1985)
- Calculator for these designs can be obtained online at http://linus.nci.nih.gov/brb/samplesize/otsd.html



Phase III Trials: Design Features

Testable hypothesis

- Outcomes
- Patient population
- Design
 - Control group
 - Randomization
 - Blinding
 - Data Monitoring



What is the Question?

- Includes
 - Treatment Comparison
 - Primary Outcome
 - Patient Population
- Usually one primary question; clearly defined and stated in protocol
- Secondary questions



Primary Endpoint

- Main clinical variable of interest which is most likely to be impacted by treatment
- Could be composite endpoint, e.g. for studying heart disease, either
 - Death from coronary heart disease
 - Nonfatal myocardial infarction
- Response variables should be capable of unbiased assessment
 - Blinding

 Important to have response variables which can be ascertained as completely as possible

Loss to follow-up, missed appointments



Primary Endpoint Example

- HIV studies: HIV virus destroys immune system, individuals subject to infections which lead to death; now treatments target the virus or specific infections
- Possible endpoints:
 - 1. Increase in CD4 counts (direct measure of immune function)
 - 2. Viral RNA reduction (measures amount of virus in the body)
 - 3. Time to one or more opportunistic infections
 - 4. Time to death from any cause
 - 5. Time to first infection or death



Primary Endpoint Example

- 1,2 may be appropriate for phase II trial
- 3 ignores competing risk of death without infection
- 4 is of ultimate interest, but may not be practical as mortality rate is slowed down and patients have a long expected survival
- 5 is often used, but the definition of opportunistic infection must be clear
- Many of these are important for secondary analysis



Sometimes secondary endpoints can be important





Secondary Questions

- Components of composite endpoint
- Other endpoints
- Subgroup analyses
- Toxicity
- Ancillary study questions
- Surrogate outcomes
- Multiple Testing:
 - If enough tests are done, some will be significant by chance alone when there is no intervention effect
- Secondary hypotheses are better at shedding light on results, or on generating new hypotheses; should not be considered definitive results



Subgroup Analysis

- Trial should have reasonable expectations that intervention will be consistent across subgroups; otherwise, do separate studies
- Is effect of treatment in a clinical trial homogeneous across all patients in that trial?
- Example 1: ISIS-2 Trial: 17000 patients with AMI randomized to placebo vs. aspirin (also streptokinase) (Lancet, 1988)
 - Mortality within 1 month: 9% (aspirin) vs. 12% (placebo), p<0.001
 - Investigators were urged (by editors) to conduct nearly 40 subgroup analyses
 - Investigators agreed on condition that they could conduct their own subgroup analysis to illustrate unreliability of subgroup findings



Subgroup Analyses

Subgroup defined by astrological sign

Astrological signAspirinPlacebop-valueLibra or Gemini150147NSOthers654869<0.001</td>

of deaths in 1 month

- Increased variability of results just due to chance when you look at a lot of subgroups.
- Excess of type II errors due to multiple comparisons



Primary Question: Example

- Thompson (Blood, 2008) SWOG 9438
- Treatment:
 - Post-transplant therapy with IL-2 versus observation after TBI, etoposide, cyclophosphamide and PBSC autotransplant
- Patient Population: – Relapsed NHL
- Outcome: Progression-free survival



Secondary Questions: SWOG NHL Example

- Secondary Endpoints

 OS, Toxicity
- Subgroup analyses
 - Test for interaction between chemosensitivity and outcome, or between histology and outcome
 - No significant interactions



