Key Solutions to Model Longitudinal Natural History Data with Application in Ataxia Disease

Ralf-Dieter Hilgers

Institute of Medical Statistics, RWTH Aachen University

Intermediate Course (WP20)

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Typical Research questions

From longitudinal natural history data profiling (Explorative Trials) to inform randomized clinical trial designs (Confirmative Trials)





Background

- Reetz K, et al. Progression characteristics of the European Friedreich's Ataxia Consortium for Translational Studies (EFACTS): a 2 year cohort study. Lancet Neurol. 2016 Dec;15(13):1346-1354.
- Reetz K, et al.. Progression characteristics of the European Friedreich's Ataxia Consortium for Translational Studies (EFACTS): a 4-year cohort study. Lancet Neurol. 2021 May;20(5):362-372
- Traschütz A. et al. RFC1 Study Group. Natural History, Phenotypic Spectrum, and Discriminative Features of Multisystemic RFC1 Disease. Neurology. 2021 Mar 2;96(9):e1369-e1382.
- Traschütz A. et al. Responsiveness of the Scale for the Assessment and Rating of Ataxia and Natural History in 884 Recessive and Early Onset Ataxia Patients. Ann Neurol. 2023 Sep;94(3):470-485
- Reetz K, et al. Protocol of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, parallel-group, multicentre study of the efficacy and safety of nicotinamide in patients with Friedreich ataxia (NICOFA). Neurol Res Pract. 2019 Oct 15;1:33.





Outline

- Background and Objective
- Describing Disease Progression via Modelling longitudinal natural history data
- Application to Friedreich Ataxia
- Application to ATM Data with SAS Implementation
- Inform the design of an RCT
 - sample size justification
 - borrow control patients for use in randomised clinical trial
- Conclusion





Main message – Learning aims

- Longitudinal natural history data are suitable for analysing linear trend of disease progression
- Tailored modelling of response with restricted value range (Tobit-Model) can improve model fit.
- Longitudinal natural history studies can to a certain extend inform about planning a comparative confirmatory trial
 - Arguments to justify sample size for RCT can be delivered
 - Borrow control patient data for use in a randomised clinical trial





Background and Objective





Background – Typical Data Layout

Situation:

If longitudinal data i.e. "A measurements of the same primary endpoint variable at one or more unscheduled time points are available, one primarily is interested in model disease progression.





Common Challenges with Longitudinal Data



Heterogenous time course

Aim: Modelling and Understanding Patients Disease Course (Progression)



Objectives of Analysis

How to "measure" progression? How varies progression by exploratory factors?



Typical options for statistical implementation:

Data from ARCAS Register

- 1. Estimate the effect at <u>(single) point in time or</u> (several) points in time
- 2. Progression modelling by change (typically change [difference] from Baseline)
- 3. Progression modelling (Trend) by annual change (typically [linear] slope models)
- 4. Progression modelling by functional fitting (typically assuming a common functional form estimate model parameters)





Describing Disease Progression





Describing Disease Progression

1. Estimate the effect at <u>(single) point in</u> <u>time or (several) points in time</u>





"Overcome" Left-Censoring



Unscheduled Visits



Solution: Squeeze time points

Assumption 2: constant effects in selected time intervals Assumption 3: linear effect over time

Problem:

Value of the score depend on random observational time Definition of time intervals

→ overlap
 → missing values
 Interpolation may be necessary

Not meaningful in most situations



Describing Disease Progression

2. Progression modelling by change, typically *difference from baseline*





Original data of the score: y_{ik} i patients score repeated measures k y_{ik} response of patient i at time k y_{i0} response of patient i at baseline (time 0) Set first visit as time zero score agev з ERICA visit Y

Graphical Presentation of Evaluation

1. Difference from Baseline Model

Approach: difference from baseline to model progression

Change Model $D = y_{ik} - y_{i0}$ Assumption 4:baseline is uninformative
e.g. y_{ik} does not dependent on y_{i0} Assumption 5:baseline's are comparable,
 $D_1 = D_2$ although $y_{10} \gg y_{20}$

Remark: Increases variability compared to taking y_{ik} versus decrease power

Not meaningful in most situations, e.g. with different observational times







2. Relative Difference from Baseline Model

Approach: Relative difference from baseline to model progression					
	Change Model	$D = \frac{y_{ik} - y_{i0}}{y_{i0}}$			
 Assumption 6: change on a multiplicative scale linear in log scale only doubled difference y_{ik} - y_{i0} and y_{i0} gives the same D 					
Remark :	What happens with b Reduces variability wi Increases variability w <i>Difficult to interpret</i>	baseline obs. /Skip??? vithin patients with higher baseline scores within patients with lower baseline scores			

Not meaningful in most situations, e.g. with different observational times







Summary

Not meaningful in most situations

- choose common zero time
- queeze time points

Less informative

difference from baseline to model progression

Difficult to interpret

Relative difference from baseline to model progression





Describing Disease Progression

3. Progression modelling (Trend) by annual change (typically [linear] slope models)





Linear Slope Model

Set first visit as time zero













ESTIMATION OF RELATIONSHIPS FOR LIMITED DEPENDENT VARIABLES¹

By JAMES TOBIN

"What do you mean, less than nothing?" replied Wilbur. "I don't think there is any such thing as less than nothing. Nothing is absolutely the limit of nothingness. It's the lowest you can go. It's the end of the line. How can something be less than nothing? If there were something that was less than nothing then nothing would not be nothing, it would be something—even though it's just a very little bit of something. But if nothing is *nothing*, then nothing has nothing that is less than *it* is."

