A Bayesian decision-theoretic approach to incorporating pre-clinical information into phase I trials

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Dose escalations

Consider:

- $\bullet\,$ First-in-man studies \rightarrow limited knowledge about the toxicity to humans
- Binary endpoint: dose-limiting toxicity (DLT) versus no-DLT
- Doses available: d_1, \ldots, d_J

Aim:

- $\bullet\,$ to estimate the TD $\pi,$ the dose associated with risk of DLT at level $\pi\,$
- Commonly, $\pi \in (0.20, 0.35)$ for oncology trials



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Bayesian model-based designs

Existing approaches:

- CRM
- BLRM
- EWOC



Figure : Modelling the dose-toxicity relationship.

Key features:

- Probabilistic inference about $p(d) \implies$ dose-escalation decisions
- Adopt uninformative, operational priors
- Incorporating pre-clinical information? OFTEN INFORMALLY
- Challenges?



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Commensurability issues



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Incorporating pre-clinical info

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To establish a formal incorporation of pre-clinical info into phase I trials

- represent the information in a prior for parameters of the dose-toxicity model
- discount it quickly if a prior-data conflict emerges anytime during the trial



Problem formulation

- Dose-toxicity model: $\log \left\{ \frac{p(d)}{1-p(d)} \right\} = \theta_1 + \exp(\theta_2) \log d$
- Bivariate normal prior for $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$
 - operational prior
 - informative prior, formulated using pre-clinical data
 - mixture prior

$$f(\theta) = \omega \times \underbrace{g(\theta)}_{\text{pre-clinical data}} + (1 - \omega) \times \underbrace{h(\theta)}_{\text{operational prior}},$$

Q1: How to derive $g(\theta)$ with pre-clinical toxicology information? Q2: How to quantify the mixture weight ω ?



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On deriving the $g(\theta)$

Available pre-clinical information \rightarrow informative component $g(\theta)$:

- Summarise pre-clinical information as pseudo-data on the lowest and highest doses d_{-1} and d_0
- **2** This specifies **independent beta distributions** for $p(d_{-1})$ and $p(d_0)$
- **3** Given logit $\{p(d)\} = \theta_1 + \exp(\theta_2) \log d$, derive the **prior distributions** for $p(d_j)$ and their 2.5th, 50th and 97.5th percentiles
- Find the bivariate normal prior for $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$, which approximately agrees with the exact summaries [A STOCHASTIC OPTIMISATION PROBLEM]



Choosing the mixture weight $\boldsymbol{\omega}$

Challenge: difficult to test the prior-data conflict and to quantify the degree of **commensurability**, since phase I trials are typically small

Define the mixture prior for the k^{th} cohort as

$$f_k(\theta) = \omega_k \times \underbrace{g(\theta)}_{ ext{pre-clinical data}} + (1 - \omega_k) \times \underbrace{h(\theta)}_{ ext{operational prior}},$$

- ω_k is dynamically determined at each interim analysis
 - small value when evidenced by prior-data conflict
 - ► large value when animal and human data appear commensurate
- A Bayesian decision-theoretic approach to measuring the commensurability
 - How accurate are predictions of human responses based on pre-clinical data?
 - Penalise harshly when they underestimate risks of toxicity in humans



Measuring the prior-data conflict

Fouskakis and Draper (2002), Vehtari and Ojanen (2012)

Let Y denote the response of a human patient receiving a specific dose.

- **①** Derive prior predictive distributions $\mathcal{P}\{Y = \tilde{y}\}$ from animal data
- Oerive optimal prediction for Y as

$$\hat{\eta} = \arg \max_{\eta \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{\tilde{y}} u(\tilde{y},\eta) \mathcal{P}\{Y = \tilde{y}\}, \ \tilde{y} \in \{0,1\}$$

where $u(\tilde{y}, \eta)$ is the utility function that rewards predictions of \tilde{y} as η :

$$u(\tilde{y},\eta) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \eta = 0 \text{ while } \tilde{y} = 1 \text{ (incorrectly predict as no-DLT)} \\ s, & \text{if } \eta = 1 \text{ while } \tilde{y} = 0 \text{ (incorrectly predict as DLT)} \\ 1, & \eta = \tilde{y} \text{ (correct prediction)} \end{cases}$$

Note that 0 < s < 1.

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Measuring the prior-data conflict (*Cont'd*) $f_k(\theta) = \omega_k \times g(\theta) + (1 - \omega_k) \times p(\theta)$

Compare optimal prior predictions versus observed human responses for each dose d_j prior to the kth cohort

		Rewards ar	Cell counts		
		Observa			
		No-DLT	DLT		
Prior prediction $(\hat{\eta})$	No-DLT	u_{00} (1)	$u_{10}(0)$	<i>n</i> ₀₀	<i>n</i> ₁₀
	DLT	<i>u</i> ₀₁ (s)	u_{11} (1)	<i>n</i> 01	<i>n</i> ₁₁

