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Adaptive designs in clinical trials

- Group sequential design
  - allow early stopping for efficacy/futility
  - help to allocate resources more efficiently
  - control the overall study-wide Type I error rate
- Adaptive randomization
  - randomization rate - the probabilities of allocating patients to different treatment arms
  - assign patients to a better performing regimen
  - balance prognostic factors among intervention arms
  - increase power over traditional balanced randomization designs and minimize expected treatment failures
- Bayesian adaptive design
  - incorporating prior information
  - reduce the number of required participants
  - adaptive randomization

Bayesian sequential design with adaptive randomization

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Bayesian sequential design with adaptive randomization (BSDAR)

- Use alpha spending function to control the study-wide overall type I error rate
- Randomization rates change adaptively at each interim analysis
- Allow to stop the trial early for efficacy

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Purpose: test the difference between a novel (treatment) and an established (control) treatment.
Assume

$$X_{Ti} \overset{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_T, \sigma_T^2), i = 1, \ldots, n_T, \qquad X_{Ci} \overset{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_C, \sigma_C^2), i = 1, \ldots, n_C,$$

where μ_T, μ_C, σ_T^2 and σ_C^2 are unknown.
The hypotheses to be tested are,

$$H_0 : \mu_T = \mu_C \text{ v.s. } H_a : \mu_T \neq \mu_C$$

Prior work by Zhu and Yu (2015): a Bayesian sequential design using alpha spending function to control type I error (BSDASF),
$H_a : \mu_T > \mu_C$, σ_T^2 and σ_C^2 are known.

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Prior distributions for μ_C, σ_C^2

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_C|\sigma_C^2 &\sim N(\mu_0, \sigma_C^2/\tau), \\ \sigma_C^2 &\sim Inv-\chi^2(\nu_0, \sigma_0^2), \end{aligned}$$

- μ_0, σ_0^2, historical data and knowledge
- τ, control the similarity between μ_C and μ_0
  A small τ indicates large uncertainty of the similarity (Berry et al., 2010).
- σ_0^2, an estimate of the variance σ_C^2
- ν_0, how much we can depend on the prior information

A *non-informative prior* for μ_T and σ_T^2

$$p(\mu_T, \sigma_T^2) \propto (\sigma_T^2)^{-1}$$

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At the jth interim analysis, $n(t_j) = n_T(t_j) + n_C(t_j)$. Given the interim data $\vec{\mathbf{x}}_{Tj}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{x}}_{Cj}$ at t_j, the marginal posterior distributions for σ_T^2 and σ_C^2 are

$$p(\sigma_T^2 \mid \vec{\mathbf{x}}_{Tj}) \sim Inv-\chi^2(n_T(t_j)-1, s_{Tj}^2), \quad (1)$$

$$p(\sigma_C^2 \mid \vec{\mathbf{x}}_{Cj}, \tau, \mu_0, \nu_0, \sigma_0^2) \sim Inv-\chi^2(\nu_{nj}, \sigma_{nj}^2), \quad (2)$$

where
$\nu_{nj} = \nu_0 + n_C(t_j), \nu_{nj}\sigma_{nj}^2 = \nu_0\sigma_0^2 + (n_C(t_j)-1)s_{Cj}^2 + \frac{\tau n_C(t_j)}{\tau + n_C(t_j)}(\bar{x}_{Cj} - \mu_0)^2$.
The conditional posterior distribution of $\mu_T - \mu_C$ is

$$p(\mu_T - \mu_C \mid \sigma_T^2, \vec{\mathbf{x}}_{Tj}, \sigma_C^2, \vec{\mathbf{x}}_{Cj}, \tau, \mu_0, \nu_0, \sigma_0^2) \sim N(u, \sigma^2), \quad (3)$$

where $u = \bar{x}_{Tj} - \mu_{nj}$ and variance $\sigma^2 = \sigma_T^2/n_T(t_j) + \sigma_C^2/\tau_{nj}$,
$\mu_{nj} = \frac{\tau}{\tau + n_C(t_j)}\mu_0 + \frac{n_C(t_j)}{\tau + n_C(t_j)}\bar{x}_{Cj}, \tau_{nj} = \tau + n_C(t_j)$.

