
Phase I Trials

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Learning Objectives

- ▶ Understand the purpose of phase I trials
- ▶ Become familiar with concepts of dose limiting toxicities (DLTs), recommended phase II dose (RPTD), and optimal biological dose (OBD)
- ▶ Provide an overview of the types of trial designs used determine the RPTD
- ▶ Introduction to the role of biomarkers in phase I trials

Definitions of Phase I Trial

First evaluation of a new cancer therapy in humans

- First-in-human, first-in-class single agent
- First-in-human, non first-in-class single agent
- Combination of novel agents
- Combination novel agent and approved agent
- Combination of approved agents
- Combination of novel agent and radiation therapy

Eligible patients usually have refractory solid tumors of any type

Prerequisites for Phase I

- Unmet clinical need
- Biological plausibility (target validation)
- Expectation of benefit (preclinical activity)
- Reasonable expectation of safety (preclinical toxicology)
- Basis for selection of starting dose

Objectives of Phase I Trial

- ▶ Primary objective:
 - Identify dose-limiting toxicities (DLTs) and the recommended phase II dose (RPTD)
- ▶ Secondary objectives:
 - Describe the toxicity profile of the new therapy in the schedule under evaluation
 - Assess pharmacokinetics (PK)
 - Assess pharmacodynamic effects (PD) in tumor and/or surrogate tissues
 - Document any preliminary evidence of objective anti-tumor activity

Key Concepts: DLT

- ▶ Dose-limiting toxicity (DLT):
 - Toxicity that is considered unacceptable (due to severity and/or irreversibility) and limits further dose escalation
 - Specified using standardized grading criteria, e.g. Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Event (CTCAE)
 - DLT is defined in advance prior to beginning the trial and is protocol-specific
 - Typically defined based on toxicity seen in the first cycle

CTCAE Criteria

- Grade 1 = MILD
- Grade 2 = MODERATE
- Grade 3 = SEVERE
- Grade 4 = LIFE-THREATENING
- Grade 5 = FATAL

DLT Definitions – Intermittent Dosing

Generally can tolerate higher degrees of toxicity because the interval between treatments allows for rest and recovery

- Examples:
 - Grade 3 or worse non-hematologic toxicity despite supportive measures
 - ANC $< 0.5 \times 10^9/L$ for ≥ 5 or 7 days
 - Febrile neutropenia (ANC $< 1 \times 10^9/L$, fever $\geq 38.5^\circ C$)
 - Platelets $< 25 \times 10^9/L$ or thrombocytopenic bleeding
 - Inability to re-treat patient within 2 weeks of scheduled treatment

DLT Definitions – Daily dosing

Threshold for DLTs is lower

- Some Grade 2 toxicities may be unacceptable and intolerable due to their persistence and lack of time period for recovery
- Examples:
 - Grade 2 intolerable or worse non-hematologic toxicity despite supportive measures
 - Recurrent Grade 2 intolerable toxicity after interruption
 - Grade 3 or worse hematologic toxicity
 - Inability to complete a pre-specified percentage of treatment during the cycle due to toxicity (e.g. missing 20-25% of doses)

Terminology

- ▶ Terms maximum administered dose (MAD), maximum tolerated dose (MTD) are confusing
- ▶ Better Term = Recommended phase II dose (RPTD):
 - Dose associated with DLT in a pre-specified proportion of patients (e.g. $< 33\%$) – dose that will be used in subsequent phase II trials

Key Principles of Phase I Trials

- Start with a safe starting dose
- Minimize # of pts treated at sub-toxic doses
- Escalate dose rapidly in the absence of toxicity
- Escalate dose slowly in the presence of toxicity
- Expand patient cohort at RPTD

Patient Population

- **“Conventional” eligibility criteria- examples:**
 - Advanced solid tumors unresponsive to standard therapies or for which there is no known effective treatment
 - Performance status (e.g. ECOG 0 or 1)
 - Adequate organ functions (e.g. ANC, platelets, Creatinine, AST/ALT, bilirubin)
 - Specification about prior therapy allowed
 - Specification about time interval between prior therapy and initiation of study treatment
 - No serious uncontrolled medical disorder or active infection

Patient Population

- **“Agent-specific” eligibility criteria- examples:**
 - Specific organ exclusions:
 - Cardiac function (e.g. QTc \geq 450-470 ms, LVEF \leq 50%, etc), acute MI/CVA if preclinical data or prior clinical data of similar agents suggest cardiac risks
 - Recent hemorrhage or ongoing anticoagulation for agents with bleeding risk (ie. antiangiogenic)
 - Diabetes or fasting plasma hyperglycemia \geq 7.9 mmol/L for agents with risk of hyperglycemia (ie. PI3K/mTOR, IGF-1R)
 - Prohibited medications if significant risk of interaction with study drug
 - Prior exposure to drug in same class

