



# Dose-Response and Exposure- Response Analyses in Dose Selection

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# Dose Response *versus* Exposure Response?

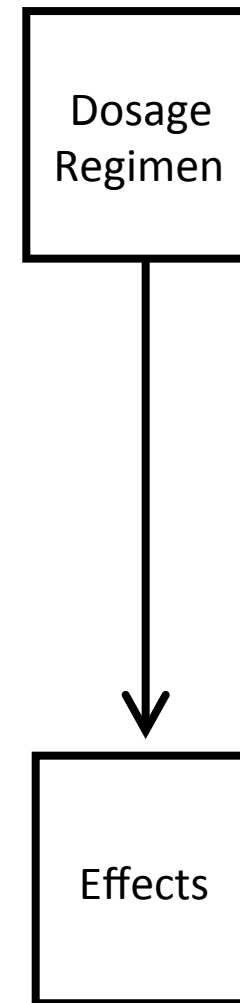
- What is the hardest problem in drug development? Getting statisticians and pharmacometricians to speak productively with each other about the best method to inform dose selection
- DR and ER are complementary methods yet posed as ‘competing’ methods .... Why?
- Cultural gap
  - Statisticians don’t typically understand pharmacokinetic exposure and related underlying physiology and therefore presume these aren’t relevant to the questions being asked
  - Pharmacometricians don’t typically understand core statistical issues such as bias and operating characteristics of the statistical methods they use and therefore presume these aren’t relevant to the questions being asked
- The Truth is that we are asking different questions
  - Goal of this talk is to learn a bit about both sides in the context of dose selection

# Dose Selection Regarded As the Most Critical Decision in Drug Development

- In the good old days, dose selection was “easy” .... But today?
- EMA review of 135 Marketing Authorizations between 2010-2014 showed:
  - 9% (12/135) had Major Objections caused by “not established or justified dosing regimens”
  - 10% (13/135) required post-authorization changes in dose in special populations (e.g. hepatic or renal impairment, or due to DDI)
- FDA review of 302 NDAs from 2000-2012:
  - 16% (24/151) first-cycle review failures involved issues of uncertainty/inadequacy of dose selection
- Precision medicine changing how we should think about “dose”
  - The more you understand about the impact of individual characteristics on determinants of response, including drug exposure, the better able you are to determine the patient(s) most likely to benefit
  - Precision medicine, per Lisa LaVange’s talk

