

Part 2. Choosing Design Parameters and Stopping Boundaries

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In Part 1 we saw *why* multi-arm multi-stage (MAMS) and platform trials are attractive, using examples like STAMPEDE, I-SPY 2 and REMAP-CAP.

In this part we switch from “why” to “**how do I actually design one?**” – in particular:

- how to choose **design parameters** (number of arms, stages, effect sizes, error rates, allocation ratios),
- how to construct **efficacy and futility boundaries**, and
- how to interpret them using **real-world trial scenarios** in R.

2.1 Objectives

- List the main **design choices** in a MAMS trial.
- Describe how **group-sequential boundaries** (Pocock, O’Brien–Fleming, triangular) behave over time.
- Use the R packages **MAMS** and **gsMAMS** to:
 - design continuous-endpoint and survival MAMS trials,
 - obtain **stopping boundaries** and sample sizes, and
 - explore operating characteristics (FWER, power, expected sample size).
- Relate those boundaries to **actual trial data**, using real datasets such as the ovarian cancer trial from the **survival** package.

2.2 What needs to be fixed before you randomize anyone?

2.2.1 Number of experimental arms (K)

You need to decide how many treatments (or doses, or combinations) you will test **concurrently** against a shared control:

- **Clinical input:**
 - How many hypotheses are truly plausible?
 - Are multiple doses of the same drug needed (dose-finding) or multiple different regimens?
- **Statistical implications:**
 - More arms \rightarrow more complex multiplicity / correlation structure.
 - But, as we saw in Part 1, often **fewer total patients** than running separate trials.

Packages like MAMS and gsMAMS treat this as a simple integer: K (or k), the number of treatment arms.

2.2.2 Number of stages (J) and information times

A MAMS trial has **J stages** (or “looks”) at the data. At each stage you can:

- stop an arm (or the whole trial) for **efficacy**,
- stop an arm for **futility**, or
- continue to the next stage.

Crucially, what matters statistically is not the calendar time but the **information time**, usually defined by:

- number of patients accrued (continuous/binary endpoints), or
- number of events (survival endpoints).

For example, in a two-stage design you might plan interims at information fractions $(0.5, 1)$, i.e., after 50% and 100% of the target information has accrued.

2.2.3 Endpoints: intermediate vs. final

Most MAMS and platform trials:

- Use an **intermediate endpoint** to drive early decisions (e.g., failure-free survival in STAMPEDE, pathologic complete response in I-SPY 2).
- Use a **final, usually more definitive endpoint** for confirmatory conclusions (e.g., overall survival).

In this part we'll focus on **continuous** and **time-to-event** endpoints, since these cover a large proportion of real platform trials and are well supported in MAMS and gsMAMS.

2.2.4 Error rates and power

For confirmatory platforms, the usual target is:

- **One-sided familywise type I error (FWER):** α , e.g. 2.5% or 5%.
- **Power:** $1-\beta$, e.g. 80% or 90%, under some pre-specified configuration of true treatment effects.

The `MAMS::mams()` function explicitly controls the one-sided FWER across all treatment arms via a generalised Dunnett test, and finds sample sizes to guarantee power under a **least favourable configuration** (LFC).

`gsMAMS` similarly targets one-sided FWER and power when constructing sequential conditional probability ratio tests (SCPRT) boundaries.

2.2.5 Clinically relevant effect sizes

For each arm you need to distinguish:

- an “**interesting**” effect size δ (or hazard ratio (HR)) that you would like to detect with high power;
- an “**uninteresting**” or minimal effect δ_0 that would not justify further development. An effect that is “too small to care about”.
- Note: δ_0 is not used in the interim analyses, but only in sample size calculation and solving for efficacy boundaries!

In `MAMS`, these are:

- `delta / delta0` for a continuous outcome (e.g., mean difference), or
- `p / p0` on the probability scale $P(X_k > X_0)$.

In `gsMAMS`, these appear as:

- `delta1 / delta0` for continuous endpoints,
- `HR1 / HR0` for survival endpoints.

2.2.6 Allocation ratios

You can randomize:

- **equally** to all arms (including the controls/placebo arm), or
- **unequally**, e.g., more patients to control or to particularly promising arms.

