

Phase 1 studies, concepts, practicalities and pitfalls

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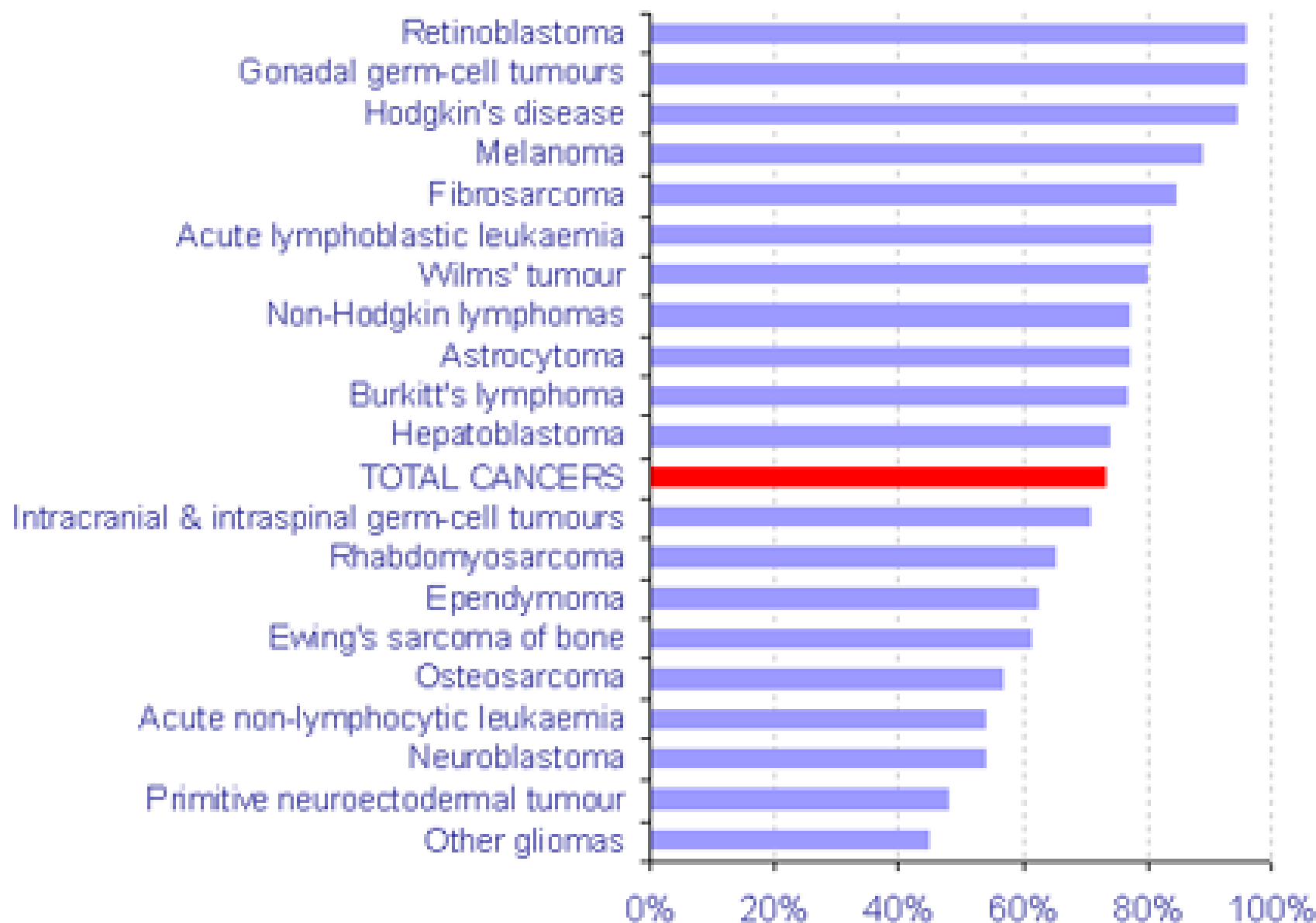




INTRODUCTION

A clinical trial is defined as an experiment on human being carried out in order to evaluate one or more potentially beneficial therapies.

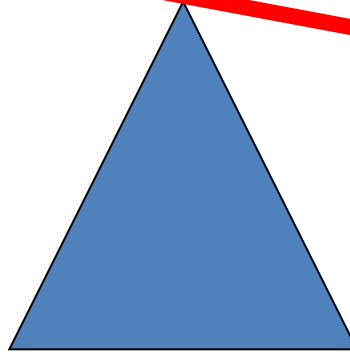
Why do we need new therapies?



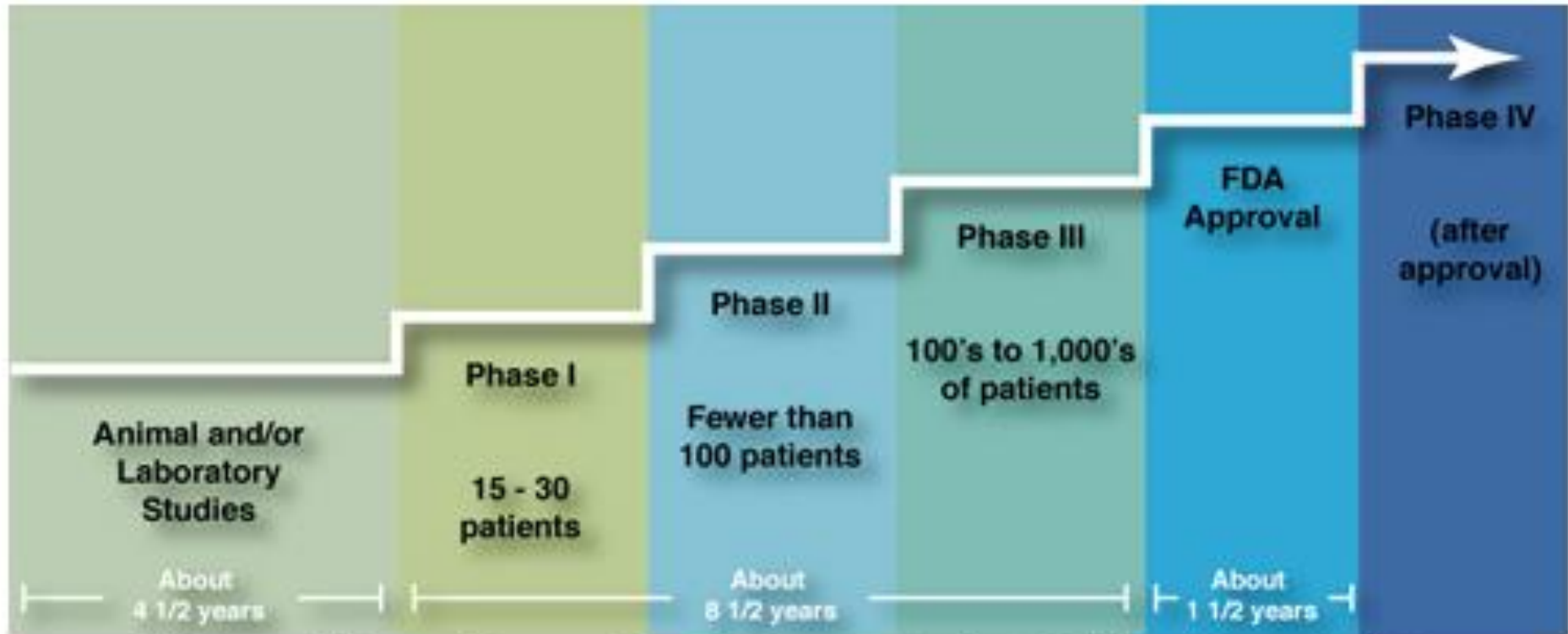
Why do we need new therapies?

Survival

Quality
of Life



Drug Development Process



The Drug and Approval Process in the 1990s as reported by the National Cancer Institute.

Development of New Agents in Oncology

	Phase I	Phase II	Phase III
Primary objective	MTD	Anti-tumor activity	Efficacy
Judgment criteria	Toxicity	Tumor response	Survival
Methodology	Dose escalation	"One- or Two-stage"	Randomization
N patients	10-30	14-50	100s - 1000s
PK	Obligatory	Recommended	No

PHASE I TRIALS

The principal scientific goal of the Phase I trial of a new agent is to determine a dose suitable for later activity and efficacy testing. **Recommended Phase 2 dose (RP2D).**

We should always remember that cancer patients agree to participate in Phase I trials because of the possibility of therapeutic benefit, even if they realize that the probability of benefit is small.