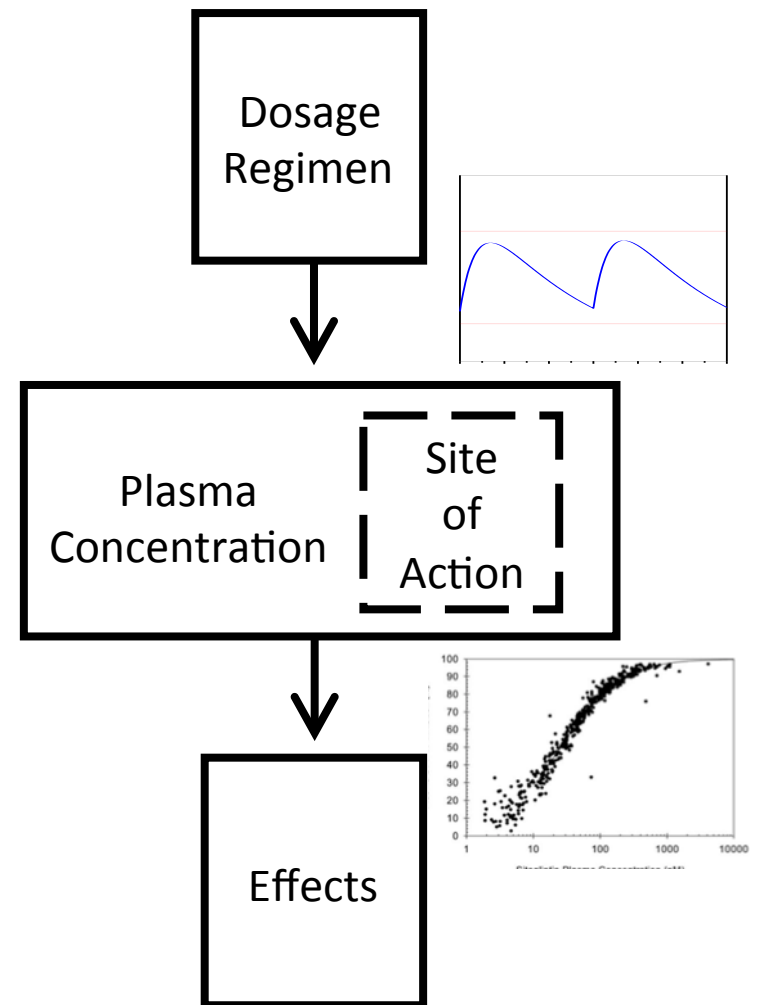
# Modeling Dose-Response

- Dose: What a patient is supposed to get when prescribed a drug
- Response: Measure of pharmacological effect of a drug
- Statistical analysis typically straightforward: within-group estimates and pairwise comparisons between dose-groups
  - Trend tests often performed
  - Continuous models for dose-response (e.g. regression line, hill equation / Emax model) less commonly fit
- Baseline patient characteristics are typically assessed, but D-R analyses do not distinguish where in the causal pathways any differences arise
- Dose-response modeling gives a straightforward way to answer what happens when patients get a medication
  - Power of the approach relies on the simplicity, e.g. facilitates ITT assessment



# Modeling Dose-Exposure-Response

- Exposure: measures of acute or integrated drug concentration (e.g. average, maximum or minimum concentration)
- Response: Measure of pharmacological effect of a drug
- Modeling typically broken into two steps: modeling of *dose to exposure*, then modeling of *exposure to response*
  - Patient characteristics can effect either or both relationships
  - Either step involves individual patient variation; modeling the two relationships can drive to an understanding of why a given dose may work differently in different people
  - Allows for a more mechanistic approach to thinking about dose selection
- Statistical analyses often utilize non-linear models that focus on estimating parameters that define the curve, rather than group-level estimates
- Requires more measurements to get the data for the modeling; need to assess exposure in patients in the study
- Also, often exposure-response modeling will utilize biomarkers instead of, or in addition to, the ultimate clinical endpoint – possibly with additional models linking the biomarkers to the clinical endpoint



# Dose Response vs Exposure Response

## General Considerations

### *Attributes of Dose-Response*

- Dosage regimen is “fixed” – assigned by study design – instead of being a measurement
- Agnostic to *why* patient characteristics cause different responses – variability in exposure becomes part of the variability in response
- Easy to implement intention-to-treat analyses, survival analyses – just need dose and outcome
- Easier to utilize ‘dose’ in adaptive designs than PK

### *Attributes of Exposure-Response*

- Between-subject variability in disposition means that dose really isn’t “fixed” when thinking about what drives response
- Drives one more level of understanding in how the drug works – can understand complexities such as
  - Nonlinear relationship between dose and exposure
  - Time lags between dose administration and acute pharmacodynamic effects
  - Differential impact of patient characteristics on D-E vs E-R
- Greater understanding can drive decisions in changing dosing forms or regimen, switching populations

# Examples

1. Complementary ER modeling of biomarker with DR assessment of clinical response
2. ER modeling to support pediatric development
3. ER/DR modeling to support formulation change
4. ER and DR modeling in Phase I/II

# Example: JANUVIA

Approved DPP-4 inhibitor for treatment of diabetes

Phase I biomarker studies used E-R models to guide dose selection in Phase II. Ultimate Phase III dose selection utilized D-R assessment.