`MAMS` lets you specify per-stage allocation ratios to control and treatment arms (`r`, `r0`), while `gsMAMS` assumes balanced allocation by default.

From a clinical perspective, unbalanced allocation can be used to:

- limit exposure to a risky experimental treatment, or
- stabilize the control group estimates when many arms come and go.

2.3 Group-sequential logic in a nutshell

Before going fully multi-arm, it's worth recalling the **group-sequential** idea for a single treatment vs. control.

2.3.1 Interim test statistics

At each interim look/stage $j = 1, \dots, J$ for treatment k , we compute a test statistic:

- continuous endpoint: $Z_{k,j} \approx \frac{\hat{\delta}_{k,j}}{\text{SE}(\hat{\delta}_{k,j})}$
- survival endpoint: $Z_{k,j} \approx \frac{\log(\widehat{HR}_{k,j})}{\text{SE}(\log(\widehat{HR}_{k,j}))}$

Under the null hypothesis (no difference), these statistics are asymptotically standard normal, but they are **correlated across stages** because they are based on overlapping data.

2.3.2 Efficacy and futility boundaries

At each stage j , we pre-define:

- a **lower (futility) boundary** a_j , and
- an **upper (efficacy) boundary** b_j , with $a_j < b_j$.

The basic decision rules for each treatment arm k :

- If $Z_{k,j} \leq a_j$: stop for **futility** (lack of benefit).
- If $Z_{k,j} \geq b_j$: stop for **efficacy** and claim success for that arm.
- If $a_j < Z_{k,j} < b_j$: continue recruitment to that arm (and control) into the next stage.

Different **boundary shapes** (Pocock, O'Brien–Fleming, triangular, Haybittle-Peto, fixed) specify how a_j and b_j behave over time:

- **Pocock**: relatively constant boundaries at each analysis \rightarrow easier to stop early but slightly higher information needed overall.
- **O'Brien–Fleming**: very stringent early stopping, converging to the usual critical value (~ 1.96 one-sided) at the final analysis \rightarrow conservative but popular.

`MAMS::mams()` lets you choose `ushape` and `lshape` from "pocock", "obf", "triangular" or "fixed". `gsMAMS` uses SCPRT-based boundaries but the behaviour is similar: strong control of FWER with early stopping opportunities.

2.3.3 Extending to multiple arms

With multiple experimental arms vs. a shared control:

- each arm k has its own sequence $Z_{k,1}, \dots, Z_{k,J}$, and
- these statistics are **correlated across arms**, because each comparison uses the same control patients.

This means we can't just treat arms as independent tests. The **MAMS** package deals with this by using a **generalised Dunnett test** and closed-testing arguments to ensure that the **familywise type I error rate** (probability of any false positive among arms) stays at your chosen α .

gsMAMS uses a related SCPRT-based approach to derive sample sizes and boundaries that respect FWER across arms and stages.

2.4 Example 1 – continuous endpoint MAMS design (TAILoR-inspired)

Our first hands-on example uses a **continuous outcome** and is based on the **TAILoR trial**, a phase II MAMS study which compared three doses of telmisartan (20, 40, 80 mg) to control for improvement in insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) in HIV-positive patients.

2.4.1 Trial context

- Patients: HIV-positive adults on stable combination antiretroviral therapy, at risk of insulin resistance.
- Arms:
 - Control: no telmisartan;
 - Three experimental doses: 20 mg, 40 mg, 80 mg daily.
 - Participants were initially randomised 1:1:1:1 to these four arms.
 - Primary outcome: change in **HOMA-IR** (continuous).
 - Objective: **identify the most promising dose**, if any.

The adaptive design had **two stages**:

1. Stage I (dose-finding / activity stage)

- Recruitment to all four arms continues until we have 24-week outcome data for approximately half of the maximum planned sample size, at which point the interim analysis is performed.
- An interim analysis compares each dose with control on the primary outcome.
- Depending on these results, one or more arms can be dropped; promising dose(s) continue to Stage II with control.

2. Stage II

- Only the selected promising dose(s) plus control continue recruitment and follow-up.
- The primary endpoint (change in HOMA-IR at 24 weeks) is re-assessed in this second stage, while patients are followed for up to 48 weeks for secondary outcomes.