Phase I in Adult Oncology

“First in Human”

Pre-requisite:

- ❖ Efficacy in experimental models *in vitro* and *in vivo*
- ❖ Animal toxicology
- ❖ Mutagenesis

Phase I in Adult Oncology

“First in Human”

Objectives:

- ❖ To determine the maximum tolerated dose (MTD)
- ❖ To define the best schedule of administration
- ❖ To determine pharmacokinetic parameters, pharmacodynamics

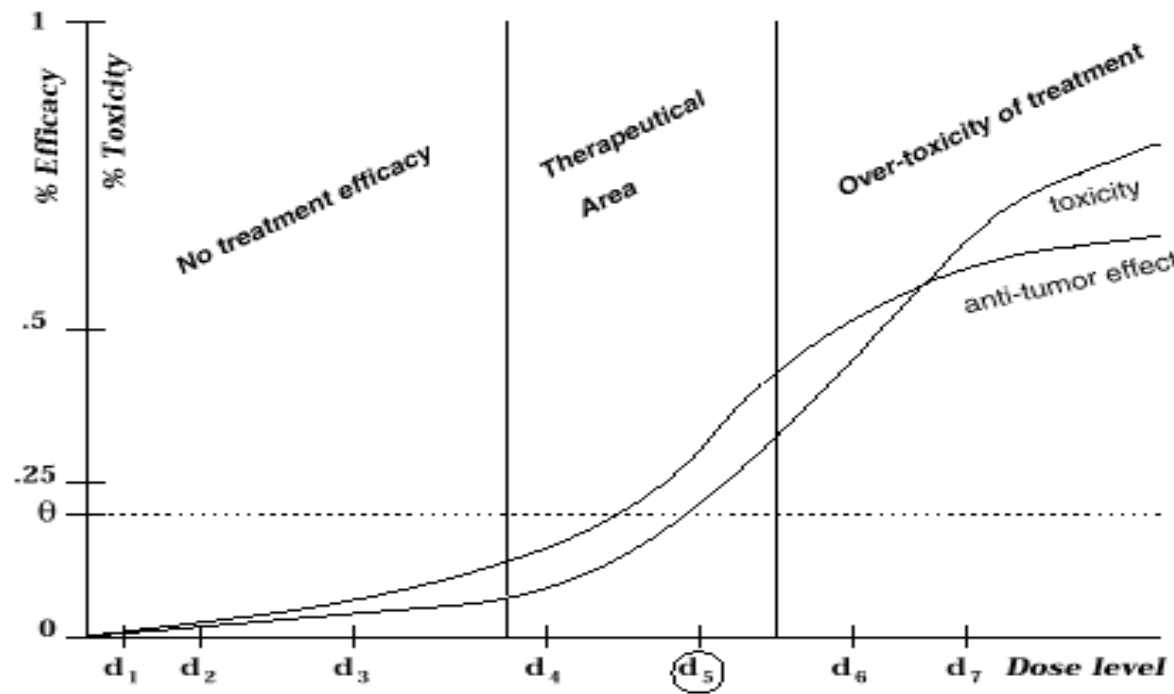
Phase I in Adult Oncology

“First in Human”

- ❖ Patients with refractory or relapsed malignant disease
- ❖ First dose level = 1/10 of the lethal dose in mice
- ❖ Dose escalation per dose levels according to Fibonacci schemes or CRM
- ❖ No healthy volunteers
- ❖ *Multiple phase I trials with different schedules of administration*

Dose Toxicity Relation

- Assumption: the greater the dose, the more active, but the more toxic.

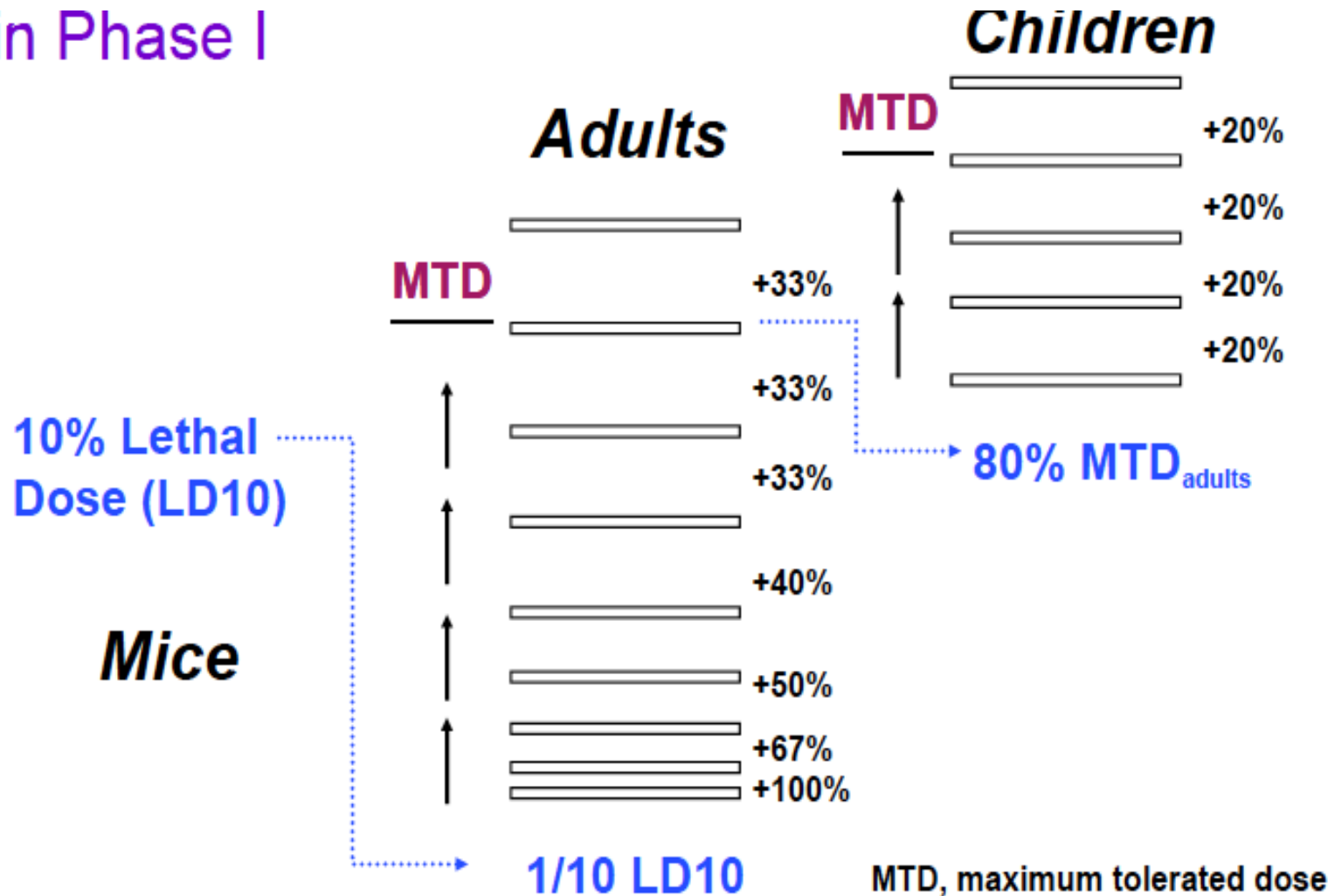


'First in Child' Phase I Studies

- We would almost never have no adult priori information i.e. First in human is first in child!
- We can therefore use this data to design our trials to be more efficient and ethical!

Which starting dose?

in Phase I



Aims, objectives & end-points of Phase I trials

- **Primary objectives**
 - Recommended Phase II dose
 - Maximum tolerated dose (MTD)
 - Optimum Biological Dose (OBD)
- **Secondary objectives**
 - To define the toxicity profile & tolerability
 - To investigate the pharmacokinetics (PK)
 - To investigate the pharmacodynamics (PD)
 - “proof of mechanism study”
 - Preliminary efficacy data