E. B. White, *Charlotte's Web* (New York: Harper, 1952) p. 28.



Linear Mixed Effect Model versus Tobit Regression



From our simulations, even 18% of the participants reaching ceiling at one occasion (ceiling threshold = 15) could lead to some problems in longitudinal data analysis. Therefore, it is important to detect potential ceiling data before doing longitudinal data analysis. To detect ceiling data, a longitudinal plot of the data could help us to visually check if there is a substantial proportion of participants who obtained maximum scores. Frequency table of the maximum scores across occasions is quantitatively helpful. For growth curve modeling, researchers could also try to use both the regular growth curve method and the Tobit growth curve model to analyze the data. If the percentage of the participants reaching ceiling at one occasion is larger than 20% or there are some important discrepancies between the parameter estimates from two methods, researchers should be cautious about the influences of ceiling effects in the data.



Wang L, Zhang Z, McArdle JJ, Salthouse TA. Investigating Ceiling Effects in Longitudinal Data Analysis. Multivariate Behav Res. 2009 Jul 1;43(3):476-496. doi: 10.1080/00273170802285941.





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Journal of Clinical Epidemiology

Longitudinal tobit regression: A new approach to analyze outcome variables with floor or ceiling effects

Jos Twisk^{a,b,*}, Frank Rijmen^a

⁸Department of Clinical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, VU Medical Centre, Amsterdam, The Netherlands ^bDepartment of Methodology and Applied Biostatistics, Institute of Health Sciences, Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam, The Netherlands Accepted 1 October 2008

Abstract

Background: In many epidemiologic longitudinal studies, the outcome variable has floor or ceiling effects. Although it is not correct, these variables are often treated as normally distributed continuous variables.

Objectives: In this article, the performance of a relatively new statistical technique, longitudinal tobit analysis, is compared with a classical longitudinal data analysis technique (i.e., linear mixed models).

Study Design and Setting: The analyses are performed on an example data set from rehabilitation research in which the outcome variable of interest (the Barthel index measured at on average 16.3 times) has typical floor and ceiling effects. For both the longitudinal tobit analysis and the linear mixed models an analysis with both a random intercept and a random slope were performed.

Results: Based on model fit parameters, plots of the residuals and the mean of the squared residuals, the longitudinal tobit analysis with both a random intercept and a random slope performed best. In the tobit models, the estimation of the development over time revealed a steeper development compared with the linear mixed models.

Conclusion: Although there are some computational difficulties, longitudinal tobit analysis provides a very nice solution for the longitudinal analysis of outcome variables with floor or ceiling effects. © 2009 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Longitudinal studies; tobit analysis; Linear mixed models; Statistical methods; Floor effects; Ceiling effects

models compared with the linear mixed models. However, it should be borne in mind that the parameters of the longitudinal tobit analysis are difficult to estimate, especially when there are more random coefficients and/or the model becomes more extensive. So, because of the computational difficulty and instability of the models, one should be very careful with the use of complicated longitudinal tobit models. Furthermore, the smaller the number of censored

> Compare Parameter Estimates under both models





Application to Friedreich Ataxia





SARA in Friedreich Ataxia



Assumption 8: linear (monotone) trend Assumption 9: distributional assumption



SARA in Friedreich Ataxia



Assumption 8: linear (monotone) trend

From Registry to RCT: SARA for Friedreich Ataxia



Application to ATM Data with SAS Implementation





Data of selected 18 ATM cases

18 patients with Louis-Bar-Syndrom (Ataxia teleangiectasia)







Time from Baseline Visit

(Assumption: Comparability of courses from Baseline Visit on)



resp 40 proc mixed data=xxx method=reml ; model y = time; run; 30 20 Solution for Fixed Effects Standard Effect Estimate Error DF t Value Pr > t . 2.2356 18.9184 38 8.46 <.0001 10 Intercept visit Y -0.8377 0.8983 38 -0.93 0.3569 0 0 5 2 3 6 7 1 visit_Y

Joint Regression model ignoring longitudinal Character

Joint Regression model with random intercept



proc mixed data=xxx method=reml ; class Patno : model y = time / ddfm=kr; random intercept / subject=Patno; run; Solution for Fixed Effects Standard DF t Value Pr > t Effect Estimate Error 17.6373 2.4056 17 7.33 <.0001 Intercept 0.2115 21 visit Y 0.6630 3.13 0.0050



