

Beyond the 3+3 design: How to find the optimal dose

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Introduction to Phase I trials

- Phase I studies involve the first experimentation of a new drug / clinical procedure in human subjects
- The emphasis is on finding a safe, yet potentially effective, dose for future Phase II experimentation
- Trials are small, typically 20-50 patients
- Due to ethical considerations patients are added sequentially after side-effects from previous patients have been assessed
- Subjects
 - Healthy volunteers for relatively non-toxic agents
 - Patients when drugs are highly toxic (e.g. cytotoxic agents in cancer)
- Aim: To seek the highest possible dose subject to toxicity constraints
 - This is known as the *maximum tolerated dose* (MTD)
 - Based on a monotonicity assumption that the benefit (efficacy) of treatment increases with dose
 - Ethically, we would like to treat every patient at a dose just

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Key elements

- 1 A starting dose that will be given to the first patient
 - Often chosen as $\frac{1}{10}LD_{10}$ in mice (one tenth of the lethal dose in 10% of mice)
- 2 A toxicity outcome
 - Often binary (e.g. occurrence of a *dose-limiting toxicity* (DLT) is used in cancer trials)
- 3 A *target toxicity level* (TTL)
 - The desired toxicity at the MTD (e.g. cancer trials often propose 30% prevalence of DLT at the MTD)
- 4 A dose-escalation design
 - Rule or model based
 - Cohort size:- No. individuals treated at each dose level
 - Possible dose levels for experimentation
 - Sample size / stopping rules

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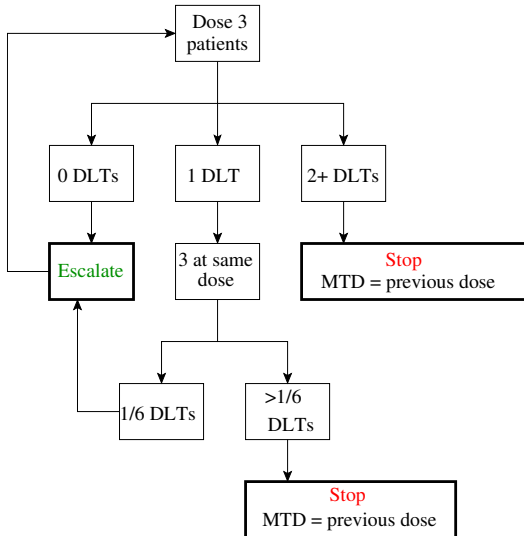
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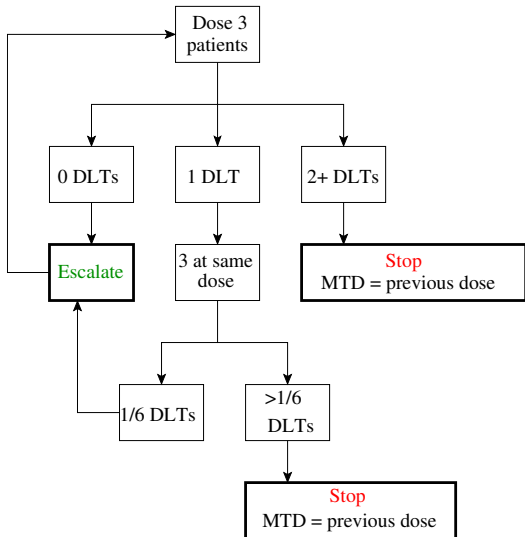
3+3 design with escalation only — *Storer(1989)* *Biometrics*



- Dose Limiting Toxicity (DLT)
- Simple rule based approach
- No need for a statistician
- Actual dose not used
- The data to declare an MTD are either 0/3 or 1/6

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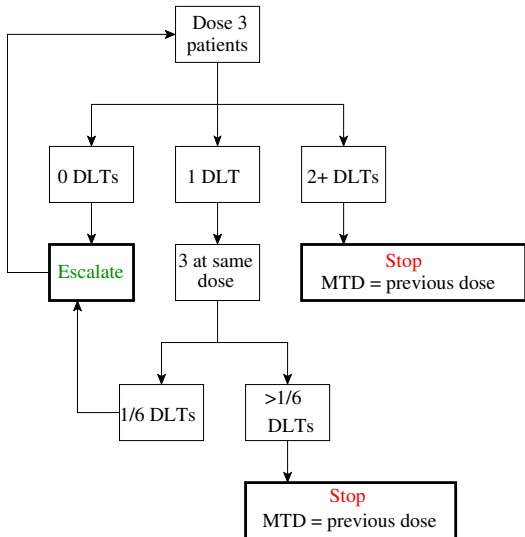
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Current opinion about the 3+3 design

