

# Diagnostic tests, Laboratory tests

- I. Introduction
- II. Informational values of a test
- III. Consequences of the prevalence rate
- IV. Sequential use of 2 tests
- V. Selection of a threshold: the ROC curve
- VI. Laboratory tests



# I. Introduction

- Medical decision making:
  - Relies on the observation of the reality
  - This observation *is not* the reality, the observer must keep a critical mind
- Diagnostic test:
  - Every information mean that is useful for medical decision making
  - Binary response (0 or 1)
  - Different kinds: interviewing, clinical exam, paraclinical exam (laboratory, imaging, etc.)
- Gold Standard
  - Test that is considered to be exact
  - Not always available of acceptable...



# I. Introduction

- Examples:
  - Alzheimer's disease:
    - Gold standard: post-mortem examination of the brain
    - Usual test: clinical tests + brain imaging + laboratory
  - Down Syndrome of the fetus:
    - Gold standard: karyotype (dangerous and expensive)
    - Usual test: triple test (lab) + echography
  - Electrocardiogram interpretation
    - Gold standard: senior cardiologist
    - Test to evaluate: junior cardiologist, automated interpreter, etc.
- Reasons not to use the Gold Standard  
chronology, cost, risk, availability



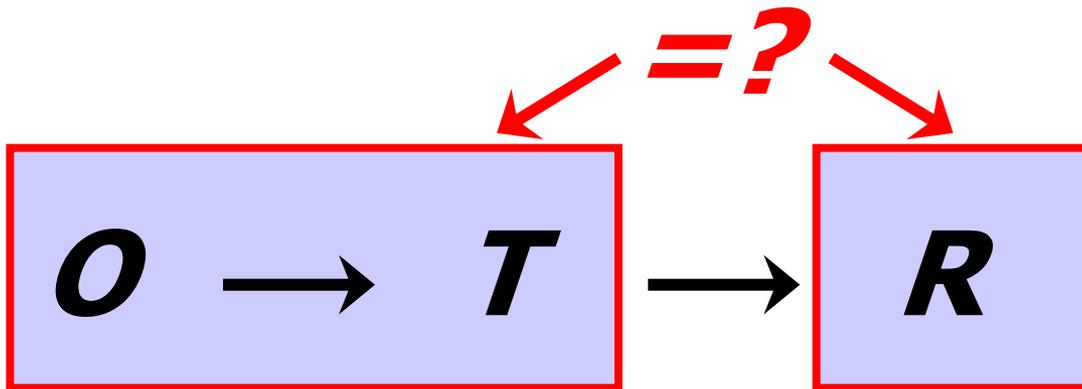
# II. Informationnal value of a test

- A. Terminology
- B. Intrinsic validity
- C. Extrinsic validity
- D. Exercise



# Informational value of a test

## A. Terminology



O=observator  
T=test  
R=realty



# Informational value of a test

## A. Terminology

Blue set:

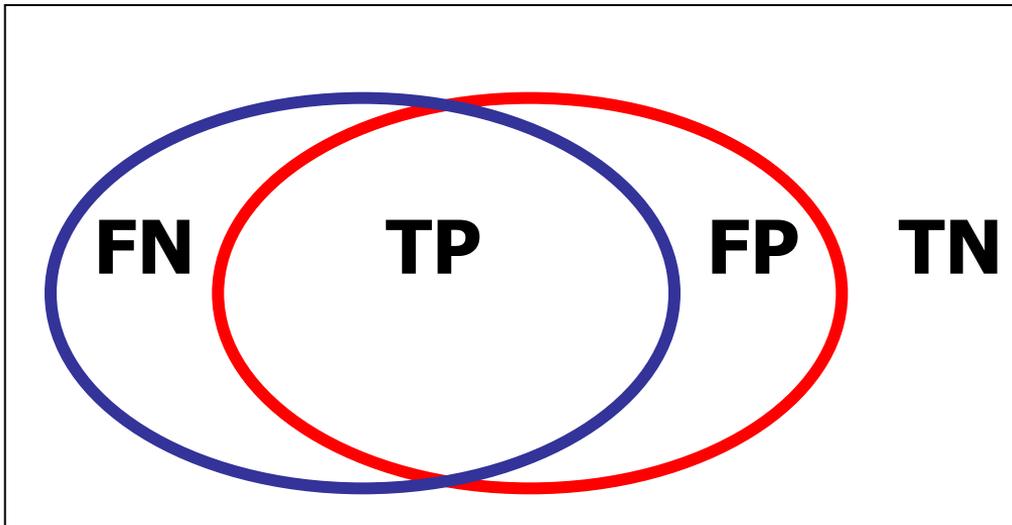
Red set:

With/without disease

Positive/negative test

D+/D-

T+/T-



$$\text{FN} = \text{T-} \cap \text{D+}$$

$$\text{TP} = \text{T+} \cap \text{D+}$$

$$\text{FP} = \text{T+} \cap \text{D-}$$

$$\text{TN} = \text{T-} \cap \text{D-}$$



# *Informational value of a test*

## A. Terminology

	D+	D-
T+	# TP	# FP
T-	# FN	# TN



# *Informational value of a test*

## **B. Intrinsic validity**

- Experimental conditions:
  - We already know which patients are D+ or D-, we want to observe the result of the test
  - “Pre-test probabilities”
- Sensitivity = Se
  - =  $P(T+ | D+)$
  - =  $TP / (TP+FN)$
- Specificity = Sp
  - =  $P(T- | D-)$
  - =  $TN / (TN+FP)$



# *Informational value of a test*

## C. Extrinsic validity

- Practical use of the test:
  - We can observe the result of the test (T+ or T-) and we want to predict the status of the patients (D+ or D-)
  - “Post-test probabilities”
- Positive predictive value = PPV
  - =  $P(D+ | T+)$
  - =  $TP / (TP+FP)$
- Negative predictive value = NPV
  - =  $P(D- | T-)$
  - =  $TN / (TN+FN)$



# Exercise

- We interest on 150 patients from the Urology unit:
  - test = PSA dosage (positive over 4ng/ml)
  - disease = confirmed prostate cancer
- Compute the following numbers:
  - Prevalence rate  $P=$
  - $Se=$
  - $Sp=$
  - $PPV=$
  - $NPV=$

	<b>D+</b>	<b>D-</b>
<b>T+</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>T-</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>47</b>



# III. Consequences of the prevalence rate of a disease

- A. Bayes' Theorem
- B. Intuitive presentation
- C. Exercise
- D. How to proceed for screening?