Patient Population

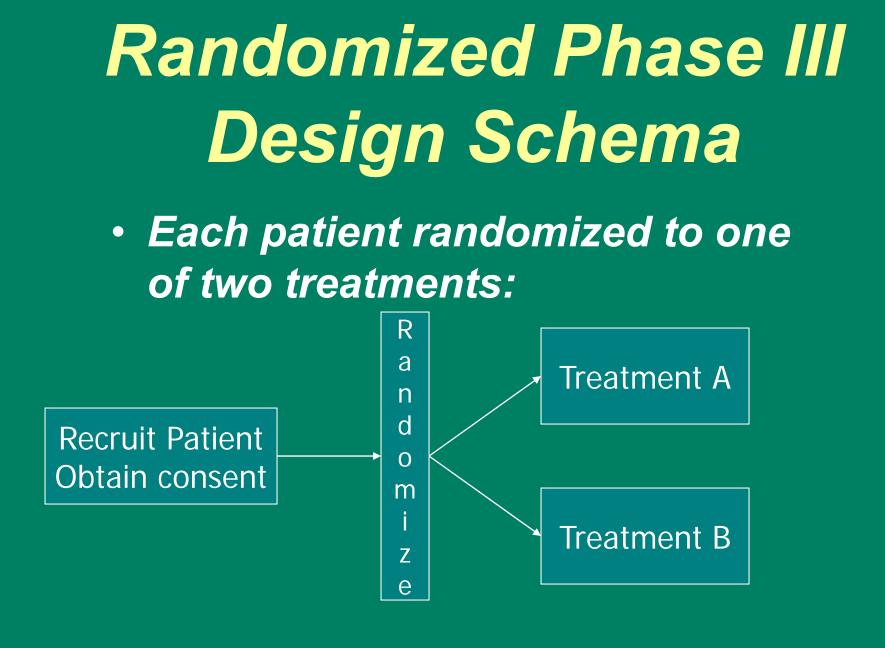
- The study population should be defined in advance using clearly defined inclusion/exclusion criteria
- Phase II vs. phase III
- Reproducibility of results
 - To whom do the results apply?
 - Allow other investigators to assess merits
- Applicability of inference to future patients
 - Patients volunteering for trials are often different than general patient population
- Recruitment: Homogeneity vs. Feasibility



Patient Population

- Selecting the patient population
 - Potential or high likelihood to benefit
 - High event rate
 - Ex: Anti-anginal drug, don't enroll patient with only one angina episode in last 2 years
 - Weigh benefits against adverse effects
 - Pregnant women
 - Gastric bleeding for anti-inflammatory drugs
 - Low chance of competing risks
 - For studies of heart disease, exclude patients with cancer
 - Likely to adhere to study protocol







Randomization

- Process by which all participants are equally likely to be assigned to either the intervention or control groups
- Advantages:
 - Protects against bias in treatment allocation and selection of patients
 - Makes groups comparable or "similar on the average", balancing out known and unknown prognostic factors
 - An individual study may still be imbalanced



Selection Bias with Nonrandomized Controls

- Pilot trial of high-dose chemotherapy with autotransplant for multiple myeloma (Barlogie 1995) – 3 yr. Survival = 60%.
 - Historical control: SWOG series of four Phase III trials of standard chemotherapy between 1977 and 1989 – 3 yr. Survival = 40%.
 - Bias in historical comparison due to different eligibility criteria – transplant patients must be young and in good condition.
 - When SWOG patients restricted to <70 yrs old with good renal function, 3 yr. Survival=60%.



Methods of Randomization

- Simple randomization (Coin flip)
 - Allows for unusual results in treatment assignment
- Random permuted blocks ensure balance over accrual time
 - ABBA | BABA | BBAA | ABAB ...
- Stratification ensures balance across important covariates known to be associated with outcome
 - Often stratification by center



Randomization Issues

- When to randomize: As close to treatment as possible to minimize dropout.
- Intention to Treat Principle: All eligible patients are analyzed according to the arm to which they are randomized, even if they deviate from the therapy specified in the protocol
- Avoids bias e.g. if good-risk patients decide toxicity is not worth small expected benefit from treatment



Randomization and ITT: Example

• SWOG NHL trial of IL-2 post tx – When should randomization be done?

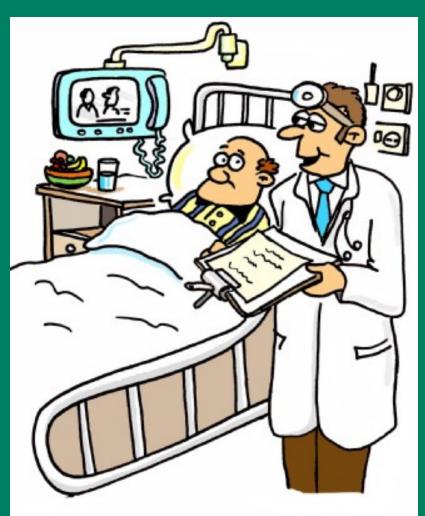


Example (cont.)

