

Chapter 1

Limits of Agreement

1.1 Computing LoAs from LME models

One important feature of replicate observations is that they should be independent of each other. In essence, this is achieved by ensuring that the observer makes each measurement independent of knowledge of the previous value(s). This may be difficult to achieve in practice.

1.2 New

Computing limits of agreement features prominently in many method comparison studies, further to Bland and Altman (1986, 1999). Bland and Altman (1999) addresses the issue of computing LoAs in the presence of replicate measurements, suggesting several computationally simple approaches. When repeated measures data are available, it is desirable to use all the data to compare the two methods. However, the original Bland-Altman method was developed for two sets of measurements done on one occasion (i.e. independent data), and so this approach is not suitable for replicate measures data. However, as a naive analysis, it may be used to explore the data because of the simplicity of the method. Carstensen et al. (2008) computes the limits of agreement to the case with replicate measurements by using LME models.

Roy (2009) formulates a very powerful method of assessing whether two methods of measurement, with replicate measurements, also using LME models. Roy's approach is based on the construction of variance-covariance matrices. Importantly, Roy's approach does not address the issue of limits of agreement (though another related analysis, the coefficient of repeatability, is mentioned).

This paper seeks to use Roy's approach to estimate the limits of agreement. These estimates will be compared to estimates computed under Carstensen's formulation.

In computing limits of agreement, it is first necessary to have an estimate for the standard deviations of the differences. When the agreement of two methods is analyzed using LME models, a clear method of how to compute the standard deviation is required. As the estimate for inter-method bias and the quantile would be the same for both methodologies, the focus is solely on the standard deviation.

1.2.1 Roy's method

Roy proposes a novel method using the LME model with Kronecker product covariance structure in a doubly multivariate set-up to assess the agreement between a new method and an established method with unbalanced data and with unequal replications for different subjects (Roy, 2009).

Using Roy's method, four candidate models are constructed, each differing by constraints applied to the variance covariance matrices. In addition to computing the inter-method bias, three significance tests are carried out on the respective formulations to make a judgement on whether or not two methods are in agreement.

1.2.2 Carstensen's Model

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1.2.3 Carstensen's LOAs

Carstensen presents a model where the variation between items for method m is captured by σ_m and the within item variation by τ_m .

Further to his model, Carstensen computes the limits of agreement as

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 - \hat{\alpha}_2 \pm \sqrt{2\hat{\tau}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_1^2 + \hat{\sigma}_2^2}$$

1.2.4 Roy's LOAs

The limits of agreement computed by Roy's method are derived from the variance covariance matrix for overall variability. This matrix is the sum of the between subject VC matrix and the within-subject VC matrix.

The standard deviation of the differences of methods x and y is computed using values from the overall VC matrix.

$$\text{var}(x - y) = \text{var}(x) + \text{var}(y) - 2\text{cov}(x, y)$$

The respective estimates computed by both methods are tabulated as follows. Evidently there is close correspondence between both sets of estimates.

Carstensen et al. (2008) formulates an LME model, both in the absence and the presence of an interaction term. ? uses both to demonstrate the importance of using an interaction term. Failure to take the replication structure into account results in over-estimation of the limits of agreement. For the Carstensen estimates below, an interaction term was included when computed.

Roy (2006) uses the “Blood” data set, which featured in Bland and Altman (1999).

Carstensen et al. (2008) describes the sampling method when discussing of a motivating example

Diabetes patients attending an outpatient clinic in Denmark have their HbA_{1c} levels routinely measured at every visit. Venous and Capillary blood samples were obtained from all patients appearing at the clinic over two days. Samples were measured on four consecutive days on each machines, hence there are five analysis days.

Carstensen et al. (2008) notes that every machine was calibrated every day to the manufacturers guidelines. Measurements are classified by method, individual and replicate. In this case the replicates are clearly not exchangeable, neither within patients nor simulataneously for all patients.

1.3 Hamlett

Hamlett re-analyses the data of Lam et al. (1999) to generalize their model to cover other settings not covered by the Lam method.