# Consequences of the prevalence rate

## A. Bayes' Theorem

- Let  $P$  be the prevalence rate,  $P=P(D+)$

- $PPV = \frac{Se * P}{Se * P + (1 - Sp) * (1 - P)}$

- $NPV = \frac{Sp * (1 - P)}{Sp * (1 - P) + (1 - Se) * P}$



# Consequences of the prevalence rate

## B. Intuitive presentation

	D+	D-	
T+	TP	FP	<i>PPV</i>
T-	FN	TN	<i>NPV</i>
	<i>Se</i>	<i>Sp</i>	

- Intrinsic validity: both *Se* & *Sp* are computed using only one column, separately from the other
- Extrinsic validity: *PPV* & *NPV* are computed using one line, including both columns
- The prevalence rate is in relation with the ratio between both columns  
=> modifies the extrinsic validity, not the intrinsic one



# Exercise

- In last exercise, we found:
  - $P = 0.67$
  - $Se = 0.20$
  - $Sp = 0.94$
  - $PPV = 0.87$
  - $NPV = 0.37$
- Compute the PPV in both next populations:
  - General population of men having age > 74 years ( $P = 2.66\%$ )
  - General population of men having  $45 < \text{age} < 55$  years ( $P = 0.06\%$ )



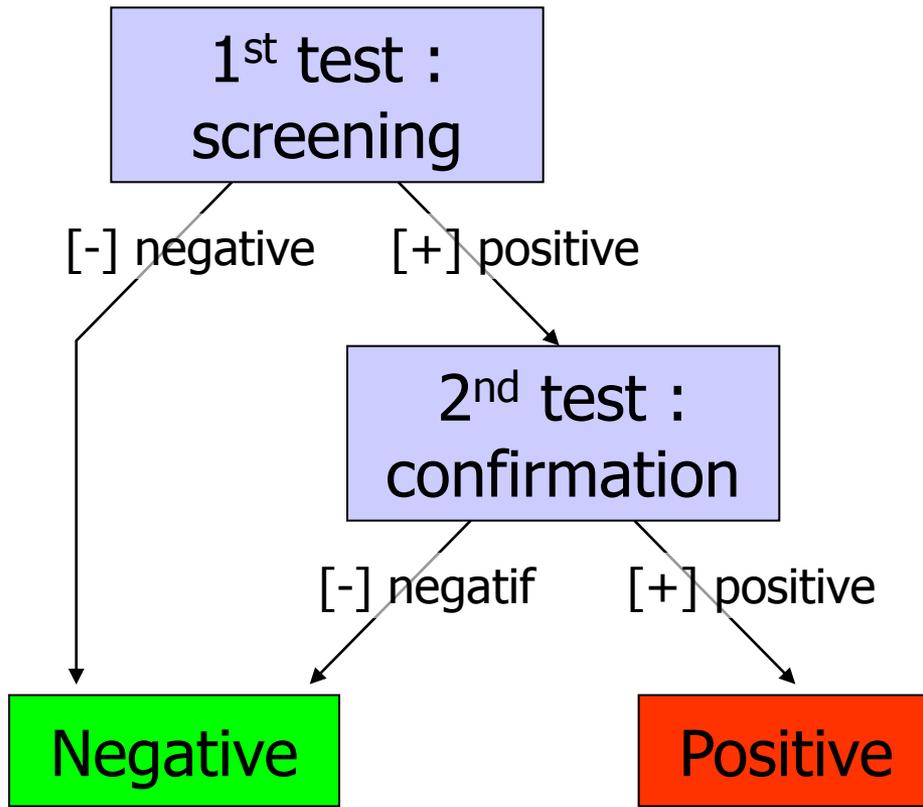
# Consequences of the prevalence rate

## D. How to proceed for screening?

- When a disease is rare (all the diseases are rare!):
  - Intrinsic validity is not affected  
*...but useless for medical decision making*
  - Increase of the NPV  
*A negative test is comforting*
  - Strong decrease of the PPV  
*Strong risk to wrongly announce a diagnosis!*
- How to proceed:
  - Only use the test only in a *very* meaningful context (increased prevalence rate): compatible clinical picture, exposure to an infectious disease, risk factor, etc.
  - Only few tests can be used for mass screening. Most often, they are coupled with confirmation tests (with higher PPV)



# IV. Sequential use of 2 tests

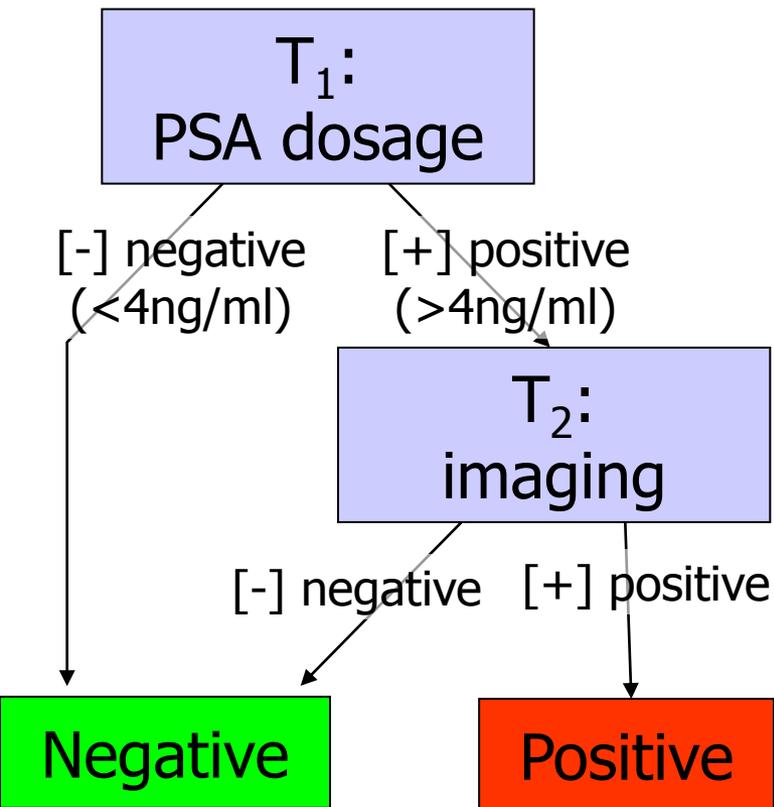


Example of screening schema:

- Use a 1<sup>st</sup> test with high sensitivity *and then excellent NPV, because in addition the disease is rare*
- Confirm with a 2<sup>nd</sup> test having a high PPV *notably because the population has been selected before!*  
**⚠** Ideally, the misclassification of both tests is not due to the same factors, T1 and T2 are of different natures (e.g. lab & imaging)
- The result is positive if and only if both tests are positive



# Exercise



- We study 100,000 people from the general population having age>80 (P=2.66%).
- $T+ = T_1+ \cap T_2+$
- $T_1: Se=0.2 \text{ \& } Sp=0.94$
- $T_2: Se=0.5 \text{ \& } Sp=0.95$
- What is the PPV of T?

use

$$PPV = \frac{Se \cdot P}{Se \cdot P + (1 - Sp) \cdot (1 - P)}$$



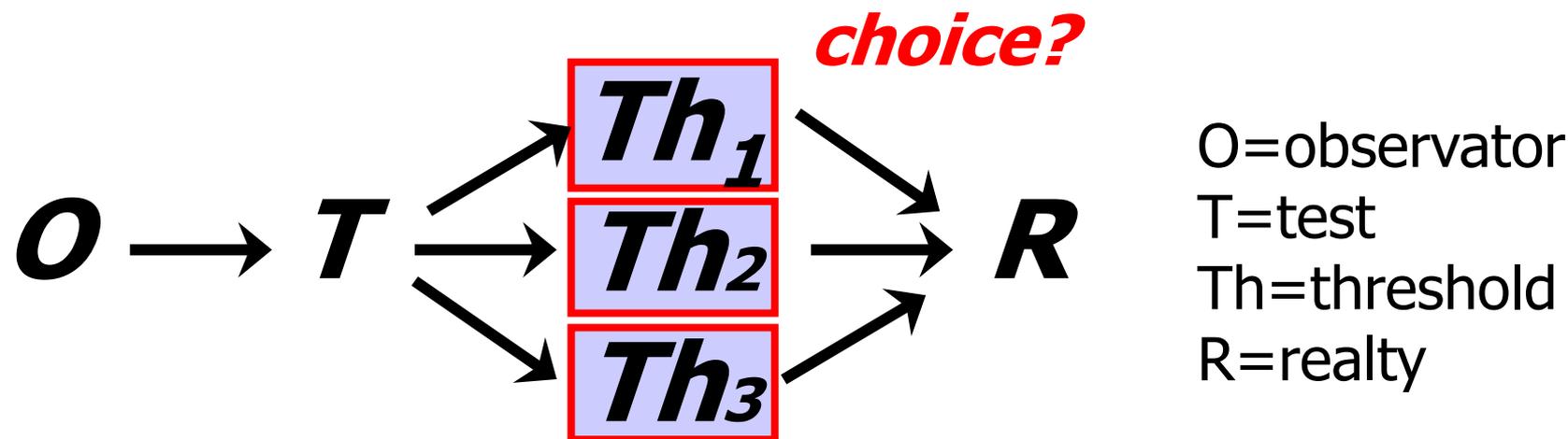
# V. Selection of a threshold: the ROC curve

- A. Introduction
- B. Construction
- C. Interpretation
- D. Selection of the best threshold
- E. Exercise



# Selection of a threshold: ROC curve

## A. Introduction



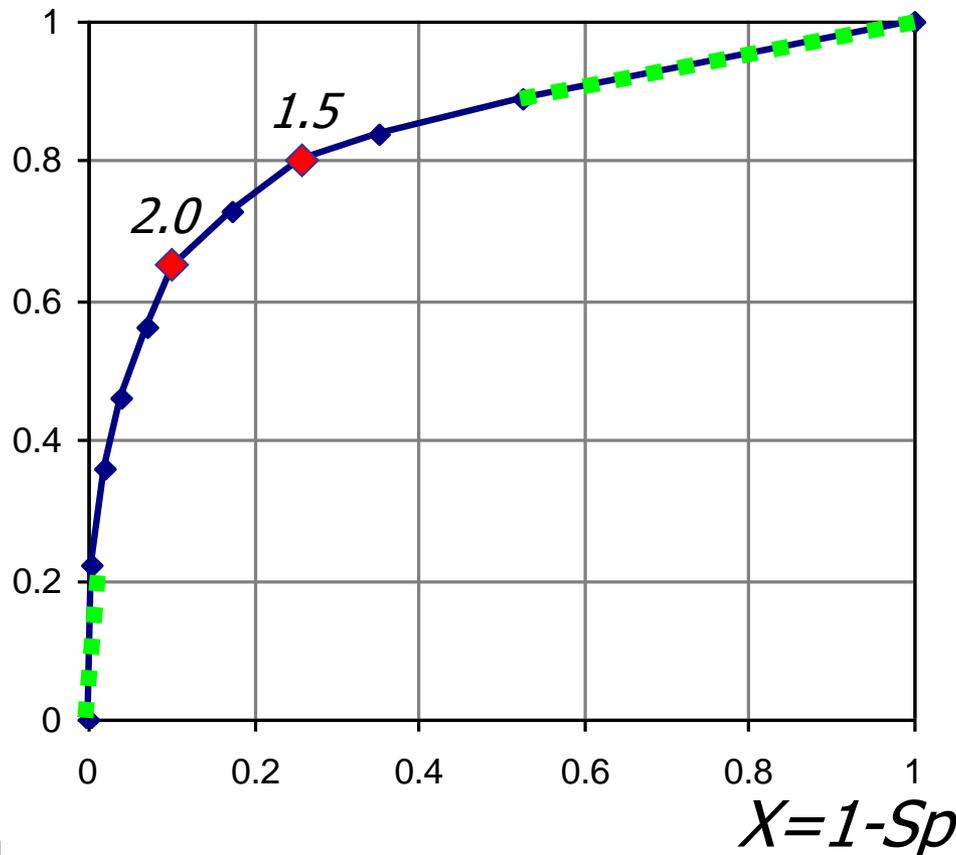
- Problem:
  - A test provides with a quantitative response
  - We wish to *binarize* the output (yes/no)
  - Depending on the chosen threshold, the prediction differs...