This two-stage structure is exactly what our MAMS design functions are built to handle: several arms share a control, and the trial can **drop unpromising doses at the interim** while preserving error-rate control.

From a statistical viewpoint, this is a classic **4-arm, 2-stage MAMS design** with a continuous endpoint.

2.4.2 Effect sizes and error rates

In the `gsMAMS` vignette, the TAILoR example adopts standardized effect sizes:

- Clinically “interesting” effect (effective dose): $\delta^{(1)} = 0.545$,
- “Uninteresting/futile” effect (ineffective dose): $\delta^{(0)} = 0.178$,

with:

- one-sided FWER $\alpha = 0.05$,
- power $1 - \beta = 0.90$,
- 3 treatment arms $k = 3$,
- 2 stages with information fractions 0.5, 1.

We’ll mimic this specification with **two different R tools**.

2.4.3 Designing the trial with MAMS

First, we start with the MAMS package:

```
# install.packages("MAMS")

library(MAMS)

# TAILoR-like 3-arm, 2-stage design, continuous endpoint
tailor_mams <- mams(
  K      = 3,          # 3 doses / treatment arms
  J      = 2,          # 2 stages
  alpha  = 0.05,       # one-sided FWER
  power  = 0.90,       # power under least favourable configuration
  r      = 1:2,        # allocation ratios (stage 1 and 2)
  r0     = 1:2,        # ratios for control
  delta  = 0.545,      # interesting effect size
  delta0 = 0.178,      # uninteresting effect size
  sd     = 1,          # standardized SD
  ushape = "obf",      # O'Brien-Fleming-type efficacy boundary
  lshape = "fixed",    # fixed futility boundary
  lfix   = 0,          # Z <= 0 → drop arm for futility
  nstart = 30          # starting guess for stage 1 control size
)

tailor_mams
```

What this code tells MAMS:

- we want a 3-arm, 2-stage trial,
- controlling one-sided FWER at 5% and achieving 90% power to detect at least one arm with effect size 0.545,
- using O'Brien–Fleming-like efficacy boundaries and a fixed futility boundary at $Z = 0$.

The returned object has components:

```
taylor_mams$u      # Upper (efficacy) boundaries at stages 1 and 2
taylor_mams$l      # Lower (futility) boundaries
taylor_mams$n      # Stage 1 sample size in control
taylor_mams$N      # Maximum total sample size
taylor_mams$alpha  # FWER
```

From a **clinician's perspective**, you can read:

- “At stage 1 we recruit around `taylor_mams$n` patients to control and the same per treatment arm.
 - We compute a Z-statistic for each dose vs. control.
 - If the Z statistics for a dose is \leq lower boundary, that dose is dropped as futile.
 - If the Z statistics for any dose is \geq upper boundary, we declare that dose promising enough to stop the trial for efficacy (and usually recommend it for phase III).
 - Otherwise, we continue to stage 2 with remaining arms.”
-

2.4.4 Designing the same trial with **gsMAMS**

Now we repeat the design using the **gsMAMS** package, which directly implements **SCPRT-based group-sequential MAMS designs** and provides built-in tools for operating characteristics.

```
# install.packages("gsMAMS")

library(gsMAMS)

taylor_gs <- design_cont(
  delta0 = 0.178,    # uninteresting effect size
  delta1 = 0.545,    # interesting effect size
  alpha  = 0.05,     # one-sided FWER
  beta   = 0.10,     # 1 - power
  k      = 3,        # number of experimental arms
  frac   = c(0.5, 1) # information times for 2 stages
)

taylor_gs
```

`taylor_gs` is a list containing:

- cumulative **sample size per arm** at each stage,
- **maximum total sample size** for the trial,
- SCPRT **lower and upper boundaries**.

You can pull out the key bits as:

```
# Sample sizes
tailor_gs[["Sample size"]]

# Boundary values
tailor_bounds <- tailor_gs[["Boundary values"]]
tailor_bounds
```

For these parameters, stage-wise boundaries are approximately:

- Stage 1: lower ≈ 0.006 , upper ≈ 2.91
- Stage 2: lower ≈ 2.06 , upper ≈ 2.06

Interpretation for clinicians:

- **First interim (after ~40 patients per arm):**
 - if an arm's $Z < 0.006 \rightarrow$ drop that dose for futility;
 - if an arm's $Z > 2.91 \rightarrow$ trial stops early, that dose is recommended;
 - otherwise \rightarrow continue to stage 2 with remaining arms.
- **Second stage (full information):**
 - if any remaining arm's $Z > 2.06 \rightarrow$ declare success;
 - if all $Z < 2.06 \rightarrow$ no dose has sufficient evidence; trial declares no success.

