

An introduction to the use of graphical testing procedures in group sequential designs NJ-ASA 2023 June 23th 2023

Yevgen Tymofyeyev (joined work with Michael Grayling)

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Sebastian Ferreira, Untitled 1

Artwork from the National Art Exhibitions of the Mentally Ill, Inc (NAEMI).

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Agenda









- Three-arm design, comparing the Experimental Treatments 1 and 2 (E1) and E2) to against Control
- 500:500:500 patient design
- Primary endpoint is progression-free survival (PFS) $- mPFS_{Ien} = 65 mo$, $HR_{PFS Tec} = HR_{PFS TecLen} = 0.7$ – Single interim analysis
- Key secondary outcome of overall survival (OS) $-mOS_{Ien} = 100 mo$, $HR_{OS Tec} = HR_{OS TecLen} = 0.75$
 - Three interim analyses





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Group sequential design for a single endpoint







Group sequential design (GSD) introduction

- Many clinical trials are designed considering an option of early termination
 - Overseen by Data and Safety Monitoring Board
- Reasons to conduct interim analyses as in Jennison & Turnbull (2000):
 - Ethical, administrative and economic
- Group sequential designs have been developed that avoid inflating the pre-specified type I error associated with the repeated testing of the treatment effect based on accumulating data (EMEA, 2007)
- There are also incentives to reach early decision if study is negative





Group Sequential Tests

- Test H_0 : $\mu \le 0$ against H_1 : $\mu > 0$
- Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_J are standardized test statistics obtained at analyses $1, \dots, J$
- Crossing upper boundary (denoted by b_j 's) results in early stopping for a positive outcome

•
$$P_{\mu=0}\left(U_{j=1}^J Z_j > b_j\right) = \alpha$$

 Crossing lower boundary => stopping for futility





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Wang and Tsiatis Family with parameter Δ





 $b_j = C_{WT} j^{\Delta - 0.5}$

O'Brien-Fleming Pocock boundary



Functional form efficacy bounds

I.e., the original approach

- Can easily be generalised for arbitrary information levels fixed in advance
- Small deviation from the planned information levels will not lead to substantial impact on type I / II error rates
- But a better way of designing under unpredictable information levels is...



Error spending

I.e., the approach usually used today

- Handles unpredictable information levels with strict type I error control
- Doesn't require maximum number of analyses to be pre-specified
- Use non-decreasing function $f : [0,1] \rightarrow [0,\alpha]$, that gives **cumulative** α **spend** at IF t_i as $f(t_i)$
 - Information fractions (IFs) $t_j = \frac{I_j}{I_J}$
 - Where I_i amount of statistical information at the *j*-th analysis
- Does require information level I_i to not depend on $\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_{i-1}$





Error Spending Function Approach

Given Function $f: [0,1] \rightarrow [0, \alpha]$ non-decreasing Fix, maximum information (N or # events) I_{max}

Analysis 1 get b_1 :

$$P_{H_0}(Z_1 > b_1) = f(I_1/I_{max})$$

Analysis 2 get b_2 :

 $P_{H_0}(Z_1 < b_1, Z_2 > b_2) = f(I_2/I_{max}) - f(I_1/I_{max})$

• • •

Continue solving for b_j until reaching I_{max} , and "spend all alpha"

Also, the method accommodates "under" and "overrunning" of information scenarios



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Common spending functions

Lan and DeMets O'Brien-Fleming approximation: •

 $f(t) = 2\{1 - \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)/\sqrt{t}]\}$

• Lan and DeMets Pocock approximation:

$$f(t) = \alpha \ln\{1 + (e-1)t\}$$

Hwang, Shi and DeCani (γ -family), with $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$: •

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} \alpha(1 - e^{-\gamma t})/(1 - e^{-\gamma}) & \gamma \neq 0\\ \alpha t & \gamma = 0 \end{cases}$$

Similar to O'Brien-Fleming $\gamma = -4$

- Similar to Pocock $\gamma = 1$
- Kim and DeMets (ρ -family / power-family), with $\rho > 0$:

$$f(t) = \alpha t^{\rho}$$

- Similar to O'Brien-Fleming $\rho = 3$
- Similar to Pocock $\rho = 0.75$





Software

- EAST mycytel.cytel.com
- ADDPLAN
- SAS SEQDESIGN
- R:
 - gsDesign
 - rpact (~ ADDPLAN)
 - Others too...

