Group Sequential Monitoring of Clinical

Trials with 3 or More Treatments

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Group Sequential Trials with 3 or More Treatments

Plan of talk

Global tests

Monitoring pairwise comparisons

Selection procedures

Selection and testing methods

1. Global tests

Consider a comparison of k treatments, and possibly a control treatment.

We could test

 H_0 : All treatment means are equal

by a group sequential χ^2 test (similar to the comparison of two treatments with multiple endpoints).

But on rejecting H_0 we would most likely ask:

Which treatment is the best?

Which other treatments does this one beat?

Is it better than the control?

2. Pairwise comparisons

We may wish to test

 H_0 : All pairs of k treatments are equal, or

 H_0 : Each of k treatments is equal to a control.

Follmann, Proschan & Geller (*Biometrics*, 1994) present group sequential tests of either H_0 using Pocock and O'Brien & Fleming type boundaries.

Let $Z_{ij,m}$ be the standardised statistic for comparing treatments i and j at analysis m out of M.

A Pocock-type test rejects H_0 if

$$|Z_{ij,m}| > C_P,$$

where C_P depends on the choice of H_0 , M, k and lpha.

Pairwise comparisons

An O'Brien & Fleming-type test rejects H_0 if

 $|Z_{ij,m}| > C_B \sqrt{(M/m)}.$

Constants C_P and C_B are chosen to guarantee an *overall* error probability of wrongly rejecting H_0 .

FPG note a simple Bonferroni approximation is only slightly conservative.

Treatments may be dropped in the course of the trial if they are significantly inferior to others.

"Step-down" procedures allow critical values for remaining comparisons to be reduced after some treatments have been discarded.

Focus here: Making comparisons; type I error rate rather than power.

3. Selection procedures

Suppose for each "population" or "treatment" $i = 1, \ldots, k$,

$$X_{i1}, X_{i2}, \ldots \sim N(\theta_i, \sigma^2).$$

Aim: To select the population i with the largest mean θ_i .

The equivalent of *power* is a requirement on the probability of correct selection under certain sets of means $(\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k)$.

Methods will include:

- Early elimination of weak treatments.
- Response-dependent treatment allocation to reduce the inferior treatment number and total sample size.

Earlier work

Paulson (Ann. Math. Statist., 1964)

Elimination procedures based on *continuous* sequential comparisons

of 2 populations at a time.

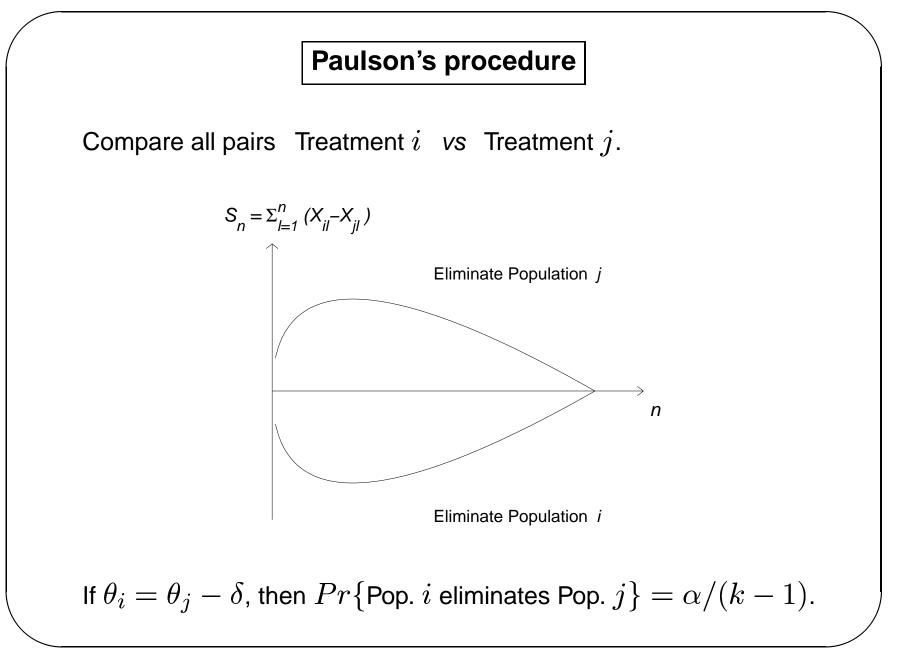
Robbins and Siegmund (JASA, 1974)