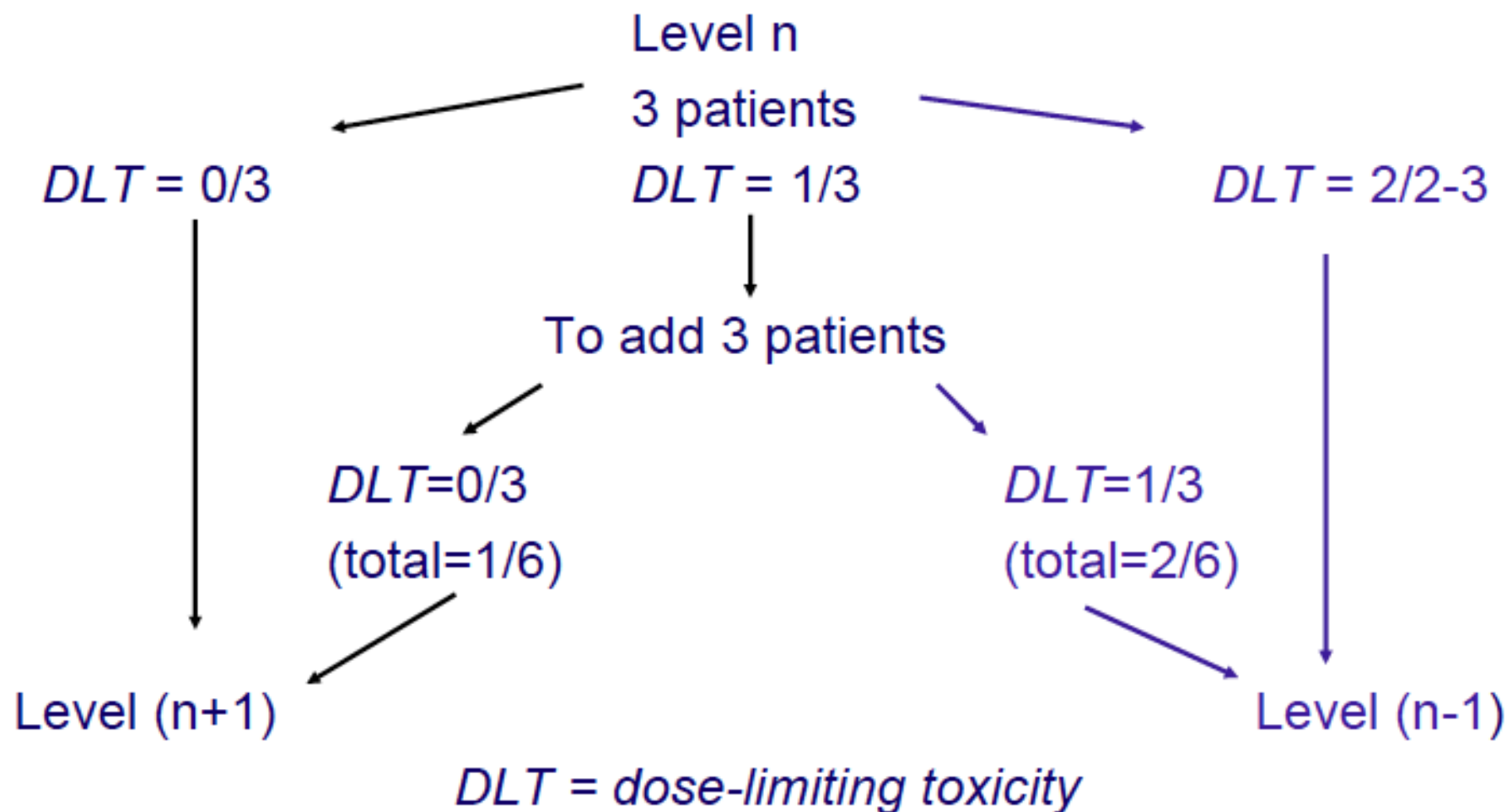
Statistical designs

- Quigley stated that design should aim
 - 1. minimize the number of under-treated patients, that is, patients treated at unacceptably low-dose levels;
 - 2. minimize the number of overtreated patients, that is, patients treated at unacceptably high-dose levels;
 - 3. minimize the number of patients needed to complete the study (efficiency); and
 - 4. respond quickly to inevitable errors in initial guesses, rapidly escalating in the absence of indication of drug activity (toxicity) and rapidly de-escalating in the presence of unacceptably high levels of observed toxicity.

Statistical designs

- Quigley coined the terms
 - “memoryless or memory” based designs
- Memoryless designs
 - Classical “up and down”
 - Traditional escalation rule or 3+3 design
 - Rolling 6 design

'Classical' 3+3 Dose Escalation



Statistical designs

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JOURNAL OF CLINICAL ONCOLOGY

ORIGINAL REPORT

Shortening the Timeline of Pediatric Phase I Trials: The Rolling Six Design

Jeffrey M. Skolnik, Jeffrey S. Barrett, Bhuvana Jayaraman, Dimple Patel, and Peter C. Adamson

Results

In twelve completed historical studies, the median time to study completion was 452 days (range, 220 to 606 days); number of evaluable participants enrolled was 22 (range, 11 to 33), and DLTs occurring per study was three (range, 0 to 5). In 1,000 study simulations, in which the average time to new patient accrual was 10 days, the average \pm standard deviation (SD) time to study completion was 294 ± 75 days for the rolling six design versus 350 ± 84 days for the 3 + 3 design, whereas the number of DLTs per study was the same (average \pm SD, 3.3 ± 1.1 v 3.2 ± 1.1 for the rolling six and 3 + 3 designs, respectively).

Conclusion

The rolling six design may significantly decrease the duration of pediatric phase I studies without increasing the risk of toxicity. The design will be tested prospectively in upcoming Children's Oncology Group phase I trials.

Statistical designs

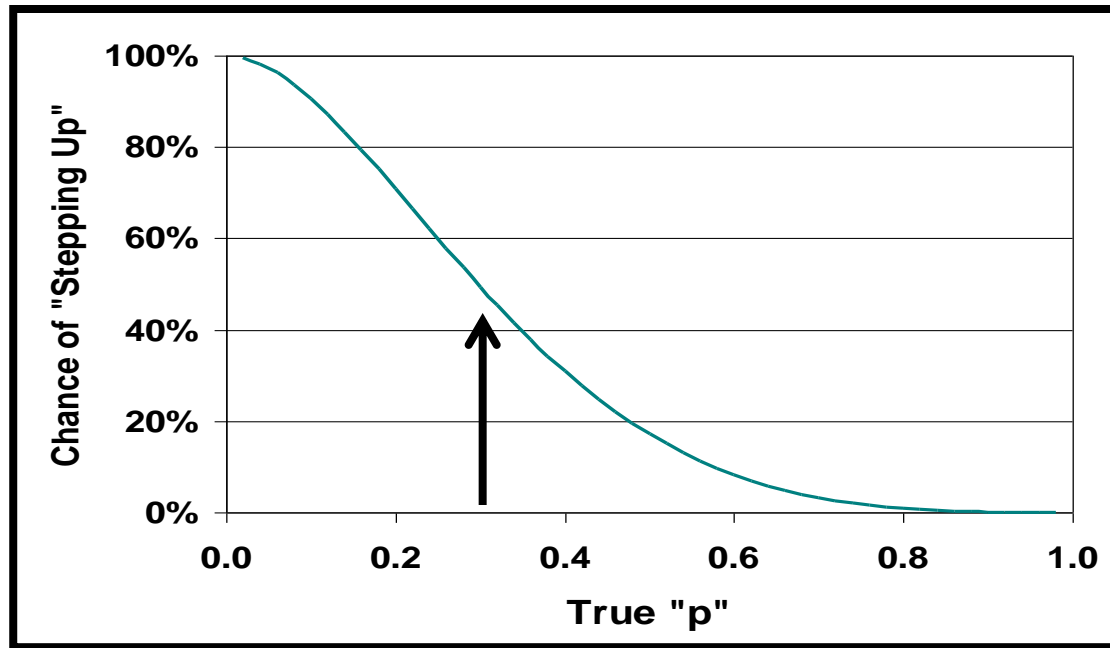
- 3+3 design
 - Cohorts of 3
 - Need toxic data from all 3
 - If 0/3 DLT
 - Next dose level
 - If 2/3 DLT= MTD
 - De-escalate so 6 at MTD
 - If 1/3 DLT
 - Expand to 6
 - If 1/6 DLT next level
 - If 2/6 DLT= MTD
 - replace inevaluable patient
- Rolling 6' s
 - Cohorts of 6
 - Need toxic data from 3
 - If 0/3 DLT
 - Next dose level
 - If 2/3-6 DLT= MTD
 - De-escalate so 6 at MTD
 - If 1/3 DLT or awaiting data
 - Continue the dose up to 6
 - replace inevaluable patient

Fixed dose (memoryless) designs

PROs of Conventional 3+3 Designs:

- Simple and intuitive algorithm
- Easy to implement and monitor – requires no computer program
- Familiar to many clinicians

However, the method has been criticized for treating many patients at low, ineffective doses and not producing a good estimate of the MTD.



For example, with a true 30% chance of a toxicity, there is still a 50% chance of “stepping up” to the next dose.

Hence, unsafe doses may be advanced to future trials.

Adaptive (memory) based designs

Adaptive dose finding methods offer more efficient ways to learn about dose response.

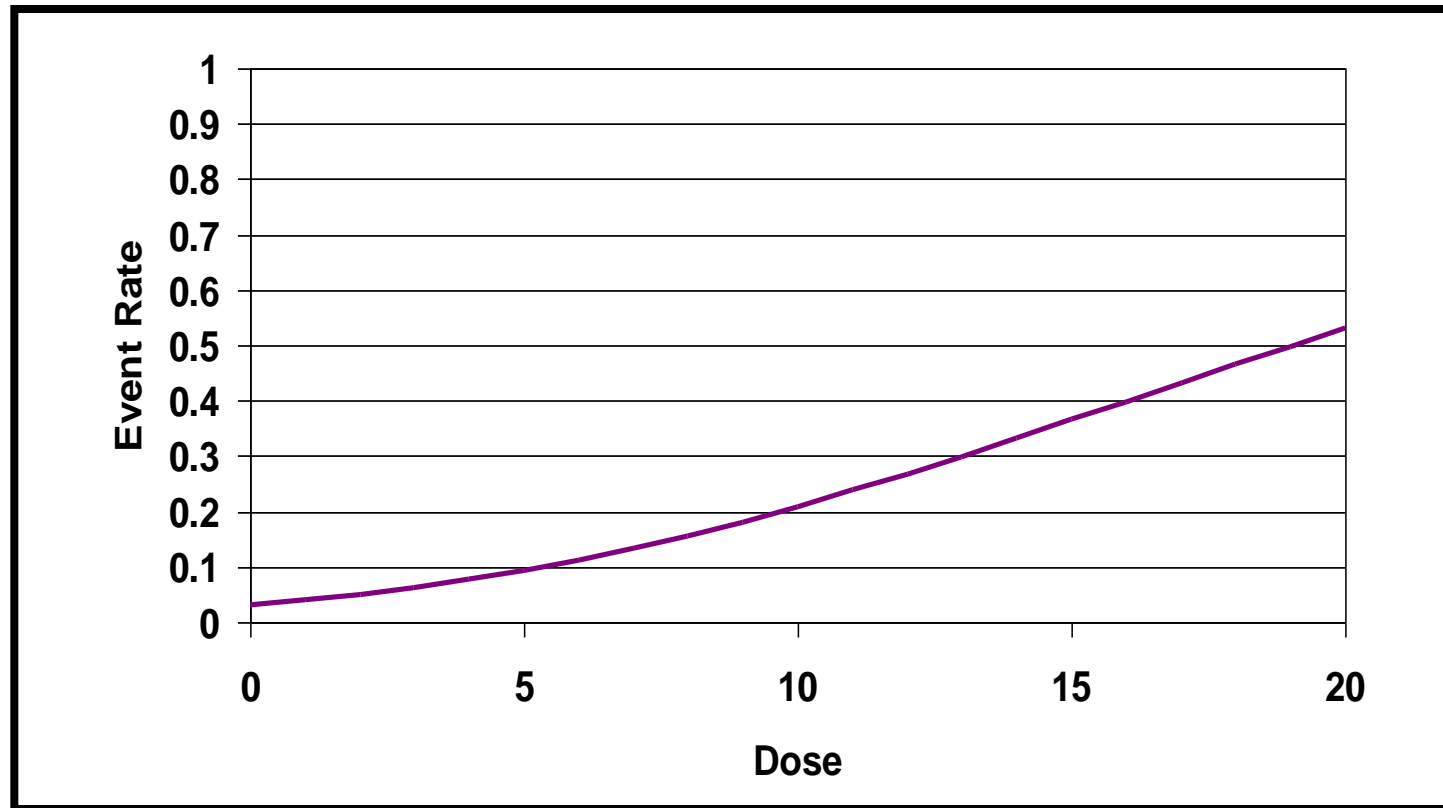
Most common approach is Continual Reassessment Method [CRM - See Garrett-Mayer (Statistics in Medicine, 2006) for an excellent tutorial].