- Registration prior to tx
- Randomization took place between day 28 and day 80 post tx
- Additional eligibility criteria regarding patient's status at time of randomization (no recurrence/ progression of disease, no serious toxicity)
- 394 patients initially registered, 376 eligible
- 194 were randomized
- 182 eligible but no randomization
 - 46 Refusal
 - 62 grade 4 or 5 toxicity
 - 28 progression



Design Issues-Blinding



"Your doctor will be here in a minute, I'm a placebo."

9/22/2009

Design Issues-Blinding

• Why patient?

- May experience a psychological benefit of being on new treatment
- Attitude toward treatment may affect cooperation in study (compliance with therapy, attendance for evaluation, drop out rates)
- Attitude toward treatment may affect response



Design Issues - Blinding

- Why Treatment team?
 - Knowledge of treatment may influence:
 - Decisions on dose modification
 - Decisions on intensity of patient examination
 - Decisions on when to discontinue treatment
 - Decisions on ancillary care

 Enthusiasm for treatment may be expressed to patient



Design Issues-Blinding

- Why evaluator?
 - Objectivity of evaluator may be lost
 - Leads to assessment bias
- Is blinding appropriate?
 - Ethical issues: No undue harm to patient
 - Practical issues:
 - Need treatments similar (Dose schedules, similar pills)
 - Informed consent is harder
 - Administration is harder



Sample Size

- Patients respond differently to treatment; we are interested in collective effect of treatment
- Larger sample sizes increase precision of estimated treatment effect.
- Calculations based on primary endpoint: Specify likelihood of detecting a significant treatment effect of a particular magnitude (Power)
- Example: Want 80% power to detect if new treatment increases 2 year progression free survival from 40% to 55%



Sample Size

- Need to specify:
 - Type I error
 - Power
 - Success proportion for control (p_1) and intervention (p_2)
- Formula: N per group is

$$N = 2(z_{\alpha} + z_{\beta})^2 p_c (1 - p_c) / (p_2 - p_1)^2$$

- Here
 - z_{α} =1.96 for a two-sided 5% level test
 - z_{β} =1.28 and 0.84 for 90% and 80% power
 - $-p_c$ is the average success proportion



Sample Size

• Tables

- Hulley et al. (1988)
- Example: For P₁=0.35,P₂=0.55,Power=80%, type I error=5%,
 - *n*=96 per arm
- Free software/calculators on Internet
 <u>http://biostat.mc.vanderbilt.edu/twiki/bin/view/Main/PowerSampleSize</u>
 <u>http://www.math.uiowa.edu/~rlenth/Power/</u>
- Other methods for different endpoints
 - Continuous Normal outcomes
 Survival outcomes
- Consult your statistician





Data Monitoring

- Data Safety Monitoring Committee: Responsible for ensuring patient safety and study integrity
- Meets every 6-12 months to review data
- Justifications for early termination of study
 - Unacceptable toxicity
 - Accrual problems
 - Efficacy or Futility if included in design



Data Monitoring

- Often specify toxicity stopping rules in protocol
- Trigger DSMB review
- Short-term outcome – Grade III-V toxicities within 1 month
- Important to understand expected toxicity rates
 - Compare observed rates to expected rates