2.4.5 A quick hands-on Z statistic example

Suppose at stage 1 we analyse HOMA-IR for the 80 mg arm vs. control and obtain:

- estimated mean difference (treatment – control) $\hat{\delta} = 0.50$ (higher is better),
- standard error $SE(\hat{\delta}) = 0.18$.

The stage-1 Z statistic is:

```
delta_hat <- 0.50
se_delta <- 0.18

Z_stage1 <- delta_hat / se_delta
Z_stage1
```

We get $Z \approx 2.78$.

- Under the **MAMS** design, check whether 2.78 exceeds the stage-1 upper boundary `tailor_mams$u[1]`.
- Under the **gsMAMS** design, compare 2.78 against stage-1 upper bound (~ 2.91).

In this toy calculation, we'd be **very close** to an early stopping for efficacy under **gsMAMS** and would almost certainly continue the arm, while strongly considering it to be promising.

2.5 Example 2 – survival MAMS design (STAMPEDE-inspired)

Next we move to a **time-to-event** endpoint, which is most relevant for large oncology platforms like **STAMPEDE**. STAMPEDE uses **failure-free survival (FFS)** as an intermediate endpoint and overall survival as a final endpoint, and has evaluated combinations of androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) with docetaxel, abiraterone, radiotherapy and other agents.

We'll use a generic STAMPEDE-like scenario:

- Control median survival: 20 months.
- 4 treatment arms vs. control ($K = 4$).
- We want to detect a hazard ratio $HR = 0.67$ for at least one arm.
- Two looks at the data when 50% and 100% of the events have occurred.
- One-sided FWER 5%, power 90%.

2.5.1 Designing the survival MAMS trial with gsMAMS

```
library(gsMAMS)

stampede_like <- design_surv(
  m0    = 20,          # median survival in control (months)
  hr0    = 1,          # null HR (no effect)
  hr1    = 0.67,       # interesting HR for treatment arms
  ta     = 40,         # accrual time (months)
  tf     = 20,         # additional follow-up (months)
  alpha  = 0.05,       # one-sided FWER
  beta   = 0.10,       # type II error
  k      = 4,          # number of treatment arms
  kappa  = 1,          # shape parameter (1 = exponential)
  eta    = 0,          # loss-to-follow-up rate (0 = none)
  frac   = c(0.5, 1)   # information fractions for the 2 looks
)

stampede_like
```

This returns:

- **Cumulative number of events** at each stage (across all arms combined),
- **Maximum total number of events** and total sample size,
- **Lower and upper boundaries** at each stage.

```
# Events and total subjects
stampede_like[["Sample size"]]
stampede_like[["Total number of subjects required for the trial"]]

# SCPRT boundaries
stampede_surv_bounds <- stampede_like[["Boundary values"]]
stampede_surv_bounds
```

The boundaries are roughly:

- Stage 1: lower ≈ 0.075 , upper ≈ 2.98

- Stage 2: lower ≈ 2.16 , upper ≈ 2.16

Interpretation:

- Conduct the **first interim** after ~ 164 events.
- For each arm k , compute the log-rank Z statistic $Z_{k,1}$:
 - If $Z_{k,1} < 0.075$: drop arm k for futility.
 - If $Z_{k,1} > 2.98$: stop the trial and recommend the best arm.
 - Otherwise: continue to wait for more events (stage 2).

At **final analysis** (around 328 events):

- For remaining arms, compute $Z_{k,2}$:
 - If any $Z_{k,2} > 2.16$: declare that arm efficacious vs. control;
 - If all $Z_{k,2} \leq 2.16$: no arm shows sufficient evidence.

From a **platform perspective**, this is exactly the type of rule STAMPEDE uses on FFS to decide whether to continue, drop, or “graduate” regimens for further study (e.g., abiraterone + ADT showed a very large FFS effect with HR ≈ 0.29).