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Type I error under the Bayesian setting - the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true (Casella and Berger, 2002).
Alpha spending functions (Lan and DeMets, 1983; Kim and DeMets, 1987; Zhu and Yu, 2015; Zhu et al., 2017)

- Information fraction at the jth interim analysis, $t_j^* = n(t_j)/n$, where n is the maximum allowed sample size
- Non-decreasing function $\alpha(t^*)$
- $\alpha(0) = 0, \alpha(1) = \alpha$, where α is the desired significance level

Alpha spending function

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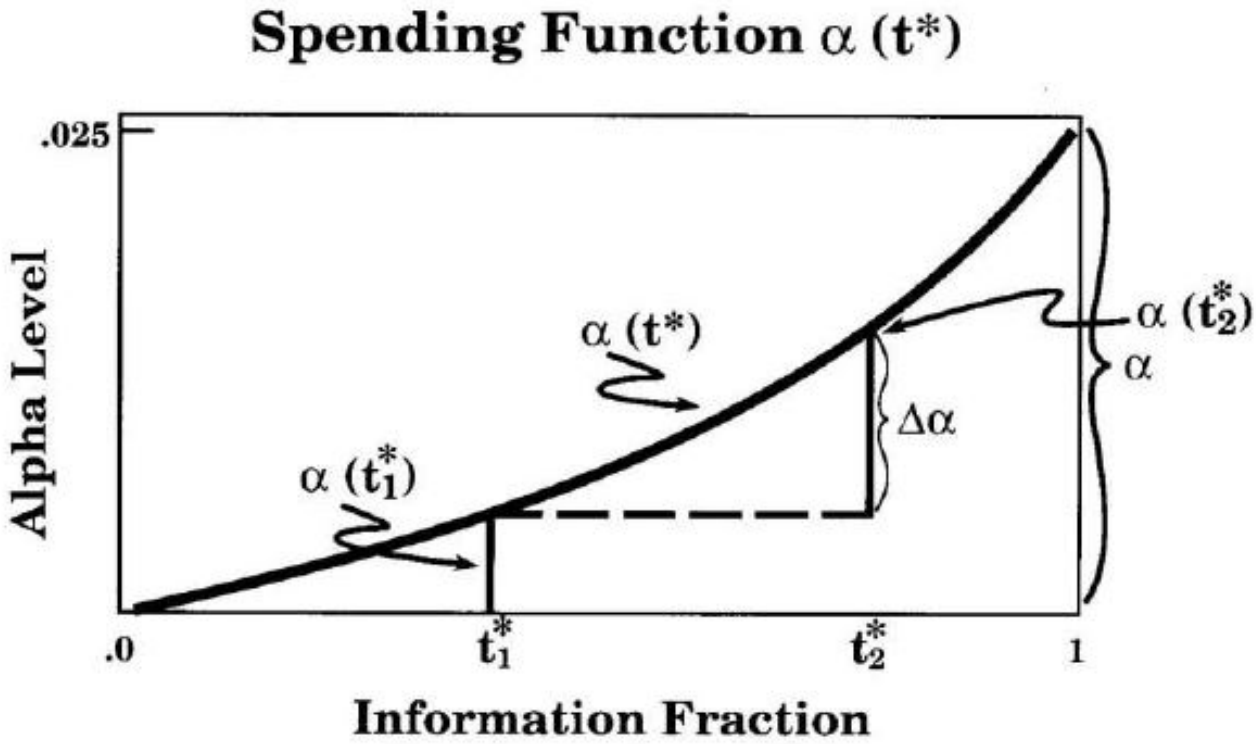

Figure 1: Alpha spending function indicating additional type I error rate $\triangle\alpha$, allocated between interim analyses (DeMets and Lan, 1995).

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Four types of alpha spending functions:

- O'Brien–Fleming alpha spending function (OF)
  $\alpha_1(t^*) = 2 - 2\Phi(z_{\alpha/2}/\sqrt{t^*})$,
  where Φ is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution,
- Pocock alpha spending function
  $\alpha_2(t^*) = \alpha \log\{1 + (e-1)t^*\}$
- Uniform alpha spending function
  $\alpha_3(t^*) = t^*\alpha$
- Equal alpha spending function
  the traditional method that sets equal critical values for all t^*, predetermined through simulations.

