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Design resampling for interim sample size recalculation

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Abstract

Internal pilot designs allow re-estimation of the sample size at the interim analysis using available information on nuisance parameters. In general, this affects the Type I and II error rates. We propose a method based on resampling the whole design at the interim analysis, starting with sample size recalculation at the observed interim analysis values of nuisance parameters, and finishing with the decision to accept or reject the null hypothesis. This internal resampling is performed under both the null and under the alternative hypotheses allowing the estimation of the bias of the type I error and power. Finally, the bias corrected error rates are used in the original sample size calculation procedure to obtain an updated sample size. We explore the proposed resampling approach under a set of simulation scenarios and compare it with several others previously published internal pilot designs.

KEYWORDS: Internal Pilot; Sample Size; Power Calculation; Hypothesis Testing; Study Design.

## 1 Introduction

Ethical, financial, and recruitment constraints prevent researchers from enrolling arbitrarily many patients for a study to achieve statistically significant results. Pilot studies are used to provide information on parameters needed to determine an appropriate sample size for a large confirmatory







for the one sample t-test,

$$D_{1t;IPN}(\delta; \delta_0; \delta_1; n_1; n_{max}) (2 D_2);$$

is an alternative to  $D_{1t}$ , which does not use  $\delta^{(0)}$  but depends on  $n_1$  and  $n_{max}$ . Its power function is

$$P(jD_{1t;IPN}) = Pr(T_{v(\delta; \delta_0; \delta_1; \hat{\delta})} > k(v) | jD_{1t;IPN}); \quad (2)$$

where  $\hat{\delta}$  depends on  $\delta$ ,  $n_1$ ,  $n_{max}$  and possibly  $\delta^{(0)}$ . In this manuscript we assume that  $\hat{\delta}$  is independent of  $\delta$ , that is  $\hat{\delta} = \delta^{(0)}$ .

A naive internal pilot-based sample size recalculation for a two sample t-test will be denoted by  $D_{2t;IPN}$ . This design was first analyzed by Wittes and Brittain [9]. We also consider the internal pilot design  $D_{2t;IPS}$  suggested by Stein [8], which slightly modifies the functional form of the two-sample t-statistic, whereas  $D_{2t;IPN}$  uses the classical two sample t-statistic for  $T_v$ .

Internal sample size recalculation makes the final sample size a random variable, which makes the distribution of the test statistic  $T_v$  and therefore the critical value of the test difficult to calculate. Exact control of the type I error is achieved by  $D_{2t;IPS}$ , but this is rather an exception than a rule for internal pilot designs. In general, the true type I error rate is rarely controlled,

$$E(D_{2t;IPN}(\delta; \delta_0; \delta_1; n_1; n_{max}) | H_0) = \alpha(jD_{2t;IPN}) \neq \alpha;$$

The desired power is not controlled in either Stein's or the naive internal pilot designs,

$$E(D(\delta; \delta_0; \delta_1; n_1; n_{max}) | H_1) = 1 - \beta(jD) \neq 1 - \beta;$$

## Sample size recalculation via resampling

We propose a new approach to sample size re-estimation after the internal pilot that maintains both the type I and type II error rates. This approach is applicable to any internal pilot design.

Key idea: For a design  $D \in \{D_1, D_2\}$  we find  $n_{new}$  and  $n_{new}$  to control the desired type I error and power,

$$E(D(n_{new}; n_{new}; \delta_0; \delta_1; n_1; n_{max}) | H_0) =$$

and

$$E(D(\hat{\theta}_{new}; \hat{\theta}_{new}; \theta_0; \alpha; n_1; n_{max}) | H_1) = 1 - \alpha$$

This definition leads to a fully defined internal pilot procedure  $D^a(\hat{\theta}; \hat{\theta}; \theta_0; \alpha; n_1; n_{max})$ , since all the details about sample size re-estimation, null hypothesis testing, etc are already defined in  $D$ .

