

# Statistical Considerations and Methodologies

**C. Michael Gibson, M.S., M.D.**



**Harvard Medical  
School**

**Chairman, PERFUSE Study Group**

**Founder and Chairman, WikiDoc & WikiPatient, The World's Open  
Source Textbook of Medicine Viewed 896 Million Times A Year**

# Decisions have been made

- You have defined your objectives
- You have chosen your study design
- What are the next steps?

# Set up your Hypotheses

- Hypothesis testing is a method of determining
  - if what you are seeing is a meaningful difference
  - or are you seeing a difference due to chance

# Hypothesis Testing

- Why do we care about hypothesis testing?
  - This is how we can make statistical conclusions about our data.
  - FDA requires it for safety or effectiveness analysis.

# Hypothesis Testing Overview

- What is involved in setting up a hypothesis test?
  - An objective is needed (what do you want to prove)
  - $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  (Significance and Power levels)
  - Critical Difference
  - Measure of the variability (Standard Deviation) for continuous data (noted:  $\sigma$ )

# Components of the Hypothesis

- $H_0$  and  $H_A$
- $H_A$  : The alternative hypothesis, this is what you want to prove
- $H_0$  : The null hypothesis, the opposite of what is stated in  $H_A$

# Alpha and Beta Errors

		Decision	
		Reject $H_0$	Do not Reject $H_0$
State of Nature	$H_0$ is True	Type I Error ( : False +)	Correct
	$H_0$ is False	Correct	Type II Error ( : False -)

# Alpha and Beta Errors

- Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) is typically set at 0.05 resulting in 95% confidence.
  - $Z_{\alpha}$  is the notation used in the sample size calculations
- $1-\beta$  is called Power. Power is the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  given  $H_0$  is false.
  - $\beta$  is typically set at 0.2 resulting in 80% power. A minimum of 80% power is desired.
  - $Z_{\beta}$  is the notation used in the sample size calculations



# Two-sided vs. One-sided

- Two-sided tests are used:
  - When you aren't sure of how the treatment will affect the patient
  - When you are trying to show improvement and you need to make sure that you are doing no harm as well
- One-sided tests are used:
  - When you want to be no worse than the control

# Safety Objective

- Case Study of a Safety Objective
  - There is a new pacemaker and you want to make sure that it is as safe as the previous marketed pacemakers.
  - One way of testing for safety is to look at the complication rate a 3 months of the new pacemaker vs. a standard

# Safety Objective

- The complication rate from the previous technology may be considered an Objective Performance Criteria (OPC).
- This means that the control group for this objective is a percentage at 3 months.



# Safety Objective

- What do we know about the previous pacemaker studies (Historical Control)?
  - The overall observed rate in the Historical Control is 92%.
  - Of the individual studies in the Historical Control, the worst rate is 85%.
  - Our critical difference will then be  $92\% - 85\% = 7\%$

# Safety Objective

- Objective: To demonstrate the safety of the New Pacemaker.
- Hypothesis: The freedom from complications experienced with the New Pacemaker will be clinically equivalent (within 7%) to the Historical Control rate at 3 months.

$$H_0: S_{\text{New Pacemaker}} \leq 85\% \text{ at 3 months}$$

$$H_A: S_{\text{New Pacemaker}} > 85\% \text{ at 3 months}$$

# Safety Objective

- Alpha and Power.
- We will use the standard of 95% significance and 80% power.
- The points from the Normal Distribution that correspond to the appropriate level of significance are:  
 $Z_{0.95} = 1.645$  (one-sided)  
 $Z_{0.8} = 0.842$

# Sample Size Calculations (Comparison to a Standard)

- Comparing a proportion to a standard

$$N = \frac{Z \sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)} + Z \sqrt{p_a(1-p_a)}}{(p_0 - p_a)^2}^2$$

- From our example:

$$N = \frac{[1.645\sqrt{0.85(1-0.85)} + 0.842\sqrt{0.92(1-0.92)}]^2}{(0.85 - 0.92)^2} = 136$$

# Effectiveness Objective

- Your company has invented a new pacing lead that is supposed to reduce battery longevity by increasing the impedance of the lead.
- You want to prove that the impedance is clinically higher for the experimental product over the control.



