

Session III: The Landscape of Signal Detection Approaches for Longitudinal Data



Join the conversation with #sentinelinitiative

Landscape Overview of Signal Detection Techniques

Martin Kulldorff

**Division of Pharmacoepidemiology and Pharmacoeconomics
Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School**

WHEN WE TESTED THIS
DRUG ON MICE, NOBODY
NOTICED ANY SIDE
EFFECTS.



Data Mining

Simultaneous evaluation of multiple drug / adverse event pairs.



Common goals of data mining methods

- Find unknown adverse reactions, if they exist
- Few false positives, or else, easily explained false positives
- Sufficient power to detect rare adverse reactions
- (Find known adverse reactions, if any)



Data Mining Design Features

- Data mining methods have different features.
- These can be combined freely to create hybrid approaches.
- So, approach it like ordering ice cream, picking your favorite cone, ice cream flavors and toppings.



Key Feature: Data Source

- Spontaneous reports (e.g. AERS)
- Clinical trials
- Disease registries
- Electronic health records
- Insurance claims data
- ...



Key Feature: Risk Window

- Risk window identical to exposure period
- One or more pre-specified risk window, such as 1-14 days after initial exposure
- Temporal scan, simultaneously evaluating hundreds of potential risk windows



Key Feature: Comparison Group

- All individuals
- Healthy individuals
- Users of all other drugs
- Users of a similar drug
- Self-controls, pre-exposure control window
- Self-controls, post-exposure control windows



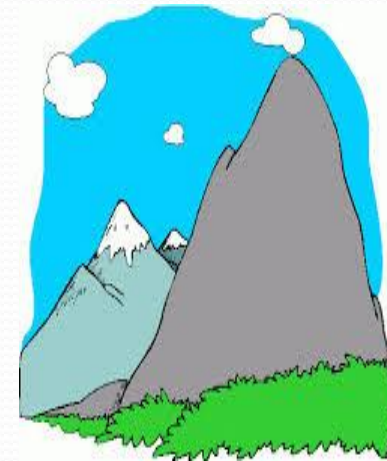
Key Feature: Covariate Adjustment

- None
- Age, gender, calendar time, geography, etc
- Concomitant exposures
- Propensity score matching



Key Feature: Outcome Granularity

- Use collection of very specific diagnoses, such as ICD-9 codes (e.g. acute liver failure).
- Use smaller collection of more general groups of related diagnoses (e.g. liver disease)
- Simultaneously use both of the above, plus intermediate levels



Key Feature: Multiple Testing Adjustment

- No adjustment
- Informal adjustment, such as lower 95% CI >2
- Formal analytical Bonferroni type adjustment
- Formal Monte Carlo adjustment, with random data generated under the null hypothesis



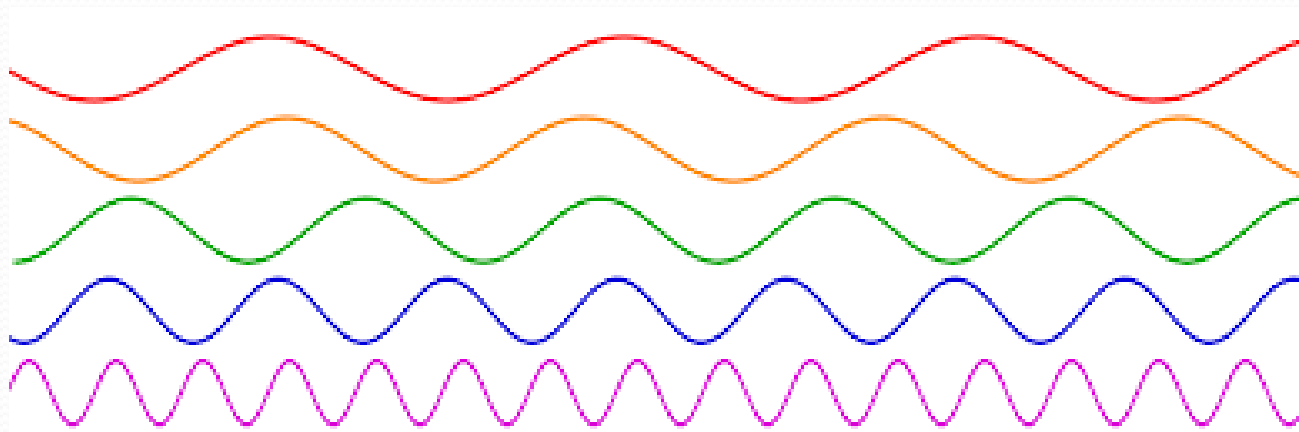
Key Feature: Effect Estimates

- Relative Risk / Odds Ratio
- Empirical Bayes Shrinkage Estimates
- Attributable Risk / Risk Difference



Key Feature: Frequency

- One single look at the data
- Multiple looks over time, as more data accrues
- Real-time safety surveillance



Key Feature: Size and Type of Net

- One drug, thousands of disease outcomes
- One disease, thousands of drugs
- Thousands of drugs and thousands of outcomes
- Specific population, such as pregnant women and birth defects
- Drug-drug interactions



Signal Detection using TreeScan

Judith C. Maro

**Harvard Medical School and Harvard Pilgrim Health Care
Institute, Boston, MA**

Tree-Based Scan Statistics are Enabled by:

- A signal detection / data-mining method
- Scans electronic health outcome data that are grouped into hierarchical tree structures
- Automatically adjusts for multiple hypothesis testing