Pre-clinical Toxicology

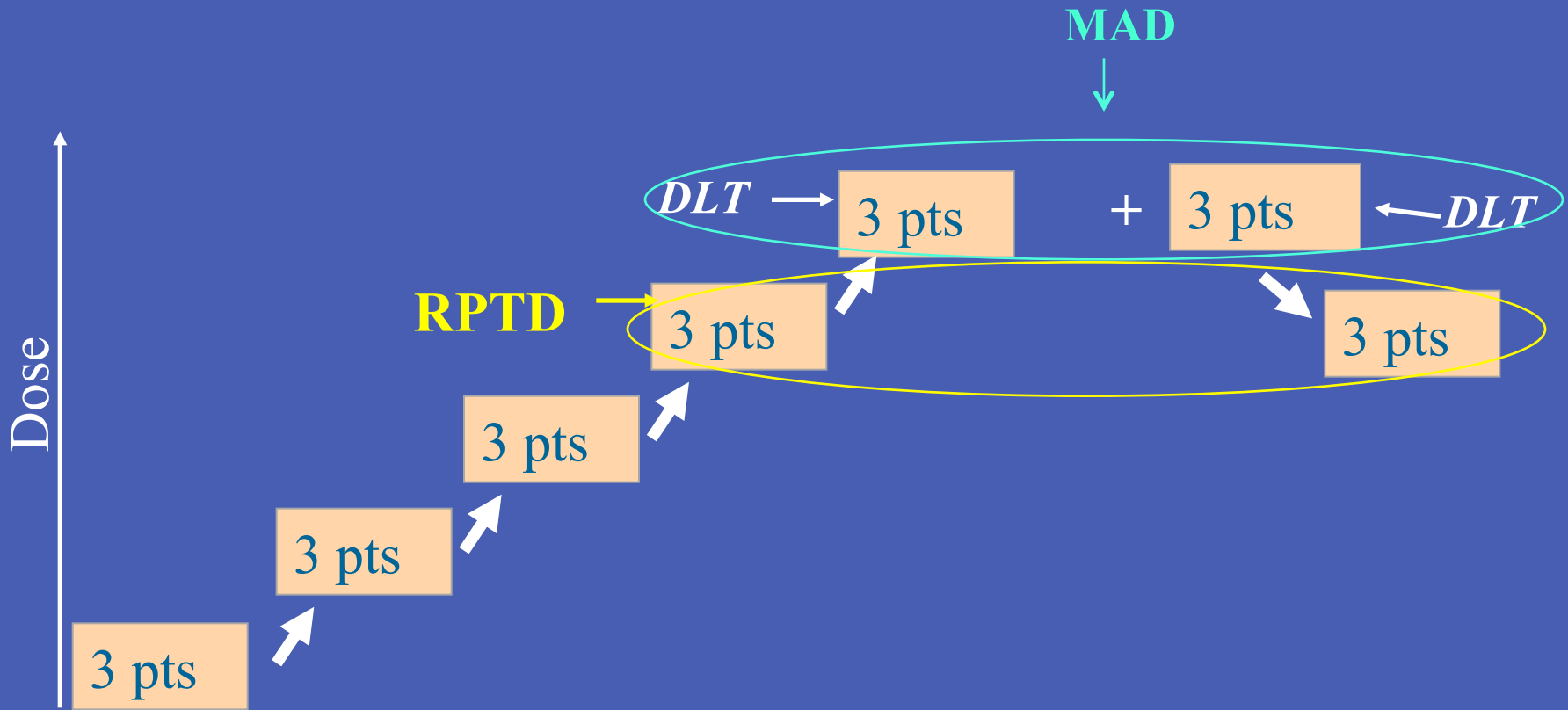
- Typically a rodent (mouse or rat) and non-rodent (dog or non-human primate) species
- Reality of animal organ specific toxicities – very few predict for human toxicity
 - Myelosuppression and gastrointestinal toxicity more predictable
 - Hepatic and renal toxicities – large false positive
- Typical starting dose:
 - $1/10^{\text{th}}$ of LD₁₀ rodents = lethal dose in 10% of animal
 - OR
 - $1/3^{\text{rd}}$ of TDL large animals = lowest dose that causes any toxicity in animals

Species	To convert animal dose in mg/kg to dose in mg/m ² , multiply by Km below:	To convert animal dose in mg/kg to HED in mg/kg, either:	
		Divide animal dose by	Multiple animal dose by
Human	37	–	–
Child (20 kg)	25	–	–
Mouse	3	12.3	0.08
Hamster	5	7.4	0.13
Rat	6	6.2	0.16
Ferret	7	5.3	0.19
Guinea pig	8	4.6	0.22
Rabbit	12	3.1	0.32
Dog	20	1.8	0.54
Primates:			
Monkeys	12	3.1	0.32
Marmoset	6	6.2	0.16
Squirrel monkey	7	5.3	0.19
Baboon	20	1.8	0.54
Micro-pig	27	1.4	0.73
Mini-pig	35	1.1	0.95

Principles of Dose Escalation

- The higher the dose, the greater the likelihood of efficacy
 - Dose-related acute toxicity is regarded as a surrogate for efficacy
 - The highest safe dose is the dose most likely to be efficacious
 - This dose-effect assumption is primarily for cytotoxic agents and may not apply to molecularly targeted agents

Classical 3+3 Design



Typically inpatient dose escalation is not allowed

Classical 3+3 Design

# of pts w/DLT	Action
0/3	Increase to next level
1/3	Accrue 3 more pts at same dose level
1/3 + 0/3	Increase to next dose level
1/3 + 1/3	Stop: recommend previous dose level
1/3 + 2/3	Stop: recommend previous dose level
1/3 + 3/3	Stop: recommend previous dose level
2/3	Stop: recommend previous dose level
3/3	Stop: recommend previous dose level

Modified Fibonacci Dose Escalation

- Attributed to a merchant from the 13th century
- Doses increase by: 100%, 66%, 50%, 40%, 33%, etc.
- Standard “3+3” design: 3 patients per cohort, escalating to 6 if DLT occurs
- Dose escalate until DLT observed and MTD/RPTD defined
- **Advantages:**
 - relatively safe, straightforward, clinician-friendly
- **Disadvantages:**
 - lacks statistical foundation and precision, potentially treating a large proportion of patients at sub-therapeutic doses, time consuming