Implementation: At the interim analysis we estimate  $\hat{\theta}$  and perform the following resampling procedure with  $M$  iterations. For each  $i = 1; \dots; M$ , we generate  $Y_1^{(i)}; \dots; Y_{n_1}^{(i)}$  from  $f_Y(y; \theta_0; \hat{\theta})$ , estimate  $v_i \in [n_1; n_{max}]$  based on these  $n_1$  observations, generate additional  $(v_i - n_1)$  observations  $Y_{n_1+1}^{(i)}; \dots; Y_{v_i}^{(i)}$  from  $f_Y(y; \theta_0; \hat{\theta})$ , and calculate  $T_{v_i}^{(i)}$  on this  $i^{th}$  sample. We add the subscript  $i$  to highlight dependence on iteration. The estimated type I error rate is

$$\hat{\alpha}(\hat{\theta}; jD) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M I(T_{v_i}^{(i)} > k_i) \in \alpha$$

where  $k_i$  is the critical value for an originally assumed distribution of  $T_{v_i}^{(i)}$ . On the logit scale ( $\text{logit}(x) = \ln(x/(1-x))$ ) the bias-corrected  $\hat{\theta}_{new}$  can be expressed as

$$\text{logit}(\hat{\theta}_{new}) = \text{logit}(\hat{\theta}) + [\text{logit}(\hat{\theta}) - \text{logit}(\theta_0)]$$

or

$$\hat{\theta}_{new} = \frac{\theta_0^2(1 - \hat{\theta})}{(1 - \hat{\theta})^2 \hat{\theta} + \theta_0^2(1 - \hat{\theta})} \quad (3)$$

Then, we perform a similar resampling procedure to find  $\hat{\theta}_{new}$ . For  $i = 1; \dots; M$ , we generate  $Y_1^{(i)}; \dots; Y_{n_1}^{(i)}$  from  $f_Y(y; \theta_{-1}; \hat{\theta})$ , estimate  $v_i \in [n_1; n_{max}]$  on these  $n_1$  observations using  $\hat{\theta}_{new}$  and  $\theta_{-1}$  in the sample size formula, generate additional  $(v_i - n_1)$  observations  $Y_{n_1+1}^{(i)}; \dots; Y_{v_i}^{(i)}$  from  $f_Y(y; \theta_{-1}; \hat{\theta})$ , and calculate  $T_{v_i}^{(i)}$  on this  $i^{th}$  sample. The estimated power

$$1 - \hat{\beta}(\hat{\theta}_{new}; jD) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M I(T_{v_i}^{(i)} > k_i) \in 1 - \beta$$

leads to the bias-corrected value

$$b_{\text{new}} = \frac{(n-1) \hat{\sigma}^2}{n}$$

Design  $D_{1t;IPN}(\cdot; \cdot; \cdot; \cdot; n_1; n_{max})$  does not formally depend on  $\theta$  and uses the internally estimated

$$\hat{\theta} =$$



Table 1: Monte-Carlo Type I error, Power, and Sample Sizes 100,000 simulations; one sample t-test designs,  $n_1 = 10$ ,  $n_{\max} = 300$ .

	$D_{1t}$	$D_{1t;IPN}$	$D_{1t;IPN}^a$
	Type I error		
1.6	0.0492	0.0643	0.0573
2	0.0500	0.0612	0.0513
3	0.0495	0.0553	0.0473
3.5	0.0494	0.0526	0.0473
	Power		
1.6	0.8177	0.8091	0.8367
2	0.8086	0.7841	0.8216
3	0.8040	0.7601	0.8001
3.5	0.8043	0.7517	0.7943
	EN (SD)		
1.6	23	22.73(9.33)	26.86(12.22)
2	34	33.89(14.80)	40.93(18.01)
3	73	73.17(33.29)	86.68(38.06)
3.5	99	98.53(45.05)	115.89(51.21)

Table 2: Monte-Carlo Type I error, Power, and Sample Sizes 100,000 simulations; one sample t-test designs,  $n_1 = 5$ ,  $n_{\max} = 300$ .