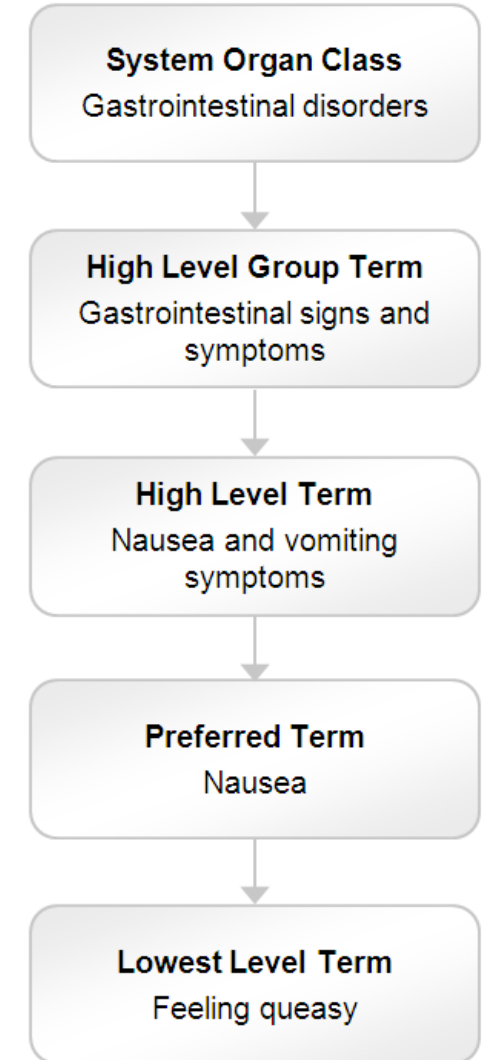
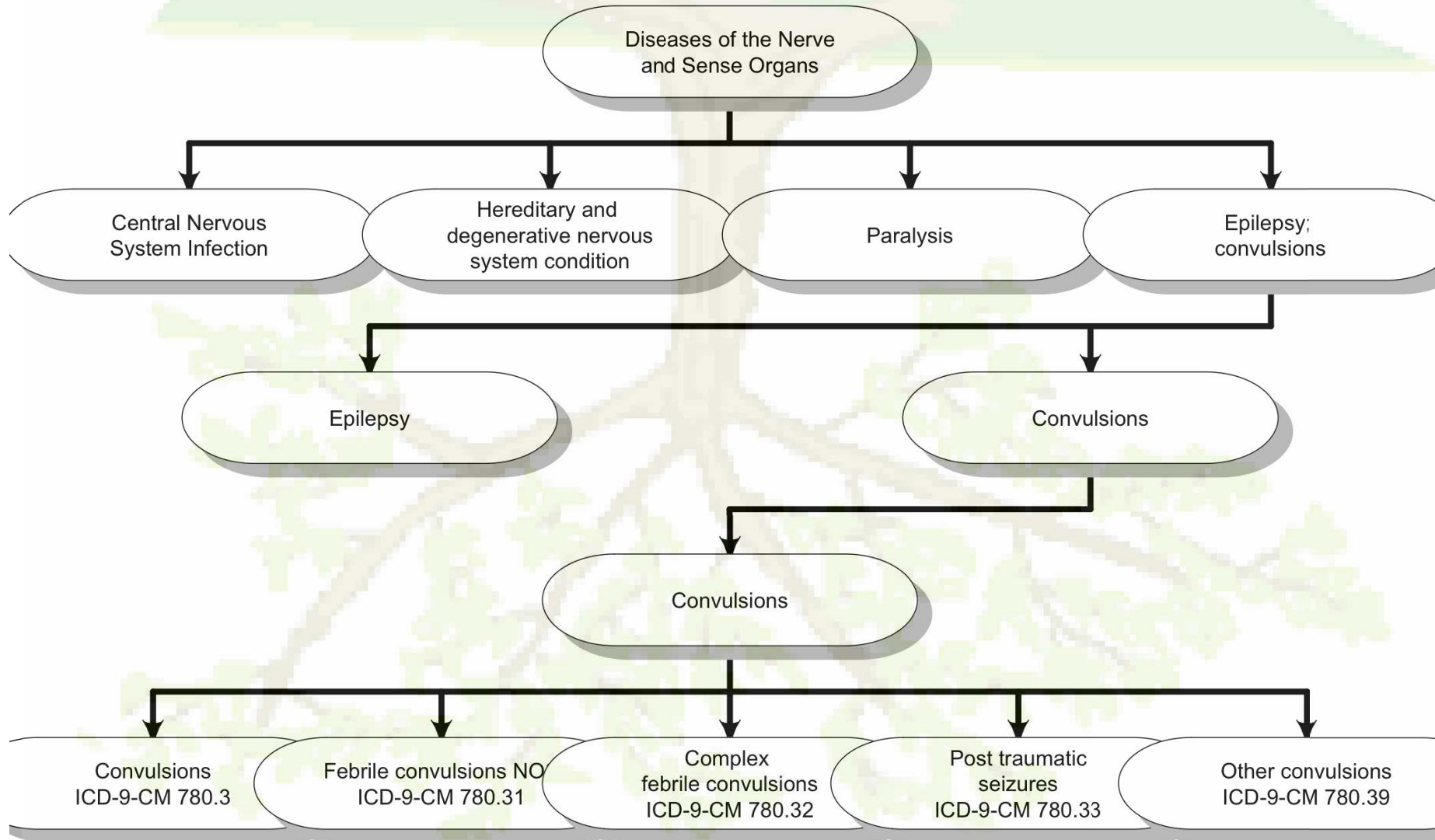


<http://www.treescan.org>

Data-Mining Designs with Trees

- Exposure-Oriented - 1 Exposure: N Outcomes
 - Uses Multi-Level Clinical Classification System (MLCCS) where $N \approx 8000$
- Outcome-Oriented - M Exposures: 1 Outcome
 - Uses Medi-Span Therapeutic Classification System (Drug Tree) where $M = 300,000+$
- *Future - M Exposures: N Outcomes*

Data Arranged in a Tree Structure



Study Designs Compatible with TreeScan Analytics



		TreeScan Analytics					
		Poisson Model		Bernoulli Model		Tree-Temporal Model	
		Unconditional	Conditional	Unconditional	Conditional	Unconditional	Conditional
Study Designs	Self-Controlled Design			X	X	X	X
	Propensity Score or other Fixed Ratio Match Design			X			
	Stratified Cohort Design	X	X				

Unconditional means the null hypothesis relies on an external input about the expected outcomes.
Conditional means the null hypothesis is determined by the characteristics of the incoming data set.

How has TreeScan been evaluated thus far?

Simulated Datasets

■ Advantages

- Artificially inject “excess risk” of variable specific sizes
- Allows quantitative assessment of method under “experimental conditions” where “truth is known”

■ Limitations

- Simulated data has a range of realistic representations. Early simulations are quite artificial

Empiric Assessments

■ Advantages

- Empiric testing with real data
- Allows assessment of method under real life conditions
- Can be effective method to assess performance if test case is well characterized

■ Limitations


- Can be challenging to interpret unexpected results
- Need additional information to investigate unexpected results

PDS Pharmacoepidemiology
& Drug Safety

Official Journal of the
International Society for
Pharmacoepidemiology



Assessment of Quadrivalent Human Papillomavirus Vaccine Safety Using the Self-Controlled Tree-Temporal Scan Signal-Detection Method in the Sentinel System

W Katherine Yih , Judith C Maro, Michael Nguyen, M Carolyn Balsbaugh, David V Cole, Inna Dashevsky, Ada Martin Kulldorff

American Journal of Epidemiology, Volume 187, Issue 1269–1276, <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwy023>

Published: 23 February 2018 **Article history** ▼

758 | Signal detection using tree-temporal scan statistics in the sentinel system

Judith C. Maro¹; Michael D. Nguyen²; Rima Izem²; Ya-Hui Hsueh²; Inna Dashevsky¹; Austin Cosgrove¹; S. Christopher Jones²; Jacqueline M. Major²; Esther H. Zhou²; Elande Baro²; Joshua J. Gagne³; Shirley V. Wang³; Martin Kulldorff³

¹ Harvard Medical School and Harvard Pilgrim Healthcare Institute, Boston, Massachusetts; ² Center for Drug Evaluation and Research, US Food and Drug Administration, Silver Spring, Maryland; ³ Division of Pharmacoepidemiology and Pharmacoeconomics, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts

Epidemiology. 29(6):895–903, NOV 2018
DOI: 10.1097/EDE.0000000000000907, PMID: 30074538
Issn Print: 1044-3983
Publication Date: 2018/11/01