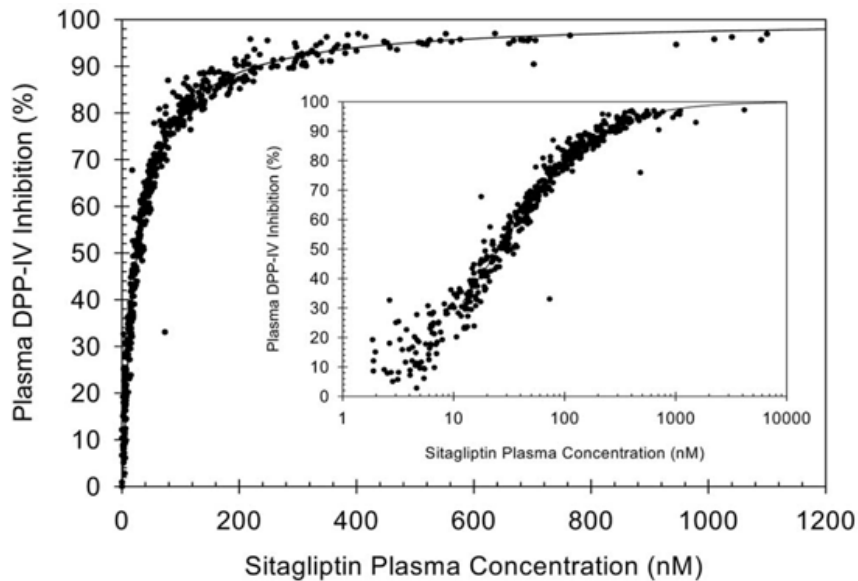
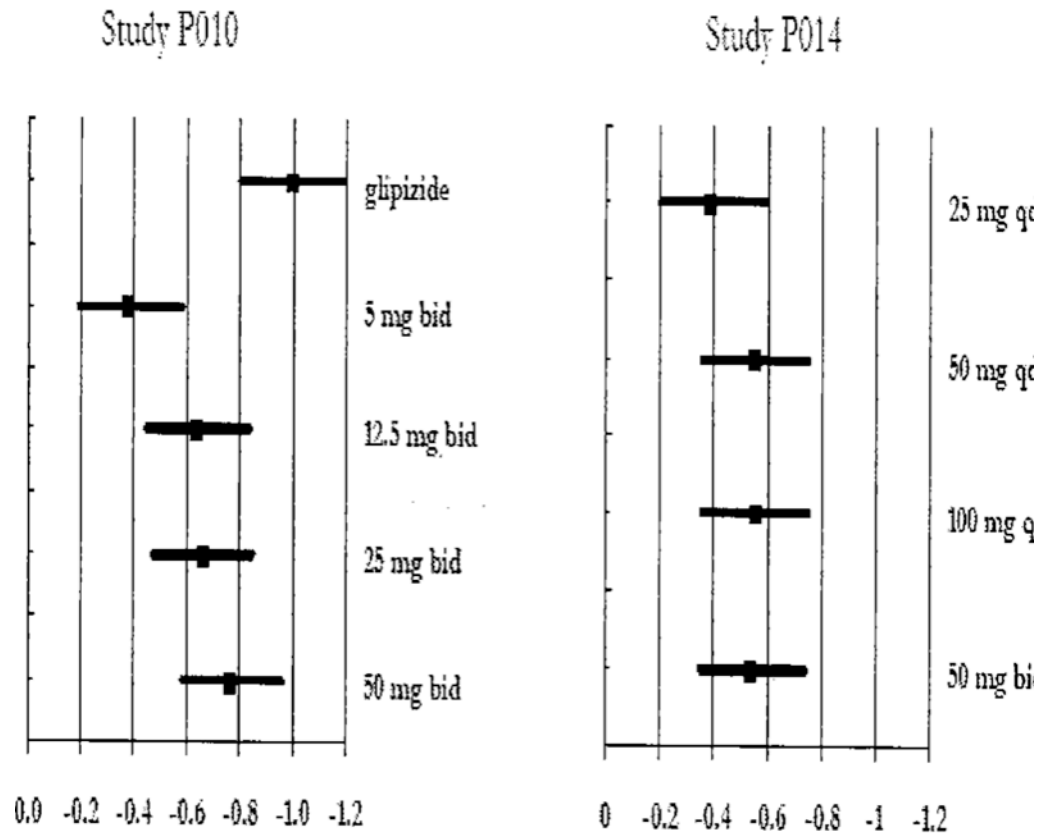