Phase I trial design: Is 3+3 the best? — *Hansen et al.(2014)*
Cancer Control

The evidence from this review suggests that the 3+3 design identifies the recommended phase 2 dose and toxicities with an acceptable level of precision in some circumstances

Novel trial designs demonstrating superiority over the 3+3 method in statistical simulations without corroborating clinical evidence are of theoretical value alone

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The truth about the 3+3 design

Given such a simple system of rules there is no need for simulations

Lin and Shih (2001) Biostatistics

- Take one example with 4 doses
 - Let the true toxicity probabilities be (0.04, 0.29, 0.36, 0.74)
 - The percentage of patients experimented on each dose are (35%, 43%, 17%, 5%) —**averaged over all possible trials**
 - The recommended MTD probabilities are (48%, 31%, 19%, 0%), 2% no recommended doses
- The 3+3 design
 - is conservative if the TTL is 33%
 - can recommend MTDs with minimal toxicity
 - is **memoryless** — *O'Quigley and Zohar (2006) BJC*

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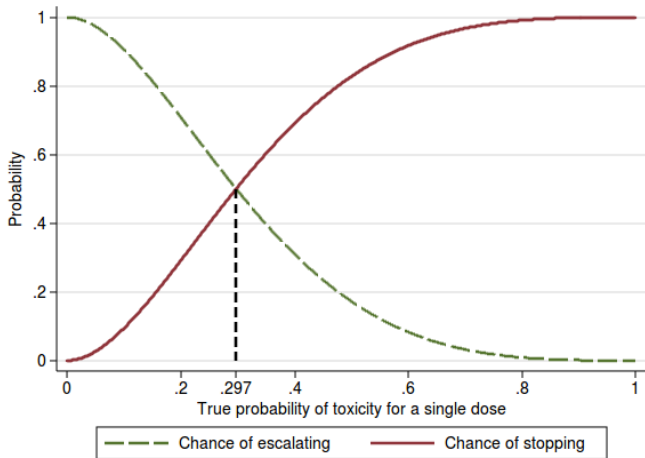
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The tipping point - 0.297 (Maximum TTL)

For any true toxicity probability for a single dose — the exact chance of escalating or stopping the 3 + 3 design



Final thought about the 3+3

The 3+3 design is about finding the **unknown** toxicity probabilities with an **unknown** target toxicity limit.

"... there are also unknown unknowns – the ones we don't know we don't know. And if one looks throughout the history of our country and other free countries, it is the latter category that tend to be the difficult ones." Donald Rumsfeld

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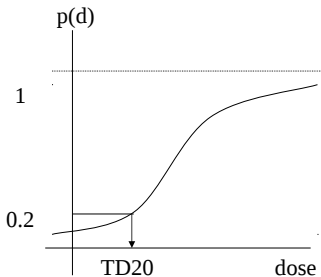
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Seeking a quantile

MTD – maximal dose acceptably tolerated by a particular patient population
→ vague

$TD_{100\pi}$ – dose at which the probability of toxicity is π
(for $0 < \pi < 1$), e.g. TD_{20}
→ more specific

$$p(d) = P(\text{toxicity} | \text{dose } d)$$



Assume that a 20% risk of toxicity is an acceptable risk to pay for a chance of benefit

General (Bayesian) approach

- 1 Make assumptions about the form of $p(d)$
- 2 Impose a prior distribution for the parameters that determine $p(d)$
- 3 Choose next dose to optimise some form of expected gain
- 4 Stop once target dose level can be estimated accurately enough

Continual Reassessment method (CRM)

O'Quigley et al (1990)

Dose schedule: $d_1 < \dots < d_k$

Response: $x = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for toxic response} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Objective: find TD20

Cohort size: 1

Prior guess of corresponding probabilities of toxicity at d_i

$$\pi_1 < \pi_2 < \dots < \pi_k$$

were $\pi_i = p(d_i)$ and the π_i are treated as fixed

One parameter log-log model

$$p(d_i) = \pi_i^\theta, \quad i = 1, \dots, k \quad \text{only } \theta \text{ is unknown}$$