- **9** Derive the predictive utility of the animal data for the observed human toxicity data on dose d_j as $U_j^k = \sum_{l=0}^1 \sum_{m=0}^1 u_{lm} n_{lm}$
- Measure commensurability of animal and human data by taking the average of predictive accuracy across doses used so far

$$\bar{a}_k = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{U_j^k}{\sum_{l=0}^1 \sum_{m=0}^l n_{lm}}$$



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Measuring the prior-data conflict (*Cont'd*) $f_k(\theta) = \omega_k \times g(\theta) + (1 - \omega_k) \times p(\theta)$

In our investigation, we define

$$\omega_k = \bar{a}_k^{\lambda_k},$$

where λ_k can reflect

the relative variability:

$$\lambda_{k} = \frac{s.d.(\bar{\mathbf{a}}(y_{k},\hat{\eta}_{k}|\mathbf{x}_{k}))}{s.d.(\bar{\mathbf{a}}(\underbrace{y_{k},\ldots,y_{N}}_{\text{simul future obs., optimal pred.}}|\mathbf{x}_{k}))},$$

Notations

xk: phase I trial data

 y_k, \ldots, y_N : possible outcomes of future patients that receive the dose recommended based on the current best understanding $\hat{\eta}_k, \ldots, \hat{\eta}_N$: corresponding optimal predictions



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Interim dose recommendations

Whitehead and Williamson (1998), Babb et al. (1998)

For the k^{th} cohort, $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$

- Compare prior animal data with observed human data to derive ω_k
- Update the mixture prior f_k(θ) = ω_k × g(θ) + (1 − ω_k) × h(θ) to derive posterior f_k(θ|x_k)
- Use the accumulated data x_k to recommend a dose for the (k + 1)th cohort according to the patient gain criterion

$$\mathcal{G}=\left(\tilde{p}(d_j)-\pi\right)^{-2},\,$$

where $\tilde{p}(d_j)$ is the implied probability of toxicity at dose d_j and π is the target level

Practical considerations:

- 1) Effective sample size of the $g(\theta)$
- 2) Run-in period for the incorporation of pre-clinical info



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Safety constraint

Throughout the trial, the probability of toxicity is considered to be excessively high if

$$\int_{\gamma}^{1} g(p(d_j)) \mathrm{d}p(d_j) \geq \delta_j$$

where γ is some threshold and δ is the pre-define level.

This naturally specifies an early stopping rule:

- Stop when none of the doses available satisfy the safety constraint;

i.e., early stopping for safety, if the lowest dose d_1 is found excessively toxic:

$$\int_{\gamma}^{1} g(p(d_1)) \mathrm{d}p(d_1) \geq \delta$$

Note

In our simulations, we set $\gamma = 0.45$ and $\delta = 0.25$.



Simulations

From the **pre-clinical studies**: $p(d_{-1}) \approx 0.03$; $p(d_0) \approx 0.60 \rightarrow$ worth $n_{-1} = n_0 = 60$

Settings for the first-in-man trial:

- Cohort size c = 1
- Max. ss *N* = 24
- Number of doses J = 7

Thus, priors derived as

- Target level $\pi = 0.25$
- Early stopping for accuracy is not considered
- Results based on 1000 simulated trials



Investigated human toxicity scenarios



Comparator designs

BDTA

- BLRM with operational prior
- CRM with naïve opinion of incorporating pre-clinical info
- Non-parametric optimal benchmark



Simulation results (I)



Simulation results (II)



Simulation results (III)



Simulation results (IV)



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Sensitivity analysis



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Highly toxic & Very safe scenarios

Dose levels												
Design		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	None	DLT	Ñ	
	p(d)	40	60	80	87	91	93	95				
BDTA	Sel	8.9	1.5	0	0	0	0	0	89.6	3.4	6.6	
	Pts	3.6	2.2	0.3	0.5	0	0	0				
BLRM	Sel	9.1	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	90.0	3.3	6.5	
	Pts	3.6	2.4	0.2	0.3	0	0	0				
CRM	Sel	12.7	0.4	0	0	0	0	0	86.9	3.4	6.9	
	Pts	4.8	1.3	0.7	0.1	0	0	0				
	p(d)	0.1	0.2	0.5	2	6	15	25				
BDTA	Sel	0.5	0.1	0.1	1.1	7.3	30.8	60.7	0	3.6	24	
	Pts	1.0	1.0	0	1.6	4.8	6.2	9.4				
BLRM	Sel	0	0	0	1.9	14.8	17.6	65.2	0	4.5	24	
	Pts	1.0	1.0	0	1.3	0.9	2.7	17.1				
CRM	Sel	0	0	0	0.3	5.8	39.4	54.4	0	3.2	24	
	Pts	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.7	4.6	7.1	7.6				

Table : Results for two more extreme cases, i.e., highly toxic and very safe



Conclusions

- Incorporating pre-clinical data will potentially lead to more efficient escalation decision making and greater estimation precision
 - Dose recommendations are robust and competitive
 - Patients have enhanced possibility to receive the target dose
- Pre-clinical information that may undermine the safety of patients can be quickly discounted during the course of the trial



Future work

- Two or more animal species
- Pharmacological information
- Phase I trials with both safety and efficacy endpoints



References







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