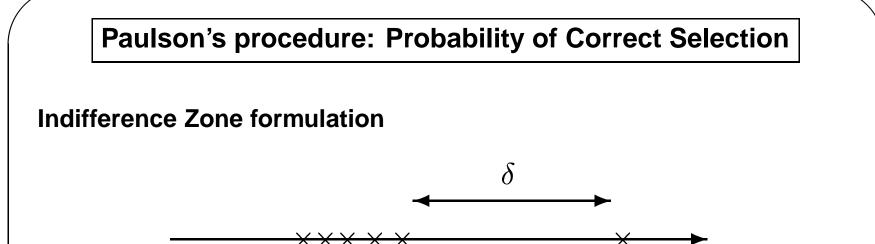
Adaptive sampling for a 2 population comparison with continuous monitoring.

Jennison, Johnstone and Turnbull (Purdue Symposium, 1982)

Combining the above.

Update: To take advantage of group sequential tests, error spending, modern computation.





Suppose $\theta_i \leq \theta_k - \delta$ for $i = 1, \ldots, k - 1$.

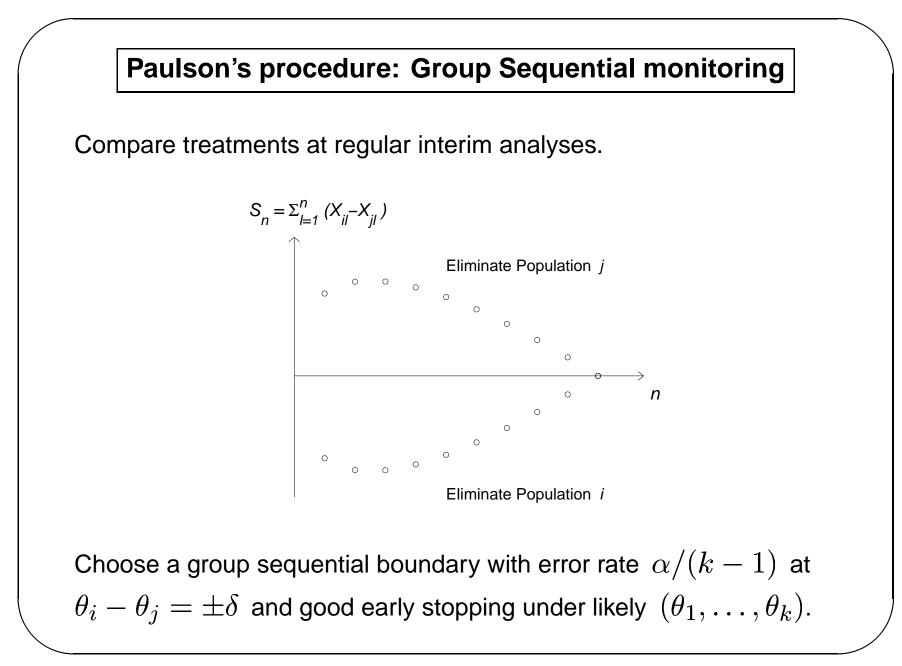
Then

Pr{Population k is eliminated at some stage}

 $\leq \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} Pr\{$ Pop. i eliminates Pop. k at some stage $\}$

 θ

$$\leq (k-1)\frac{\alpha}{k-1} = \alpha.$$



Adaptive sampling in Paulson's procedure

Motivation

Observations on the leading population are used in k-1 comparisons.

Allocating more observations to the leader can

- Reduce total sample size
- Reduce observations on inferior treatments
 - ethical for medical studies
 - we learn more about better treatments.