Figure 34 LSM Difference from Placebo (95% CI) – Phase 2 Studies

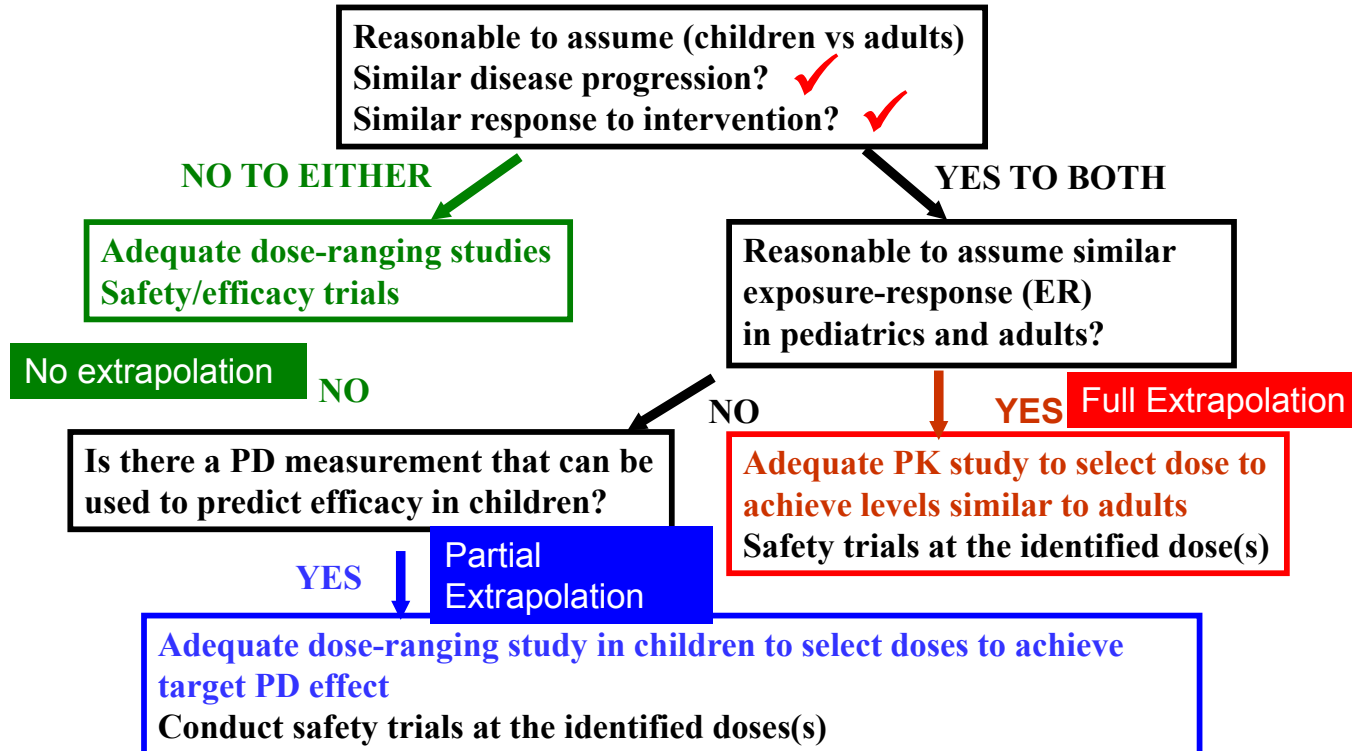


Pairwise Differences	Difference in LS Means	95% CI for Difference in LS Means
MK-0431 50 mg b.i.d. versus Placebo	-0.77	(-0.96, -0.58)
MK-0431 25 mg b.i.d. versus Placebo	-0.66	(-0.85, -0.47)
MK-0431 12.5 mg b.i.d. versus Placebo	-0.64	(-0.84, -0.45)
MK-0431 5 mg b.i.d. versus Placebo	-0.38	(-0.58, -0.19)