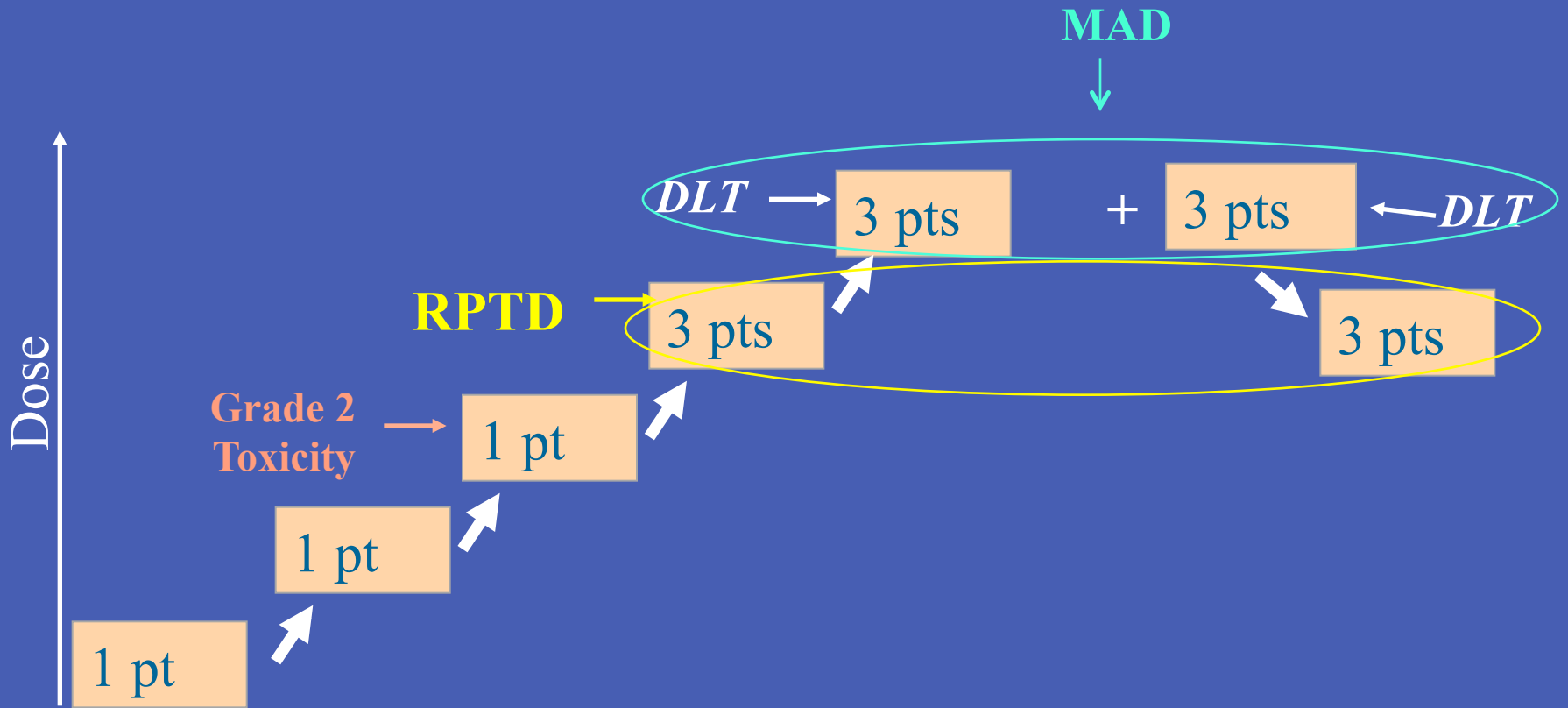
Limitations of 3+3 Design

- Many patients treated at ineffective doses in initial cohorts
- Escalation to RPTD can take a long time
- High risk of severe toxicity in late cohorts
- Wide confidence intervals for RPTD

Accelerated Titration Design (Rule-Based)

- First proposed by Simon et al (J Natl Cancer Inst 1997)
- Several variations exist:
- usual is doubling dose in single-patient cohorts till Grade 2 toxicity
- then revert to standard 3+3 design using a 40% dose escalation
- inpatient dose escalation allowed in some variations
- More rapid initial escalation