Need:

Theory to support adaptive sampling in each pair-wise comparison.

Adaptive sampling in a group sequential test

Jennison and Turnbull (Sequential Analysis, 2001)

For a 2-treatment comparison with

$$X_{1i} \sim N(\theta_1, \sigma^2) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots,$$

 $X_{2i} \sim N(\theta_2, \sigma^2) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots.$

At analysis m out of M, with n_{1m} observations on population 1 and n_{2m} on population 2,

$$\begin{split} \widehat{\theta}_{1m} - \widehat{\theta}_{2m} &= \bar{X}_{1m} - \bar{X}_{2m} \,\sim \, N(\theta_1 - \theta_2, \, \sigma^2 \{ \frac{1}{n_{1m}} + \frac{1}{n_{2m}} \}) \\ &\sim \, N(\theta_1 - \theta_2, \, \mathcal{I}_m^{-1}), \quad \text{say.} \end{split}$$

Adaptive sampling

The score statistic

$$S_m = \mathcal{I}_m(\widehat{\theta}_{1m} - \widehat{\theta}_{2m}) \sim N(\{\theta_1 - \theta_2\} \mathcal{I}_m, \mathcal{I}_m).$$

Without adaptive sampling, $\{S_1, S_2, \ldots\}$ is distributed as a Brownian motion with drift $\theta_1 - \theta_2$ observed at $\mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2, \ldots$.

This remains true if group sizes $n_{1m} - n_{1,m-1}$ and $n_{2m} - n_{2,m-1}$ depend on $\hat{\theta}_{1,m-1} - \hat{\theta}_{2,m-1}$ — but sampling *cannot* depend more generally on $(\hat{\theta}_{1,m-1}, \hat{\theta}_{2,m-1})$.

Theory generalises to normal linear models containing θ_1 and θ_2 .

This extends Robbins and Siegmund (1974) to the group sequential case.

Problem 1

With $k \geq 3$, sampling rules of interest do not satisfy

"*m* th group sizes for populations 1 and 2 depend only on $\widehat{\theta}_{1,m-1} - \widehat{\theta}_{2,m-1}$ ".

Solution

- Fix sampling ratios at the start of each group,
- estimate $\theta_i \theta_j$ within each group of data,
- combine estimates with weights \propto variance⁻¹.

This equates to fitting a linear model with additive "stage" effects

- also recommended to avoid bias from time trends.

JT (2001) assess performance of 2-treatment tests:

With stage effects in the model, one cannot compensate later on for sub-optimal sampling ratios in early stages. Savings in Inferior Treatment Numbers are reduced by about a half.

- Fitting stage effects to avoid bias from a time trend is reasonable.
- If such a trend is not really present, data are being used inefficiently
 - ethically questionable for medical studies

JJT (1982) took a "heuristic" line, running simulations of their methods without stage effects — and no apparent harm to error rates.

Problem 2

Information levels for comparing populations $\,i\,$ and $\,j\,$

 $\mathcal{I}_{ij,1}, \mathcal{I}_{ij,2}, \mathcal{I}_{ij,3}, \ldots,$

depend on the sampling rule, which involves $S_{ij,1}, S_{ij,2}, S_{ij,3}, \ldots$

Standard group sequential designs, including error spending tests, do not allow such a dependence.

Solution A

Reported studies of such "data-dependent analysis times" show only minor effects on error probabilities — trust these studies and ignore the problem!

Solution B

Recent designs which "adapt" to observed data offer a precise solution:

Denne (Statistics in Medicine, 2001),

Müller and Schäfer (Biometrics, 2001).

Procedure

- Set up an error spending test for anticipated $\{\mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2, \dots\}$
- \bullet Recursively for $\,m=1,2,\ldots$,
 - At analysis m, compute conditional error probabilities given S_m
 - Run stages m+1 to M as an error spending test with this conditional error.

A sampling rule (JJT, 1982)

In comparing N-1 populations with a control, the most efficient allocation is

 $\sqrt{N-1}$ observations on the control to

 $1\,$ observation on each other population.