In many cases, repeated observation are collected from each subject in sequence and/or longitudinally.

$$y_i = \alpha + \mu_i + \epsilon$$

1.3.1 T

he classical model is based on measurements y_{mi} by method $m = 1, 2$ on item $i = 1, 2 \dots$

$$y_{mi} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + e_{mi}$$

$$e_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_m^2)$$

Even though the separate variances can not be identified, their sum can be estimated by the empirical variance of the differences.

Like wise the separate α can not be estimated, only their difference can be estimated as \bar{D}

Chapter 2

LME models for MCS

2.1 Statement of the LME model

Further to a paper published by Laird and Ware in 1982, a linear mixed effects model is a linear model that combined fixed and random effect terms formulated as follows;

$$Y_i = X_i\beta + Z_ib_i + \epsilon_i$$

- Y_i is the $n \times 1$ response vector
- X_i is the $n \times p$ Model matrix for fixed effects
- β is the $p \times 1$ vector of fixed effects coefficients
- Z_i is the $n \times q$ Model matrix for random effects
- b_i is the $q \times 1$ vector of random effects coefficients, sometimes denoted as u_i
- ϵ is the $n \times 1$ vector of observation errors

2.1.1 Bendix Carstensen’s data sets

Carstensen et al. (2008) describes the sampling method when discussing of a motivating example. Diabetes patients attending an outpatient clinic in Denmark have their HbA_{1c} levels routinely measured at every visit. Venous and Capillary blood samples were obtained from all patients appearing at the clinic over two days.

Samples were measured on four consecutive days on each machines, hence there are five analysis days. Carstensen notes that every machine was calibrated every day to the manufacturers guidelines.

2.1.2 Limits of agreement for Carstensen’s data

Carstensen et al. (2008) describes the calculation of the limits of agreement (with the inter-method bias implicit) for both data sets, based on his formulation;

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 - \hat{\alpha}_2 \pm 2\sqrt{2\hat{\tau}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_1^2 + \hat{\sigma}_2^2}.$$

For the ‘Fat’ data set, the inter-method bias is shown to be 0.045. The limits of agreement are $(-0.23, 0.32)$

Carstensen demonstrates the use of the interaction term when computing the limits of agreement for the ‘Oximetry’ data set. When the interaction term is omitted, the limits of agreement are $(-9.97, 14.81)$. Carstensen advises the inclusion of the interaction term for linked replicates, and hence the limits of agreement are recomputed as $(-12.18, 17.12)$.

2.1.3 Limits of Agreement in LME models

Carstensen et al. (2008) uses LME models to determine the limits of agreement. Between-subject variation for method m is given by d_m^2 and within-subject variation is given by λ_m^2 . ? remarks that for two methods A and B , separate values of d_A^2 and d_B^2 cannot be estimated, only their average. Hence the assumption that $d_x = d_y = d$ is necessary. The between-subject variability \mathbf{D} and within-subject variability $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ can be presented in matrix form,

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} d_A^2 & 0 \\ 0 & d_B^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d^2 & 0 \\ 0 & d^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_A^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_B^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The variance for method m is $d_m^2 + \lambda_m^2$. Limits of agreement are determined using the standard deviation of the case-wise differences between the sets of measurements by two methods A and B , given by

$$\text{var}(y_A - y_B) = 2d^2 + \lambda_A^2 + \lambda_B^2. \quad (2.1)$$

Importantly the covariance terms in both variability matrices are zero, and no covariance component is present.

? has demonstrated a methodology whereby d_A^2 and d_B^2 can be estimated separately. Also covariance terms are present in both \mathbf{D} and $\mathbf{\Lambda}$. Using Roy's methodology, the variance of the differences is

$$\text{var}(y_{iA} - y_{iB}) = d_A^2 + \lambda_B^2 + d_B^2 + \lambda_A^2 - 2(d_{AB} + \lambda_{AB}) \quad (2.2)$$

All of these terms are given or determinable in computer output. The limits of agreement can therefore be evaluated using

$$\bar{y}_A - \bar{y}_B \pm 1.96 \times \sqrt{\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_B^2 - 2(\sigma_{AB})}. \quad (2.3)$$

For Carstensen's 'fat' data, the limits of agreement computed using Roy's method are consistent with the estimates given by ?; $0.044884 \pm 1.96 \times 0.1373979 = (-0.224, 0.314)$.