# Selection of a threshold: ROC curve

## B. Construction

$Y=Se$

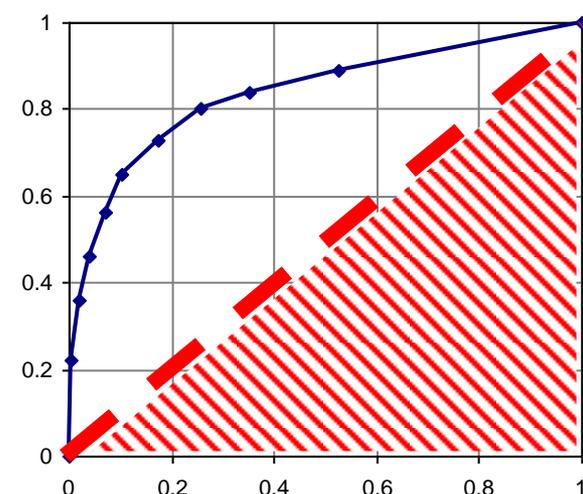
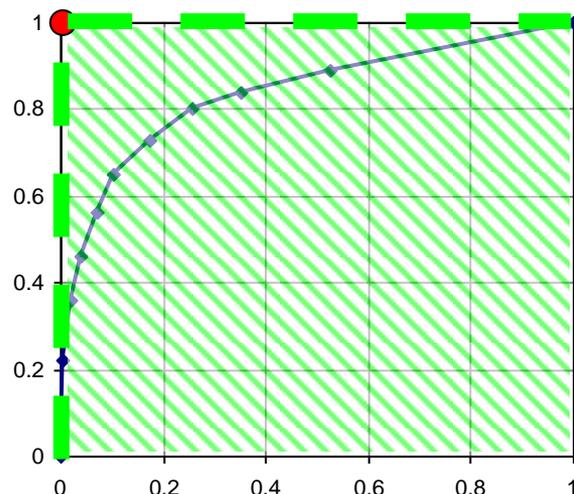
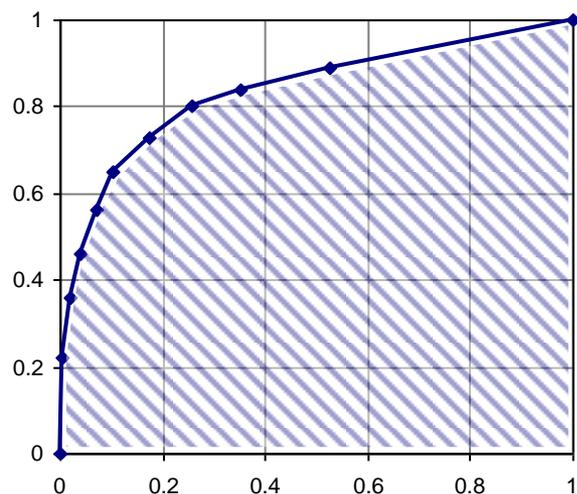


- ROC curve: simply displays the  $\{Se;Sp\}$  couples that are found using different thresholds
- Abscissa :  $X=1-Sp$
- Ordinate :  $Y=Se$



# Selection of a threshold: ROC curve

## C. Interpretation



- AUC=Area Under the Curve
- $0.5 \leq \text{AUC} \leq 1$

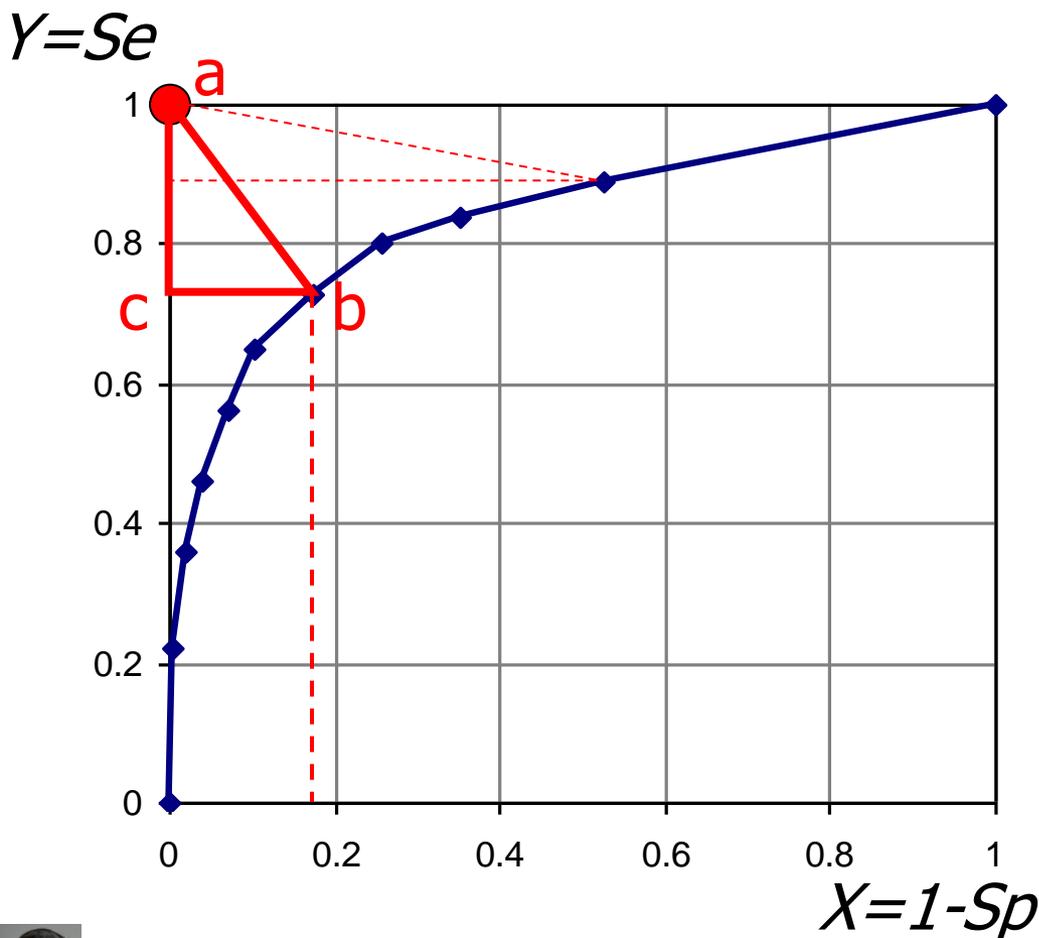
- Perfect point with  $\text{Se}=\text{Sp}=1$
- AUC = 1