# Effectiveness Objective

- This study will be a randomized study with an experimental and control group.



- It has been determined that a clinically meaningful increase in longevity is 6 months. This translated to a 300 ohm difference (d).
- A conservative standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) from the control group is 400 ohms.

# Effectiveness Objective

- Objective: To demonstrate the effectiveness of the pacing impedance.
- Hypothesis: The New Lead pacing impedance at 3 months will be clinically superior (by 300 ohms) to the control impedance at 3 months.

$$H_0: \text{Mean}_{\text{New Lead Impedance}} = \text{Mean}_{\text{Control Impedance}}$$
$$H_A: \text{Mean}_{\text{New Lead Impedance}} \neq \text{Mean}_{\text{Control Impedance}}$$

# Effectiveness Objective

- Alpha and Power.
- We will use the standard of 95% significance and 80% power.
- The points from the Normal Distribution that correspond to the appropriate level of significance are:  
 $Z_{0.95} = 1.96$  (two-sided)  
 $Z_{0.8} = 0.842$

# Comparing Two Samples

- Comparing Two Means (Total sample size)

$$N = \frac{4 Z_{1/2}^2 + Z^2}{d^2}$$

- From our example:

$$N = \frac{4(1.96 + 0.842)^2 400^2}{300^2} = 56 \text{ (28 per group)}$$

# Time to Event Statistics (Survival Analysis)



# Survival Analysis

- The following is needed for each individual:
  - The start date and last known follow-up date
  - The date of an event (if it has occurred)
  - Status (lost to follow-up date, death date)
- From this information the follow-up time is calculated
- The survival probability is  $1 - \text{the event probability}$ .

# Survival Analysis

- The cumulative survival for a certain data point is calculated as:
  - a percentage for each event
  - then multiplied together to obtain the cumulative percentage.
- The denominator that is used is the number remaining at that point in time.

# Survival Analysis Example

Months	Survival	Cumulative Number Failed	Number Left
0	1.00	0	22
2	0.9545 $1/22=0.0455$	1	21
3	0.9091 $1/21=0.0476$ (0.9524) $0.9545*0.9524= 0.9091$	2	20
4	0.9091	2	19



# Stopping Rules

- There may be some instances where you may want to conduct interim analyses
- Repeated testing increases the overall significance level to  $> 0.05$
- Repeated testing comes with a price as total required sample size increases

# Stopping Rule Methods

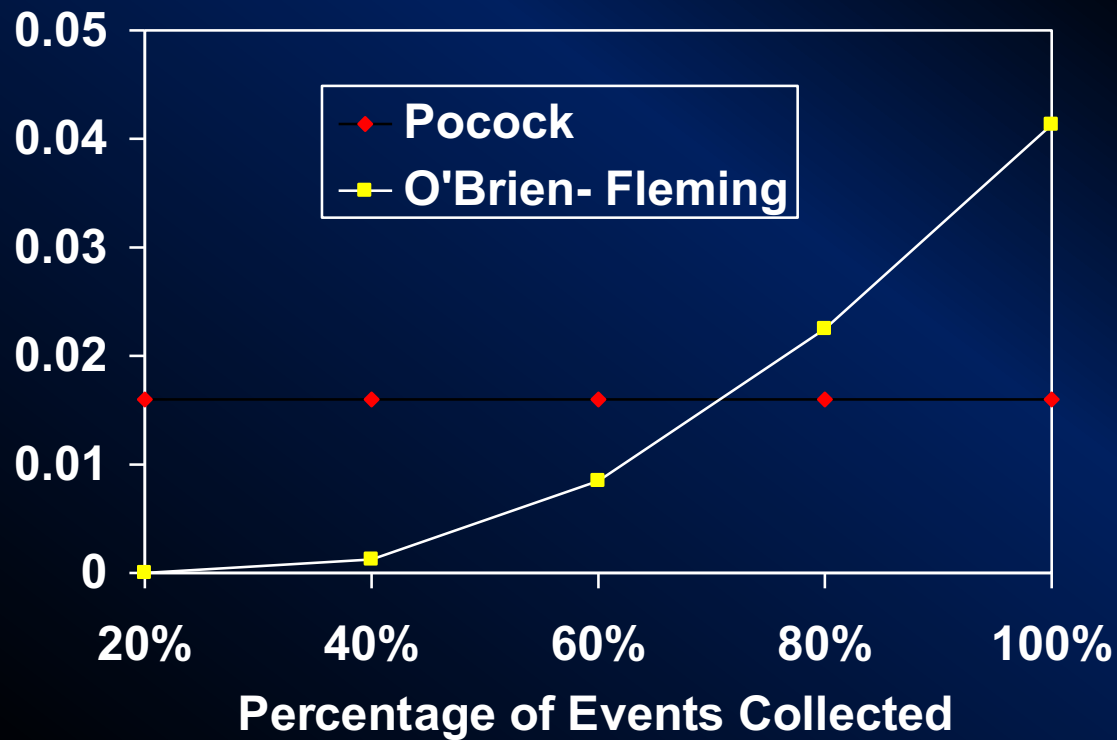
- Statistical tests are conducted along interim points in the study and then the p-value is compared to an appropriate significance level.
- There are a number of methods available to “spend” your alpha level.