2.1.4 Repeatability

Barnhart emphasizes the importance of repeatability as part of an overall method comparison study. Before there can be good agreement between two methods, a method must have good agreement with itself. The coefficient of repeatability, as proposed by Bland and Altman (1999) is an important feature of both Carstensen's and Roy's methodologies. The coefficient is calculated from the residual standard deviation (i.e. $1.96 \times \sqrt{2} \times \sigma_m = 2.83\sigma_m$).

2.2 Hamlett and Lam

The methodology proposed by ? is largely based on Hamlett et al. (2004), which in turn follows on from Lam et al. (1999).

2.2.1 Roy's variability tests

Variability tests proposed by ? affords the opportunity to expand upon Carstensen's approach.

The first test allows of the comparison the begin-subject variability of two methods. Similarly, the second test assesses the within-subject variability of two methods. A third test is a test that compares the overall variability of the two methods.

The tests are implemented by fitting a specific LME model, and three variations thereof, to the data. These three variant models introduce equality constraints that act null hypothesis cases.

Other important aspects of the method comparison study are consequent. The limits of agreement are computed using the results of the first model.

2.2.2 Repeated Measurements

In cases where there are repeated measurements by each of the two methods on the same subjects , Bland Altman suggest calculating the mean for each method on each subject and use these pairs of means to compare the two methods.

The estimate of bias will be unaffected using this approach, but the estimate of the standard deviation of the differences will be too small, because of the reduction of the effect of repeated measurement error. Bland Altman propose a correction for this.

Carstensen attends to this issue also, adding that another approach would be to treat each repeated measurement separately.

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2.4 Carstensen's Mixed Models

Carstensen (2004) proposes linear mixed effects models for deriving conversion calculations similar to Deming's regression, and for estimating variance components for measurements by different methods. The following model (in the authors own notation) is formulated as follows, where y_{mir} is the r th replicate measurement on subject i with method m .

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \beta_m \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2), c_{mi} \sim N(0, \tau_m^2)) \quad (2.4)$$

The intercept term α and the $\beta_m \mu_i$ term follow from Dunn (2002), expressing constant and proportional bias respectively, in the presence of a real value μ_i . c_{mi} is an interaction term to account for replicate, and e_{mir} is the residual associated with each observation. Since variances are specific to each method, this model can be fitted separately for each method.

The above formulation doesn't require the data set to be balanced. However, it does require a sufficient large number of replicates and measurements to overcome the problem of identifiability. The import of which is that more than two methods of measurement may be required to carry out the analysis. There are also assumptions

that observations of measurements by particular methods are exchangeable within subjects. (Exchangeability means that future samples from a population behaves like earlier samples).

Carstensen (2004) uses the above formula to predict observations for a specific individual i by method m ;

$$BLUP_{mir} = \hat{\alpha}_m + \hat{\beta}_m \mu_i + c_{mi} \quad (2.5)$$

. Under the assumption that the μ s are the true item values, this would be sufficient to estimate parameters. When that assumption doesn't hold, regression techniques (known as updating techniques) can be used additionally to determine the estimates. The assumption of exchangeability can be unrealistic in certain situations. Carstensen (2004) provides an amended formulation which includes an extra interaction term ($d_{mr}d_{mr} \sim N(0, \omega_m^2)$) to account for this.

? sets out a methodology of computing the limits of agreement based upon variance component estimates derived using linear mixed effects models. Measures of repeatability, a characteristic of individual methods of measurements, are also derived using this method.

2.4.1 Using LME models to create Prediction Intervals

Carstensen (2004) also advocates the use of linear mixed models in the study of method comparisons. The model is constructed to describe the relationship between a value of measurement and its real value. The non-replicate case is considered first, as it is the context of the Bland Altman plots. This model assumes that inter-method bias is the only difference between the two methods. A measurement y_{mi} by method m on individual i is formulated as follows;

$$y_{mi} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + e_{mi} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2)) \quad (2.6)$$

The differences are expressed as $d_i = y_{1i} - y_{2i}$ For the replicate case, an interaction term c is added to the model, with an associated variance component. All the random

effects are assumed independent, and that all replicate measurements are assumed to be exchangeable within each method.