Classical 3+3 Design



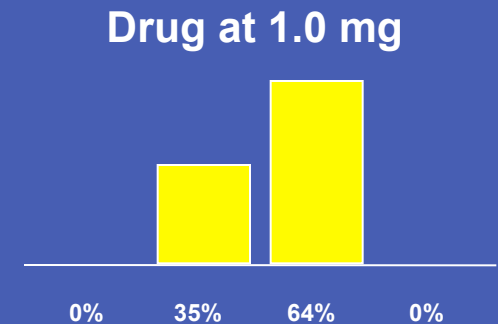
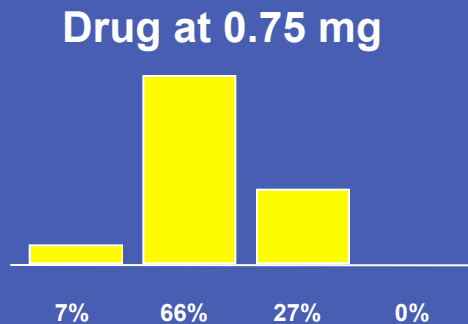
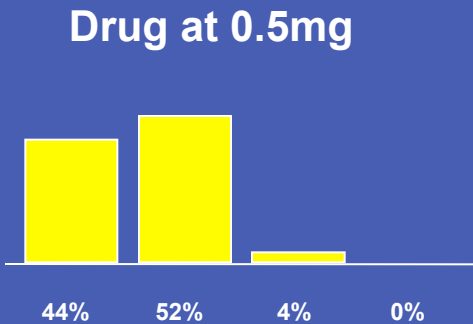
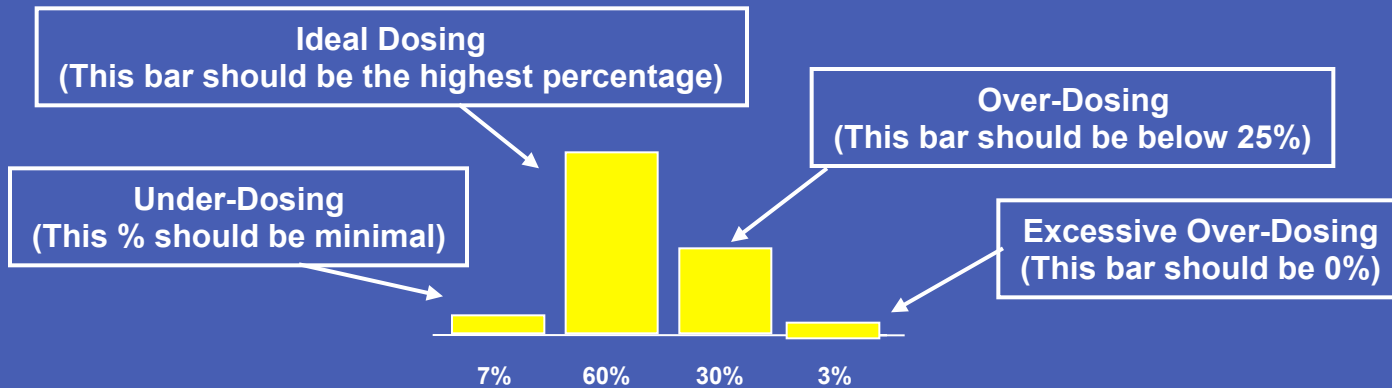
Modified Continual Reassessment Method (mCRM)

