Randomization-based Inference for MCP-Mod

Lukas Pin, Alex Sverdlov, Frank Bretz, Björn Bornkamp





PSI Conference

London, 11th of June 2025

Introduction

Methodology

MCP-Mod

Penalised MLE

Randomization-based Inference

Randomization Procedures

Simulations

Motivation

Why?

MCP-Mod in small samples with a binary endpoint

Which challenges?

Asymptotic inference and non-existence of maximum-likelihood estimators (MLEs)

What is MCP-Mod?

MCP-Mod is used in Phase-II trials for testing and estimation of dose-response relationships

Solutions:

Randomization-based inference and penalised MLEs

Trial Example

- Randomized, double-blinded Phase-II trial
- Binary outcome: 1 = Success, 0 = Failure.
- Objective: Assess efficacy and safety across 3 dose levels (10 mg, 25 mg, 100 mg) vs. placebo (0 mg).
- Assumed response rates: Placebo: 20% Highest dose (100 mg): 80%
- Total of n = 49 patients randomized 1:2:2:2 ratio (placebo vs. active doses).
- 80% power to detect dose-response signal at one-sided 10% significance level.

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Generalised MCP-Mod

Purpose:

- Multiple Comparison Procedures and Modeling (MCP-Mod) approach for testing and modeling the relationship between doses and responses (Bretz et al., 2005).
- Generalised MCP-Mod extends to more complex scenarios like binary outcomes, count data, or time-to-event endpoints (Pinheiro et al., 2014).

Implementation:

Available in the DoseFinding package in R.

Used in practice and regulatory recognition:

Recognized by EMA and FDA for use in Phase-II dose-finding studies.

The Two Steps of MCP-Mod

1. Testing dose-response signal:

• Use of **multiple contrast tests** to evaluate the null hypothesis:

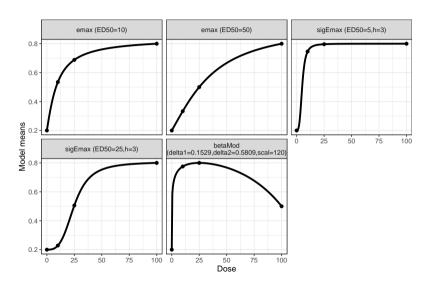
$$H_0: \mu_0 = \mu_1 = \ldots = \mu_{k-1}$$

- Optimized contrast coefficients detect specific dose-response shapes.
- Controls type-I error rate at a predefined significance level.

2. Estimating dose-response relationship:

- If the null hypothesis is rejected, estimate the dose-response relationship.
- Uses **model averaging** to ensure robust estimation.

Candidate Models



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Complete Separation in Logistic Regression

Complete separation:

- Occurs when predictor variables perfectly predict the outcome.
 - e.g. when we have zero responders on placebo group
- A hyperplane separates the two classes perfectly.
- This leads to the non-existence of MLEs.

Solution: Firth's Method (Firth, 1993)

- Modifies the score function to reduce bias of MLEs.
- Ensures finite estimates even in cases of complete separation.
- Implemented in R using the logistf-package.

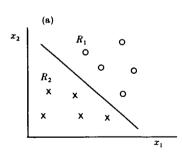


Figure 1: Complete Separation (Albert & Anderson, 1984)

Impact of Sample Size on Complete Separation

Complete separation and sample size:

- More likely to occur with smaller sample sizes.
- Evident in our trial example

Simulation results (10,000 simulations):

- Sample Size = 49: Likelihood of complete separation: 18.02%.
- Sample Size = 98: Likelihood decreases to 3.36%.
- Sample Size = 490: No cases of complete separation observed.

Conclusion:

- Complete separation is **much more common** in smaller samples.
- Becomes exceedingly rare as sample size grows.

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Population-based Inference

- Assumes trial sample is drawn from a larger super-population.
- Statistical model describes how data are generated from the population.
- Strong assumptions: independent sampling, parametric distributional assumptions.
 - → Violation of assumptions can lead to biased estimates and incorrect inference.
- Reminder: In generalized MCP-Mod we evaluate the null hypothesis:

$$H_0: \mu_0 = \mu_1 = \ldots = \mu_{k-1},$$

where $\mu_0, ..., \mu_{k-1}$ are the dose response means.

Randomization-based Inference

- Focuses on the finite trial sample, no assumptions about a larger population.
- Tests strong null hypothesis:

$$H_0: y_{i,d_0} = \ldots = y_{i,d_{k-1}}$$
 for all $i \in \{1,\ldots,n\}$,

where $y_{i,d_0},...,y_{i,d_{k-1}}$ are potential outcomes of patient i.