https://gsdesign.shinyapps.io/prod/ https://rpact.shinyapps.io/public/ https://cran.r-project.org/web/views/ClinicalTrials.html









- Just consider TecLen vs Len for PFS - mPFSLen = 65 mo, HR_{PFS TecLen} = 0.7
- Usual total one-sided $\alpha = 0.025$ and suppose we desire 90% power – More on this later though
- 5% drop-out rate for PFS
- 1000 patients with recruitment rate = 42 pts/mo
- GSD:
 - Single interim analysis at 70% IF (i.e., $t_1 = 0.7$, $t_2 = 1$)
 - Lan and DeMets O'Brien-Fleming (LDOF) spending function







gsDesign

> gsDesign::gsSurv	(k	=	2,
+	test.type	=	1,
+	alpha	=	0.025,
+	beta	=	0.1,
+	timing	=	c(0.7, 1),
+	sfu	=	gsDesign::sfLDOF,
+	lambdaC	=	log(2)/65,
+	hr	=	0.7,
+	eta	=	$-(1/12) * \log(1 - 0.05),$
+	gamma	=	42,
+	R	=	1000/42)
Time to event group	o sequentia	al	design with HR= 0.7
Equal randomization	1:	נ	ratio=1
One-sided group sec	quential de	esi	ign with
90 % power and 2.5	% Type I B	Erı	for.
		_	
Analysis N Z	Nominal p	2	Spend
1 236 2.44	l 0.0074	4 (0.0074
2 337 2.00	0.0228	3 (0.0176

assume any cross stops the trial Upper boundary (power or Type I Error) Analysis 2 Total E{N} Theta 1 0.0000 0.0074 0.0176 0.025 335.8 0.1779 0.6152 0.2848 0.900 274 4 Т Events HR efficacy n IA 1 44.28596 1000 235.5577 Final 63.88113 1000 336.5110 Accrual rates: Stratum 1 0-23.81 42 Control event rates (H1): Stratum 1 0-Inf 0.01 Censoring rates:

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Stratum 1 0-Tnf 0

++ alpha spending: Lan-DeMets O'Brien-Fleming approximation spending function with none = 1.

0.0250



Total

Boundary crossing probabilities and expected sample size

0.728 0.804



rpact

>	design <-			
+	rpact::getDesignGroupSequentia		= 2,	
+		alpha		= 0.025,
+		beta		= 0.1,
+		sided		= 1,
+		informationRat	tes	s = c(0.7, 1),
+		typeOfDesign		= "asOF")
>	sampleSizeResult <-			
+	rpact::getSampleSizeSurvival(de	esign	=	design,
+	1	ambda2	=	log(2)/65,
+	h	azardRatio	=	0.7,
+	d.	ropoutRate1	=	0.05,
+	d	ropoutRate2	=	0.05,
+	d.	ropoutTime	=	12,
+	a	ccrualTime	=	c(0, 1000/42),
+	a	ccrualIntensity	=	42)
>	summary(sampleSizeResult)			

Sample size calculation for a survival endpoint

Sequential analysis with a maximum of 2 looks (group sequential design), overall significance level 2.5% (one-sided). The sample size was calculated for a two-sample logrank test,

H0: hazard ratio = 1, H1: hazard ratio = 0.7, control lambda(2) = 0.011, accrual time = 23.81, accrual intensity = 42, dropout rate(1) = 0.05, dropout rate(2) = 0.05, dropout time = 12, power 90%.

Stage Information rate	
Efficacy boundary (z-value scale)	
Expected number of subjects	1
Cumulative number of events	
Expected study duration	(
One-sided local significance level	(
Exit probability for efficacy (under HO) Exit probability for efficacy (under H1)	(

Legend:

(t): treatment effect scale





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Summary

- GSDs seek to reduce the expected time to a significant result
- Easy to control type I error rate using error spending approach
- On top of usual requirements for sample size calculation, specify:
 IFs at the interim analyses
 - Spending function





sult proach specify:



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Graphical testing procedures in fixedsample trials