- Originated as a Bayesian method for phase I cancer trials of cytotoxic agents.
- Assumes a particular model (such as logistic function), and probabilities of both efficacy and toxicity increase with increasing dose
- Assignment of doses converges to the MTD.

Steps for implementing CRM:

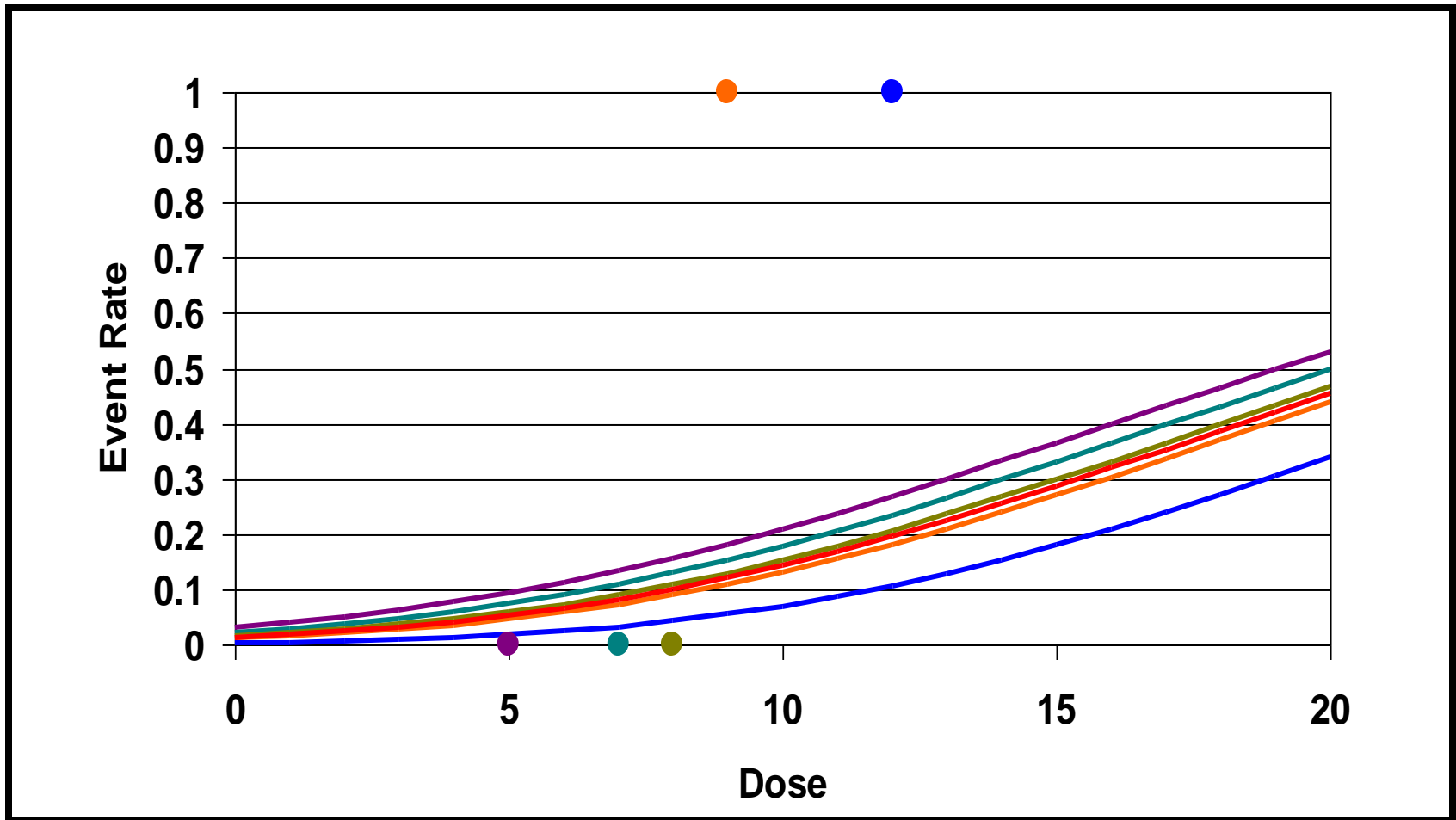
- 1) Begin with assumed a priori dose-toxicity curve and a chosen target toxicity rate
- 2) Assign first subject(s) dose most likely to be associated with target toxicity level
- 3) Updated dose-toxicity curve is refit (shifted slightly up or down) depending on whether or not first subject(s) experienced a DLT
- 4) Next subject assigned dose closest to target toxicity level based on updated curve
- 5) Continue until some pre-defined stopping criteria are met

For example, consider the following curve:

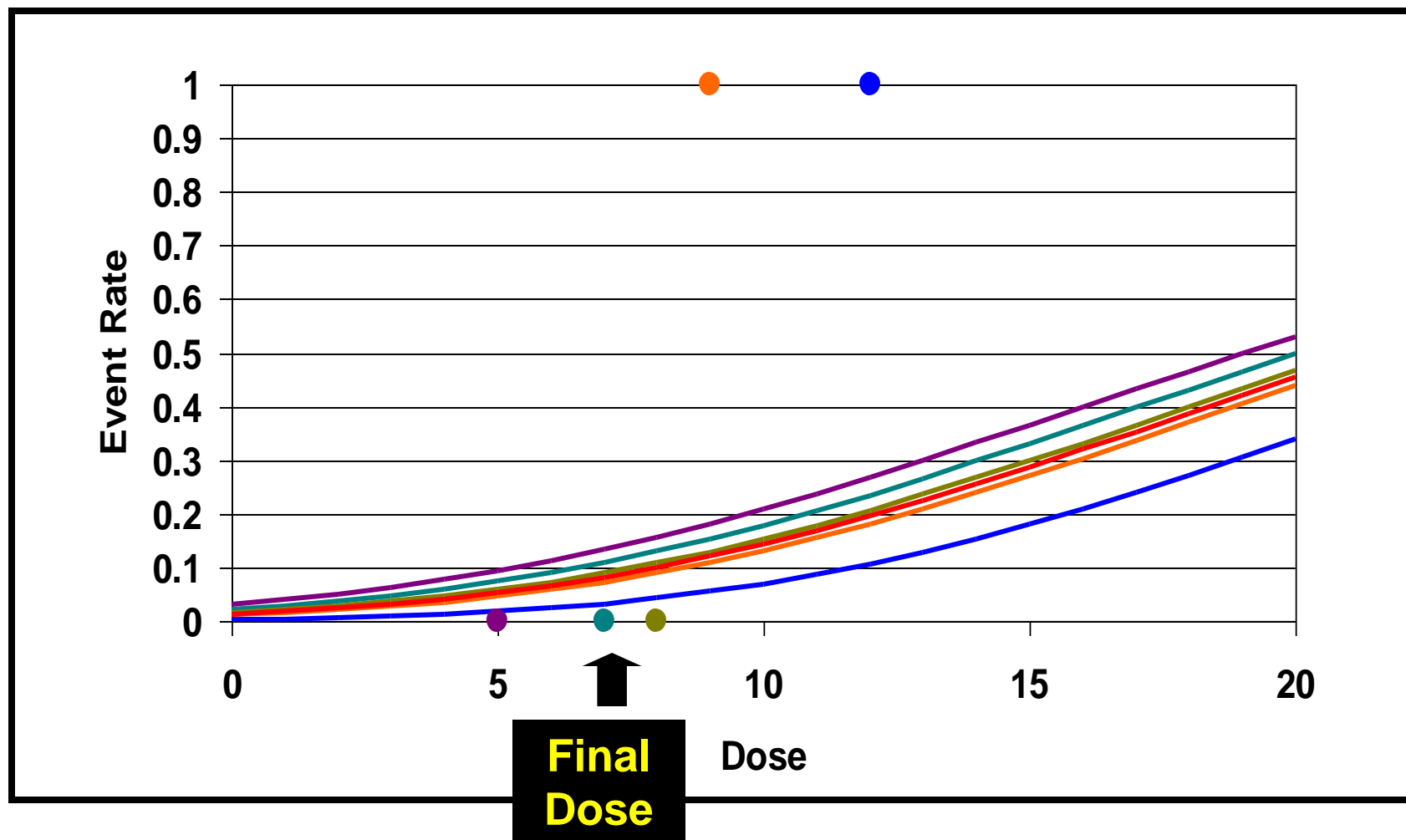


If target level of toxicity is 10%, then dose level 5 would be the optimal starting dose.

An example of how the CRM might work:



An example of how the CRM might work:



Adaptive (memory) based designs

PROs of CRM:

- “Learns” from information gained at early time points in the study – all participants studied contribute to the estimated dose.
- Generally more efficient/safer than 3+3 design
 - Can more accurately estimate the MTD as compared to standard 3+3 designs
 - More likely to treat participants at doses around the MTD
 - Less likely to treat participants at ineffective doses
 - Less likely to treat participants at toxic doses – tends to incur fewer dose-limiting toxicities.