- Does not rely on distributional assumptions for the outcome, only on randomization.
- P-value can be approximated via Monte Carlo sampling.
- Read more: Imbens & Rubin (2015) & Rosenberger & Lachin (2016)

Population-based vs. Randomization-based

$$H_0: \mu_0 = \mu_1 = \ldots = \mu_{k-1}$$

$$H_0: y_{i,d_0} = \ldots = y_{i,d_{k-1}}$$

Randomization-based Inference for MCP-Mod (1/2)

Proposing two randomization-based MCP-Mod test statistics:

Test statistic 1: Generalized MCP-Mod

• Fit a GLM with linear predictor (incl. covariates):

$$\eta_i = \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{Z})_i' \boldsymbol{\delta} + \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\delta} = (\delta_1, \dots, \delta_{k-1})'$ contains treatment differences versus placebo and $\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{Z})'_i$ is the treatment assignment vector for patient i

- Estimate group means $\widehat{\mu}_{\mathbf{Z}}$ and covariance matrix $\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{Z}}$.
- Compute test statistic:

$$S_1(\mathbf{Z}) = \max_{m=1,...,M} T_{1m}(\mathbf{Z}), \quad \text{where} \quad T_{1m}(\mathbf{Z}) = \frac{\mathbf{c}_m' \widehat{\mu}_{\mathbf{Z}}}{\sqrt{\mathbf{c}_m' \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{c}_m}},$$

where c_1, \ldots, c_M are optimal contrasts for the M candidate model shapes.

Randomization-based Inference for MCP-Mod (2/2)

Motivation: Avoid fitting the GLM for each Monte Carlo sample (Parhat et al., 2014).

Test statistic 2: Residual-based inference

- 1. Fit a GLM with linear predictor: $\eta_i = \alpha + \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta}$
- 2. Compute residuals: $r_i = y_i g(\hat{\eta}_i) = y_i g(\hat{\alpha} + \mathbf{x}_i'\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$
- 3. Residuals r_1, \ldots, r_n contain information about treatment differences. Calculate residual group means and variances:

$$\bar{r}_{Z} = (\bar{r}_{0}, \dots, \bar{r}_{k-1}), \quad s_{Z}^{2} = (s_{0}^{2}, \dots, s_{k-1}^{2})$$

4. Compute:

$$S_2(\mathbf{Z}) = \max_{m=1,...,M} T_{2m}(\mathbf{Z}), \quad \text{where} \quad T_{2m}(\mathbf{Z}) = \frac{\mathbf{c}_m' \bar{\mathbf{r}}_{\mathbf{Z}}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} c_{m,j}^2 \frac{s_j^2}{n_j}}}$$

Monte Carlo Randomization Test

Both test statistics S_1 and S_2 can be used in a Monte Carlo randomization test.

Procedure:

- 1. Calculate test statistic $S_i(\mathbf{Z}_{obs})$ for observed randomization sequence.
- 2. Repeatedly sample treatment assignments $\mathbf{Z}_{l} = (Z_{l,1}, \dots, Z_{l,n})$ for $l = 1, \dots, n_{\text{rand}}$.
- 3. Samples are drawn from the reference set \mathcal{R}_Z using the randomization probability distribution $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Z})$, where \mathcal{R}_Z contains all possible treatment assignments under the employed randomization procedure.
- 4. Calculating test statistics: For each re-randomization \mathbf{Z}_{l} , compute $S_{i}(\mathbf{Z}_{l})$ for i = 1, 2.

Computing the p-value:

• The one-sided p-value is estimated as:

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{n_{\mathsf{rand}}} \mathbf{1}(S_i(\mathbf{Z}_l) \geq S_i(\mathbf{Z}_{\mathsf{obs}}))}{n_{\mathsf{rand}}},$$

where $S_i(\mathbf{Z}_{obs})$ is the test statistic for the observed assignment.

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Reference Set \mathcal{R}_Z

The reference set \mathcal{R}_Z is determined by **randomization procedure**. We analysed:

- 1. Complete Randomization (CR)
 - Each patient is randomized individually according to pre-specified probability distribution.
 - No predictability of treatment assignments but imbalance between groups likely.
- 2. Random Allocation Rule (RA)
 - Urn design: Drawing treatment allocation without replacement.
 - Ensuring exact allocation to each treatment but some predictability.
- 3. Permuted Block Design (PBD)
 - Repeated RA in blocks to be more robust to time trends.
 - Ensuring exact allocation to each treatment but even more predictability.