Viral exacerbation at 40x magnification



Multiple testing procedures

- Most clinical trials evaluate significance for multiple important outcomes
- Some evaluate significance for multiple treatment arms
- In either case, we then typically need to control the probability of committing one or more type I errors across the analyses - Family-wise error rate (FWER) control
- **Multiple testing procedures** are methods for achieving such FWER control







Graphical testing procedures (GTPs)

- Flexible multiple testing framework that can be tailored to reflect the relative importance of hypotheses
 - I.e., can deal with complex trial objectives and multiple structured hypotheses
- Built on the principle of closed testing
 - I.e., they can be thought of as a shortcut to specifying a closed testing procedure
 - Ensures strong FWER control
- Very visual technique - Easily and efficiently communicable
- Includes many common multiple testing procedures as special cases - Fixed sequence, Bonferroni, Holm, ...



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The graph

Specification

1. Hypotheses H_1, \ldots, H_K represented as **nodes**

2. (Initial) split of significance level represented by **weights** w_1, \ldots, w_K

3. 'α-recycling' through **weighted** directed edges



 $w_1 = 0.5 (H_1)$

 H_1









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Examples

K = 2

• Fixed sequence: Maximizes power if previous hypotheses rejected as all tests performed at level α

Bonferroni: No α -recycling

Holm: Everything in Bonferroni + more ullet \rightarrow more powerful









Example: Holm

 $K = 2 \text{ and } \alpha = 0.025$

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• Suppose that $p_1 = 0.02$ and $p_2 = 0.01$ are the p-values for H_1 and H_2

• As $p_2 = 0.01 \le 0.0125 = 0.5(0.025) = w_2 \alpha$, reject H_2 and update the graph

• As $p_1 = 0.02 \le 0.025 = 1(0.025) = w_1 \alpha$, we can now also reject H_1



H1

 H_1

0.5







 H_2







Technical basis

- The graph defines a closed testing procedure with weighted tests (e.g., weighted Bonferroni) for each intersection hypothesis
- If a hypothesis H_k can be rejected at level $w_k \alpha$ (i.e., $p_k \leq w_k \alpha$), recycle its level $w_k \alpha$ to the remaining (not yet tested) hypotheses, according to a prefixed rule, and continue testing with the updated α levels
- Can be shown that the order you test in does not matter – I.e., would always end with the same hypotheses being rejected





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Technical basis

Graph update algorithm

- Transition matrix $G = \{g_{ij}\}$, where g_{ij} is the fraction of w_i allocated to H_j if H_i is rejected
- Require $0 \le g_{ij} \le 1$, $g_{ii} = 0$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{K} g_{ik} = 1$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, K$

0. Set $\mathcal{K} = \{1, ..., K\}$

- 1. Select a $k \in \mathcal{K}$ such that $p_k \leq w_k \alpha$ and reject H_k ; otherwise stop
- 2. Update the graph:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{K} &\to \mathcal{K} \setminus \{k\} \\ w_l &\to \begin{cases} w_l + w_k g_{kl} : l \in \mathcal{K} \\ 0 &: \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ g_{lm} &\to \begin{cases} \frac{g_{lm} + g_{lk} g_{km}}{1 - g_{lk} g_{kl}} &: \text{for } l, m \in \mathcal{K}, l \neq m, g_{lk} g_{kl} < 1 \\ 0 &: \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

3. If $|\mathcal{K}| \ge 1$, go to Step 1; otherwise stop





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- Four hypotheses

 PFS and OS for Experimental 1 and Experimental 2
- PFS hypotheses have all α initially as the primary endpoint
- Equal priority to both comparisons
- Recycle to corresponding OS and other PFS hypothesis





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Sequential updating











Sequential updating



Note: There are now edges that weren't previously in the graph



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Sequential updating



It's now symmetric again: the graph would look like this regardless of which of the PFS hypotheses was rejected first