Data Mining
Propensity Score
Statistical

Shirley V. Wang; Ju
Gagne; Elisabetta
Sebastian Schnee

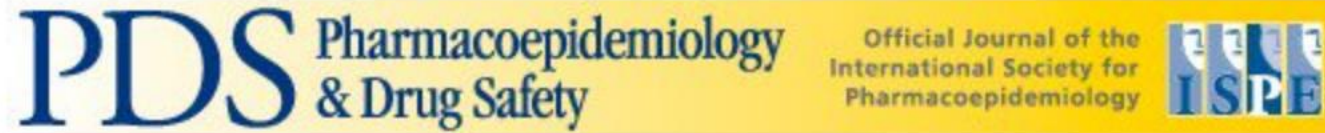
+ Author Information

Development and Evaluation of a Global Propensity Score for Data Mining with Tree-Based Scan Statistics

Submit Comment

Project Title	Development and Evaluation of a Global Propensity Score for Data Mining with Tree-Based Scan Statistics
Date Posted	Friday, August 10, 2018
Status	In progress
Deliverables	Development and Evaluation of a Global Propensity Score for Data Mining with Tree-Based Scan Statistics: Protocol

Stratified Cohort Designs with Referent Cohort



Original Report

Drug safety

Martin Kulldorff
Richard Platt, et al.

First published

Read the full text

Pharmaceutics **2013**, 5(1), 179-200; <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics5010179>

Open Access

Article

Drug Adverse Events the Gamma Tree-based S

Jeffrey S. Brown ^{1,2,*}
Inna Dashevsky ¹ ,
K. Arnold Chan ^{5,6} ,
Lisa Herrinton ^{2,10} ,
David Smith ^{2,13} and

eGEMs The Journal for Electronic
AcademyHealth Health Data and Methods

Start Submitting

Reading: Statistical Power for Postlicensure Medical Product
Safety Data Mining

Share:

Empirical research

Statistical Power for Postlicensure Medical Product Safety Data Mining

Authors: Judith C. Maro , Michael D. Nguyen, Inna Dashevsky,
Meghan A. Baker, Martin Kulldorff

Strengths of TreeScan

1. Takes advantage of hierarchical nature of clinical concepts in the form of a tree structure.
2. Investigator does not need to understand how particular outcomes are coded (i.e., can be indifferent to the granularity of the outcome data)
3. Formal control for multiple hypothesis testing (Overall Type 1 error)

Limitations of TreeScan

1. All outcomes are treated identically across the tree (8000+) regardless of their time of onset, severity, etc.
2. Complex outcomes (algorithms such as 2 codes within X days of each other) are not tested with TreeScan.
3. Individual study designs have limitations depending on the design chosen.

Bayesian Shrinkage and Meta-Analysis: Possible Applications to Sentinel

William DuMouchel, PhD
Chief Statistical Scientist
Oracle Health Sciences
Miami, FL, USA

Bayesian Shrinkage Techniques and Meta-Analysis

Description and Scenario

These techniques reduce variation by combining multiple examples to allow borrowing strength after estimating a prior distribution of average effects

They are most effective when the study design seeks estimates for many parallel problems

A Bayesian model assumes similarity of effects or sources of variation across the multiple problems

Data Requirements, Strengths and Limitations

These methods work best with large databases to be able to draw on multiple estimations and measure variance components

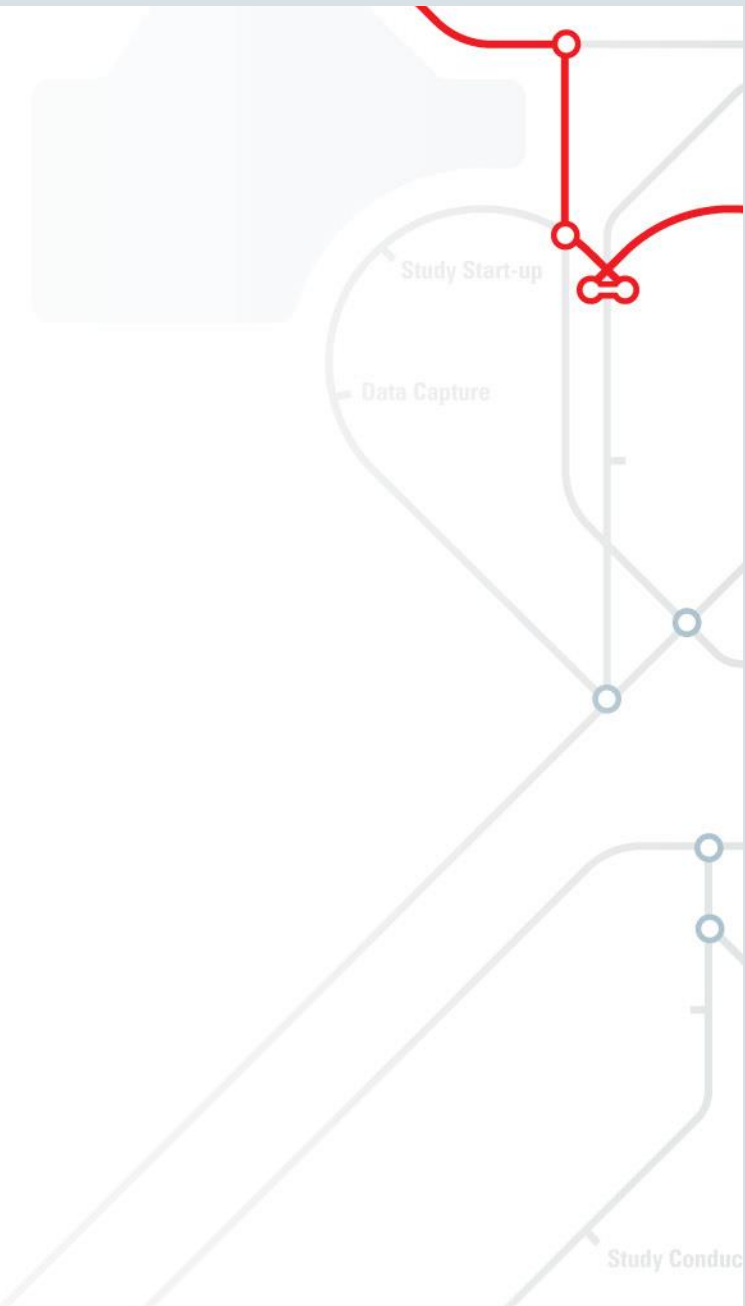
A primary strength is that they often provide accurate adjustments for multiple comparisons conundrums that are especially vexing for safety analyses

[Accomplished by estimation of assumed prior effect variances across examples]

Results can mislead if individual problems are black swan outliers that don't follow the general pattern of most other examples.