Consider our clinical trial example with n = 49. For PBD we can have 7 blocks of length 7, each with 1:2:2:2 allocation ratio. The total number of randomization sequences:

- for PBD is $\binom{7}{1222}^7 = 630^7 \approx 3.94 \cdot 10^{19}$
- then for RA is $\binom{49}{7141414} = \frac{49!}{714141414} \approx 1.82 \cdot 10^{26}$ and
- for CR it is $7^{49} \approx 2.57 \cdot 10^{41}$

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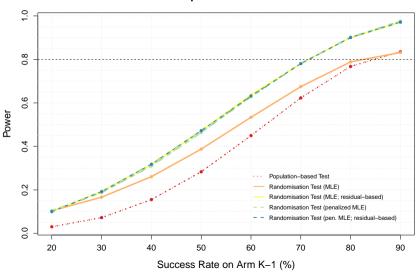
Simulations

Reminder: Trial Example

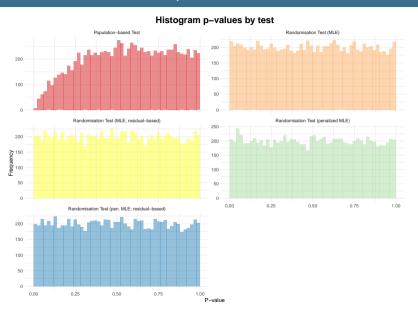
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- Objective: Assess efficacy and safety across 3 dose levels (10 mg, 25 mg, 100 mg) vs. placebo (0 mg).
- Assumed response rates: Placebo: 20% Highest dose (100 mg): 80%
- Total of n = 49 patients randomized 1:2:2:2 ratio (placebo vs. active doses).
- Binary outcome: 1 = Success, 0 = Failure.
- 80% power to detect dose-response signal at one-sided 10% significance level.
- PBD with block size 7 is used and a covariate is included

Power Comparison





Distribution of p-values under the Null



Findings Original Scenario

- Randomization tests (Residual-based and MCP-Mod with penalized MLE):
 - Achieve higher power than population-based test.
 - Exhausts significance level.

Population-based test:

- Underperforms due to issues with complete separation.
- Does not exhaust significance level. (Mainly because complete seperation occurs in 18% of cases with n = 49 and null hypothesis cant be rejected in those cases.)

13 Other Scenarios

Sample Size	Randomization Method	Time Trend
49	{RA, PBD }	$\{\mathbf{No},\ Yes\}$
98	{RA, PBD}	$\{No,Yes\}$
490	{RA, PBD, CR}	$\{No, Yes\}$

Table 1: The 14 data generating scenarios.

- Outcomes are simulate under Emax model from the candidate set.
- Linear time trend $\gamma_i^t = \max(0, \min(\gamma_i + t_i, 1))$ where $t_i = 0.4 \cdot i/n 0.2$ for i = 1, ..., n.
- One covariate always included in analysis.

Findings Additional Scenarios

Impact of time trends:

- Type-I error rate:
 - Population-based test: deflated for all sample sizes under PBD when time trends are present.
 - Randomization tests always maintain control per definition.

Impact of randomization procedures:

- Power comparison:
 - Randomization test: higher power with PBD compared to Random Allocation (RA) and Complete Randomization (CR). CR shows slightly lower power than RA.
- Sample size effects:
 - With larger n (n = 98,490), randomization tests exhaust significance level even more exact.
 - Power differences between all tests diminish with increasing *n*.

Computational efficiency of randomization tests:

- Residual-based approach over 14 times faster.
- Conclusion: residual-based tests preferred due to efficiency and robustness.

Findings Confirmed: in simulation study with continuous endpoint in pharmacometric setting

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Conclusions

Penalized MLE:

- Complete separation issue in logistic regression, especially with small sample sizes.
 - \rightarrow Leads to non-existent MLEs.
- Using penalized MLE effectively addresses complete separation.
- Particularly significant in small to medium-sized samples.

Randomization test:

- Randomization-based tests showed improved power in certain scenarios and control & exhaust type-I error per definition.
- Enhanced power consistent across various scenarios, including with and without covariates / time trends.

Residual-based vs. standard MCP-Mod

- Residual-based randomization tests using test performed as well as or better than the
 one using the standard MCP-Mod test statistic.
- Demonstrated computational advantages (more efficient).

Future Research

- Explore additional randomization procedures:
 - Investigate methods beyond complete randomization, random allocation, and permuted block design.
 - Consider complex designs like **covariate-adaptive** and **response-adaptive randomization**.
- Examine different test statistics:
 - Evaluate alternative test statistics beyond those motivated by MCP-Mod.
 - Aim to improve performance under specific conditions.
- Broaden applications in complex trial designs:
 - Address challenges in complex designs, high-dimensional data, unbalanced groups.

Paper avaliable (Statistics in Medicine):



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Questions?

Thank you to everyone for lisiting!

lukas.pin@mrc-bsu.cam.ac.uk

Questions?