# Example: Pediatric Dose Selection

## Quantitative Framework for Extrapolation



Adapted from: <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/GuidanceComplianceRegulatoryInformation/Guidances/UCM425885.pdf>

# Example: Pediatric Dose Selection



U.S. Food and Drug Administration  
Protecting and Promoting Public Health

[www.fda.gov](http://www.fda.gov)

## Case Study #1

Derivation of darunavir doses in HIV-infected treatment experienced pediatric patients ages 6 to 17 years

<http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/DevelopmentApprovalProcess/DevelopmentResources/ucm129567.pdf>

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# Example: Pediatric Dose Selection

## Study Design (Part 1)

- 44 pediatric patients randomized to two dose arms for 2 weeks

Weight (kg)	Darunavir Dose (Group A)	Darunavir Dose (Group B)
20-30	300 mg	375 mg
30-40	375 mg	450 mg
40-50	450 mg	600 mg

\* Adult dose is 600 mg

$$\text{Dose}_{\text{child}} = \text{Dose}_{\text{adult}} * (\text{Body Weight}_{\text{child}})^{0.75}$$

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# Example: Pediatric Dose Selection

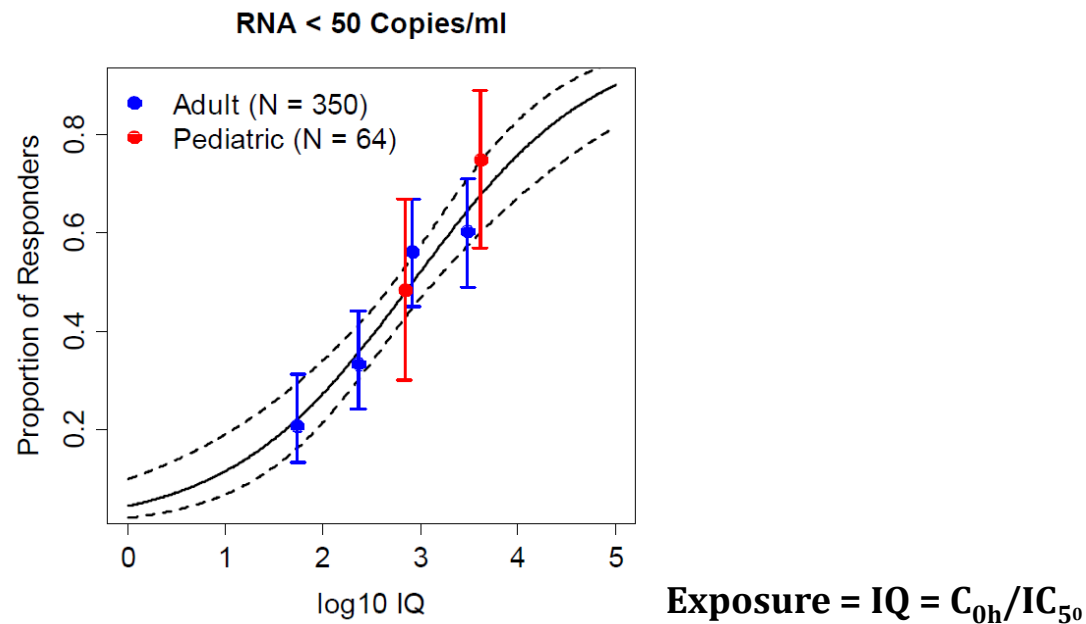
## Study Design (Part 2)

- Week 2 interim PK data were analyzed
- Dose group B was chosen for Part 2
  - 22 patients in dose group A were switched to higher dose
  - 24 additional subjects were enrolled
- Safety and activity (viral load) measured through 48 weeks