Alpha spending function

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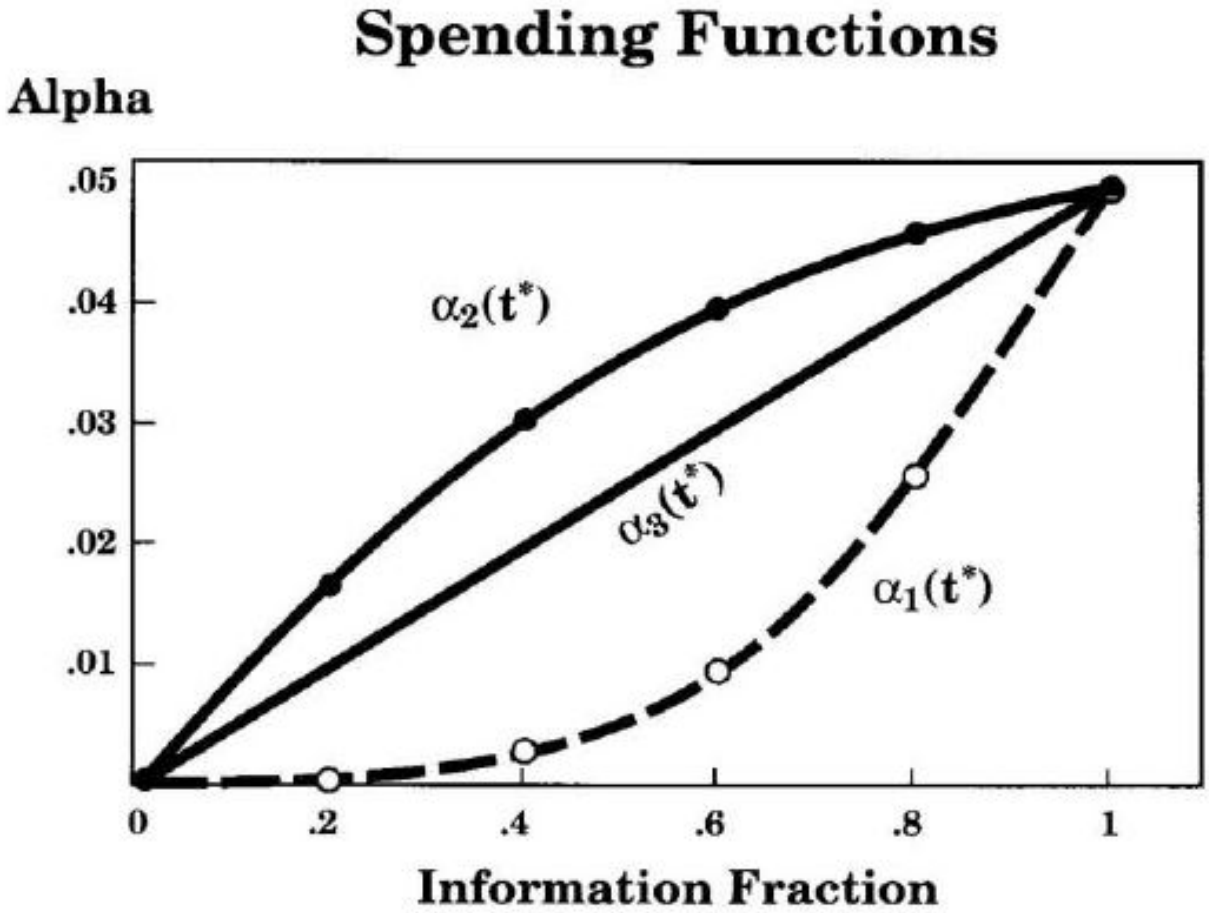

Figure 2: Comparison of alpha spending functions (DeMets and Lan, 1995).

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Randomization rate $r_T(t_j)$ - the distribution rate of the newly recruited $n(t_{j+1}) - n(t_j)$ patients to be assigned to the treatment group after the jth interim analysis.

$$r_T(t_j) = \min\left\{\max\left(\frac{\hat{\sigma}_{Tj} n_C(t_j) + \hat{\sigma}_{Tj}\tau + \hat{\sigma}_{Tj}(n(t_{j+1}) - n(t_j)) - \hat{\sigma}_{Cj} n_T(t_j)}{(\hat{\sigma}_{Tj} + \hat{\sigma}_{Cj})(n(t_{j+1}) - n(t_j))}, 0\right), 1\right\}, \tag{4}$$

where $\hat{\sigma}_{Tj}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{Cj}$ are the estimates of σ_T and σ_C from the jth interim analysis (see Equations (1)–(2)).

Lemma

Under the settings described in Slide 4–6, and given the information obtained up till the jth interim analysis, assigning patients to the treatment group at the randomization rate defined by Equation (4) after the jth interim analysis can achieve the minimum variance estimation for the testing statistic, $\hat{\mu}_T - \hat{\mu}_C = \bar{x}_{Tj} - \mu_{nj}$ (the posterior mean by Equation (3)).