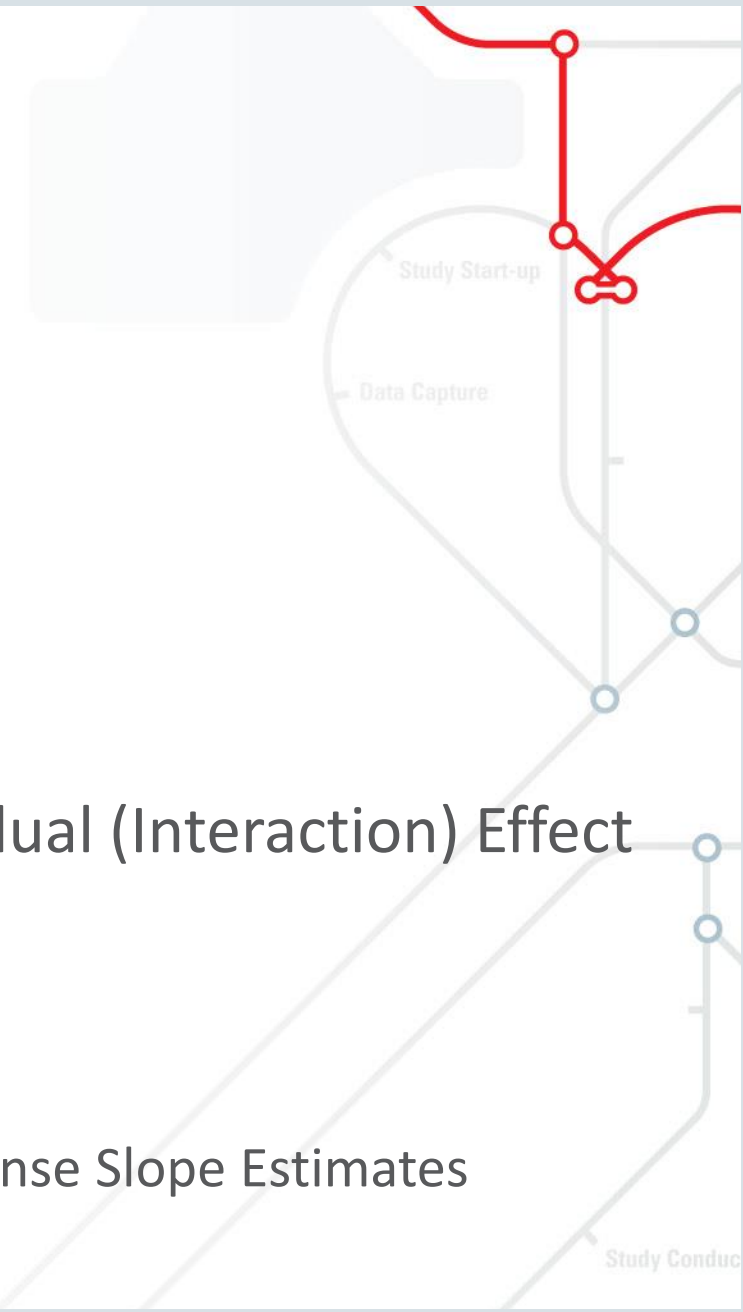
Shrinking Safety Signals Toward Class Effects

- Observational Database for Drug Adverse Reactions
 - N = Counts of Drug-Event Combinations (DECs)
 - E = Expected Counts Based on some No-Effect Model
- Null-Hypothesis Models for Expected Counts
 - Adjustment for Age and Gender and other Covariates
 - Adjustment for Concomitant Drugs (Large Scale Regression)
 - Longitudinal exposure models
- Two-way Shrinkage Model
 - Assume analysis of prespecified set of DECs
 - A class of drugs for the same indication
 - A set of medically similar adverse effects



Rationale for Two-Way Shrinkage

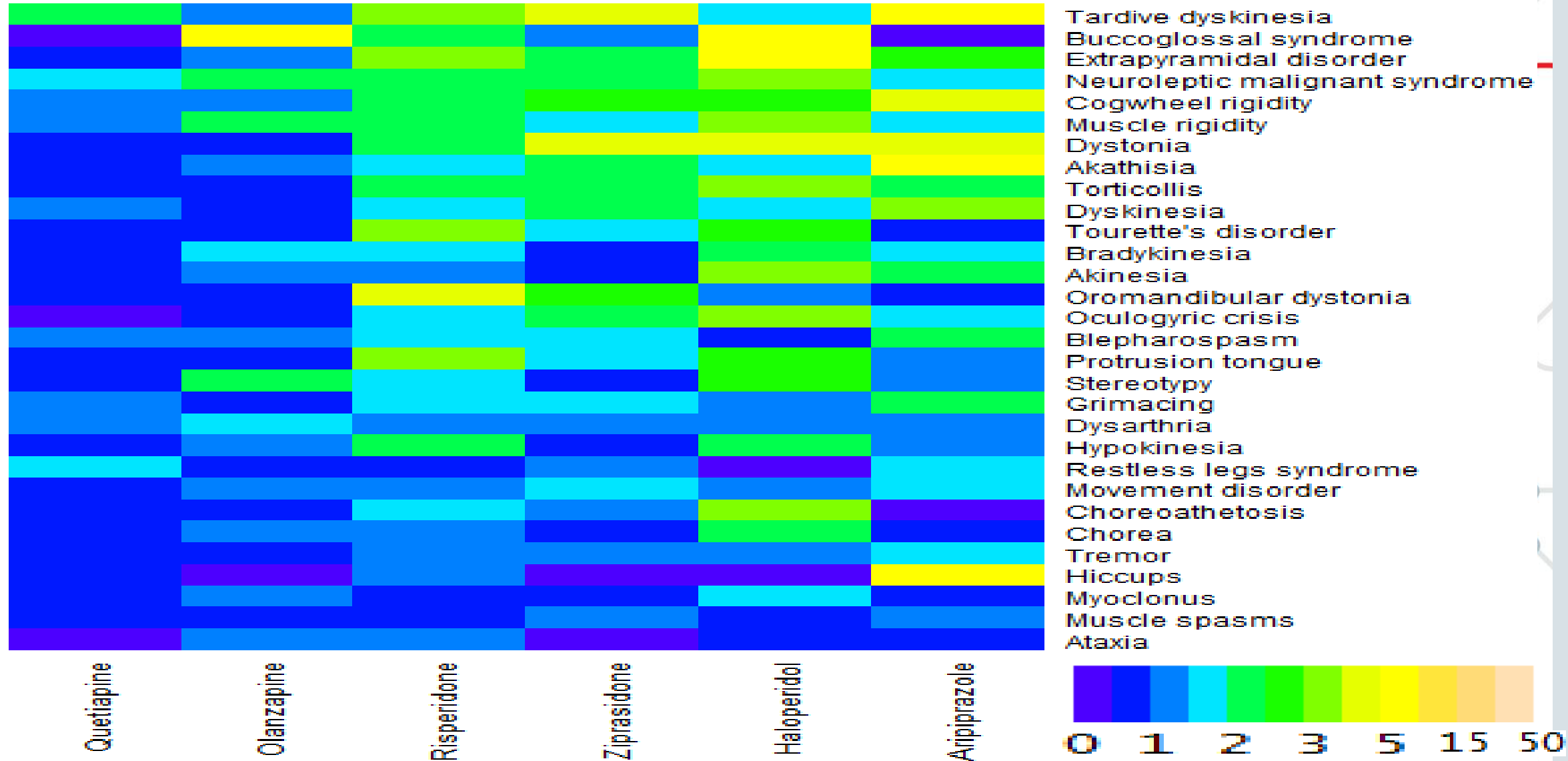
- Similar Drugs may have a Class Effect on each PT
- Similar Mechanisms Affect Medically Related Events
 - PTs Close in the MedDRA Hierarchy May Have Common Causes
- There Are Probably Specific Drug-Event Associations
 - But We Have Noisy Measurements for Rare Combinations
 - Estimate Deviations from Overall Drug and Event Patterns
- Decompose Associations: Drug Effect \times PT Effect \times Residual (Interaction) Effect
 - Prior Distributions Can Shrink All 3 Types of Effects Toward 1
 - High-Variance Estimates Will Get Shrunk the Most
- DuMouchel W, Harris JE (1983) *JASA* **78**:293-315
 - Fits Similar Model to a Collection of Environmental Dose-Response Slope Estimates