- “hasard diagonal” (useless test)
- AUC=0.5



# Selection of a threshold: ROC curve

## D. Selection of the best threshold



- Selection of the best threshold: point that is closer to the perfect point
- Minimizing the [a;b] distance means minimizing  $(1-Se)^2 + (1-Sp)^2$



# Exercise

- As in exercise 1, we compute Se and Sp using several thresholds for the PSA dosage.
- We get the present table:

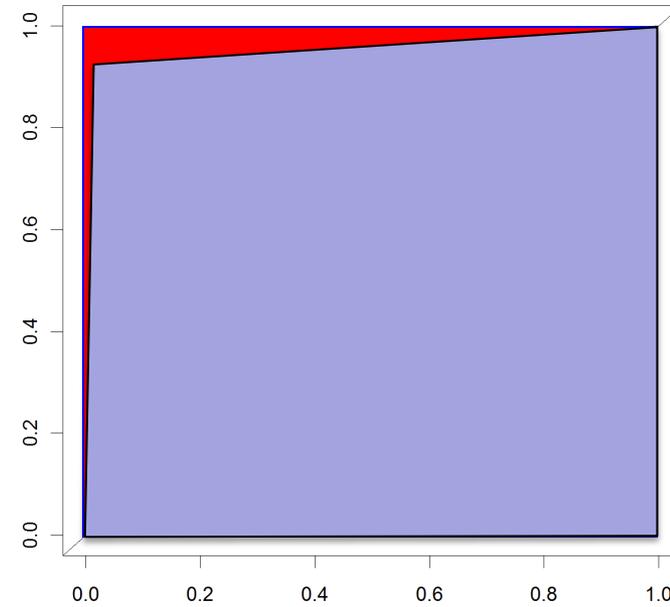
Threshold	Se	Sp
1	0.83	0.39
2	0.52	0.72
4	0.20	0.94

- Trace the ROC curve.
- Which threshold would you choose using the geometric criterion?



# Exercise

- We analyze the ability of the Glasgow University Interpreter to automatically detect “atrial fibrillation” by analyzing ECGs from a database.
- We find the following (there are 2 thresholds in the software):
  - Se=0.923                      Sp=0.984                      PPV=0.462                      NPV=0.999
  - Se=0.923                      Sp=0.987                      PPV=0.522                      NPV=0.999
  - Roc curve: AUC=0.96
- What do you think about it?  
Can it be used to replace the Cardiologists?  
Why is the PPV quite low?



# VI. Laboratory tests

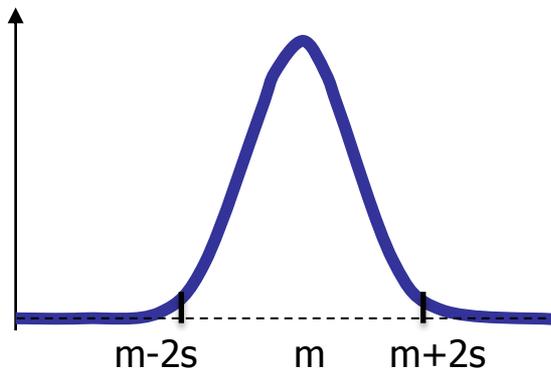
- I. Distributions
- II. Interval of normal values, alpha and beta risks
- III. Effect of the population on the normal values
- IV. Multiple testing



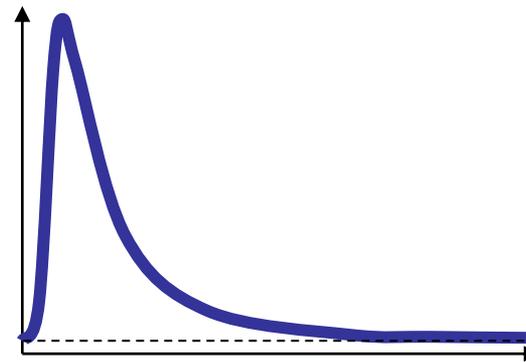
# Biological parameters

- Dosages from various liquids or tissues (blood, urine, cerebrospinal fluid...)
- We interest on exams that output a quantitative response (most of them)
- Distribution of the values is known in healthy people:

Normal distribution (often)



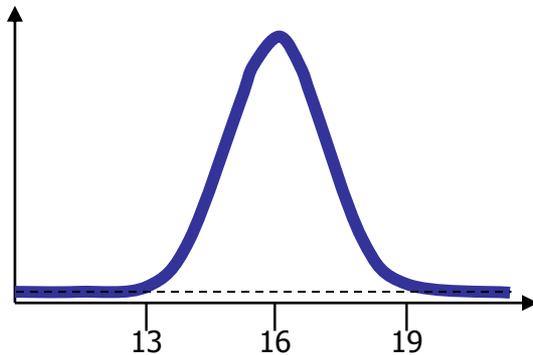
Sometimes lognormal distribution, "Galton's distribution"



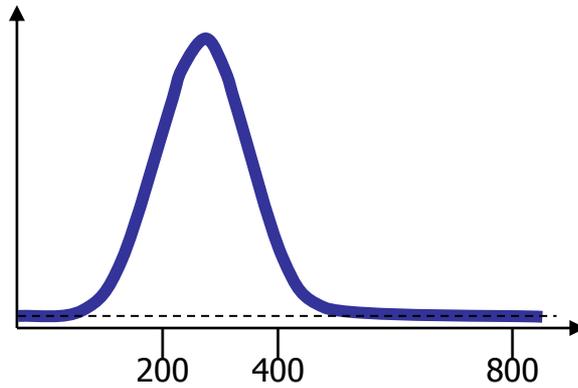
# Examples of distribution in healthy people