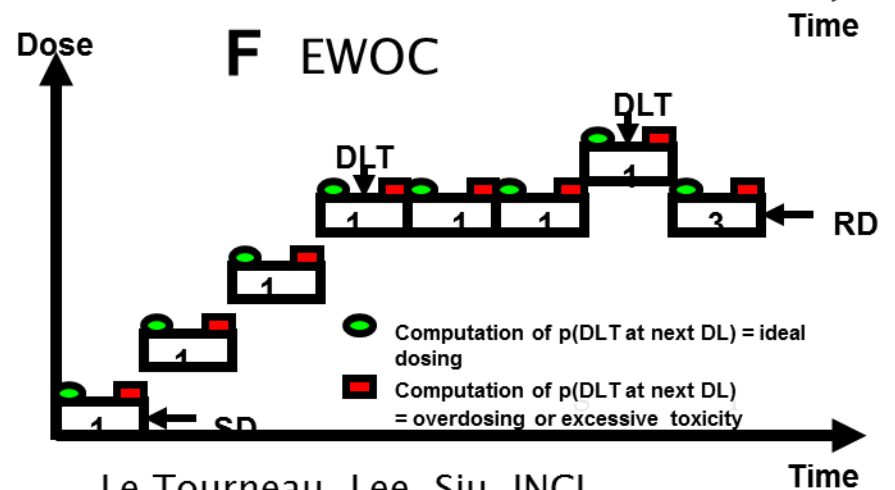
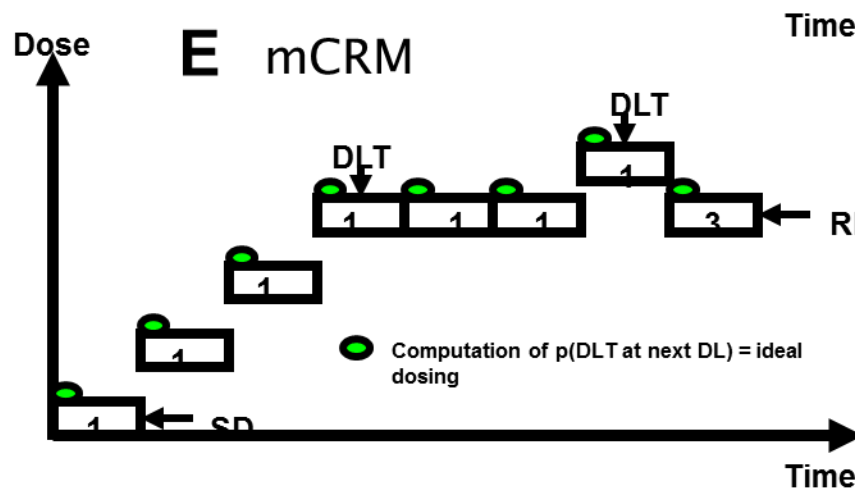
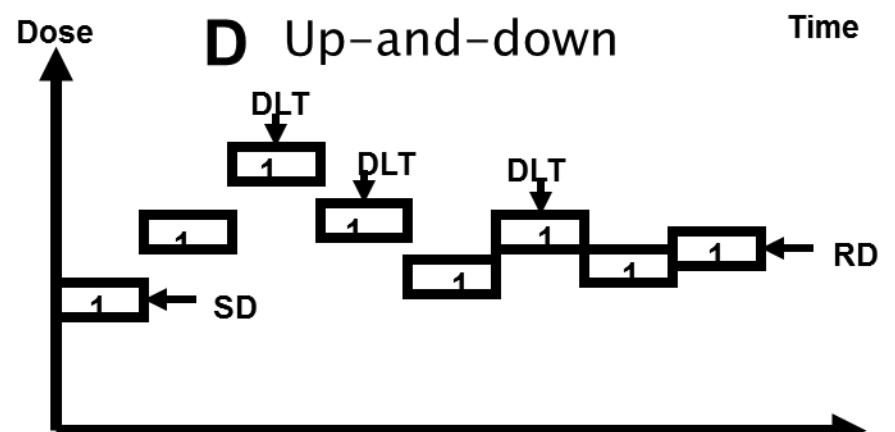
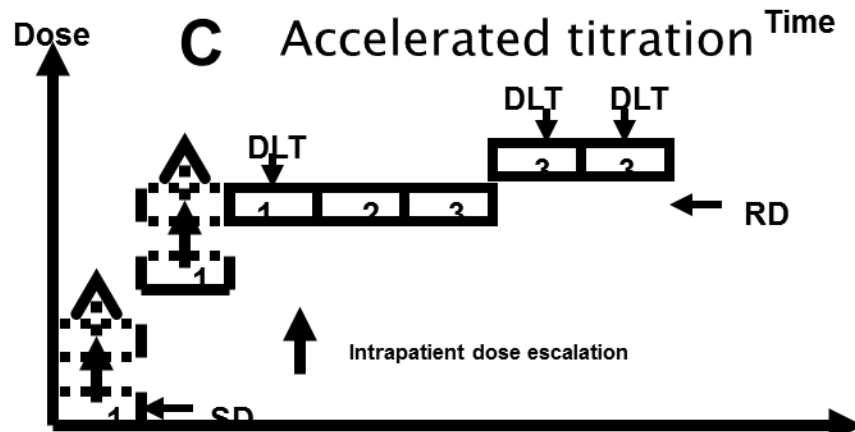
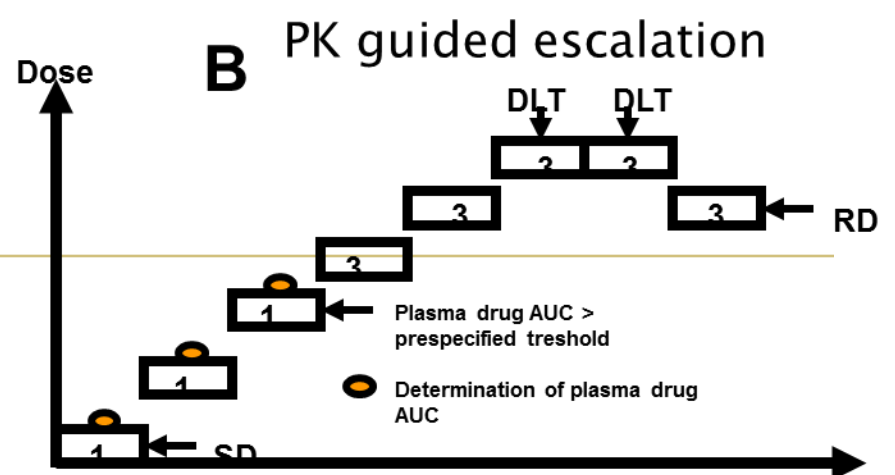
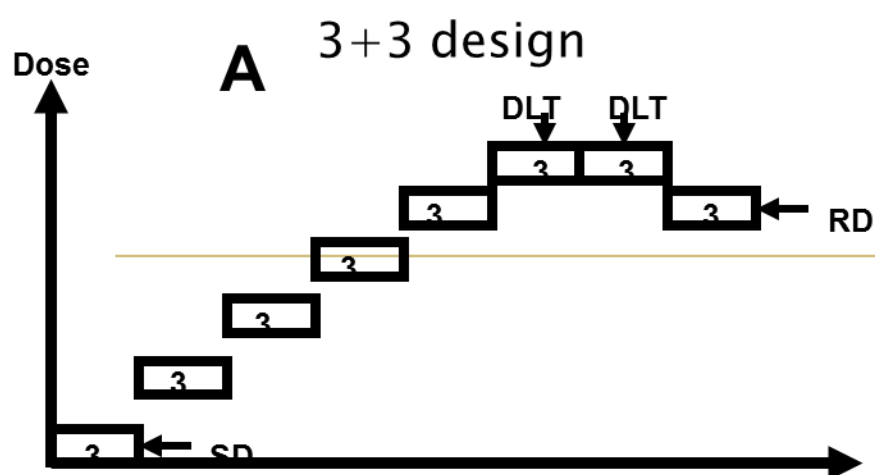
- Bayesian method
- Pre-study probabilities based on preclinical or clinical data of similar agents
- At each dose level, add clinical data to better estimate the probability of RPTD being reached
- Fixed dose levels for escalation
- **Advantages** – more pts treated at therapeutic levels, more dose levels explored
- **Disadvantages** – requires biostatistician, does not save time

Dose Escalation with Overdose Control (EWOC)

- Bayesian method
- After each cohort of patients, the posterior distribution is updated with DLT data to obtain π_d (probability of DLT at dose d). The recommended dose is the one with the highest posterior probability of DLT in the “ideal dosing” category
- The overdose control mandates that any dose that has $> 25\%$ chance of being in the “over-dosing” or “excessive over-dosing” categories, or $> 5\%$ chance of being in the “excess-overdosing” category, is not considered for dosing