# Example: Pediatric Dose Selection

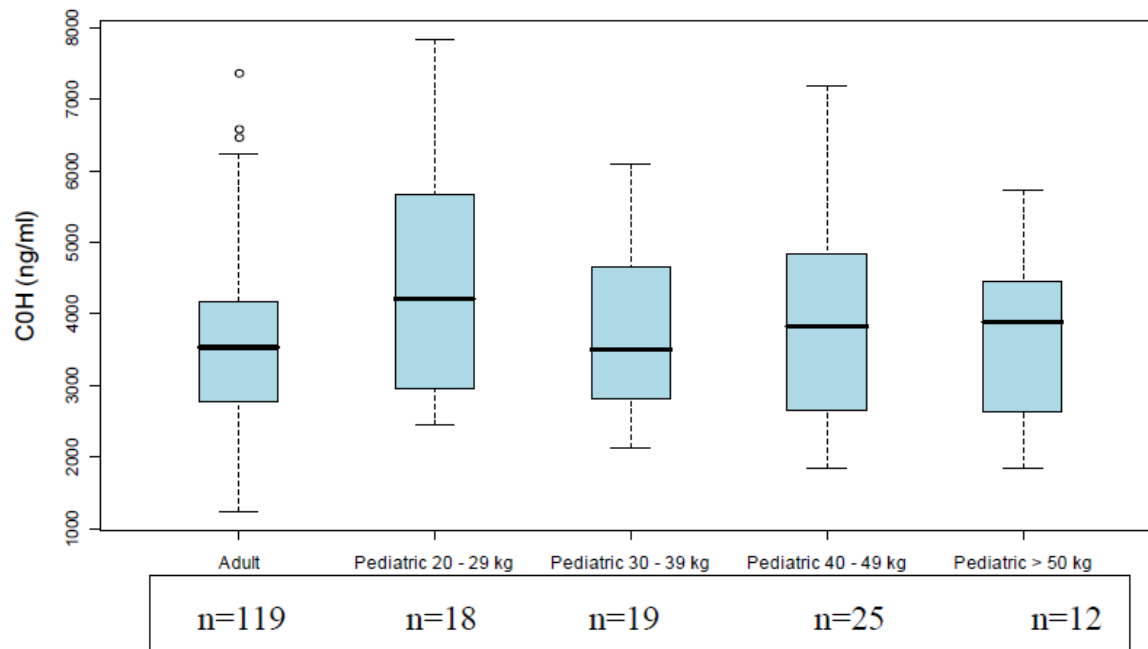
Is it reasonable to assume similar exposure-response relationship in adults and children?

**YES**



# Example: Pediatric Dose Selection

## Similar Exposure in Pediatric and Adult Patients



# Example: ISENTRESS® BID vs QD

Situation: dose selection for QD formulation of ISENTRESS  
400 mg BID marketed dose; desire to switch to QD dosing

- Initial effort: 800 MG QD had similar AUC, higher C<sub>max</sub> but lower C<sub>trough</sub>
- 800 mg QD study failed to show non-inf

TABLE 1 Summary pharmacokinetic parameters

Parameter	Value for group <sup>d</sup>				GM ratio, QD/BID (90% CI)
	Raltegravir QD group		Raltegravir BID group		
	No. of patients	GM (% CV <sup>2</sup> )	No. of patients	GM (% CV <sup>2</sup> )	
Intensive pharmacokinetic profiles					
AUC <sup>a</sup> (μM·h)	22	30.87 (70)	20	13.14 (99)	1.17 (0.80, 1.72)
C <sub>max</sub> (μM)	22	13.46 (69)	20	3.38 (135)	3.98 (2.58, 6.16)
C <sub>trough</sub> <sup>b</sup> (nM)	22	40 (111)	20	257 (167)	0.15 (0.09, 0.26)