	$D_{1t}$	$D_{1t;IPN}$	$D_{1t;IPN}^a$
	Type I error		
0.6	0.0501	0.0523	0.0515
1	0.0515	0.0727	0.0682
2	0.0487	0.0685	0.0519
3	0.0503	0.0589	0.0448
3.5	0.0504	0.0574	0.0458
	Power		
0.6	0.8985	0.9387	0.9335
1	0.8030	0.8327	0.8596
2	0.8076	0.7319	0.7897
3	0.8033	0.7057	0.7663
3.5	0.8034	0.6953	0.7560
	EN (SD)		
0.6	6	6.00(1.59)	6.18(2.29)
1	10	10.56(5.39)	13.22(8.51)
2	34	33.88(22.24)	46.87(30.06)
3	73	73.30(49.34)	97.85(61.65)
3.5	99	97.79(64.78)	127.84(76.90)

and

$$Y_{11}; \dots; Y_{n_{11}}; \dots; Y_{v_1}; \dots \sim N(\mu_2 + \frac{2}{1});$$

where  $n_{10}$ ,  $n_{11}$ ,  $v_0$  and  $v_1$  satisfy

$$\frac{n_{10}}{n_{10} + n_{11}} = \frac{n_{10}}{v_0 + v_1}$$



Table 4: Monte-Carlo Type I error, Power, and Sample Sizes 100,000 simulations; two sample t-test designs;  $n_1 = 10$  (5 per group); fixed allocation,  $r = 0.5$

$\lambda$	$D_{2t}$	$D_{2t;IPS}$	$D_{2t;IPN}$	$D_{2t;IPNR}$	$D_{2t;IPN}^a$
	Type I error				
1	0.0507	0.0508	0.0636	0.0579	0.0526
1.5	0.0496	0.0503	0.0546	0.0537	0.0467
2	0.0499	0.0499	0.0510	0.0509	0.0469
2.5	0.0504	0.0496	0.0515	0.0515	0.0491
	Power				
1	0.8081	0.8140	0.8401	0.8446	0.8213
1.5	0.8093	0.8077	0.8261	0.8259	0.7995
2	0.8010	0.8030	0.8184	0.8183	0.7883
2.5					

t-distribution. However random allocation of subjects to groups leads to a different distribution. Since only the noncentrality parameter depends on  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , the distribution under  $H_0$  does not change, but under  $H_1$  it becomes a mixture with

$$P(jT_{vj} > k | v_1; v_2; \rho; \delta) = \sum_{v_1=0}^X \frac{v_1!}{v_1!v_2!} \binom{v_1}{3} (1 - \rho)^{v_2} P(jT_{vj} > k | v_1; v_2; \rho; \delta) : \quad (9)$$

Moreover, the test statistic is not defined if  $\min(v_1; v_2) < 1$  and has to be extended to these possible situations. For example, if  $v_1 = 1$  or  $v_2 = 1$  one can estimate the pooled standard deviation on one sample  $v_1$  or for the case  $v_1 = v_2 = 0$  one can set  $T_v = 0$ . Thus, even a fixed sample size calculation faces substantial complications in deriving the distribution of the two sample t-test statistic under  $H_1$ .

In practice, the random aspect of the allocation is usually ignored in the sample size estimation formulas and the formula for a fixed allocation is used instead. Fixed allocation sample size calculation is a two number 312(d)-339.35b31(.97

Table 5: Monte-Carlo Type I error, Power, and Sample Sizes 100,000 simulations; two sample t-test designs;  $n_1 = 20$ ; random allocation

1	3	$D_{2tr}$	$D_{2tr;IPN}$	$D_{2tr;IPNR}$	$D_{2tr;IPN}^a$
Type I error					
0.5	1	0.0480	0.0560	0.0502	0.0562
0.5	1.5	0.0500	0.0540	0.0535	0.0506
0.5	2	0.0499	0.0520	0.0520	0.0509
0.25	1	0.0508	0.0555	0.0529	0.0553
0.25	1.5	0.0497	0.0517	0.0516	0.0497
0.25	2	0.0502	0.0519	0.0519	0.0508
Power					
0.5	1	0.8455	0.8543	0.9028	0.8070
0.5	1.5	0.8369	0.8444	0.8454	0.8181
0.5	2	0.8247	0.8384	0.8385	0.8116
0.25	1	0.8419	0.8669	0.8834	0.8264
0.25	1.5	0.8431	0.8515	0.8516	0.8235
0.25	2	0.8296	0.8429	0.8429	0.8145
EN (SD)					
0.5	1	38.64(7.50)	41.12(16.36)	46.69(12.96)	36.78(16.54)
0.5	1.5	80.85(10.73)	90.51(36.48)	90.68(36.23)	84.99(33.60)
0.5	2	136.99(13.84)	158.68(62.09)	158.69(62.08)	147.03(56.55)
0.25	1	50.08(9.89)	58.99(28.36)	61.11(26.50)	54.06(29.26)
0.25	1.5	109.18(14.39)	128.22(59.05)	128.26(58.97)	120.27(58.77)
0.25	2	184.04(18.60)	222.00(95.56)	222.00(95.56)	206.66(95.59)