Adaptive (memory) based designs

CONS of CRM:

- Implementation requires a substantial collaboration between the investigator and statistician
- Mathematical and statistical complexities make it difficult for many clinical investigators to understand.
- Properties must be assessed via simulation.
- Safety concern with original CRM: Large dose escalations can occur early based on limited information.

Adaptive (memory) based designs

Several modified CRM approaches have been developed to address these concerns:

- Always start at lowest dose level under consideration
- Enroll 2-3 patients in each cohort
- Any given dose escalation cannot increase by more than one level.

Toxicity determination & definitions

- Non-clinical toxicity profile from animals
 - Often very little “juvenile toxicity data”
- Adult toxicity data
- From available toxicity data can consider
 - Range of toxic effects & assessments required
 - Scheduling of assessments
 - Inclusion/ exclusion criteria
 - Concomitant supportive Rx
 - Design of data collection for Adverse Events (AEs)
 - Consideration of how/when to determine causality

Toxicity determination & definitions

Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events (CTCAE) version 4

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BLOOD/BONE MARROW

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Adverse Event	Short Name	Grade				
		1	2	3	4	5
Bone marrow cellularity	Bone marrow cellularity	Mildly hypocellular or ≤25% reduction from normal cellularity for age	Moderately hypocellular or >25 – ≤50% reduction from normal cellularity for age	Severely hypocellular or >50 – ≤75% reduction cellularity from normal for age	—	Death
CD4 count	CD4 count	<LLN – 500/mm ³ <LLN – 0.5 x 10 ⁹ /L	<500 – 200/mm ³ <0.5 – 0.2 x 10 ⁹ /L	<200 – 50/mm ³ <0.2 x 0.05 – 10 ⁹ /L	<50/mm ³ <0.05 x 10 ⁹ /L	Death
Haptoglobin	Haptoglobin	<LLN	—	Absent	—	Death
Hemoglobin	Hemoglobin	<LLN – 10.0 g/dL <LLN – 8.2 mmol/L <LLN – 100 g/L	<10.0 – 8.0 g/dL <8.2 – 4.9 mmol/L <100 – 80g/L	<8.0 – 6.5 g/dL <4.9 – 4.0 mmol/L <80 – 65 g/L	<6.5 g/dL <4.0 mmol/L <65 g/L	Death

Toxicity determination & definitions

- Dose limiting Toxicity
 - This is determined prior to trial
 - May vary according to agent, malignancy and population
 - Usually any non-haematological grade 3 CTCAE
 - Exceptions ? N&V (may allow prophylaxis)
 - Haematological toxicity
 - If agent is known to cause myelosuppression
 - Grade 4 CTCAE allowed but duration/ recovery defined
 - This may vary for leukaemia vs solid tumour trials

Toxicity determination & definitions

- Dose limiting Toxicity
 - Need to define the evaluation period
 - Usually 1-2 courses but note with targeted agents cumulative toxicity and tolerability are important!
- Non-DLT AE/ AR
 - Obviously these characterise toxicity profile
 - ? Cumulative/ Late
 - Consider possible paediatric specific issues
 - Effects on development/ maturation e.g. growth
 - Need to consider if Non-DLT
 - May influence tolerability

Specific Phase I challenges

- Specifically “targeted” agent
 - Should the population be selected?
 - Agent may not act as expected “Off target” effects
 - On tumour type
 - On target identification
 - Consider “enriching” population at RPII dose & following PD proven proof of mechanism

Specific Phase I challenges

- If tumour specific phase I challenges
 - E.g. CNS tumours
 - Existing/ new tumour related neurological AE' s
 - CSF/ BBB penetration
 - E.g. Leukaemia
 - Patients usually very heavily pre-treated (post-BMT)
 - Very quick “doubling time”
 - Myelosuppression

Specific Phase I challenges

- Multiple agent combination Phase I studies
 - Data available from adult combination?
 - Data from single agent Phase I
 - Toxicity profiles “overlapping”
 - PK Interactions?
 - Starting doses
 - Dose escalation
 - Can model using dose/ toxicity diagrams
 - May depend on action (targeted vs. non)

Practical issues

- Burden of assessments on patient
 - Number of interventions e.g. scans, blood tests and volumes, painful procedures
- Patient information
 - Consent and assent
 - During the trial
- Complexity/ timings of sample and investigation collection

Pitfalls

- Formulation- at this stage maybe only adult formulation e.g. tablets/ capsules and doses available
 - Maybe difficult to deliver ideal dose cohorts for wide range of ages/ body size!
- New paediatric formulations
 - Need to consider palatability, stability for specific child populations e.g. can drug go down NG tube?

Pitfalls

- We tend to not explore multiple schedules and simply take the adult schedule!
- Lack of translational biology means we may not be able to interrogate responders vs non-responders and reject sensitive subgroups

Pitfalls/Opportunities

- If starting dose is 100% adult and not likely to reach an MTD
 - When to stop? PK or PD based use scaled adult RP2D
 - Not many patient in dose escalation
 - Not enough for PK/ toxicity age subsets
 - Not enough for varying tumour subtypes
- Dose expansion cohorts
 - Allows extra PK/PD & preliminary activity data
- Seamless phase I/II study
 - Formally powered preliminary activity/ efficacy

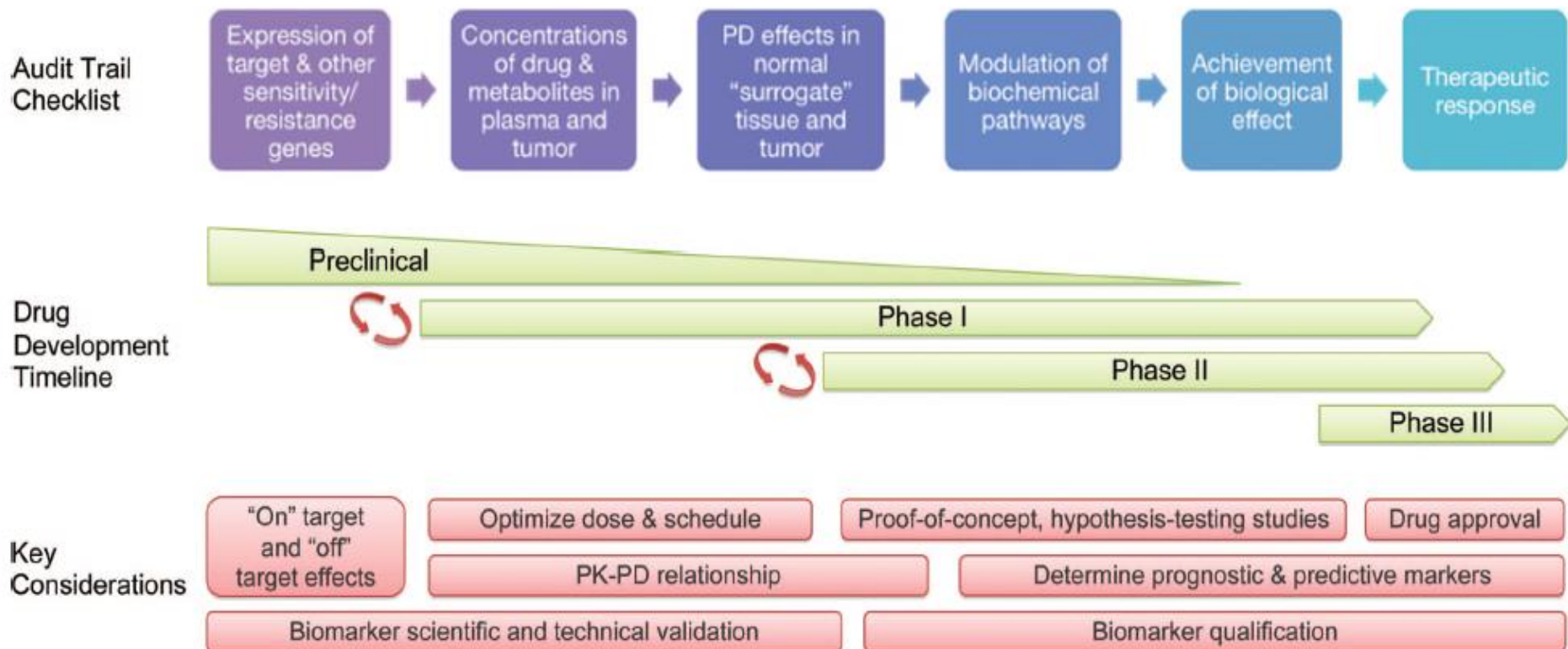
Biology-led clinical trials of targeted drugs

- Clinical trials for targeted drugs should be led by the biology & the clinical hypothesis.
 - **Hypothesis-testing** and **Biomarker-led**.
 - A drug acting on a specific molecular target is efficacious in patients with a particular type of genetic aberration.
 - Shift away from patient selection based on anatomical site & histology to stratification based on genomic aberrations.