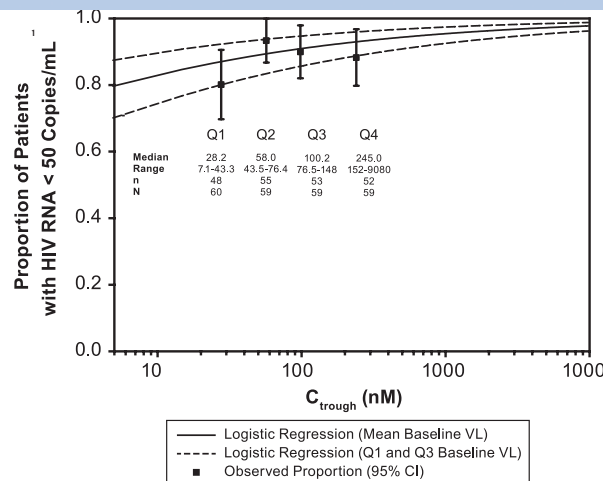
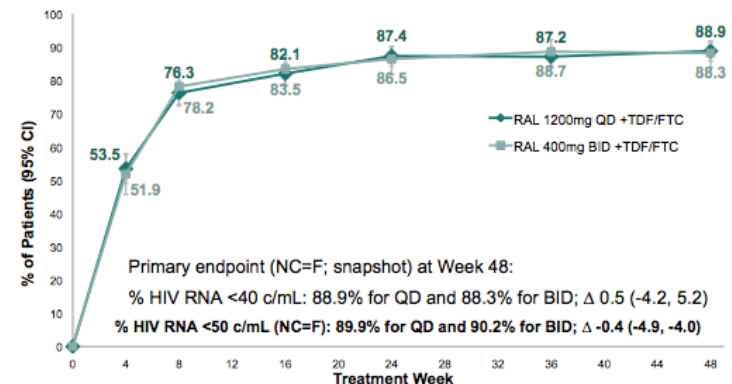


FIG 2 Probability of achieving HIV RNA levels of <50 copies/ml as a function of C<sub>trough</sub>

- PK/PD modeling suggested 90% POS that 1200 mg QD would meet clinical non-inferiority
- Non-inferiority achieved at 1200 mg

## ONCEMRK: Efficacy HIV RNA <40 copies/mL (NC=F; snapshot)



- Primary endpoint (NC=F; snapshot) at Week 48:  
% HIV RNA <40 c/mL: 88.9% for QD and 88.3% for BID; Δ 0.5 (-4.2, 5.2)  
% HIV RNA <50 c/mL (NC=F): 89.9% for QD and 90.2% for BID; Δ -0.4 (-4.9, -4.0)
- For subgroup with BL HIV RNA >100,000 c/mL:  
% HIV RNA <40 c/mL (OF): 86.7% for QD and 83.8% for BID; Δ 2.9 (-6.5, 14.1)
- CD4 (cells/mm<sup>3</sup>) increase (OF): 232 for QD and 234 for BID; Δ -2 (-31, 27)

# Example: MK-0557

- NPY-Y5 receptor antagonist considered for treatment of obesity
- E-R modeling of PET imaging study used to guide dose selection for Phase II
- D-R assessment of Phase II used to assess doses for later phase studies
  - Exposure measured as trough concentrations
  - Low variability in PK for any given dose, and a wide dose range led to similar conclusions between D-R and E-R

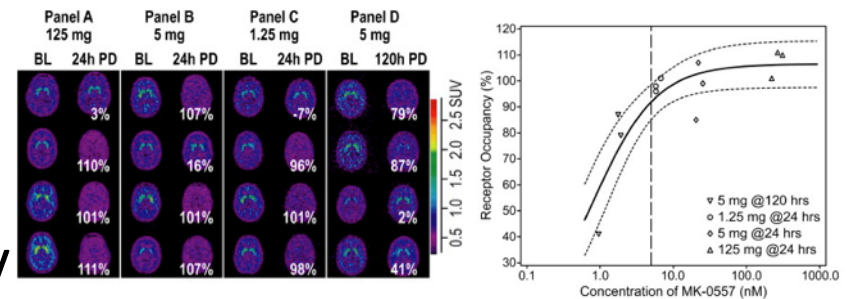
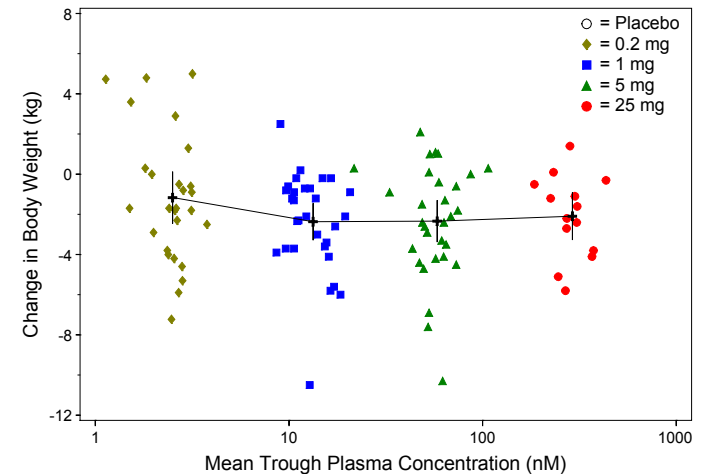