## Normal distributions:

Hemoglobinemia in g/dl

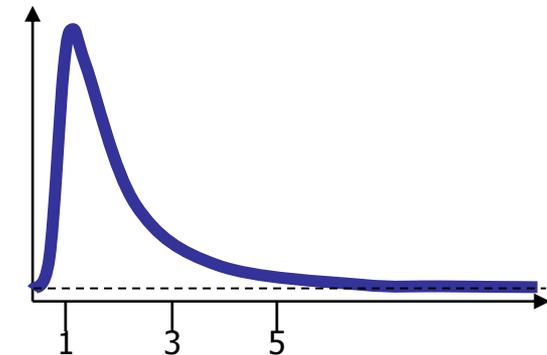


Platelet rate in  $10^9/l$

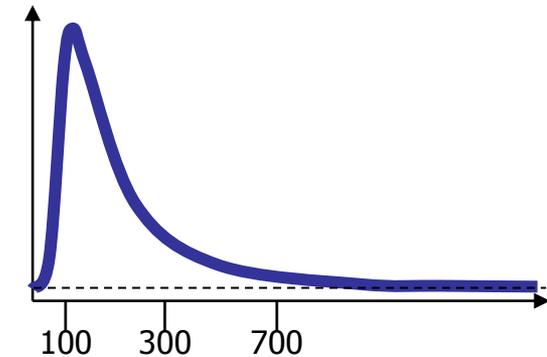


## Lognormal distributions:

TSH plasmatic concentration in mUI/l



Ferritin plasmatic concentration in ng/ml



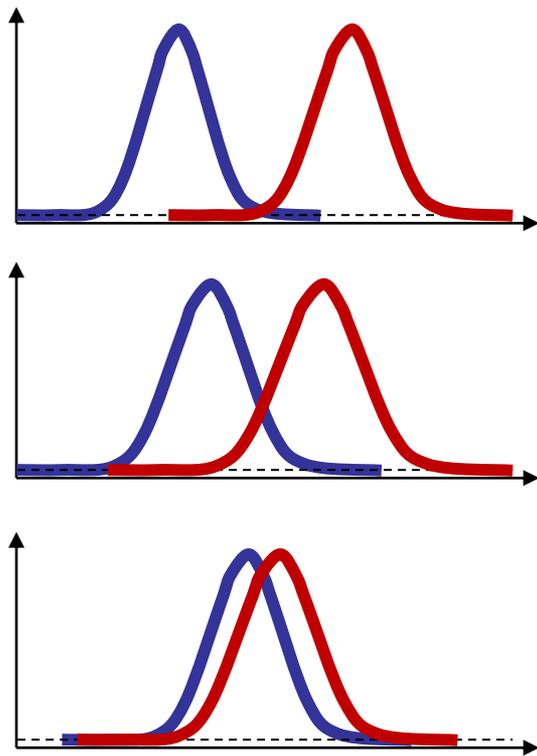
# How is the normality range defined?

- The normality range is defined by the interval containing 95% of the values of healthy people
  - Normal distribution: [  $\mu - 2ds$  ;  $\mu + 2ds$  ]
  - Comparable for lognormal distribution
  - Other distributions: defined by the quantiles [  $F^{-1}(0.025)$  ;  $F^{-1}(0.975)$  ]
- Immediate consequence: 5% of healthy people have “abnormal” values!!
- In the next slides, we will assume that only one of the thresholds is used, to simplify things.



# Usage of a biological parameter to detect ill people

Distribution of parameter in **healthy people** and **ill people**.



- Examples of situations:
  - Ideal situation:
    - It is easy to find a threshold that discriminates healthy and ill people
  - Moderate overlapping:
    - Acceptable misclassification
  - Important overlapping:
    - Useless diagnostic test



# Alpha and beta risks of a diagnostic test

- Alpha risk (type 1 error): declaring that a patient is ill despite he is healthy =  $1 - Sp$
- Beta risk (type 2 error): declaring that a patient is healthy despite he is ill =  $1 - Se$
- Power =  $1 - \beta = Se$  : probability that a ill patient is declared ill

		Unknown reality	
		D+	D-
Decision with the test	T+ (value $\notin$ range)	No error	$\alpha$ risk
	T- (value $\in$ range)	$\beta$ risk	No error

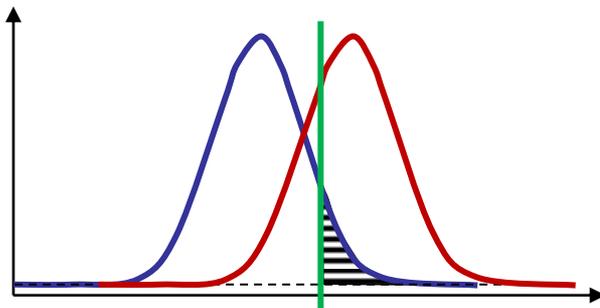


# Alpha risk, beta risk, power

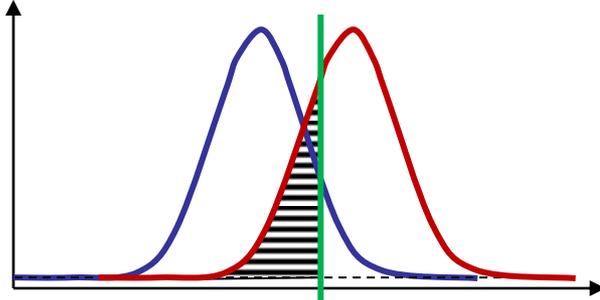
Distribution of parameter in **healthy people** and **ill people**. Representation of the **chosen threshold**.