2.5.2 Operating characteristics under null and alternative

A nice feature of gsMAMS is that we can easily check the **operating characteristics** of our design.

```
# FWER and behaviour under global null
op_null <- op_fwer_surv(
  m0    = 20,
  alpha = 0.05,
  beta  = 0.10,
  p      = 4,           # number of treatment arms
  frac   = c(0.5, 1),
  hr0    = 1,           # null HR
  hr1    = 0.67,        # interesting HR
  nsim   = 10000,
  ta     = 40,
  tf     = 20,
  kappa  = 1,
  eta    = 0,
  seed   = 1000
)

op_null

# Power and behaviour under alternative
# Usually the least-favourable configuration: only one arm has HR=0.67
op_alt <- op_power_surv(
  m0    = 20,
  alpha = 0.05,
  beta  = 0.10,
  p      = 4,
```

```

frac = c(0.5, 1),
hr0 = 1,
hr1 = 0.67,
nsim = 10000,
ta = 40,
tf = 20,
kappa = 1,
eta = 0,
seed = 1000
)

op_alt

```

You'll see outputs like:

- overall FWER ≈ 0.05 with stage-wise contributions spread across looks,
- overall power ≈ 0.90 ,
- stopping probabilities at interim vs. final under null and alternative,
- average number of events and average trial duration under null and alternative.

These give both statisticians and clinicians a transparent view of how often the trial is expected to stop early and how many patients/events are typically required.

2.6 Example 3 – linking boundaries to real survival data (ovarian cancer)

So far, we've used real trial contexts but not actual patient-level data, because most MAMS platforms don't publish full datasets. To get a more tactile feel, we'll use the `ovarian` dataset from the `survival` package.

This dataset comes from a randomized trial of two treatments for ovarian cancer and includes:

- `futime`: survival or censoring time
- `fustat`: event indicator (1 = death, 0 = censored)
- `rx`: treatment group
- `age`, `resid.ds`, `ecog.ps`: covariates

2.6.1 Fitting a Cox model to estimate HR and Z

```

library(survival)

# Load the data
data(ovarian)
head(ovarian)

```

```

##   futime fustat   age resid.ds rx ecog.ps
## 1     59      1 72.3315        2  1      1
## 2    115      1 74.4932        2  1      1
## 3    156      1 66.4658        2  1      2
## 4    421      0 53.3644        2  2      1
## 5    431      1 50.3397        2  1      1
## 6    448      0 56.4301        1  1      2

```

```

# Simple two-arm comparison using Cox PH
fit_ov <- coxph(Surv(futime, fustat) ~ rx, data = ovarian)
summary(fit_ov)

## Call:
## coxph(formula = Surv(futime, fustat) ~ rx, data = ovarian)
##
##      n= 26, number of events= 12
##
##      coef exp(coef) se(coef)      z Pr(>|z|)
## rx -0.5964    0.5508   0.5870 -1.016   0.31
##
##      exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
## rx    0.5508      1.816   0.1743    1.74
##
## Concordance= 0.608 (se = 0.07 )
## Likelihood ratio test= 1.05 on 1 df,  p=0.3
## Wald test               = 1.03 on 1 df,  p=0.3
## Score (logrank) test = 1.06 on 1 df,  p=0.3

# Extract log-HR and its standard error
logHR <- coef(fit_ov)["rx"]
se_logHR <- sqrt(vcov(fit_ov)["rx", "rx"])

# Z statistic for H0: HR = 1
Z_final <- logHR / se_logHR
Z_final

##      rx
## -1.015998

```

Z_{final} is the standard log-rank-type statistic you would compare to the **final-stage boundary** in a group-sequential (or MAMS) design.

2.6.2 Comparing to a MAMS survival boundary

Let's (purely for illustration) imagine that this ovarian trial was part of a 4-arm, 2-stage MAMS survival design like the STAMPEDE-inspired one we designed above, with final upper boundary around 2.16.

You can compare:

```

# Suppose we re-use the stampede_like design above
stampede_surv_bounds <- stampede_like[["Boundary values"]]

upper_stage2 <- stampede_surv_bounds["Upper bound", "Stage 2"]
upper_stage2

-Z_final
-Z_final > upper_stage2

```

The negative sign is present since a negative Z-score indicates the treatment is beneficial.