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2), c_{mi} \sim N(0, \tau_m^2)) \quad (2.7)$$

? proposes a methodology to calculate prediction intervals in the presence of replicate measurements, overcoming problems associated with Bland-Altman methodology in this regard. It is not possible to estimate the interaction variance components τ_1^2 and τ_2^2 separately. Therefore it must be assumed that they are equal. The variance of the difference can be estimated as follows:

$$var(y_{1j} - y_{2j}) \quad (2.8)$$

2.4.2 Computation

Modern software packages can be used to fit models accordingly. The best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) for a specific subject i measured with method m has the form $BLUP_{mir} = \hat{\alpha}_m + \hat{\beta}_m \mu_i + c_{mi}$, under the assumption that the μ s are the true item values.

2.4.3 Repeated Measurements

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In this model, the variances of the random effects must depend on m , since the different methods do not necessarily measure on the same scale, and different methods

naturally must be assumed to have different variances. Carstensen (2004) attends to the issue of comparative variances.

? generalize this approach to account for situations where the distributions are not identical, which is commonly the case. The TDI is not consistent and may not preserve its asymptotic nominal level, and that the coverage probability approach of Lin et al. (2002) is overly conservative for moderate sample sizes. This methodology proposed by ? is a regression based approach that models the mean and the variance of differences as functions of observed values of the average of the paired measurements.

Maximum likelihood estimation is used to estimate the parameters. The REML estimation is not considered since it does not lead to a joint distribution of the estimates of fixed effects and random effects parameters, upon which the assessment of agreement is based.

2.5 Random Effects and MCS

The methodology comprises two calculations. The second calculation is for the standard deviation of means. Before the modified Bland and Altman method can be applied for repeated measurement data, a check of the assumption that the variance of the repeated measurements for each subject by each method is independent of the mean of the repeated measures. This can be done by plotting the within-subject standard deviation against the mean of each subject by each method. Mean Square deviation measures the total deviation of a

2.5.1 Random coefficient growth curve model

(Chincilli 1996) Random coefficient growth curve model, a special type of mixed model have been proposed a single measure of agreement for repeated measurements.

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{e} \quad (2.9)$$

The distributional assumptions also require \mathbf{d} to \mathbf{N}

2.6 Other Approaches

2.6.1 Random coefficient growth curve model

(Chincilli 1996) Random coefficient growth curve model, a special type of mixed model have been proposed a single measure of agreement for repeated measurements.

2.6.2 Marginal Modelling

(Diggle 2002) proposes the use of marginal models as an alternative to mixed models. Marginal models are appropriate when inferences about the mean response are of specific interest.

2.7 KP

Most residual covariance structures are design for one within-subject factor. However two or more may be present. For such cases, an appropriate approach would be the residual covariance structure using Kronecker product of the underlying within-subject factor specific covariances structure.

2.8 LME

Consistent with the conventions of mixed models, ? formulates the measurement y_{ij} from method i on individual j as follows;

$$y_{ij} = P_{ij}\theta + W_{ij}v_i + X_{ij}b_j + Z_{ij}u_j + \epsilon_{ij}, (j = 1, 2, i = 1, 2, \dots, n) \quad (2.10)$$

The design matrix P_{ij} , with its associated column vector θ , specifies the fixed effects common to both methods. The fixed effect specific to the j th method is articulated by the design matrix W_{ij} and its column vector v_i . The random effects common to both methods is specified in the design matrix X_{ij} , with vector b_j whereas the random effects specific to the i th subject by the j th method is expressed by Z_{ij} , and vector u_j .

Noticeably this notation is not consistent with that described previously. The design matrices are specified so as to includes a fixed intercept for each method, and a random intercept for each individual. Additional assumptions must also be specified;

$$v_{ij} \sim N(0, \Sigma), \quad (2.11)$$

These vectors are assumed to be independent for different i s, and are also mutually independent. All Covariance matrices are positive definite. In the above model effects can be classed as those common to both methods, and those that vary with method. When considering differences, the effects common to both effectively cancel each other out. The differences of each pair of measurements can be specified as following;

$$d_{ij} = X_{ij}b_j + Z_{ij}u_j + \epsilon_{ij}, (j = 1, 2, i = 1, 2, \dots, n) \quad (2.12)$$

This formulation has seperate distributional assumption from the model stated previously.

This agreement covariate x is the key step in how this methodology assesses agreement.

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