Adaptive rule:

At stage m, with N_m non-eliminated populations, sample

 $\sqrt{N_m-1}$ observations on the leading population to

 $1\,$ observation on each other population.

An updated procedure

Eliminate populations using Paulson's pair-wise comparisons.

Run these comparisons as error spending group sequential tests.

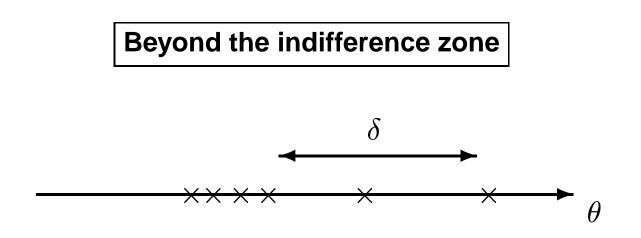
a) Base tests on overall population means (cf JJT, 1982)

Sample in stage m to achieve ratios $\sqrt{N_m - 1} : 1 : \ldots : 1$ of total observations on the N_m surviving populations.

b) Combine stage-wise estimates of each $\theta_i - \theta_j$

Sample in ratios $\sqrt{N_m - 1} : 1 : \ldots : 1$ within stage m.

Problem 1 is dealt with properly in (b); Problem 2 is ignored (Solution A!)



What if there is a θ_i within δ of the highest θ_j ?

It should be OK to select a population within δ of the best. But can a non-optimal population eliminate the best, then be eliminated itself?

Kao and Lai (*Comm. Statist. Th. Meth.*, 1980) provide a solution, raising the boundary for any pair-wise elimination before the final decision.

This method works for Paulson's procedure with adaptive sampling and can be extended to choosing the best s populations out of k.

4. Selection and testing methods

Aim: Conduct a single study to select a treatment (e.g., dose level) and test for superiority to a control — maybe combining phase II and III trials.

Two-stage procedures are proposed by:

Thall, Simon and Ellenberg (Biometrika, 1988)

Schaid, Wieand and Therneau (Biometrika, 1990)

Stallard and Todd (Statist. in Medicine, 2003)

Stage 1:

Compare k experimental treatments and 1 control.

Stage 2:

If appropriate, continue with selected treatments vs the control.

Selection and testing

The 3 papers consider 3 different response types (binary, survival, general) but generic normal test statistics are used in each case.

We shall look at the TSE procedure in detail:

Index control treatment by 0, experimental treatments by 1,...,k.

Stage 1

Take n_1 observations per treatment and control.

Denote standardised statistic for comparing treatment j against control by $T_{j,1}$ and let the maximum of these be $T_{j^*,1}$.

If $T_{j^*,1} > C_1$, select treatment j^* and proceed to Stage 2, if $T_{j^*,1} \le C_1$, stop and accept $H_0: \theta_0 = \theta_1 = \ldots = \theta_k$.

Selection and testing

Stage 2

Take n_2 further observations on selected treatment, j^* , and control. Combine data from both stages in the standardised statistic $T_{j^*,2}$.

If $T_{j^*,2} > C_2$, reject H_0 and conclude $\theta_{j^*} > \theta_0$, if $T_{j^*,2} \le C_2$, accept H_0 .

Values of n_1 , n_2 , C_1 and C_2 need to be chosen to satisfy type I error and power conditions.

There is additional freedom to tune the procedure's performance, e.g., minimise expected sample size in certain situations.