That is

$$\log[-\log\{p(d_i)\}] = \log(\theta) + \log(-\log(\pi_i))$$

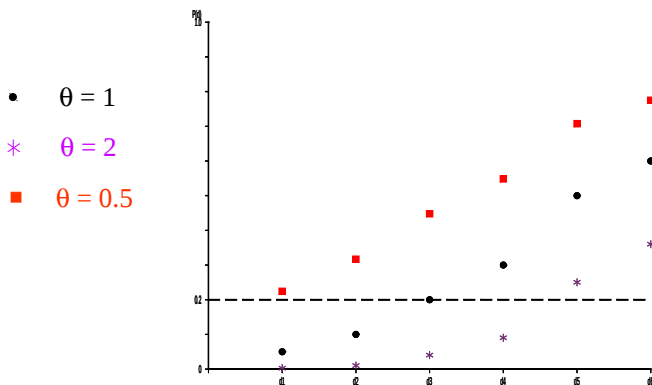
A Bayesian prior for θ is imposed: $\theta \sim \text{Exp}(1)$

so that $E_0(\theta) = 1$

Representation of the model

Starting values for the π_i

π_1	π_2	π_3	π_4	π_5	π_6
0.05	0.10	0.20	0.30	0.50	0.70



Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_s)$ be the data from the first s patients

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if no toxicity} \\ 1 & \text{if toxicity} \end{cases}$$

PRIOR \rightarrow BAYES THEOREM \rightarrow POSTERIOR

CRM then uses

$$\pi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \pi_i^{E(\theta|\mathbf{x})}$$

as the updated estimate of $p(d_i)$, identifies which $\pi_i(\mathbf{x})$ is closest to 0.2, and uses corresponding dose next

- one parameter model rather than two parameters: the dose-response relationship is well estimated close to the TD20, but not elsewhere
- non-standard log-log model: more usual one is a complementary log-log model CLOGLOG
- pre-defined $\pi_i, i = 1, \dots, k$ are decided by investigators
- the prior is imposed not elicited
- A non-Bayesian version exists (O'Quigley J, Shen LZ, 1998)

- Dose levels $d_{(1)} < \dots < d_{(k)}$

$$p(d_{(j)}) = \frac{\exp\{\phi_1 + \phi_2 \log(d_{(j)})\}}{1 + \exp\{\phi_1 + \phi_2 \log(d_{(j)})\}}$$

for all $j = 1, \dots, k$.

- Logistic regression model

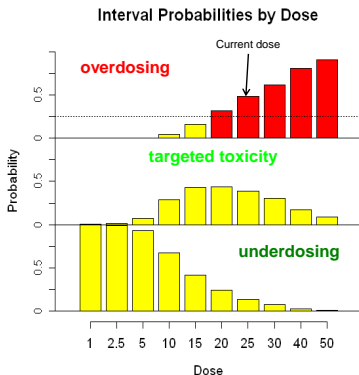
- Specify two quantiles for probability of toxicity at each dose level
- Define prior distribution for $(\phi_1; \phi_2)$ such that they are in close agreement with the above

Dose escalation and stopping

Choose recommended dose, d , such that

- probability of overdosing
 $P(\text{DLT rate} > 0.33 \mid d) < 0.2$
- probability of target toxicity
 $P(\text{DLT rate} \in (0.16; 0.33) \mid d) \geq 0.5$
- probability of underdosing
 $P(\text{DLT rate} < 0.16 \mid d) < 0.3$

is controlled.



- Widely used in industry now
- Specifying priors can be time consuming
- Requires MCMC
- Very intuitive dose-selection

- Dose levels $d_{(1)} < \dots < d_{(k)}$

$$p(d_{(j)}) = \frac{\exp\{\phi_1 + \phi_2 \log(d_{(j)})\}}{1 + \exp\{\phi_1 + \phi_2 \log(d_{(j)})\}}$$

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- Logistic regression model

Specifying the prior

- Specify two dose levels (low and high)
- Illicit probability of toxicity at these levels from experts
- Determine how many patients this information is worth
- Adjust to start escalation at lowest dose
- Include “pseudo-patients” in analysis based on above

Note: This corresponds to using a beta-prior on $p(d)$.