Pharmacological Audit Trail

Tan et al

The Cancer Journal • Volume 15, Number 5, September/October 2009



Classification of Biomarkers

- Risk Biomarkers (*patient selection*)
 - Prognostic
 - Predictive
- Pharmacodynamic (*target modulation/ treatment effect*)
 - Proof of mechanism
 - Proof of concept
 - Toxicity
- Biological progression marker (*post-treatment monitoring*)
- Surrogate end-point (*correlated with overall survival*)

Types of Biomarkers

- Direct
 - Tumour biopsy
 - CSF cytology?
- Surrogate
 - Blood
 - Traditional (serum & PBMC)
 - Emerging (circulating tumor cells, free nucleic acid, proteomic and metabolomic markers)
 - Skin & hair follicles
 - Imaging biomarkers

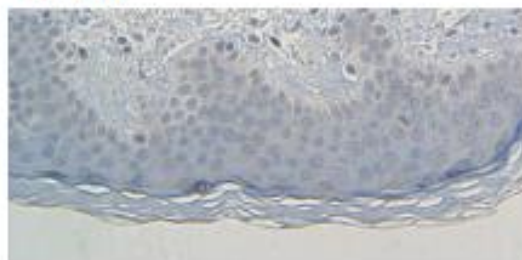
PD biomarkers in skin biopsies from AT9283/0001

Immunohistochemistry of skin biopsies
(Dose level 6 mg/msqd/day)

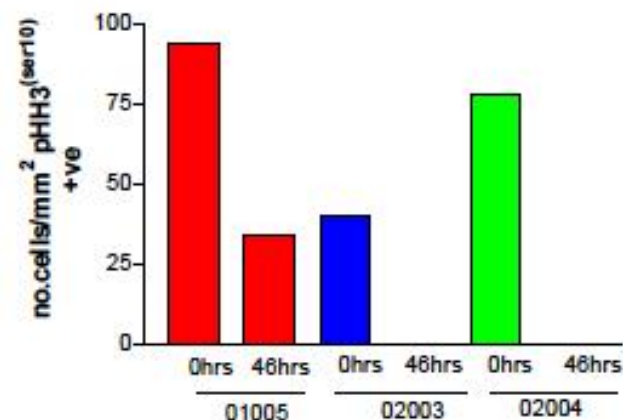
Pt 02003
C1H0



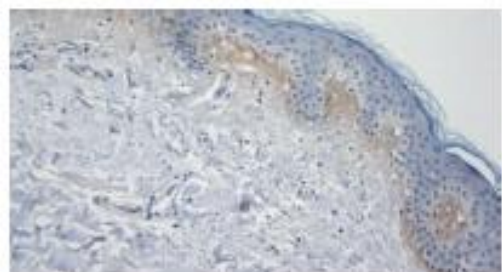
C1H46



No. cells/mm² positive for
pHH3^(ser10)
Cohort III (18mg/m²/72hrs)



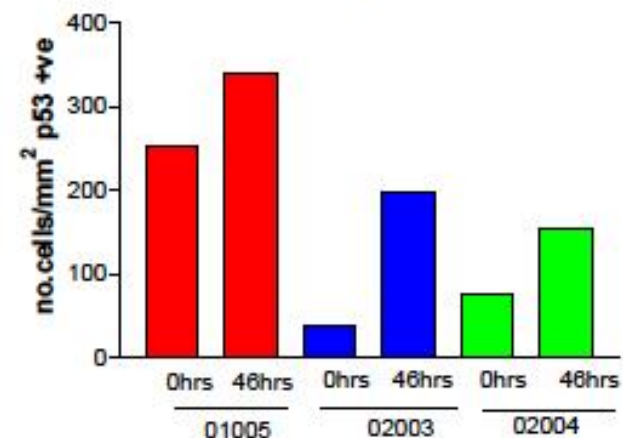
Pt 02004
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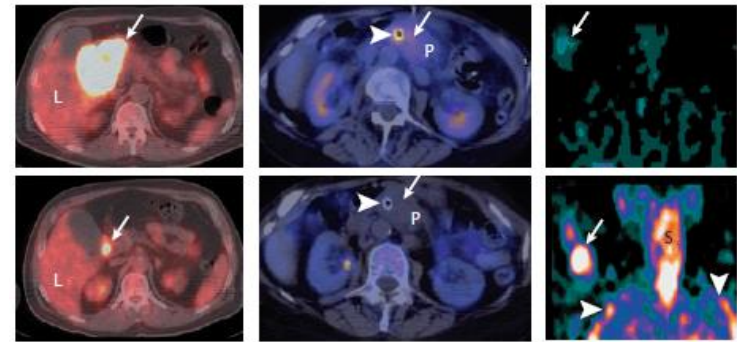
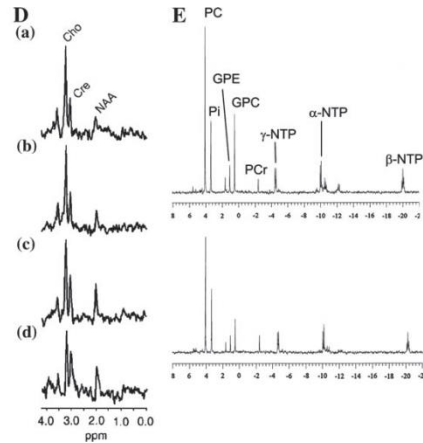
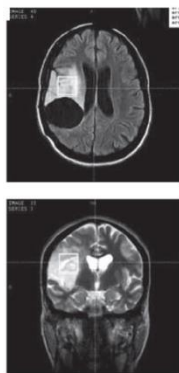
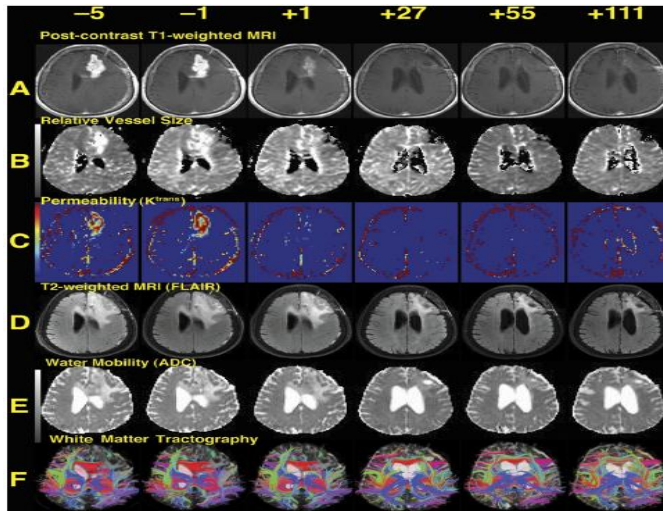
C1H46



No. cells/mm² positive for p53
Cohort III (18mg/m²/72hrs)



Imaging Biomarkers



a Tumour metabolism

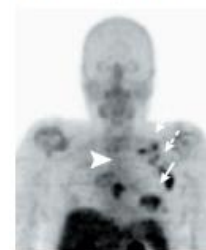
- Radiolabelled glucose, amino acids, choline

b Tumour proliferation

- Radiolabelled thymidine analogues: JdR, FMAU, FLT

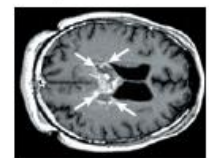
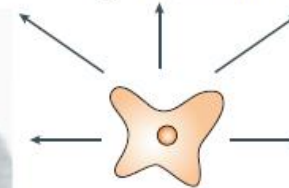
c Apoptosis in tumour

- Radiolabelled annexin V
- Caspase



d Tumour angiogenesis

- Radiolabelled RGD, α , β -targeted paramagnetic nanoparticles
- α , β /VEGFR2-targeted microbubbles



e Tumour hypoxia

- Radiolabelled MISO, ATSM, FAZA

Combination Studies

- Very few drugs will cure cancer as single agents!
- Combination could be with existing SOC
 - Cytotoxic chemotherapy
 - Radiotherapy
 - Targeted agent(s) based on scientific/ pre-clinical rationale

Design of Phase I Combination Trials: Recommendations of the Clinical Trial Design Task Force of the NCI Investigational Drug Steering Committee

Channing J. Paller¹, Penelope A. Bradbury¹¹, S. Percy Ivy², Lesley Seymour¹¹, Patricia M. LoRusso³, Laurence Baker⁴, Larry Rubinstein², Erich Huang², Deborah Collyar⁵, Susan Groshen⁶, Steven Reeves², Lee M. Ellis⁷, Daniel J. Sargent⁸, Gary L. Rosner¹, Michael L. LeBlanc⁹, and Mark J. Ratain¹⁰

1. Provide explicit or implicit hypothesis justifying the combination, including a pharmacologic or biologic rationale.

2. State potential clinical results from phase I and hypotheses for future studies.

3a. If overlapping DLT(s) or plausible basis for PD leading to DLT(s)

4a. Use a formal phase I evaluation with success/failure criteria stated *a priori*.

3b. If no overlapping DLT and no plausible PD, but plausible basis for PK interaction

4b. Use a formal drug–drug interaction design—primary endpoint PK.

3c. If no plausible basis for PK or PD interaction

4c. No formal phase I required. Consider “tolerability” as first phase (run-in) of the phase II study.