Interpretation for clinicians:

- If $-Z_{\text{final}} > \text{upper_stage2}$, this arm would have **crossed the final efficacy boundary** in the MAMS design and been declared beneficial.
 - If $-Z_{\text{final}} \leq \text{upper_stage2}$, the evidence would be **insufficient** at the pre-specified error rates to declare success.
-

2.7 Putting it all together: A practical design workflow

2.7.1 Step 1 – define arms, endpoints, and clinically relevant effects

1. List candidate arms

- Experimental regimens or doses.
- Decide which are worth including given costs and logistical burden.

2. Choose endpoints

- Final-stage primary endpoint (e.g., Overall Survival).
- Intermediate endpoint for early decisions.

3. Specify effect sizes

- For each arm type (drug, dose level), specify:
 - “interesting” effect δ that warrants success.
 - “uninteresting” effect δ_0 that you’re happy to reject.

Use real datasets (such as `ovarian`, `colon` in `survival`) to check that your chosen effects are **plausible** in scale and variance.

2.7.2 Step 2 – choose error rates and stages

4. **Set one-sided FWER** (typically 2.5% or 5%) and power (80–90%).
5. **Pick number of stages and information times**, based on:
 - how quickly the endpoint accumulates,
 - resource constraints (how many interims a DMC can realistically handle).

For early-phase “screening” designs you might accept higher type I error and more stages; for phase III confirmatory platforms, you’ll want stricter FWER and fewer looks.

2.7.3 Step 3 – design with R and iterate

6. **Use MAMS or gsMAMS to find boundaries and sample sizes**

Examples:

```

# Continuous TAILoR-style design
library(MAMS)
cont_design <- mams(
  K = 3, J = 2, alpha = 0.05, power = 0.90,
  r = 1:2, r0 = 1:2,
  delta = 0.545, delta0 = 0.178, sd = 1,
  ushape = "obf", lshape = "fixed", lfix = 0, nstart = 30
)

# Survival STAMPEDE-style design
library(gsMAMS)
surv_design <- design_surv(
  m0 = 20, hr0 = 1, hr1 = 0.67,
  ta = 40, tf = 20,
  alpha = 0.05, beta = 0.10,
  k = 4, kappa = 1, eta = 0,
  frac = c(0.5, 1)
)

```

7. Check operating characteristics (FWER, power, expected sample size):

```

# gsMAMS survival example
op_null <- op_fwer_surv(m0=20, alpha=0.05, beta=0.10,
  p=4, frac=c(0.5,1),
  hr0=1, hr1=0.67,
  nsim=10000, ta=40, tf=20,
  kappa=1, eta=0, seed=12)

op_alt <- op_power_surv(m0=20, alpha=0.05, beta=0.10,
  p=4, frac=c(0.5,1),
  hr0=1, hr1=0.67,
  nsim=10000, ta=40, tf=20,
  kappa=1, eta=0, seed=12)

op_null
op_alt

```

8. Iterate with the clinical team

- Is the **maximum sample size** acceptable?
- Are the **stopping rules** clinically sensible (e.g., do you need stricter futility stopping rules to limit exposure to toxic therapies)?
- Do you want different allocation ratios (e.g., more patients on control, or on the most promising arms)?

2.7.4 Step 4 – document boundaries for the protocol

Finally, summarize the design for the protocol:

- A **table of information times**, events/patients per stage.
- For each stage:

- the **futility Z-cutoff** for each arm,
 - the **efficacy Z-cutoff**,
 - and a short text description of what happens if a boundary is crossed.
-

2.8 Take-Aways

- MAMS designs **formalize** what many platforms are doing informally: multiple arms, staged decisions, and explicit control of error rates across arms and time.
- The key design choices are:
 - number of arms and stages,
 - clinically meaningful effect sizes,
 - FWER/power,
 - information times and allocation ratios.
- R packages **MAMS** and **gsMAMS** let you:
 - turn these choices into **concrete boundaries and sample sizes**,
 - check operating characteristics via simulation, and
 - connect those boundaries back to familiar analyses (hazard ratios, mean differences, Z-statistics).