Figure 9: Mean Trough Plasma Concentration vs Body Weight Loss At Week 12 Preliminary Data



Mean (95% CI) Change in Body Weight at Week 12 Shown for Subjects with PK data



# Statistical Considerations (Hsu, 2009)

- Hsu, 2009, Pharmaceut. Statist. 2009; 8: 203–215, compared dose-response models and exposure-response models in dose selection
- Simulated a classic parallel group design with 5 dose groups
  - Response simulated as a function of exposure as an Emax model
  - Exposure simulated as a log-normal, based on subject-level clearance simulated, plus inter-day/measurement error added
  - Range of within- and between-subject variability in both exposure and response
  - Trial analyzed using both DR and ER Emax models and minimum effective dose estimated

$$\log(\text{CL}_{ij}) \sim N(\log(\text{TVCL}), \sigma_{\text{CL}}^2)$$

$$\log(\text{CL}_{ij}^*) \sim N(\log(\text{CL}_{ij}), \sigma_{\text{U}}^2)$$

$$\text{AUC}_{\text{SS}_{ij}} = d_i / \text{CL}_{ij}$$

$$\mu_{ij} = E_0 + \frac{E_{\text{max}} \text{AUC}_{\text{SS}_{ij}}^h}{\text{EC50}^h + \text{AUC}_{\text{SS}_{ij}}^h}$$

$$\log(y_{ij}) \sim N(\log(\mu_{ij}), \sigma_{\text{Y}}^2)$$

# Statistical Considerations (Hsu, 2009)

- ER better when PK variability is minimized ( $\sigma^2_U$ )
  - Result is expected since it matches how the data were simulated
  - When interday/measurement error is more than 40%, DR better than ER, but how likely is this? Modern PK assays have better performance characteristic standards and sample handling errors are learned quickly in early phase studies
- DR better when between-subject variability in clearance ( $\sigma^2_{CL}$ ) is low
  - When  $\sigma^2_{CL}$  increases, predictive power of dose decreases
  - When variability is above 50%, DR performance extremely variable
    - This level of variability associated with genetic polymorphisms as well as intrinsic variability in CYP 3A4 systemic and first pass metabolism (often seen in oncology agents [REF](#))
- DR tends to underestimate the dose, while ER tends to overestimate the dose as  $\sigma^2_U$  increases
- If the minimum effective dose is not in the dose range, *neither* method works well – even if  $\sigma^2_U = 0$ !
  - Due to inability to properly estimate  $E_{max}$

# Trends in Dose Selection

## Dose-response

- Adaptive designs
- Model-based dose-response models
  - Movement away from pairwise comparisons to model-based methods and use tools like MCPMod
  - Use of non-linear models
  - See 2014 EMA/EFPIA workshop on importance of dose finding/selection

## Exposure-Response

- Integration with mechanistic models and translational models to leverage preclinical evidence
- Time-series models rather than integrated measures of exposure
- Use of PK/PD for registration endpoints, not just biomarkers pre-POC
- Exploration of impact of PK/PD on adaptive designs

# Closing thoughts

- DR and ER complement each other
  - When used together, can effectively address dose decisions
- But recognize that each answers different questions
- Each performs well, but the circumstances in which they perform well differ

# Acknowledgements

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