# Spending Functions

- One way to look at the data would be 5 times, when you have 20%, 40%, 60%, 80%, and 100% of your events collected.
- Pocock would suggest the same significance level of 0.016 for each of the 5 tests.
- O'Brien Fleming would suggest a range of extremely small to 0.0413.

# Spending Functions

Alpha Level



# Meta Analysis

- A method used to combine data from various sources.
- This data is then used as a comparison group, “control”, for your study.

# Conclusions

- Define what you are clinically wanting to prove.
- Choose your study design appropriately
- Use the objective to write a hypothesis
- Calculate the sample size using a clinically meaningful difference

# Reference: Sample Size Calculations

- Comparing a proportion to a standard

$$N = \frac{Z_{1/2} \sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)} + Z_{1-\alpha} \sqrt{p_a(1-p_a)}}{(p_0 - p_a)^2}$$

- Comparing a mean to a standard

$$N = \frac{Z_{1/2}^2 + Z_{1-\alpha}^2}{d^2}$$

# Comparing Two Samples

- Comparing Two Proportions

$$N = \frac{2 Z_{/2} \sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)} + Z \sqrt{(p_c(1-p_c) + p_e(1-p_e))}}{(p_c - p_e)^2}$$

Where  $p_0 = \frac{(p_c + p_e)}{2}$

- Comparing Two Means (Total N)

$$N = \frac{4 Z_{/2}^2 + Z^2}{d^2}$$



# Equivalence for Two Samples (Blackwelder's Formula)

- Equivalence for two proportions (each group)

$$N = \frac{(Z_{1-\alpha/2} + Z_{1-\beta})^2 [p_0(1-p_0) + p_1(1-p_1)]}{(\delta)^2}$$

- In equivalence testing, usually  $p_0 = p_1$  unless there is a known expected difference. The  $\delta$  is the equivalence difference.

# Equivalence for Two Samples (Blackwelder's Formula Adapted)

- Equivalence for Two Means (each group)

$$N = \frac{(Z_{1-\alpha/2} + Z_{1-\beta})^2 [\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2]}{(\delta)^2}$$

- In equivalence testing,  $\delta$  is the equivalence difference.

# Book References

- Friedman, L.M., Furberg, C.D. and DeMets, D.L., Fundamentals of Clinical Trials, PSG Publishing Company, Inc. (1985)
- Pocock, S.J. Clinical Trials- A Practical Approach, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., (1983)
- Blackwelder, W.C., “ ‘Proving the Null Hypothesis’ in Clinical Trials”, *Controlled Clinical Trials*, 3:345-353, (1982)