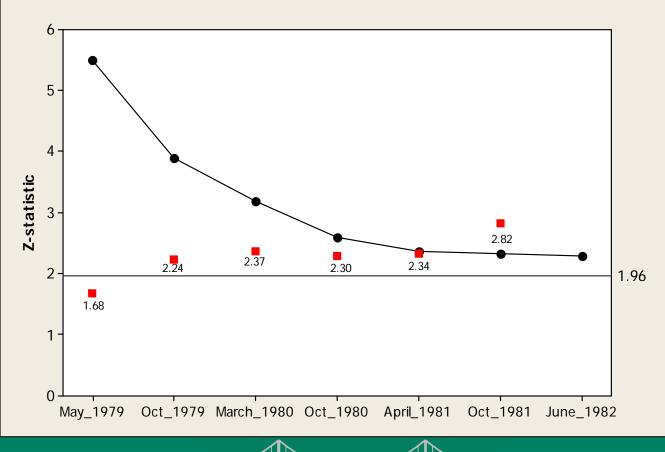
Group Sequential Designs

- Decision on trial is made sequentially based on groups of patients entered in the study.
- Reasons for termination of trial at interim evaluation:
 - Greater than expected benefit of treatment
 - Worse than expected effect of treatment-toxicity
 - Futility little or no chance of obtaining a statistically significant result by end of study
- Stopping early generally requires short-term endpoint
- Adjustment made to significance level at each interim analysis

9/22/2009

CTSI Biostatistics

Beta Blocker Heart attack trial (DeMets CCT 1984) • Comparison of mortality rates using log-rank test



Basic Data Items and Forms

- Detailed in protocol
- Basic variables:
 - Eligibility
 - Evaluability
 - Treatment Summary
 - Outcome Summary
- Forms
 - Study-specific flow sheet
 - Standard off-treatment notice/notice of death
 - Prestudy form (baseline characteristics)



Sample Protocol (Friedman et al. 1998)

- 1. Background of the Study
- 2. Objectives
 - 1. Primary question and response variable
 - 2. Secondary questions and response variables
 - 3. Subgroup hypotheses
 - 4. Adverse effects
- 3. Design of the Study
 - 1. Study Population-Inclusion/Exclusion criteria
 - 2. Sample size assumptions and estimates
 - 3. Enrollment of participants
 - 1. Informed consent
 - 2. Assessment of eligibility
 - 3. Baseline examination
 - 4. Intervention allocation (randomization)



Sample Protocol

- 4. Intervention
 - 1. Description and Schedule
 - 2. Measures of compliance
 - 3. Dose modification and withdrawals
- 5. Follow-up visit description and schedule
- 6. Ascertainment of response variables
 - 1. Data collection and forms
 - 2. Quality control
- 7. Data Analysis
 - 1. Interim Monitoring
 - 2. Final analysis
- 8. Termination Policy
- 4. Administrative organization



Resources

- The Clinical and Translation Science Institute (CTSI) supports education, collaboration, and research in clinical and translational science: <u>www.ctsi.mcw.edu</u>
- The Biostatistics Consulting Service
 provides comprehensive statistical support
 <u>http://www.mcw.edu/biostatsconsult.htm</u>



Free drop-in consulting

- MCW/Froedtert/CHW:
 - Monday, Wednesday, Friday 1 3 PM @ Froedtert Pavilion, Room #L777A (TRU Offices)
 - Tuesday, Thursday 1 3 PM @ Health Research Center, H2400
- VA: 1st and 3rd Monday, 8:30-11:30 am
 VA Medical Center, Building 111-B-5423
- Marquette: 2nd and 4th Monday, 8:30-11:30 am
 - Olin Engineering Building, Room 338D



Upcoming Lectures

Wednesday, Sept 30, 2009 at 8:50 AM (Jennifer Le-Rademacher, PhD) Statistics, Probability and Diagnostic Medicine Conference Room M-3rd Floor of the Clinical Cancer Center	Thursday, October 22, 2009 at 1:30 PM (Jennifer Le-Rademacher, PhD) Statistics, Probability and Diagnostic Medicine Children's Hospital Auditorium
Friday, October 9, 2009 at 7 AM (Dan Eastwood, MS and Emily McGinley, MS) Getting Help for your Bioethics, Biostatistics, and Epidemiology Questions: Population Health Consulting Services Froedtert NT2209	Wednesday, November 18, 2009 at 8:50 AM (Brent Logan, PhD) Designing Clinical Trials Location: TBA

For locations that are TBA please check the website below two weeks prior to the lecture date:

http://www.mcw.edu/biostatistics/CalendarCurrentEvents/SeminarSeries.htm