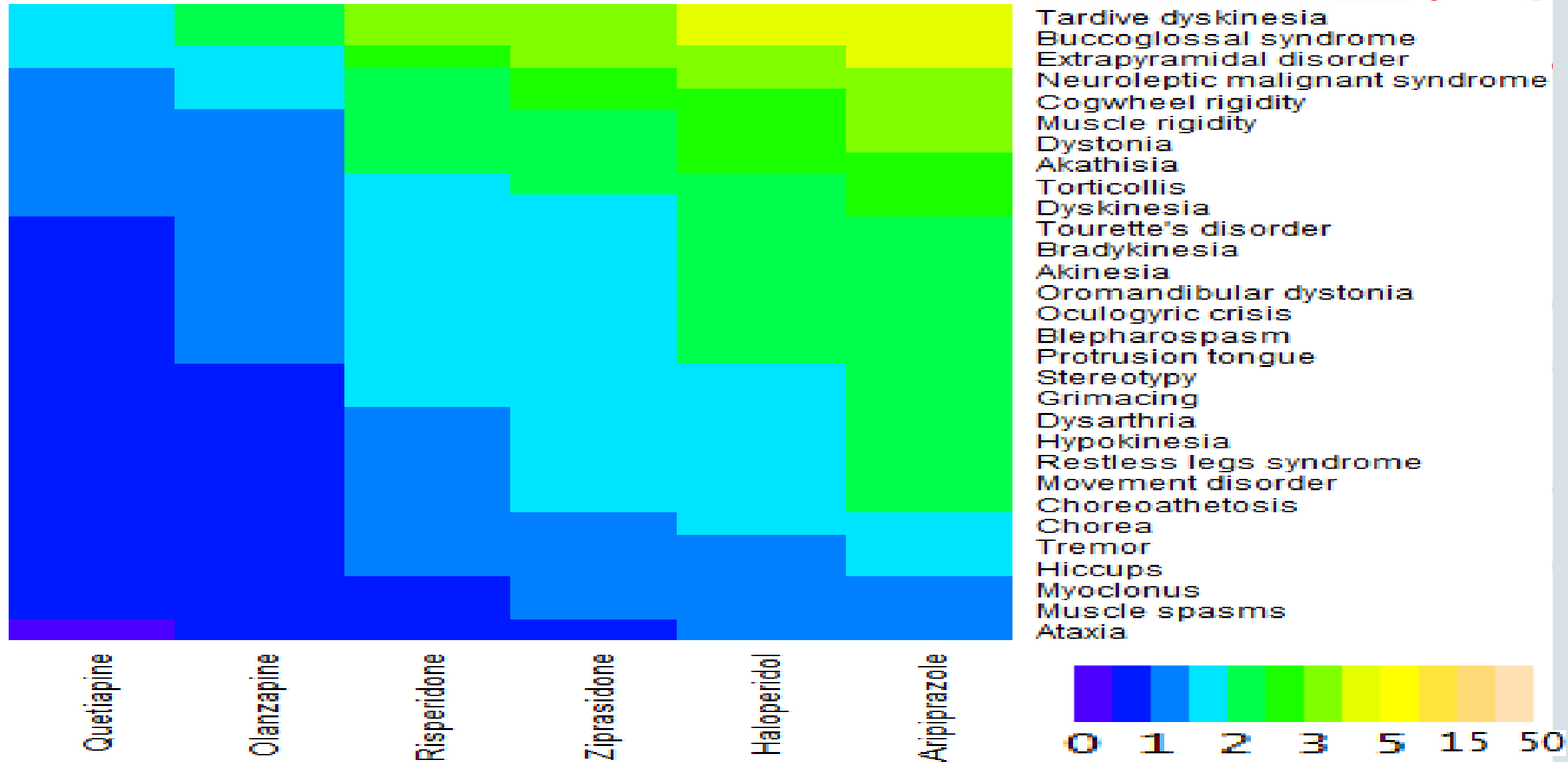
Antipsychotics and Movement Disorders in FAERS

- Drugs—J = 6 Antipsychotics
 - Aripiprazole Haloperidol Olanzapine
Quetiapine Risperidone Ziprasidone
- Events—K = 30 PTs for Movement Disorders
 - Selected as the 30 PTs Related to Movement Disorder that Had the Greatest Total No. of Reports across all 6 Drugs
- Counts N_{jk} and Expected Counts E_{jk} [Drug j, Event k]
- Poisson Regression Estimates Average Drug and PT Trends
 - $N_{jk} \sim \text{Poisson}(E_{jk} \exp\{\alpha_j + \beta_k\})$ [Assume one $\beta_k = 0$ to normalize]
- Shrink Observed N_{jk}/E_{jk} Toward the Overall Regression Trends