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Sequential updating









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Software

- R:
 - gMCP
 - gsDesign
 - gMCPLite

-				
gMCP GUI0.8.10				
Eile Example graphs Analysis Extras Help				
	Transition Matrix			
		H1		H2
Place new nodes and edges or start the test procedure	H1 0		1	
	1		V	
	Hypothesis	Weights	P-Value	
	H1	0.5	0.015	Reject and pass α
	H2	0.5	0.097	Reject and pass α
	Sum of weights: 1	I	Load p-values from R	
	T-1-1-	0.005	1	
Description Analysis	Total d:	0.025	J	
Graph representing the (unweighted)	No information	n about correlations (B	onterroni based weighted tests)	
-	O Select an R co	orrelation matrix	2x2-matrices found. 👻	Create Matrix
The graph is a complete graph, where all nodes have the				
same weights and each edge weight is 1/(n-1).	 Use Simes tes 	st		
Literature: Holm, 5. (1979). A simple sequentally				





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Summary

- GTPs are a **flexible and powerful** method of strongly controlling the FWER across multiple hypotheses
- Completely defined by the initial graph, which contains:
 - Nodes defining hypotheses
 - Weights defining initial α split
 - Edges defining how to recycle α







Graphical testing procedures in group sequential designs

Viral exacerbation at 40x magnification



History

- Long history of methods / application of GSDs to clinical trials
- Similar is true of GTPs
- But development of methods for use of GTPs in GSDs has occurred mostly over last 10-15 years
- Much was motivated by...







Hierarchical testing of a primary and one secondary endpoint

- Hung et al (2007) considered a two-stage GSD with a primary and one key secondary endpoint
- The primary endpoint tested according to some GSD with cumulative one-sided type I error of $\alpha = 0.025$
- **Question:** How should we test the secondary endpoint after the primary endpoint achieves significance (either at the IA or FA)? - Assuming that Secondary EP data accumulates from Interim to Final
- Investigated **naïve strategy** for secondary endpoint:
 - Since the secondary endpoint is tested at most once, when the primary endpoint is significant, it seems reasonable to use the **whole** α (regardless of IA or FA)



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Hierarchical testing of a primary and one secondary endpoint

- Demonstrated that this approach does not control the FWER
- Depending on the correlation between the endpoints, FWER could be as much as 4.1%
- So specialist methodology required for FWER control









GTPs for GSDs

- Maurer and Bretz (2013), amongst others, provide highly general methodology for testing primary and secondary endpoints in GSD setting with strong control of the FWER
- Take home message: Essentially all you have to do is specify your initial GTP and your GSD for each hypothesis
 - I.e., think of it as the union of two more familiar steps: specifying a GTP and specifying GSDs
 - There are some finer points, but this gets you the majority of the way there







Focus on PFS for E1 vs Cntrl



- Single IA at ~70% IF
- LDOF spending function
- Initially it has weight of 0.5
- Overall one-sided $\alpha = 0.025$





IF nction wht of 0.5 $\alpha = 0.025$



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Focus on PFS for E1 vs Cntrl





 $W_k \rightarrow 0.5$



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 $W_k - 0.5 - 0.75$



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Focus on PFS for Tec vs Len

 $W_k - 0.5 - 0.75 - 1$



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`Look back' analyses

- The algorithm stated earlier allows for what has been termed 'look back' analyses
- E.g., consider a simple case where there's two possible spending function shapes, based on w = 0.5 or w = 1, and a single IA
- Suppose that at the IA we have to stay at w = 0.5 and so we aren't able to reject the null based on the black dot in the plot





W - 0.5 - 1



`Look back' analyses

- If we reach w = 1 at the FA, we are technically allowed to 'look back' and claim significance for this hypothesis based on the IA p-value
- In practice, this might be a hard sell to regulators as at the FA we have more data available and still have α available for retesting this hypothesis







W - 0.5 - 1



`Look back' analyses

- Where this 'look back' is useful is if we have data that matures at different rates
- E.g., suppose there's two hypotheses with expected IFs at three analyses of: $-H_1$: 50%, 100%, 100% $-H_2$: 33%, 67%, 100%
- Suppose we don't manage to reject H_1 at IA2, and eventually reject H_2 at the FA
- Then we are allowed to retest H_1 using its IA2 p-value with the recycled α





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Example: MonumenTAL-5

Tal vs Belamaf

• Phase 3 study in subjects with relapsed/refractory multiple myeloma who have received at least 4 prior lines of therapy









Example: MonumenTAL-5

Tal vs Belamaf

 Dual primary endpoints of ORR and PFS are grouped into a primary family, which serves as a gatekeeper for the second family (CR+, MRD-, OS)