An example

- Dose-levels 25, 50, . . . , 500mg
- probability of toxicity at 25mg = 0.02
- probability of toxicity at 500mg = 0.50
- Each worth 3 patients

⇒ Include $0.02 \times 3 = 0.06$ toxicities on 25mg and 0.5×3 on 500mg

⇒ Include 0.2×3 toxicities on 25mg and $0.68 \times 3 = 2.04$ on 500mg

Allocate next dose that

- is current TD20 (Patient gain)
- allows learning most about dose-toxicity relationship (Variance gain)
- other

Note: Usually subject to some additional safety rule

Stopping escalation

- When maximum number of patients has been recruited
- When we can estimate TD20 accurately enough
 - Determine current TD20
 - Find corresponding 95% credibility interval
 - Stop if the ratio of the upper and lower bound < 5

- Easy to elicit priors from experts
- Any software that can fit logistic model can be used
- Prior (typically) pessimistic to ensure no additional rules necessary
- Not possible to use more complex rules for dose selection without MCMC

Time-to-event (TITE) monitoring

- Binary outcomes (toxicity / no toxicity) commonly used in Phase I trials
- Adverse events defined over a time-horizon T in which the drug is assumed to act
- For each cohort we must wait period T before choosing dose for next cohort
- The TITE-CRM (Cheung, Chappell, *Biometrics* 2000) accelerates dose-escalation by using information on time-to-toxicity
 - Original CRM likelihood, n patients

$$L(\alpha; \mathbf{y}_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \pi(d(i); \alpha)^{y_i} (1 - \pi(d(i); \alpha))^{(1-y_i)}$$

- TITE-CRM likelihood uses a weighted dose-response model. At time t after start of recruitment

$$L(\alpha; \mathbf{y}_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \pi(d(i); \alpha)^{y_{i,t}} (1 - w_{i,t} \pi(d(i); \alpha))^{(1-y_{i,t})}$$

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- $y_{i,t} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if patient } i \text{ has experienced a toxicity by time } t \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $w_{i,t}$ is a weight assigned to patient i at time t
 - Can be thought of as the probability that a toxicity occurs in patient i by time t , conditional on it occurring within time horizon T
 - The function used for w is as follows:

$$w_{i,t} = \begin{cases} (t - t_{i,0})/T & \text{if } y_{i,t} = 0 \text{ and } t - t_{i,0} < T \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $t_{i,0}$ is the time patient i first receives treatment

- TITE-CRM has been shown to dramatically improve speed of recruitment, whilst still being comparatively safe
 - Safety can be compromised if many toxicities occur near end of time horizon T

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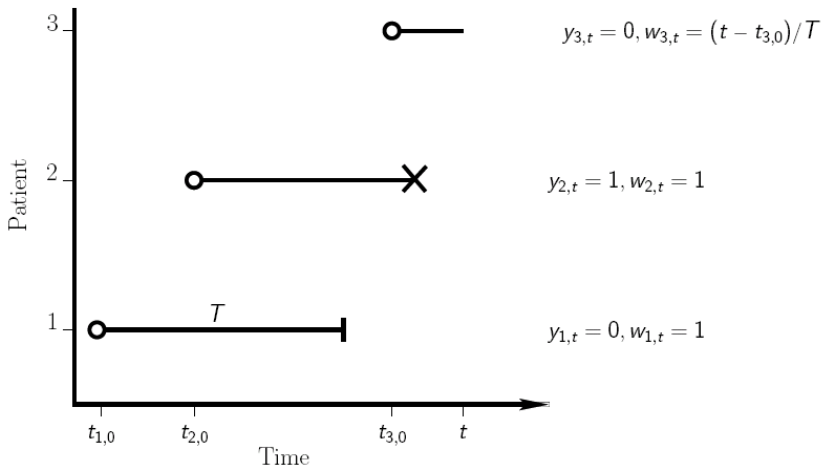
- $y_{i,t} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if patient } i \text{ has experienced a toxicity by time } t \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $w_{i,t}$ is a weight assigned to patient i at time t
 - Can be thought of as the probability that a toxicity occurs in patient i by time t , conditional on it occurring within time horizon T
 - The function used for w is as follows:

$$w_{i,t} = \begin{cases} (t - t_{i,0})/T & \text{if } y_{i,t} = 0 \text{ and } t - t_{i,0} < T \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $t_{i,0}$ is the time patient i first receives treatment

- TITE-CRM has been shown to dramatically improve speed of recruitment, whilst still being comparatively safe
 - Safety can be compromised if many toxicities occur near end of time horizon T

Time-to-event (TITE) monitoring



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