Type I error and power

The experimental treatment $\,j^*\,$ is said to be "chosen" if

treatment j^* is selected at the end of Stage 1, and

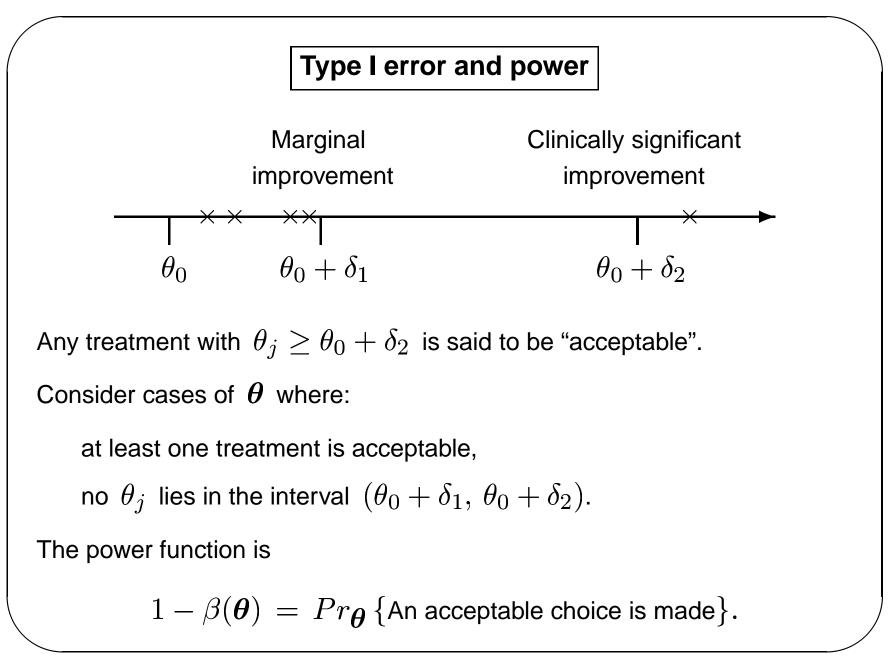
 H_0 is rejected in favour of $\theta_{j^*} > \theta_0$ at Stage 2.

The type I error rate is

 Pr_{θ} {Any experimental treatment is chosen}

under H_0 : $\theta_0 = \theta_1 = \ldots = \theta_k$.

Power depends on the full vector $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$.



Type I error and power

TSE show that, over cases as described above, $1 - \beta(\theta)$ is minimised under the *least favourable configuration:*

$$\theta_1 = \ldots = \theta_{k-1} = \theta_0 + \delta_1$$
 and $\theta_k = \theta_0 + \delta_2$.

They call this configuration θ^* and specify a value for $1 - \beta(\theta^*)$ as their power condition.

Numerical integration is feasible under H_0 and θ^* . Hence, parameters n_1 , n_2 , C_1 and C_2 satisfying the type I error and power conditions can be found.

Tests minimising expected sample size averaged over these two cases are found by searching feasible parameter combinations.

The Thall, Simon and Ellenberg procedure

Comments on the TSE two-stage procedure

Inclusion of the control treatment in Stage 1 is important: it allows results from that stage to be pooled with the data on treatment j^* vs the control in Stage 2.

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The type II errors under {m 	heta}^* comprise
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mostly: failure to reject H_0,
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to a smaller degree: choosing a sub-optimal treatment as superior to the control.
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Schaid, Wieand and Therneau (Biometrika, 1990)

Schaid et al allow more options at the end of Stage 1:

stop to accept H_0 ,

stop and choose an experimental treatment

as superior to the control.

More than one experimental treatment may continue to Stage 2.

This is appropriate for a survival study where differences may appear in longer term survival.

Type I error and power properties are found by pairwise comparisons with the control, combined by Bonferroni's inequality.

Stallard and Todd (Statist. in Medicine, 2003

Stallard and Todd select just one treatment at the end of Stage 1.

They allow further interim analyses during Stage 2 at which termination may occur either to accept or to reject H_0 .

These analyses are defined as a group sequential test with a specified error spending function.

Computations are based on the null distribution of the maximum score for an experimental treatment against the control, followed by increments in this score according to the usual stochastic process.

Conclusions

Sequential comparison of multiple treatments can be complex.

There is a great variety of possible ingredients:

early termination of the whole study,

early elimination of some inferior treatments,

adaptive treatment allocation.

Problem formulation is crucial — what do you really wish to achieve?

Even then, simplification can help to:

keep computations feasible,

give an easily interpretable method.