Example: MonumenTAL-5

Tal vs Belamaf

- Single IA, 3 months after the 140th participant (n = 216) is randomized
 - So ORR tested with ~140 subjects included
 - PFS expected to be tested with ~114 events
- FA for PFS when 163 events have occurred - At this point, ORR may be retested with \sim 216 subjects included
- PFS designed using KDM(2) spending function, but ORR uses a different approach to α -recycling







PFS uses immediate recycling

- This means that the entire spending function trajectory updates when a larger weight becomes available to PFS
- Creates an 'issue' that some α may be wasted if we only recycle at the FA







$W_{\text{PFS}} \rightarrow 0.5$ (Failure for ORR) $\rightarrow 1$ (Success for ORR)

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ORR uses delayed recycling

- Alternative, can prospectively say that additional α will only be used at the FA if more weight becomes available
- Can think of this a little bit like changing the spending function
 - vs. immediate recycling which keeps the same spending function, but just updates how much can be spent





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 $W_{OBB} \rightarrow 0.5$ (Failure for PFS) $\rightarrow 1$ (Success for PFS)

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Immediate vs. delayed recycling

Which is best?

- Depends on study specifics and objectives
- Usually, immediate recycling will be the preferred approach
 - Corresponds to the usual reason for doing a GSD: trying to increase the chance of an earlier significant result
- In the given example, delayed recycling kind of maximize currently available alpha at IA
- Also, delayed recycling may make more sense for outcomes around which there is more uncertainty about the effect or for which an early significant result is unlikely
- It's also possible to defines recycling to begin at a certain analysis
 - E.g., recycling from analysis 3 in a trial with up to 5 analyses
 - But you cannot choose the time from which you recycle adaptively: it has to be prespecified





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Protocol / SAP

What to include?

- Important to make the problem clearly defined
- So definitely specify exactly what we've discussed:
 - Initial graph
 - Spending functions / expected IFs for each GSD
 - Approach to α -recycling (immediate vs delayed)
- May also be helpful to list all associated nominal p-values based on the possible weights that the hypotheses could have
 - Becomes totally transparent what the thresholds for significance should be at each analysis





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Summary

- GTPs can easily be incorporated in a GSD framework
- Specify:
 - Initial graph

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- Spending function and IFs for each hypothesis
- Tip: decouple the graph and the spending in your mind – The graph only tells you how much α , in total, you have to spend on a hypothesis. It tells you nothing about how it will be spent
- I.e., it involves specifying what you would for a GTP in a fixedsample trial and what you would for each hypothesis in a GSD





Software

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Derivation of testing boundaries

- For a simple graph, it is easy to determine all possible α levels a given hypothesis can be tested
- Becomes labor intensive / more challenging as graph complexity increases
- Tools for automation become more helpful...
- gMCPLite includes some useful functions, but has a steep learning curve
 - <u>https://merck.github.io/gMCPLite/articles/GraphicalMultiplicity.html</u>
- We will use some R Markdown



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R Markdown

- Created a template that shows how we can use gsDesign and gMCP to find all possible nominal p-values
- Can download the underlying .Rmd file and the .html output









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Summary

- You can easily use standard software for computing the stopping rules under a simple graph
- For more complex graphs, if you need all the possible stopping rules then using available tools for automation can expedite things substantially
- For all graphs, certain 'conditional powers' are easy to get: if you need unconditional powers, you likely need simulation







Discussion

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Summary

- Approaches to testing multiple hypotheses in a GSD framework that may seem reasonable can inflate the FWER
- Specialist methodology is therefore required: GTPs are such an approach, that can be readily used in a GSD setting
- We must specify:
 - The initial graph
 - The GSD for each of the hypotheses in the graph
 - (And the approach to using recycled α : immediate vs delayed)





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References

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Extensions

- GTPs (typically) do not make use of correlation between test statistics
- Generally speaking we can't use estimates of unknown correlations / it often isn't a great idea to pre-specify guesses for unknown correlations – E.g., the correlation between endpoints like PFS and OS
- But using known correlations can make things more efficient – E.g., the correlation induced by a shared control arm in a multi-arm trial
- There are extensions to what's been discussed to use such correlations
- In fact, if we need a very general testing approach, any closed testing procedure can be incorporated into a GSD framework





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