

# Prediction limit as an alternative to the 95th percentile ?

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### Context and study designs

### Variance components analysis

Weaknesses of simple parametric & non-parametric percentiles

Interest of prediction limit approach

Open considerations





Some drugs are biological proteins

We need to know if the body is going to develop antibodies to these proteins

- Like for vaccines
- Although here we hope for no antibodies activation

The actions of antibodies on the drug may cause
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- Risk of adverse events
- Less efficacy
- Clinical sound implications/complications





# Controlling the presence of antibodies has become a regulatory concern

FDA : Draft Guidance for Industry on Assay Development for Immunogenicity Testing of Therapeutic Proteins

Called for comments in Jan 2010

EMEA : Concept Paper On Immunogenicity Assessment Of Monoclonal Antibodies Intended For In Vivo Clinical Use

Issued for comments in March 2009 by the Committee For Medicinal Products For Human Use (CHMP)





Pharmaceutical industry develops specific bioanalytical methods to detect the presence of antibodies

The idea is to detect a meaningful change or level in the subject sample immunoassay signal



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# Context and study designs

#### Objective of cut-point determination studies

- Determine a signal level above which samples are suspected "positive" = may contain antibody
- Any clinical study sample above that level will be re-tested for confirmation
  - The confirmatory assay is a different assay with a more specific test
  - Cost in time and money

How to determine a biologically meaningful signal level ?

 $\blacksquare$   $\Rightarrow$  find a statistically meaningful level





# Objective of cut-point determination studies Cut-off = Trade-off :



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### **Cut-point determination**

Based on some percentile of the distribution of negative samples (Negative = without antibodies)

False Positive Rate = what we want to control





#### Study design for cut-point determination

Some validation method designs at sanofi-aventis (on negs):



Animals : 20 subjects measured in 3 times in 3 runs. Total = 60 observations

Humans : 50-100 subjects measured in 3-6 times in 3-6 runs. Total = 150-600 observations





Cut-point determination : more complicated than just the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile

At least 3 sources of variability to be considered in clinical studies

- Run-to-run variability
  - Chip, day, plate ...
- Biological subject-to-subject variability
- Analytical variability

Cut-point calculation: should incorporate at least these 3 sources





### Study design for cut-point determination

Associated model : 2 crossed random factors ANOVA model

•  $Y_{ij} = \mu + RUN_i + SUBJ_j + ERROR_{ij}$ 





Variance components analysis

# Proportions of variability components Examples of 4 studies on 4 compounds

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"adjusted" response does not remove all the run-to-run variability

Not always perfect correlation between subject samples and negative control plasma pool

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## Weaknesses of simple parametric & nonparametric percentile

#### "Simple" Parametric (SP) percentile based on normal distribution

- Cut-point = mean +  $z_{1-\alpha}^*$  SD
  - $\alpha$  = probability that the sample will be considered positive while it is negative
  - For  $\alpha = 5\% \Rightarrow Z_{1-\alpha} = 1.645$
  - SD = total SD from ANOVA model

#### Non-parametric (NP) percentile based on free distribution

Cut-point =  $(1-\alpha)$ % observed percentile

#### Other approaches possible

- Example: Robust parametric method
  - Cut-point = median +  $z_{1-\alpha}^*$ (1.483\*MAD)
    - MAD= median absolute deviation
    - 1.483\*MAD  $\approx$  SD for normally distributed data



# Weaknesses of parametric & non-parametric percentile

- Not for prediction
  - Just tells you that 95% of the sample data are below this value
  - Does not tell you anything about any future value
- Does not ensure you to capture 95% of the true negative in future assays
  - Does not ensure you control the false positive rate
  - For non-parametric and semi-parametric approaches
    - Does not take into account the correlation between the data



# Interest of prediction limit approach

#### Prediction interval (PI) approach

- An interval in which a future observation will fall, with a certain probability (i.e. 95%), given what has already been observed
  - on repeated experiments, any new observation  $(X_{n+1})$  shall fall in this interval the desired percentage of the time

#### Prediction distribution (simple random sample)

We know from previous experiment that

$$\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{n+l}} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 and  $\overline{\mathbf{X}} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2 / n)$ 