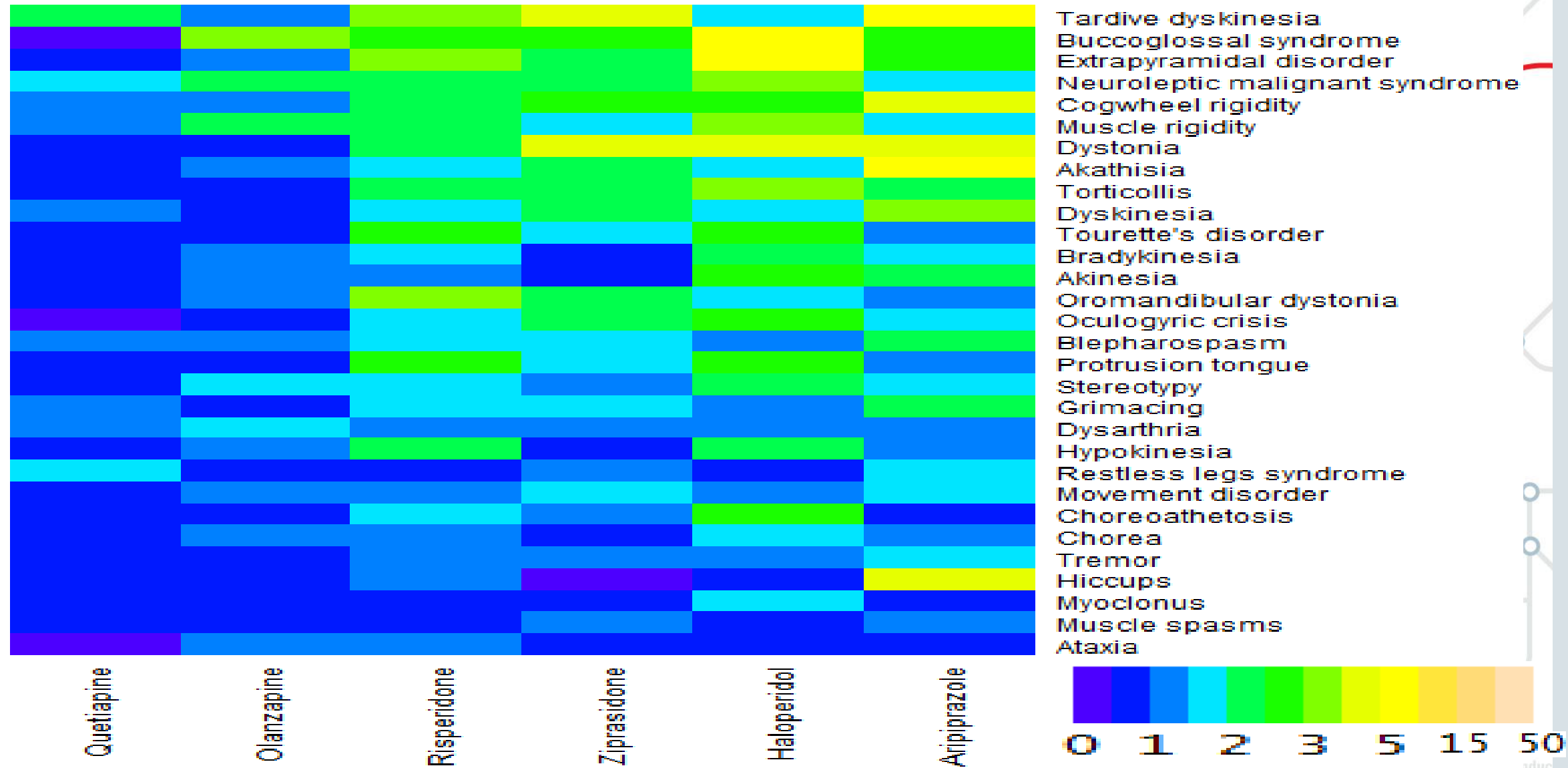
Ratios N/E [E from RGPS]



Regression Fit to N/E



Two-Way Shrinkage of N/E



Shrinkage Model Across Different Data Sources

- Let N_{djk} and E_{djk} Denote Observed and Expected Counts
 - Database d , Drug j and Event k
- $\lambda_{djk} > 0$
 - “True” disproportionality of drug j and event k in database d
 - $N_{djk} \sim \text{Poisson}(E_{djk} \lambda_{djk})$
- Assume $\lambda_{djk} = \alpha_{dj} \times \beta_{dk} \times \gamma_{jk}$, where
 - $\alpha_{dj} \sim \text{Gamma}(A, A)$ so that each α_{dj} has prior mean equal to 1 and prior variance $1/A$
 - $\beta_{dk} \sim \text{Gamma}(B, B)$
 - $\gamma_{jk} \sim \text{Gamma}(C, C)$
- Estimates of A, B, C and λ_{djk} Provide a Meta-Analysis of the Safety Situation
 - Several other models for λ_{djk} may be appropriate



Large-Scale Evidence Generation and Evaluation in a Network of Databases (LEGEND)

Martijn Schuemie

Janssen Research and Development – Global Epidemiology

UCLA - Biostatistics



Observational Data

Can be used to estimate

- Counts: how often does outcome occur in exposed?
- Associations: is exposure associated with greater counts?
- Causal effects: does an exposure increase the risk of an outcome?



Our goal: Signal = Causal effect

“Hypothesis free”
actually means
“Many hypotheses”

For example:

- a new drug – ‘all’ outcomes
- a class of drugs – class of outcomes



Estimating causal effects

Many methods exist, e.g.

- New-user cohort method using propensity score adjustment
- Self-Controlled Case Series (SCCS)
- Case-control
- Case-crossover
- Self-controlled cohort



Best practice for estimating causal effects in observational data

- Prespecify
- Transparency: protocol + **source code**
- Proper outcome definitions
- Sensitivity analyses
- Study diagnostics
- **Multiple databases**

Cardiovascular, Bleeding, and Mortality Risks in Elderly Medicare Patients Treated With Dabigatran or Warfarin for Nonvalvular Atrial Fibrillation

David J. Graham, MD, MPH; Marsha E. Reichman, PhD; Michael Wernecke, BA;
Rongmei Zhang, PhD; Mary Ross Southworth, PharmD; Mark Levenson, PhD;
Ting-Chang Sheu, MPH; Katrina Mott, MHS; Margie R. Goulding, PhD;
Monika Houstoun, PharmD, MPH; Thomas E. MaCurdy, PhD; Chris Worrall, BS;
Jeffrey A. Kelman, MD, MMSc

Background—The comparative safety of dabigatran versus warfarin for treatment of nonvalvular atrial fibrillation in general practice settings has not been established.

Methods and Results—We formed new-user cohorts of propensity score–matched elderly patients enrolled in Medicare who initiated dabigatran or warfarin for treatment of nonvalvular atrial fibrillation between October 2010 and December 2012.