Example of EWOC Design

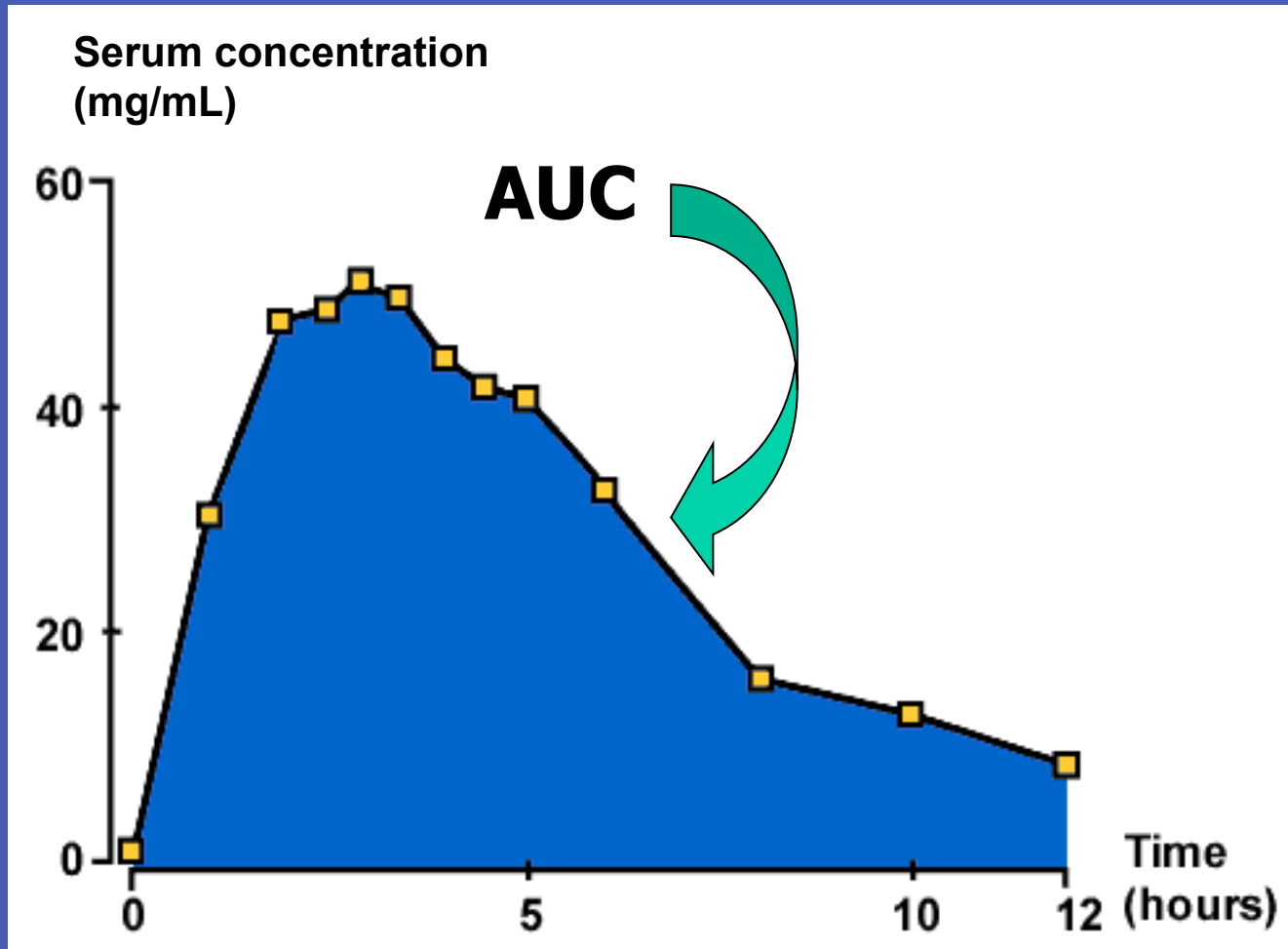




Pharmacokinetic (PK) Assessment

- “What the body does to the drug”
 - Absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion
- PK parameters – provide information about the drug and/or its metabolites
 - C_{max} (peak concentration)
 - AUC (exposure)
 - T_{1/2} (half-life)
 - Clearance (elimination)
- Requires serial sampling to characterize fully
 - ie. Pre-dose, 30m, 1h, 2h, 4h, 6h, 8h, 24h
 - Cycle 1 Day 1 and repeat when drug is expected to have reached steady state serum concentrations

PK: Time x Concentration Plot



Challenges of Molecularly Targeted Agents (MTAs)

- General requirement for long-term administration: *pharmacology and formulation critical*
- Difficulty in determining the optimal dose in phase I: *MTD versus Optimal Biological Dose (OBD)*
- Absent or low-level tumor regression as single agents: *problematic for making go no-go decisions*
- Need for large randomized trials to definitively assess clinical benefit: *need to maximize chance of success in phase III*

Key Concepts

- Optimal biological dose (OBD):
 - Dose associated with a pre-specified desired effect on a biomarker
 - Examples:
 - Dose at which $\geq XX\%$ of patients have inhibition of a key target in tumor/surrogate tissues
 - Dose at which $\geq XX\%$ of patients achieve a pre-specified immunologic parameter
 - Challenge with defining OBD is that the “desired effect on a biomarker” is generally not known or validated before initiation of the phase I trial

Definition of a Biomarker

- “A **characteristic** that is objectively measured and evaluated as an indicator of normal **biologic processes, pathogenic processes, or pharmacological responses** to a therapeutic intervention”
 - » NIH Working Group, 2011
- “A molecular, cellular, tissue, or process-based **alteration** that provides indication of **current**, or more importantly, **future behavior** of a cancer.”
 - » Hayes et al JNCI, 1996

Biomarkers in Phase I Trials

- Based on pre-clinical studies
 - Pharmacokinetics
 - Proof-of-mechanism
 - Establish optimal biological dose in some trials (especially if little or no toxicity expected)
 - Molecular enrichment
 - ✓ Proof-of-concept – anti-tumor activity