*Beware, in this example ill people have higher values than healthy people.*

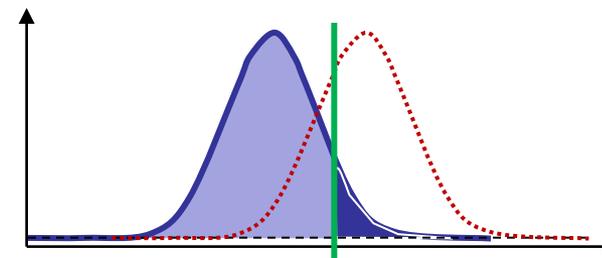
Zone of the Alpha risk



Zone of the beta risk

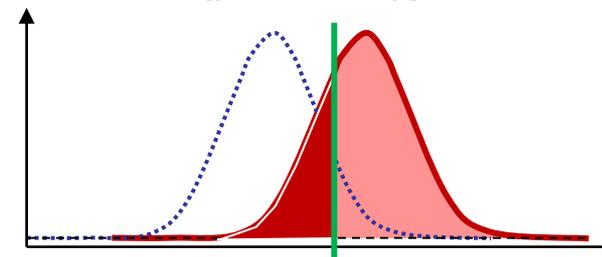


Alpha risk (probability)



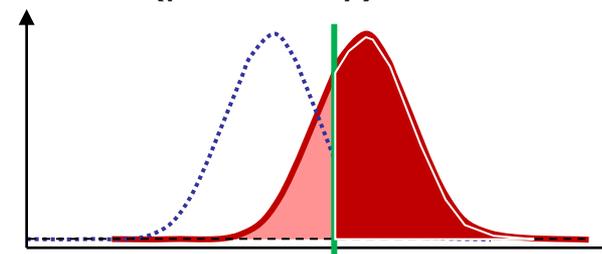
*Probability that healthy people are declared ill*  
 $= 1 - Sp$

Beta risk (probability)



*Probability that ill people are declared healthy*  
 $= 1 - Se$

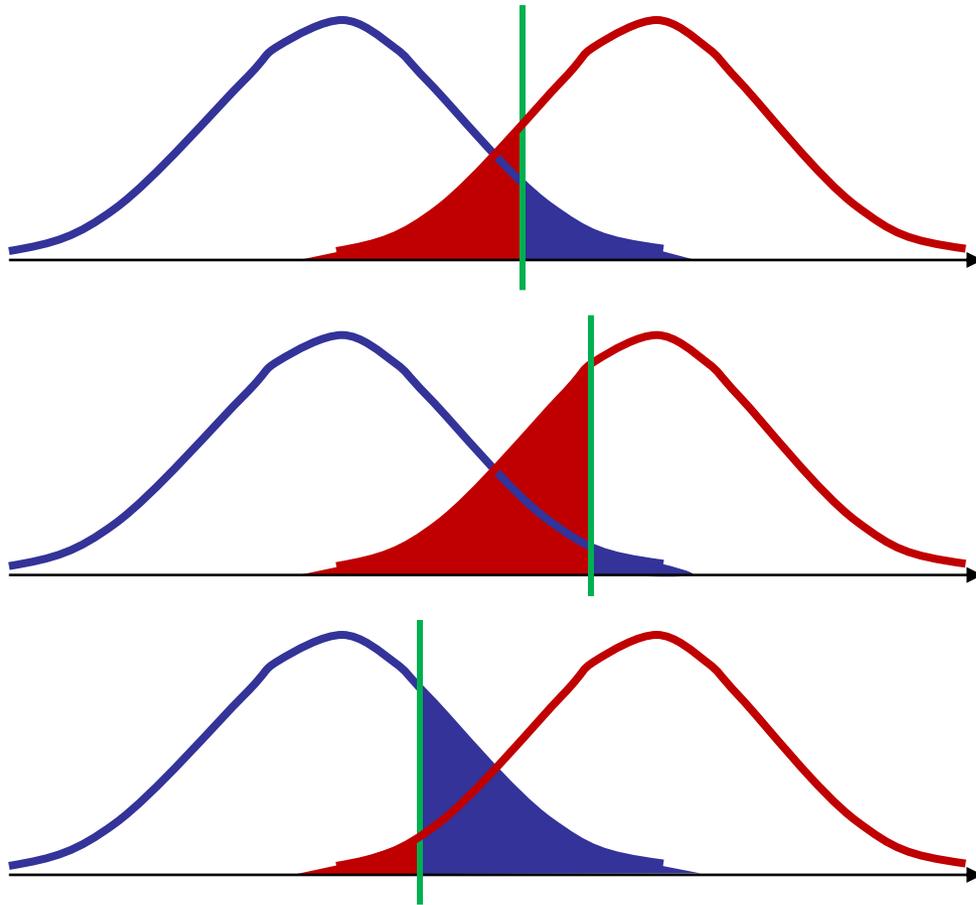
Power (probability)



*Probability that ill patients are declared ill*  
 $= Se$



# Consequences of the thresholds on alpha and beta risks



In this example (because ill people have higher values) :

Increase of the threshold =>

- Decrease of alpha risk
- Increase of beta risk
- Decrease of power

Decrease of the threshold =>

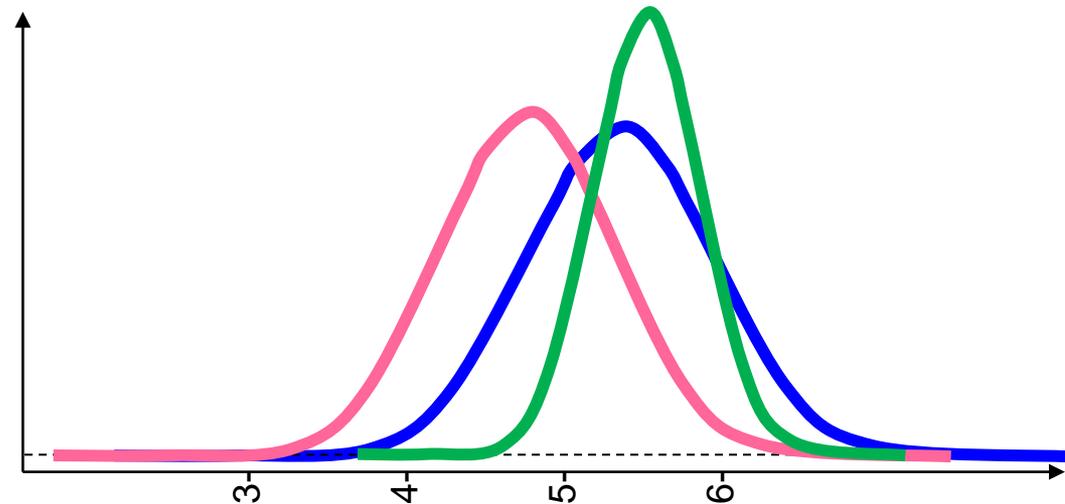
- Increase of alpha risk
- Decrease of beta risk
- Increase of power