LEGEND

LARGE-SCALE EVIDENCE GENERATION AND EVALUATION IN A NETWORK OF DATABASES

Hypertension treatments

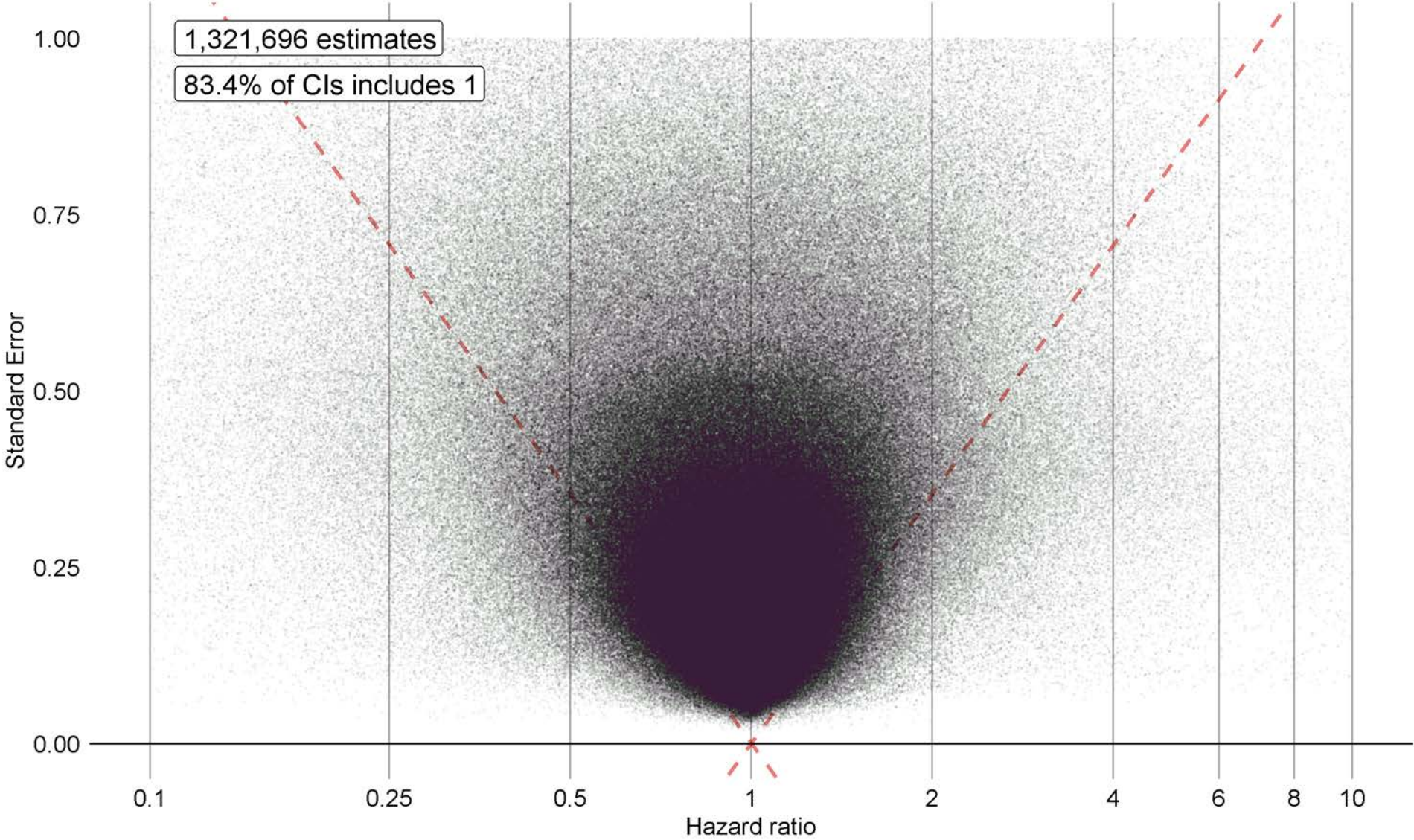
- 10,278 comparisons between drugs, classes, and combinations of these
- 58 outcomes of interest
- 587,020 research questions

Methods

- New-user cohort design
- Large-scale propensity scores
- Proper outcome definitions
- 9 databases across the globe

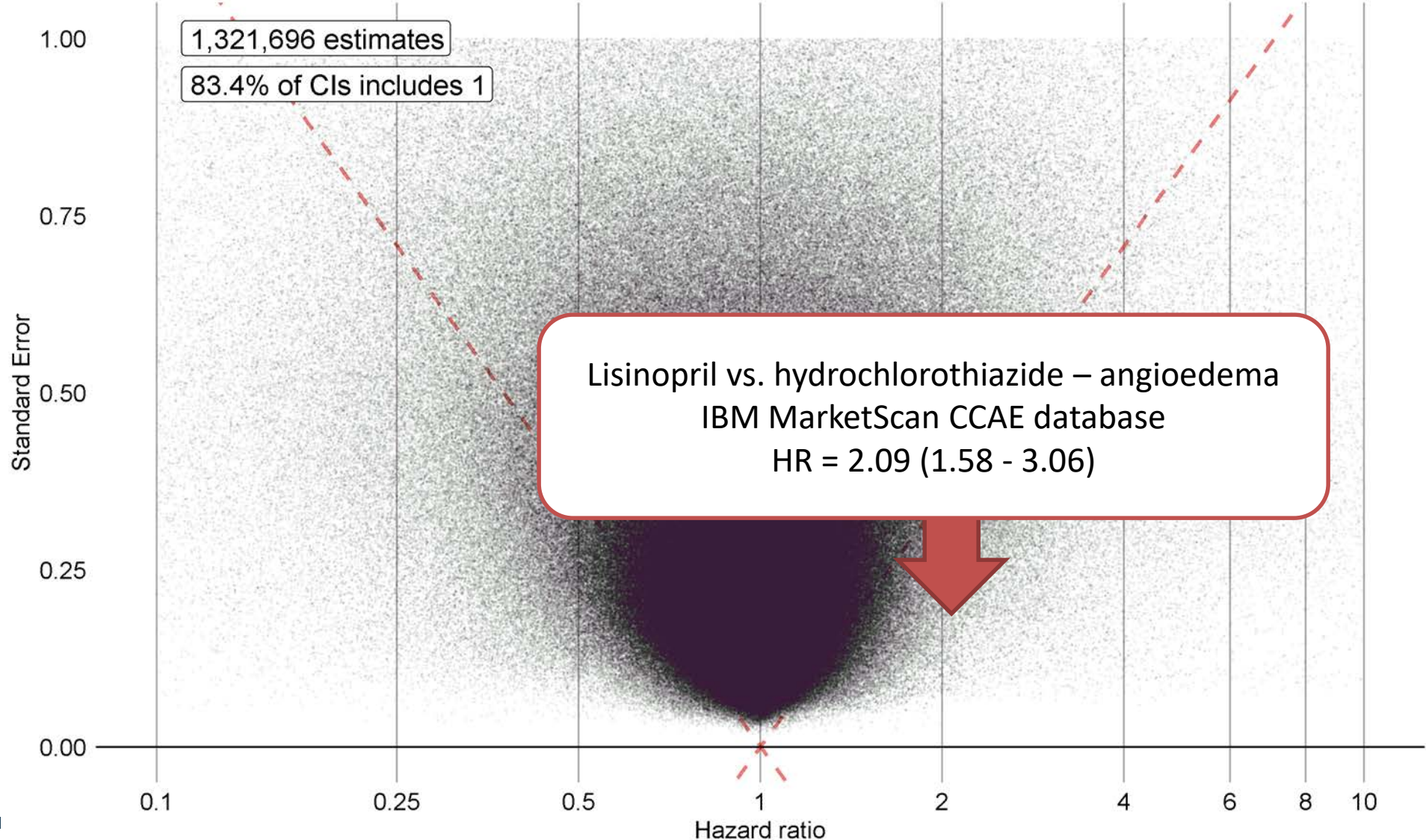


LEGEND results





LEGEND results





Each analysis has all the content you should expect in a manuscript

Angioedema risk in new-users of Lisinopril versus Hydrochlorothiazide for hypertension in the CCAE database

Martijn J. Schuemie^{1,2,3,4}, Patrick B. Ryan^{1,2,3,4}, Seng Chan¹
Marc A. Suchard^{1,2,3,4}

¹Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics, New York, NY, USA; ²San Francisco, CA, USA; ³Department of Biomedical Informatics, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA; ⁴Department of Biomedical Informatics, University of California, Los Angeles, CA, USA

This report was automatically compiled on November 28, 2018.