Regression model with random effects





Sound Model Fit

- Consider Residual Plot for Distributional Assumptions
- Conduct Influence Diagnostic to detect observations with impact on estimates
- Consider model fit improvement
- Consider formulation of appropriate covariance structure





Inform the design of an RCT





Clinical Trials - Different Story

Analysis Objective: Estimate the treatment effect

In Randomised Clinical Trials we typically have:

Feature

- 1. Scheduled Visits
- 2. Similarity
- 3. Repeated Observations
- 4. MultiComponent Scale -

Problem→ Missing Data

- → Stratification
- → Multiple Testing

→ Indiv Scales

Solutions

- → LMEM & MI incl. MMRM
- → Sensitivity Ana [covariables]
- → LMEM incl. MMRM
- → Item Response Models, LMEM





Support of comparative clinical trials

Support sample size justification for two arm parallel group trial showing difference in linear progress of SARA score





Sample size

Example:

- two arm parallel group study
- Power 80%
- 50% Reduction
- Slope 0.82
- Random slope model
- two sided
- 1:1 allocation ratio
- Various number of visits
- 12/24/36 month





Sensitivity Analyse

Example: 12 month	Variance Slope	Residual Variance	Reduction of slope from 0.82	Total sample size
two arm parallel group study	0.9930	2.0981	50%	444
Power 80% two sided	1	2	50%	434
Random slope model 4 month visits	1	4	50%	676
1:1 allocation ratio	0.5	2	50%	340





Support of comparative clinical trials

Support a two arm parallel group trial showing difference in linear progress of SARA score by borrow information of controls





Use of Historical Controls with Randomized Trials

E10, a hybrid approach of using external control data to add to a concurrent randomized control arm in a clinical trial may sometimes be useful.

Pocock's (1976) Criteria

- 1. The standard treatment has to be precisely defined and must be the same treatment for randomized controls.
- 2. The historical control group must have been part of a clinical study with the same requirements for patient eligibility.
- 3. The methods of treatment evaluation have to be the same.
- 4. Patient characteristics have to be comparable.
- 5. The studymust have been performed in the same organization with the same investigators.
- 6. There should be **no indications** leading one to **expect a difference**.

Rare Diseases: Natural History Studies for Drug Development Guidance for Industry FDA. 2019

Methoden:

- Bennett (2021) Bayesianische Methoden (Power Prior),
- Schmidli (2014) Meta-Analytic-Predictive Priors
- Viele (2014): Pool than Test Approach



Historical Control- Fill-it-Up Design

Motivation

- Superiority of E (experimental) versus C (control)
- Reduce the necessary RCT sample size, by using a large number of Historical controls (resulting in an unbalanced Design to fulfil the Powerrequirement).

Aim

- Justify the use of historical controls by applying an equivalence proof of the historical and randomized controls
- Combine the historical and randomized controls
- Proof of superiority







Use of Historical Controls

- Hybride Approach in line with the FDA Guideline, but under consideration of the implied multiple testing problem.
 - last test proves Non-Inferiority Hypothese!
- At least 50% of the initial total sample size must be in step 1
- Power Gain ?
- In situations, where a few patients can be enrolled, the procedure can have some power gain, if good and suitable controls can be identified.





Powergain (Fill-it-up versus randomized)

One sided test

medium effect size $\delta = 0.5$ when $n_H = 500$ are available and $\alpha_{S_1} = \alpha_{S_2} = 0.05$. γN_{FIU} AVN $1 - \beta_{FIU}$ $1 - \beta_{S_1}$ $1 - \beta_{Ept,S_1}$ $1 - \beta_{Ept^c,S_2}$ α_{Ept} Δ N_{FIU} $= 1 - \beta_{S_2}$ 0.4596 0.9530 0.8471 0.8001 100 54 100 0.80 0.01 Total 0.4798 0.01 100 0.9871 0.8130 0.8001 54 100 0.80 Sample 0.01 0.5000 116 0.85 0.9999 0.8001 0.8000 62 116 size for the Sample size 0.05 0.3250 102 54 0.81 0.9596 0.8403 0.8000 1000.3901 0.8000 0.05 138 74 136 0.90 0.9608 0.8392 design at stage of 0.05 0.5000 0.84 0.8175 0.9825 0.8000 112 60 110 without equivalence 0.9637 0.2303 0.8368 0.8005 0.87 0.10 124 66 120 historical proof. 0.10 0.3652 124 120 0.87 0.8442 0.9558 0.8000 66 controls 0.10 0.5000 100 96 0.80 0.9889 0.8113 0.8002 54 0.20 0.1663 102 54 94 0.81 0.9722 0.8279 0.8001 0.20 0.3331 102 0.81 0.9403 0.8599 0.8002 54 94 0.20 0.5000 132 72 0.8397 0.9607 120 0.89 0.8003







Conclusion

- Do not squeeze the data by time points
- Linear progression model may suffice to show trend
- Linear mixed effects models allow formulation of a progression model
- They can be informative to plan a clinical trial
 - With respect to sample size justification
 - With respect to borrow information