Figure 1 Clinical impact of drug combinations on the tumour

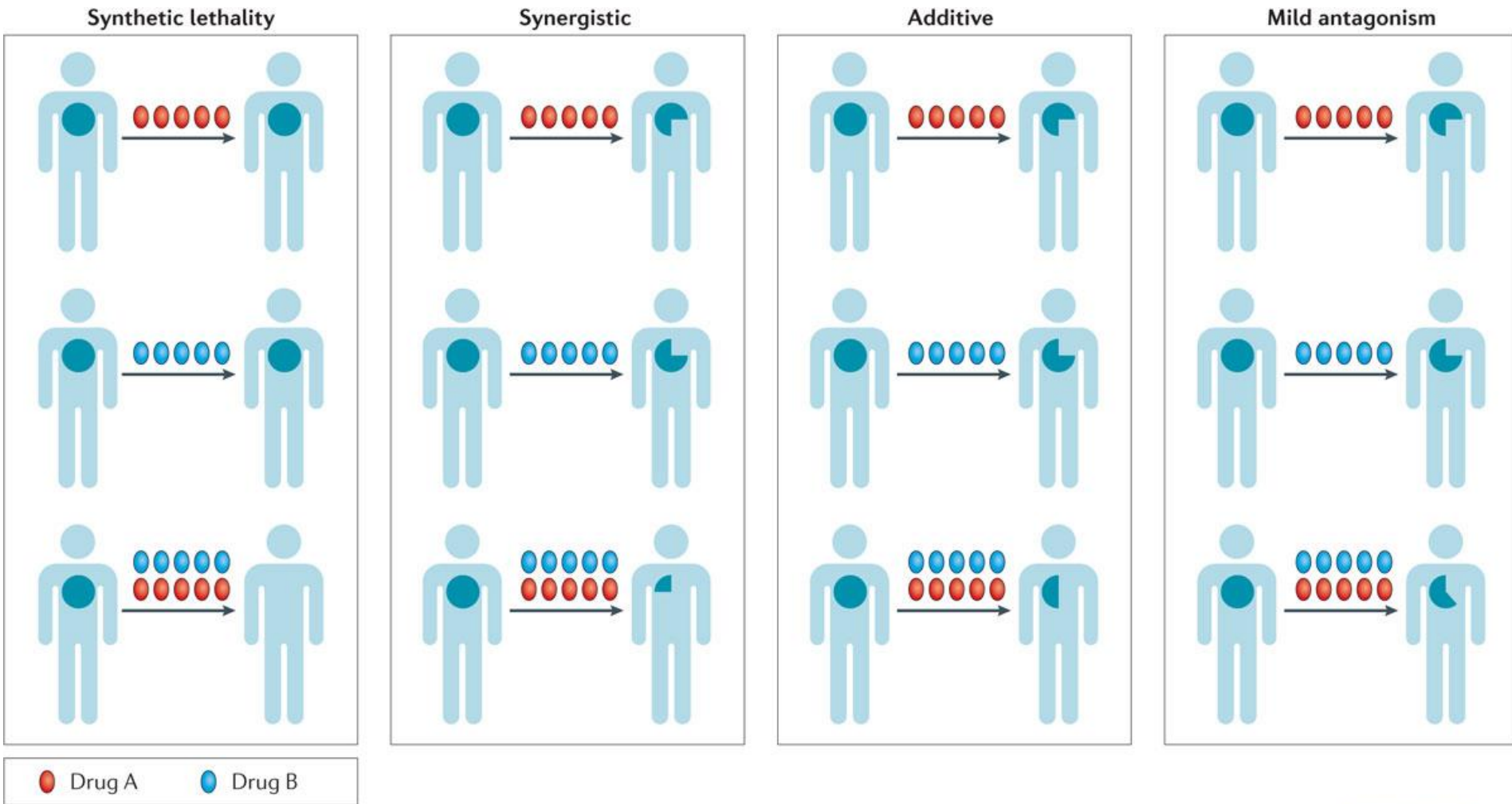


Figure 2 The challenge of optimizing drug dosing in combination regimens

a Traditional schema for dose finding of combinations

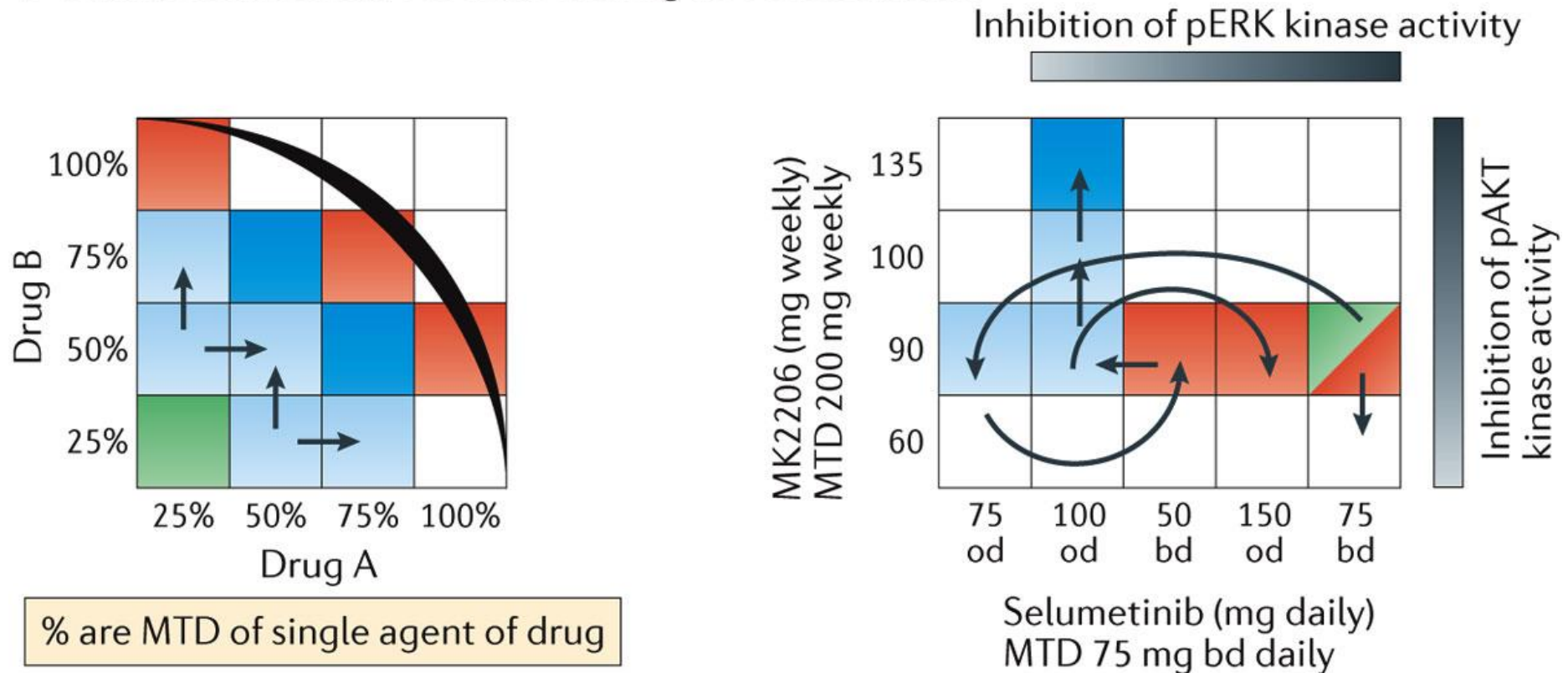
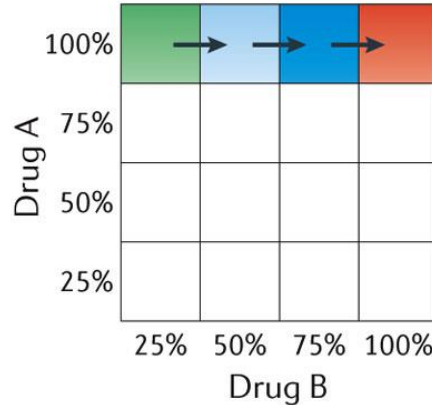
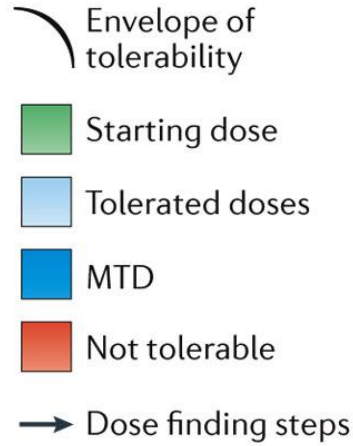


Figure 2 The challenge of optimizing drug dosing in combination regimens

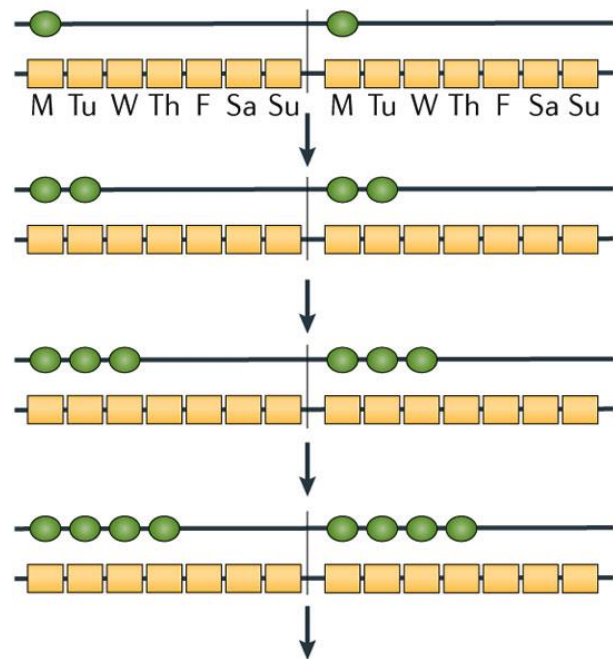
b Dose finding guided by optimal target inhibition of combinations