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The impact of the parameters μ_0, τ, ν_0, σ_0^2 in the prior distributions of μ_C and σ_C^2 on the randomization rates and decision bounds

- $\mu_C = 0$, $\sigma_C = 1$, $\mu_T = 0$, $\sigma_T = 5$,
- $\mu_0 = 0$, $\tau = 0.1$, $\nu_0 = 6$, $\sigma_0^2 = 1$,
- $r_T(t_0) = 0.5$, $n = 100$
- Five equal-interval interim analyses planned at $t_1^* = 0.2$, $t_2^* = 0.4$, $t_3^* = 0.6$, $t_4^* = 0.8$, and $t_5^* = 1$

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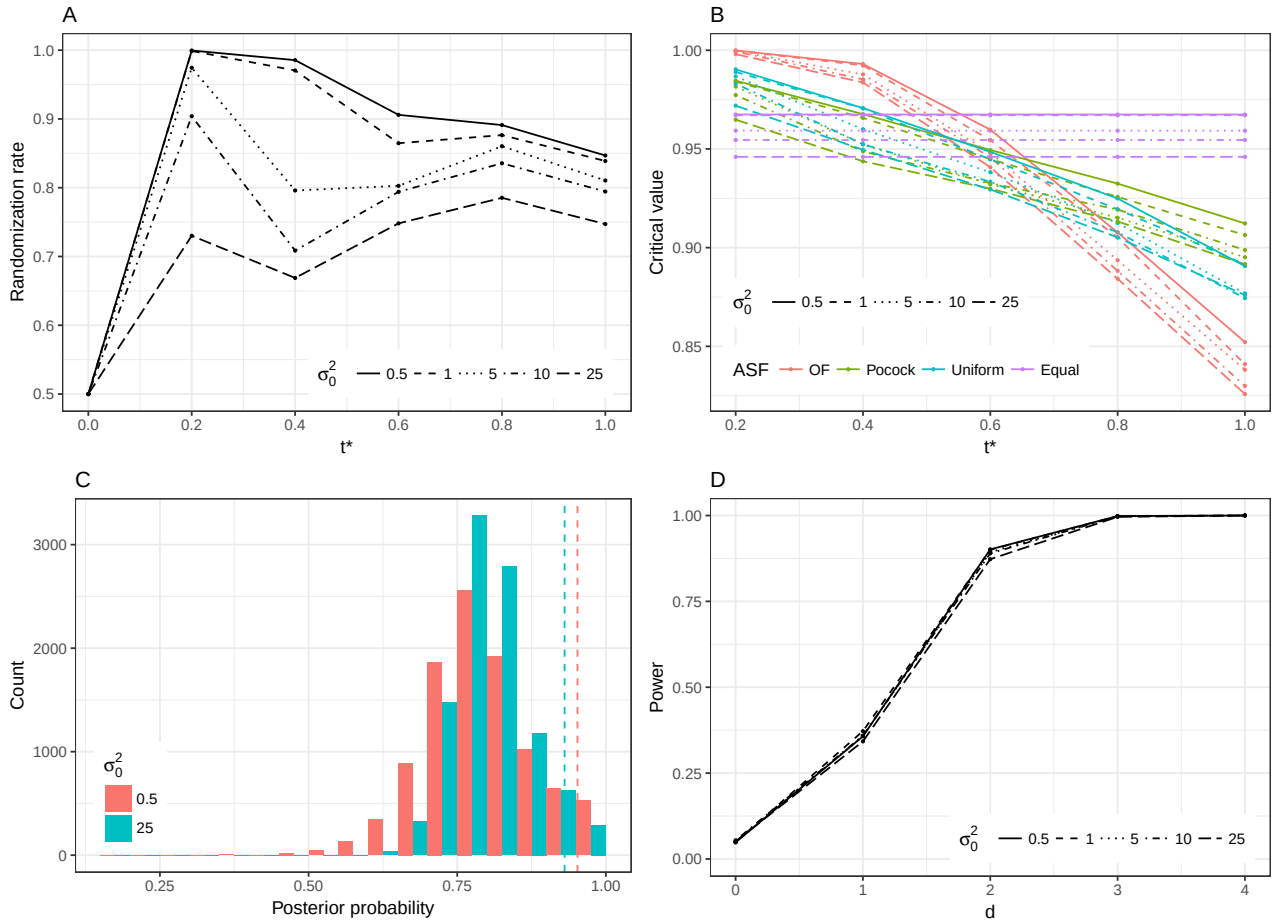

Figure 3: Comparison of (A) randomization rates, (B) critical values, $N_{rep} = 2000$, critical values are averaged over 20 replicates; (C) histograms of posterior probabilities at the 1st interim analysis in 10000 simulated trials (OF); (D) powers of BSDAR, $N_{rep} = 10000$.