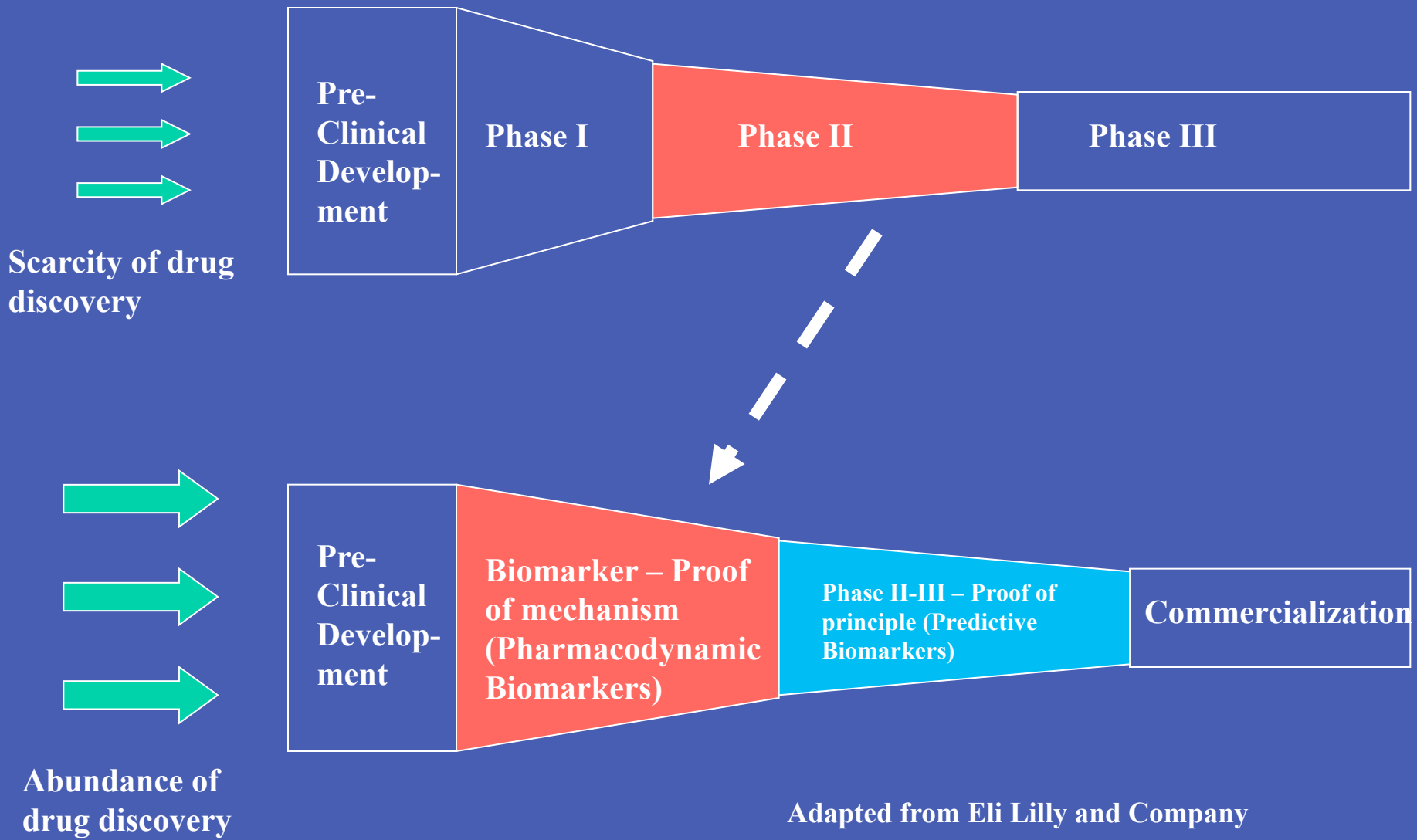
Pharmacodynamic Biomarkers (PD)

- “What the drug does to the body (or tumor)”
 - Provide therapeutic information about the effect of a therapeutic intervention on the patient and/or tumor
- Tumor PD biomarkers
 - Phosphoprotein (IHC)
 - Gene expression (RT-PCR, microarray)
 - Cell surface markers (Flow cytometry)
 - Functional imaging
 - FDG-PET, FLT-PET, DCE MRI, etc
- Surrogate Normal Tissue PD biomarkers
 - Hair follicles
 - Skin biopsies
 - Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs)

Pharmacodynamic Endpoints

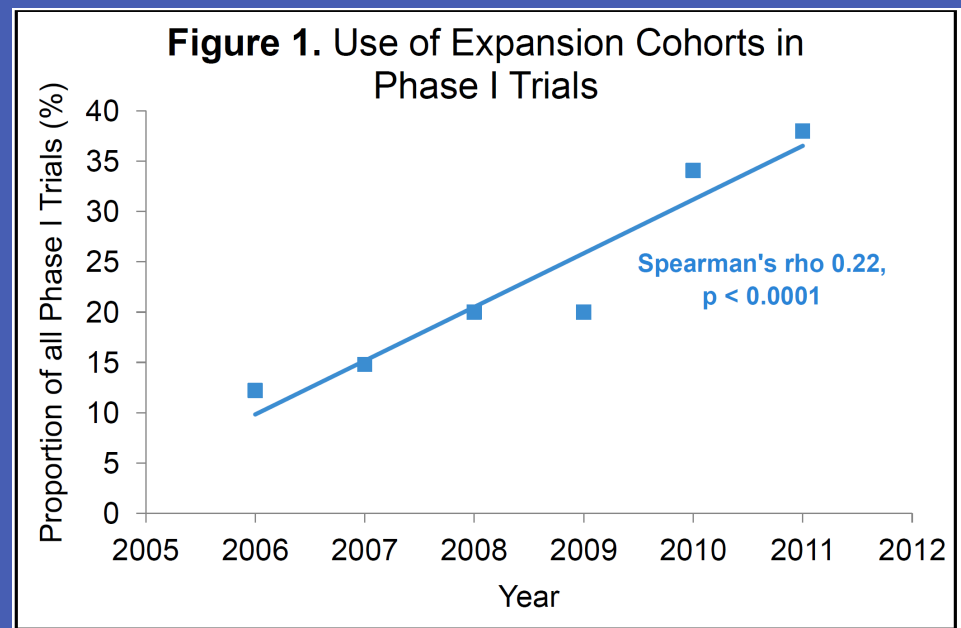
- Phase I PD biomarkers
 - Requires assessment before and during treatment
 - Should be correlated with PK parameters
 - Proof of mechanism
 - Is a new drug hitting its target?
 - Establish optimal biological dose
 - Especially if little or no toxicity expected (monoclonal antibodies)
 - Often more practical to perform in expansion cohort at recommended phase II dose