% are OBD of single agent of drug



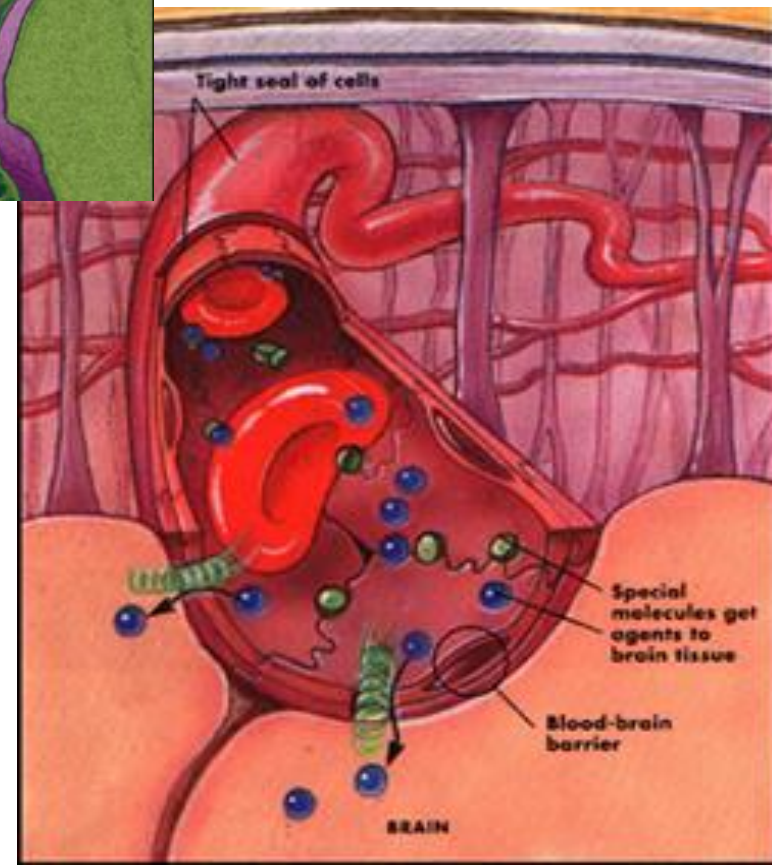
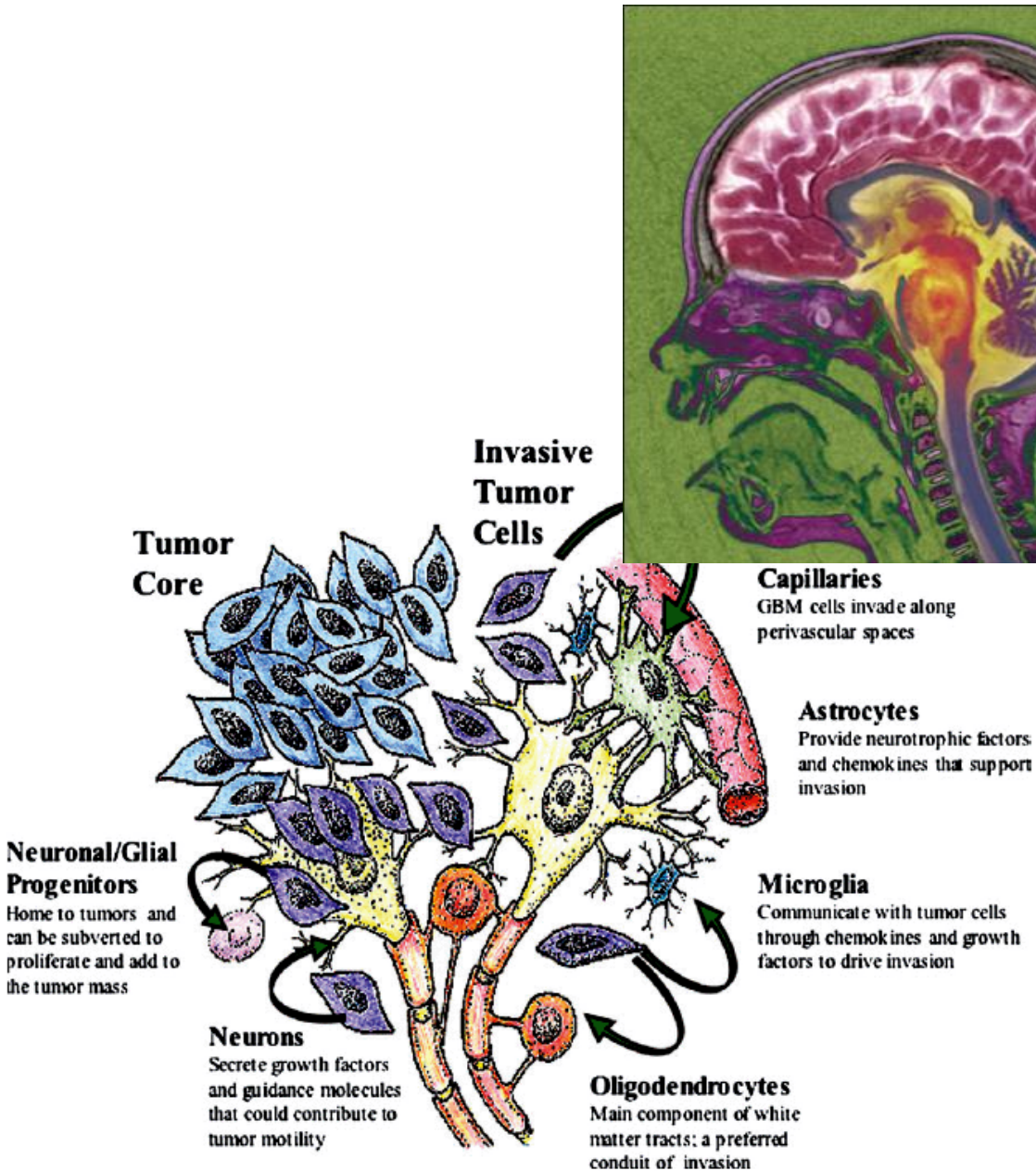
c Novel dose-escalation strategy using creative scheduling to optimally hit both targets



Drug A at recommended dose

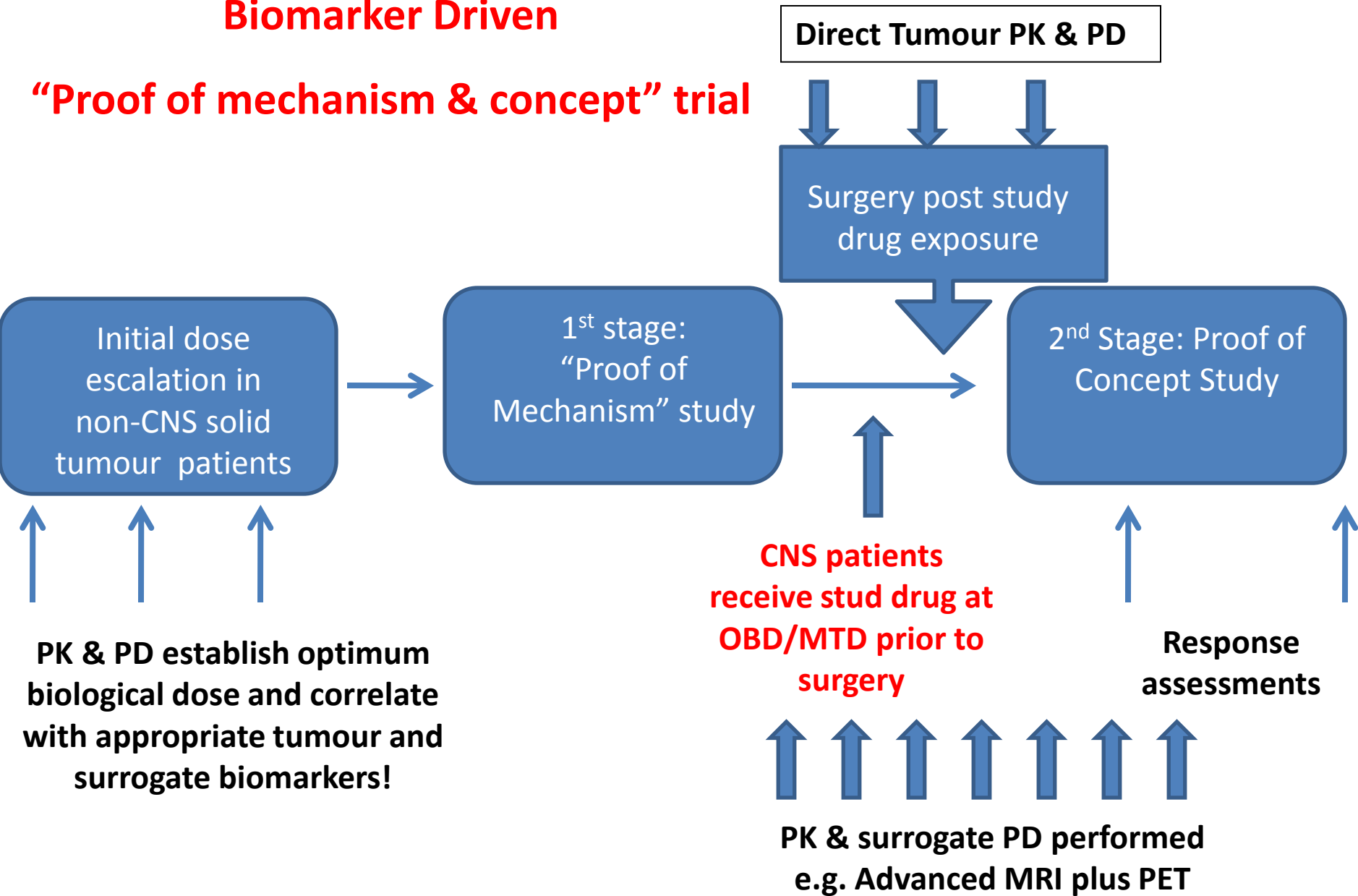
Drug B at recommended daily dose given on days indicated

Poor Drug Delivery



Biomarker Driven

“Proof of mechanism & concept” trial



Questions?