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Compare the powers and required sample sizes on testing the hypotheses between BSDAR and a Bayesian sequential design without adaptive randomization

- $\mu_C = 0$, $\sigma_C = 1$, $\sigma_T = 5$, $d = \mu_T - \mu_C$
- $\mu_0 = 0$, $\tau = 0.1$, $\nu_0 = 6$, $\sigma_0^2 = 1$
- $r_T(t_0) = 0.5$

Compare the powers, required sample sizes, and randomization rates of BSDAR when different alpha spending functions are used.

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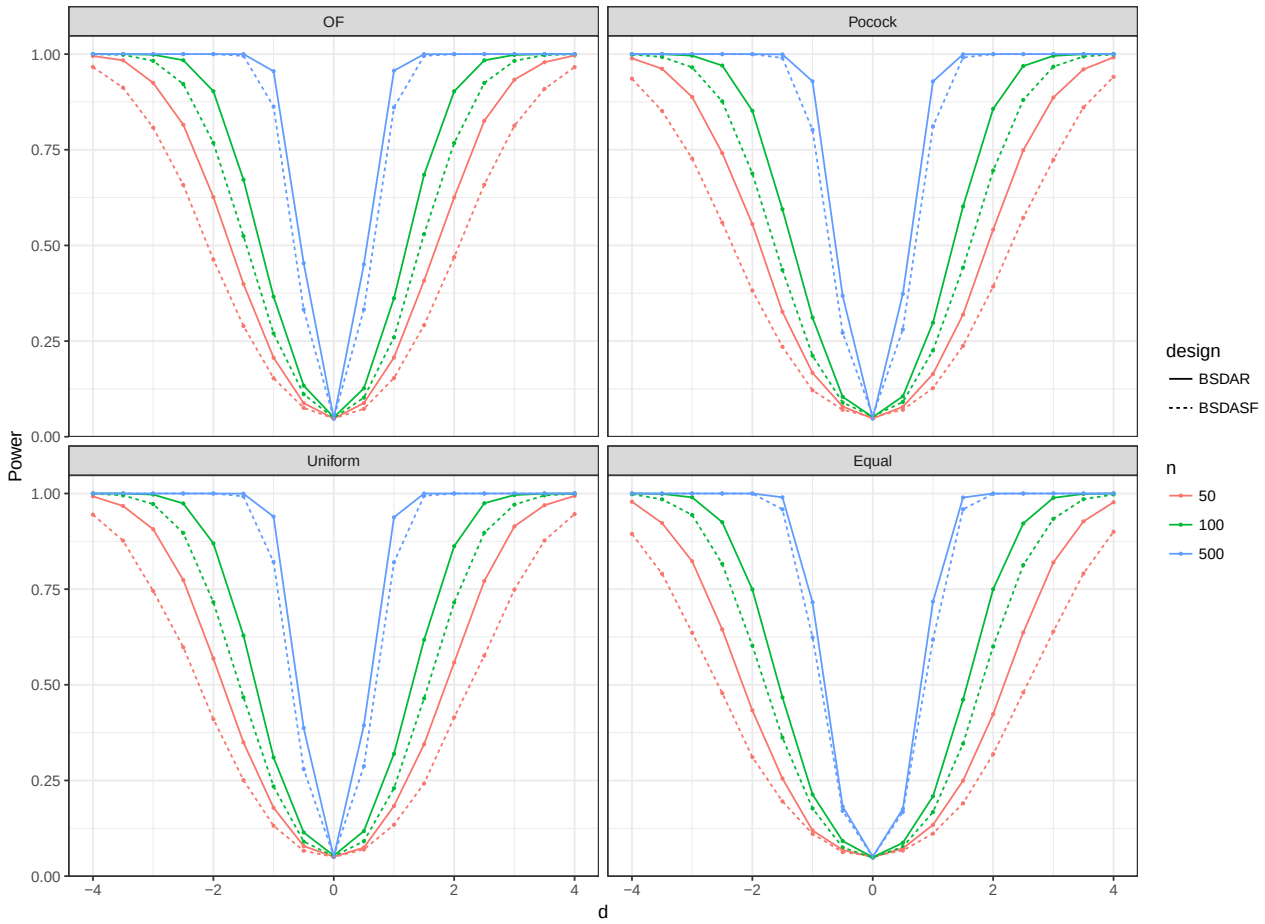