Changing Paradigm of Biomarker-Guided Early Drug Development



Expansion Cohorts in Phase I Trials

- Limited # of pts (N=6-12) treated at MTD after dose escalation
- Confirm safety and tolerability of MTD = RPTD
- Increasing use over time
- Expansion cohort \neq properly conducted phase II

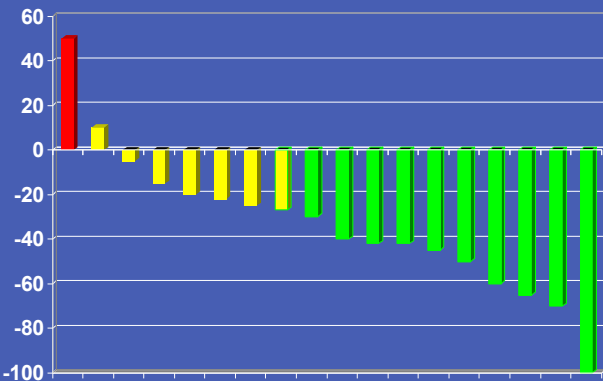


Manji A et al JCO 2013 (in press)

Enrichment Strategies for Phase I

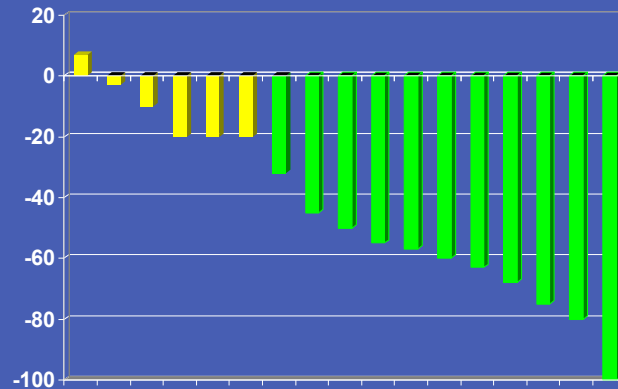
- Early testing of a new drug in enriched population can accelerate development of new drug

Crizotinib (ALK inhibitor)



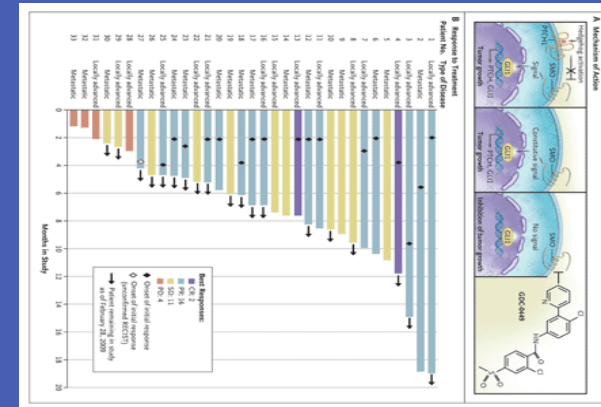
EML4-ALK fusion

Vemurafenib (BRAF inhibitor)



BRAF V600 mutation

GDC-0449 (Hedgehog inhibitor)



Basal Cell Carcinoma

- Lack of activity in biomarker +ve subpopulation treated at MTD may lead to “No GO” signal to halt development

Challenges of Enrichment Approach

- Screening for rare alterations
 - Sequential biomarker testing is inefficient
 - Patients who have exhausted standard treatment do not have time to wait for biomarker screening
- Many large academic institutions have started molecular profiling programs for matching patients to trial based on genotype
 - Testing and interpretation is complex
 - Not funded by public health care systems
 - Requires large portfolio of trials for matching
 - Tumor heterogeneity is problematic

Phase I Trials Risk/Benefit Ratio

- Response Rate 4-6% (first in human)
 - Higher for combination studies involving approved drug (~15%)
 - Majority of responses occur at 75-125% of recommended phase II dose
 - Response is a surrogate endpoint
 - Direct patient benefit is difficult to measure
- Risk of toxic death is low (<0.5%)

Pitfalls of Phase I Trials

- Maximum tolerated dose may not be appropriate for molecularly targeted agents
- Chronic toxicities usually cannot be assessed
- Cumulative toxicities usually cannot be identified
- Uncommon toxicities will be missed

Phase I Trials and Infrequent Toxicities

Probability of NOT observing a serious toxicity occurring at a rate of:

Number of patients

10%

20%

1

0.90

0.80

2

0.81

0.64

3

0.73

0.51

6

0.53

0.26

10

0.35

0.11

15

0.21

0.04

Probability of overlooking a toxicity:
 $p)^n$; n = sample size, p = true toxicity rate

$$P_{OT}(p) = (1 -$$

Summary

- Phase I trials are critical for the evaluation of new therapies – translation from the lab to the clinic
- Patient safety/well-being is the most important principle in phase I
- Most drugs follow the MTD/RPTD paradigm
- Biomarker studies are essential to evaluate new cancer drugs
- Phase I trials are increasingly complex and require good team science