Measurements of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) levels are widely used for screening and diagnosing prostate cancer. PSA levels are known to be associated with measures of disease aggressiveness such as tumor stage as well as demographic characteristics predictive of screening behavior such as race/ethnicity, marital status, etc. A (hypothetical) investigator in Atlanta, GA wishes to conduct a study to evaluate whether the effect of Black versus White race on PSA levels is the same for localized versus regionally or distantly extended tumors. In practice he or she would turn to the SEER cancer registry, as we will for the source of data, but for the sake of the example let's assume that the information of interest is not available in the registry. In fact, PSA levels were not available in SEER until recently.

The specific goal of the study is to test the interaction effect of race (White vs Black) and tumor stage (localized vs others) on ln(PSA) values controlling for the effect of marital status (married vs others) and ethnicity (Hispanic vs others).

We use the linear regression model

$$\ln(\text{PSA}_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 W_i + \beta_2 L_i + \beta_3 W_i L_i + \beta_4 M_i + \beta_5 H_i + \epsilon_i; \quad (10)$$

where  $W_i$ ,  $L_i$ ,  $M_i$ , and  $H_i$  are, respectively, indicators of White race, localized tumor, married status, and Hispanic ethnicity of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subject. The random noise  $\epsilon_i$  is assumed to follow a normal model with the zero mean and a finite unknown variance  $\sigma^2$ . We formulate the research question about the interaction via  $H_0: \beta_3 = 0$  and wish to design a study that would have 80% power to detect a 1.5-fold difference in the race effect amongst the localized versus non-localized tumors, corresponding to  $\beta_3 = \ln(1.5)$ .

To calculate the study sample size we use the formula proposed by Hsieh et al [6]. If  $X$  represents the predictor of interest and  $Z$  stands the other predictors, then the sample size required to detect an effect with a partial regression coefficient of  $\beta$  with power  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  at a two-sided significance



Table 6: Linear regression on internal pilot data  $n_1 = 100$ .

	Estimate	Std.Error	t value	p value
Intercept ( $\hat{\alpha}_0$ )	5.4036	0.7208	7.497	< 0.0001
White ( $\hat{\alpha}_1$ )	-1.2507	0.6519	-1.918	0.0581
Localized ( $\hat{\alpha}_2$ )	-1.4274	0.4916	-2.904	0.0046
Hispanic ( $\hat{\alpha}_4$ )	0.1849	0.5394	0.343	0.7326
Married ( $\hat{\alpha}_5$ )	-0.0928	0.2122	-0.437	0.6629
White Localized ( $\hat{\alpha}_3$ )	1.4046	0.6822	2.059	0.0423

To simulate the conduct of the study we extracted a sample of 100  
 proT432(c)3.56312(t)174(h52 Tf 1 0 0 1 128.4 539.64 3.)-2.26432]TJ -371.04 -14.4 Td a.26463

Table 7: Regression model for the total sample  $N = 1837$ .

	Estimate	Std.Error	t value	p value
Intercept ( $\hat{\beta}_0$ )	4.8725	0.1923	25.333	< 0.0001
White ( $\hat{\beta}_1$ )	-0.1577	0.1267	-1.245	0.2134
Localized ( $\hat{\beta}_2$ )	-0.4670	0.0989	-4.721	< 0.0001
Hispanic ( $\hat{\beta}_4$ )	-0.0148	0.1706	-0.086	0.9311
Married ( $\hat{\beta}_5$ )	-0.1396	0.0445	-3.136	0.0017