# Some distributions of biological parameters may vary depending on the subpopulation

- Example: red cells blood concentration (en  $10^6/\mu\text{l}$ )
- Variation of normal values among 3 populations
- The range used for diagnosis have to be adapted

Population	Lower bound	Upper bound
Male adult	4.5	6.2
Female adult	4	5.4
Newborn	5	6

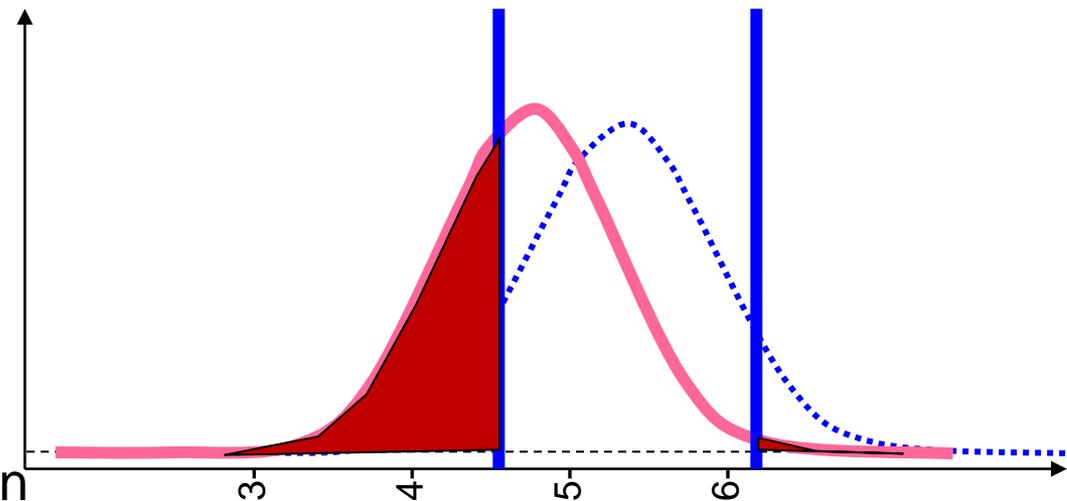


# Some distributions of biological parameters may vary depending on the subpopulation

- For example, if we use the boundaries of adult males for adult females, we obtain:
- For too high values detection: beta risk  $\uparrow$ , alpha risk  $\downarrow$
- For too low values detection: alpha risk  $\uparrow$ , beta risk  $\downarrow$

Population	Lower bound	Upper bound
Male adult	4.5	6.2
Female adult	<del>4</del>	<del>5.5</del>

- For some parameters, the boundaries are adapted depending on the subpopulation the patient belongs to.



# Effect of multiple testing in healthy people

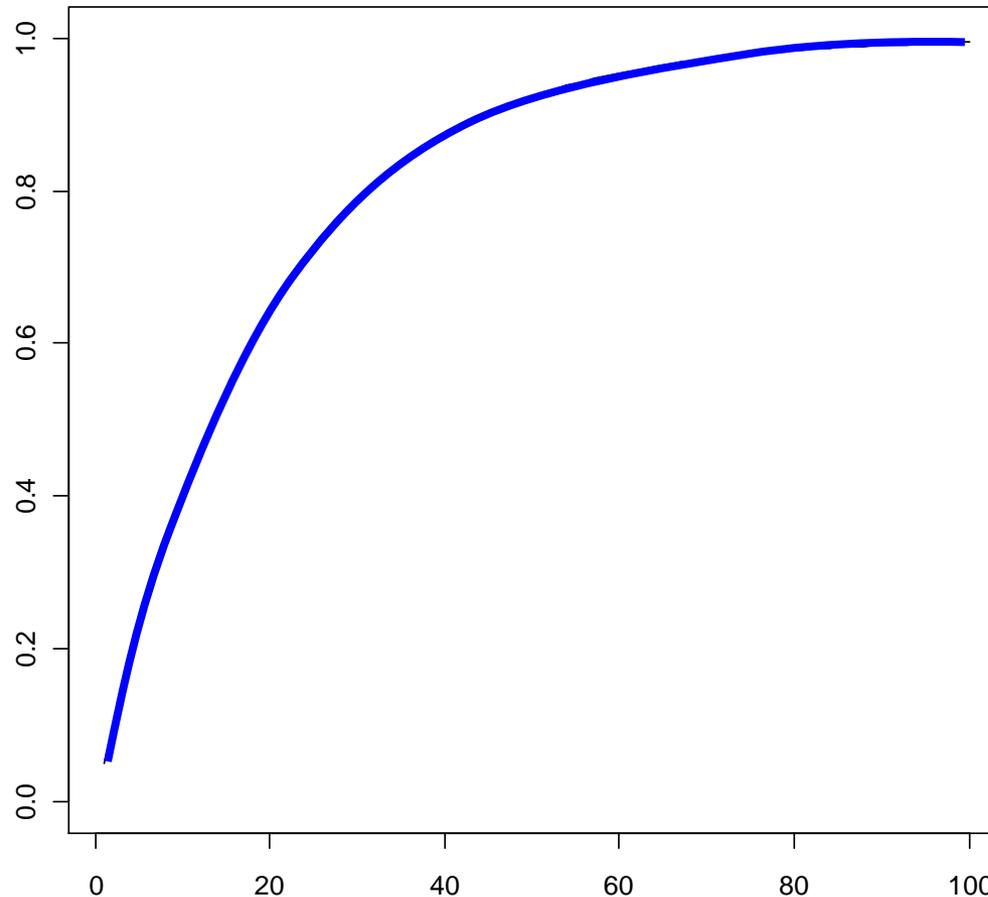
- With 1 test:
  - probability that healthy people are declared ill = alpha risk = 5%
- Scenario with several tests:
  - k independent laboratory tests are realized
  - The patient is declared ill if at least one of the k tests is positive (for each test,  $\alpha_{\text{indiv}}=5\%$ )
  - If the patient is healthy, what is the probability to declare him ill?
  - $\alpha_{\text{total}} = 1 - (1 - \alpha_{\text{indiv}})^k$
  - => inflation of the  $\alpha$  risk.



# Effect of multiple testing in healthy people

- => inflation of the  $\alpha$  risk.

Total alpha risk if every test is computed with a 5% individual alpha risk



Number of tests  
(0-100)