If we take the difference of these two and center, we have :

$$\frac{X_{n+1} - \overline{X}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \sigma^2 / n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Therefore:

$$K_{n+1} \sim N\left(\overline{X}, \sigma^2 * (1+1/n)\right)$$



# Interest of prediction limit approach

#### Prediction distribution

With unknown σ, we have:

$$\frac{X_{n+1} - \overline{X}}{\sqrt{SD^2 + SD^2 / n}} \sim T^{n-1}$$

#### For a simple random sample :

- Cut-point = mean + t<sub>df, 1-α</sub>\*SD\*(1+1/n)<sup>0.5</sup>
  - Mean = overall mean of the experiment
  - df = n-1
  - n = sample size of the experiment
  - α = probability that an observation will be considered as positive while it is negative
  - SD = standard deviation from the experiment







**However, we don't have a simple random sample** 

Recall: correlation + multiple variance components

Use total SD from ANOVA

Use Ne : effective sample size



# Interest of prediction limit approach

#### Ne : effective sample size

Then

With a simple random sample, we have:  $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2 = \sigma_Y^2 / N \Rightarrow N = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2}$ 

In our case, we have:

$$\sigma_Y^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{q-1} \sigma_j^2 + \sigma_e^2 = \sigma_{RUN}^2 + \sigma_{SUBJ}^2 + \sigma_{ERROR}^2$$

$$\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{q-1} (\sigma_{j}^{2} / I_{j}) + (\sigma_{e}^{2} / N) = \frac{\sigma_{RUN}^{2}}{nb \ of \ runs} + \frac{\sigma_{SUBj}^{2}}{nb \ of \ subj} + \frac{\sigma_{ERROR}^{2}}{total \ nb \ of \ obs}$$

with j variance terms in the model and l<sub>i</sub> observations/modalities for the factor j

N : total number of observations

$$Ne = \sigma_Y^2 / \sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2$$

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# Interest of prediction limit approach Simulation results



Average False Positive Rate (FPR) versus number of analytical runs and number of subjects for nonparametric (NP), simple parametric (SP), and prediction interval (PI) approaches. Variance component ratio  $\sigma_{SUBJ}^2$ :  $\sigma_{RUN}^2$ :  $\sigma_{RUN$ 



# Interest of prediction limit approach Simulation results



False Positive Rate (FPR) standard deviation versus number of analytical runs and number of subjects for nonparametric (NP), simple parametric (SP), and prediction interval (PI) approaches. Variance component ratio  $\sigma_{subl}^2$ :  $\sigma_{subl}^$ 



# Interest of prediction limit approach Simulation results



Probability of obtaining actual False Positive Rate (FPR)  $\ge 0.10$  versus number of analytical runs and number of subjects for nonparametric (NP), simple parametric (SP), and prediction interval (PI) approaches. Variance component ratio  $\sigma_{SUBJ}^2$ :  $\sigma_{RUN}^2$ :  $\sigma_{ERROR}^2$  fixed at 2:2:1.





### May not see advantage on a study-by-study basis

## ┢ But

#### Will provide least bias

the closest FPR from the target FPR on average

#### With least variability

Won't vary from study to study as much as the others





### Weaknesses of prediction limit approach

#### Need normal distribution

Usually overcome with appropriate transformation (Box-Cox, log)

#### In some studies, will yield very low false positive rate

- Can be less than 1%
- Risk of detecting less true positive ?
  - Used on real cases: risk unchanged

#### Advantages

- Consistent theoretically if goal is to confirm 5% of screened samples on average
- Least variability compared to the FPRs estimated from the other approaches
- Save resources, so costs and money







#### Books

- Statistical intervals: a guide for practitioners, Gerald J. Hahn, William Q. Meeker, 1991, Wiley series in probability and mathematical statistics
- Confidence intervals on variance components, Richard K. Burdick, Franklin A. Graybill, 1992, Marcel Dekker, Inc.



#### Articles

- Two-sided tolerance intervals for balanced and unbalanced random effects models, David Hoffman, Robert Kringle, 2005, Journal of Biopharmaceutical Statistics, 15: 283-293
- Tolerance limits for linear regression, W.A. Wallis, 1951, Proceedings of the second Berkeley symposium of mathematical statistics and probability, 43-52.
- Recommendations for the validation of immunoassays used for detection of host antibodies against biotechnology products, Gopi Shankar et al, 2008, Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis, 48:1267-1281





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