Figure 4: Compare the powers between BSDAR (solid) and a Bayesian sequential design without adaptive randomization (dashed) with different alpha spending functions at $n = 50$ (red), 100 (green), and 500 (blue) when $\delta = 0.64$, $J = 5$, obtained using $N_{rep} = 10000$.

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A clinical trial for diabetic patients

- Primary endpoint: the change from baseline in HbA1c (glycosylated hemoglobin) after 24 weeks of treatment
- Objective: to test if the treatment is different from the control in reducing HbA1c
- 508 patients were enrolled
- 168 patients in the control group with a mean reduction in HbA1c of 0.0042 mmol (variance $= 0.6394$)
- 340 patients in the treatment group with a mean reduction of 0.5218 mmol (variance $= 1.5672$)
- Conclusion: compared with the control group, the HbA1c was significantly reduced in the treatment group (p-value < 0.0001) by an ANOVA analysis.

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To apply BSDAR to this trial,

- 10 interim analyses are evenly planned over the clinical trial, i.e. $t_1^* = 50/508, t_2^* = 100/508, \ldots, t_{10}^* = 1$
- Prior parameters, $\mu_0 = 0$, $\tau = 0.1$, $\nu_0 = 6$, $\sigma_0^2 = 1$
- $r_T(t_0) = 0.5$

Table 1: Compare the required sample sizes of BSDAR and that of a Bayesian sequential design without adaptive randomization using different alpha spending functions.

	BSDAR				w/o adaptive randomization		
	n	n_T	n_C	*ratio*	n	n_T	n_C
O'Brien–Fleming	150	91	59	0.78	200	100	100
Pocock	100	62	38	0.66	150	75	75
Uniform	100	60	40	0.66	150	75	75
Equal	100	61	39	0.66	150	75	75

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To study how the allocation of interim analyses can influence the required sample sizes, we adopt the O'Brien–Fleming alpha spending function to control the overall type I error rate and assume the following six scenarios of interim analysis:

A. 10 evenly spaced interim analyses over 200 total sample size, i.e. $t_1^* = 20/200, t_2^* = 40/200, \ldots, t_{10}^* = 1$;
B. 4 evenly spaced interim analyses over 200 total sample size, i.e. $t_1^* = 50/200, t_2^* = 100/200, t_3^* = 150/200, t_4^* = 1$;
C. 4 unevenly spaced interim analyses over 200 total sample size, with $t_1^* = 80/200, t_2^* = 100/200, t_3^* = 140/200, t_4^* = 1$;
D. 3 evenly spaced interim analyses over 150 total sample size, i.e. $t_1^* = 50/150, t_2^* = 100/150, t_3^* = 1$;
E. 6 evenly spaced interim analyses over 150 total sample size, i.e. $t_1^* = 30/150, t_2^* = 60/150, \ldots, t_6^* = 1$;
F. 4 unevenly spaced interim analyses over 150 total sample size, with $t_1^* = 60/150, t_2^* = 100/150, t_3^* = 130/150, t_4^* = 1$.

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Table 2: Compare the required sample sizes used by BSDAR and that by a Bayesian sequential design without adaptive randomization for different scenarios when O'Brien–Fleming alpha spending function is used.

	BSDAR				w/o adaptive randomization		
Scenario	n	n_T	n_C	*ratio*	n	n_T	n_C
A	100	63	37	0.64	120	60	60
B	100	58	42	0.66	150	75	75
C	100	60	40	1.00	140	70	70
D	100	53	47	0.66	150	75	75
E	90	53	37	0.78	120	60	60
F	100	58	42	0.75	130	65	65

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Advantages

- attribute newly recruited patients to different treatment arms more efficiently
- reduce required sample size
- improve the power of tests at a given sample size

Discussions

- BSDAR with O'Brien–Fleming alpha spending function has the largest power but is also related with the largest required sample size
- choose a τ smaller than 1 when not enough information of μ_C is available
- change randomization rate in favor of the treatment arm that is currently empirically superior

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