We conduct a large-scale study on the incidence of angioedema among new users of Lisinopril and hydrochlorothiazide from 2008 to 2018 in the CCAE database. Outcomes of interest are estimates of the hazard ratio (HR) for incident events between comparators new users under on-treatment and intent-to-treat risk window assumptions. Secondary analyses entertain possible clinically relevant subgroup interaction with the HR. We identify 647,212 Lisinopril and 286,973 hydrochlorothiazide patients for the on-treatment design, totaling 455,529 and 208,649 patient-years of observation, and 671 and 150 events respectively. We control for measured confounding using propensity score trimming and stratification or matching based on an expansive propensity score model that includes all measured patient features before treatment initiation. We account for unmeasured confounding using negative and positive controls to estimate and adjust for residual systematic bias in the study design and design scores, providing calibrated confidence intervals and p-values. Terms of angioedema, Lisinopril has a higher risk as compared to hydrochlorothiazide (HR: 2.09, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.58 - 3.1).

new-user cohort design | comparative effectiveness | drug safety

The Large-scale Evidence Generation and Evaluation Network of Databases (LEGEND) project aims to generate reliable evidence on the effects of medical interventions using observational healthcare data to support clinical decision making. LEGEND follows ten guiding principles (Supporting Information): chief among these stand that generate evidence at large-scale to achieve completeness, facilitate analysis of the overall distribution of effect size estimates across treatments and outcomes. We also generate evidence consistently by applying a systematic approach across all research questions and disseminate evidence regardless of the estimates effects to avoid publication bias. These aims overcome the questionable reliability of observational research (Schuemie et al., 2018a). The LEGEND document reports the risk of angioedema between new users of Lisinopril a hydrochlorothiazide treated for Hypertension.

Worldwide, hypertension stands as a leading cause of disability, with an increasing prevalence over the last two decades (Forness et al., 2017). The 2017 American College of Cardiology (ACC) / American Heart Association (AHA) clinical practice guidelines define hypertension based on average blood pressure (BP) measured in a healthcare setting: systolic BP between 130 - 139 mmHg or diastolic BP between 80 - 89 mmHg characterizes stage 1 hypertension, and systolic > 140 mmHg or diastolic BP > 90 mmHg mark stage 2

treatment laboratory tests for a subset of the covered lives. This administrative claims database includes a variety of fee-for-service, preferred provider organizations, and capitated health plans. The study period spans from 2008-12-31 to 2018-12-31.

Study design. This study follows a retrospective, observational comparative cohort design (Ryan et al., 2013). We include patients who are first time users of Lisinopril or hydrochlorothiazide, and who have a diagnosis of hypertension on or prior to treatment initiation. We require that patients have continuous observation in the database for at least 365 days prior to treatment initiation. We exclude patients with prior angioedema events and less than 1 day at risk. Links to full cohort (include concept codes, are provided in the Supporting Information). The outcome of interest is angioedema. We use the outcome risk window 1 day after treatment initiation consider two design choices to define the window end: we end the outcome time-at-risk window at first onset of continuous drug exposure, analogous to an on-treatment design and, second, we end the outcome time-at-risk when the patient is no longer observable in the database analogous to an intent-to-treat design. Continuous drug exposure is constructed from the available longitudinal data by identifying sequential prescriptions that have fewer than 30 gap between prescriptions.

Statistical analysis. We conduct our cohort study using open-source OHDSI CohortMethod R package (Schuemie 2018c), with large-scale analytics achieved through tidyclops R package (Suchard et al., 2013). We use propensity scores (PSs) - estimates of treatment exposure probability conditional on pre-treatment baseline features in the one user to treatment initiation - to control for potential measured confounding and improve balance between the target (fish and comparator (hydrochlorothiazide) cohorts (Rosen and Rubin, 1983). We use an expansive PS model that includes all available patient demographics, drug, condition procedure covariates generated through the FeatureExtr R package (Schuemie et al., 2018d) instead of a prespecified investigator-selected confounders. We perform PS stratification or variable-ratio matching and then estimate comparative Lisinopril-vs-hydrochlorothiazide hazard ratios (HRs) a Cox proportional hazards model. Detailed covariate methods information are provided in the Supporting Information. We present PS and covariate balance metrics to successful confounding control, and provide HR estimates Kaplan-Meier survival plots for the outcome of angioedema. We additionally estimate HRs for pre-specified subgroups evaluate interactions with the treatment effect. For efficiency reasons, we fit subgroup Cox models using PS stratification.

Residual study bias from unmeasured and system sources can exist in observational studies after controlling measured confounding (Schuemie et al., 2014, 2018). To measure such residual bias, we conduct negative control experiments with 286 negative control outcomes identified through a data-rich algorithm (Voss et al., 2017). We use negative control estimates to an empirical null distribution that characterizes the study residual bias and is an artifact from which to assess the study design (Schuemie 2018a). Using the empirical null distribution and synthetic positive controls (Schuemie et al., 2018b), we additi-

Expected
Lisinopril n = 7540771
hydrochlorothiazide n = 1005478

Table 1. Patient cohorts. Target (T) cohort is Lisinopril new-users. Comparative (C) cohort is hydrochlorothiazide new-users. We report total number of patients, follow-up time (in years), number of angioedema events, and event incidence rate (IR) per 1,000 patient years (PY) in patient cohorts, as well as the their minimum detectable relative risk (MDRR). Note that the IR does not account for any stratification or matching.

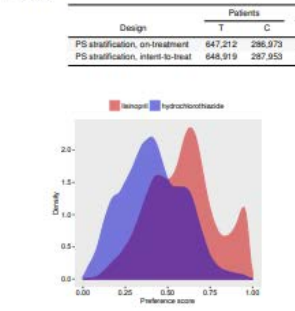


Fig. 2. Preference score distribution for Lisinopril and hydrochlorothiazide new users. The preference score is a transformation of the propensity score that adjusts for prevalence differences between populations. A higher overlap indicates if subjects in the two populations are more similar in terms of their predicted probability of receiving one treatment over the other.

group means before and after PS trimming and stratification (Table 2). Figure 7 plots StdDiff for all 8843 base-line features that serve as input for the PS model. Before stratification, 118 features have a StdDiff > 0.1. After stratification the count is 0.

Outcome assessment. Table 3 details the time to first angioedema or censoring distributions for patients in the Lisinopril and hydrochlorothiazide cohorts. We report in Table 4 estimated HRs comparing Lisinopril to hydrochlorothiazide for the on-treatment and intent-to-treat design with stratification or matching. Figure 4 plots Kaplan-Meier survival curves for patients under the intent-to-treat design. To examine possible subgroup differences in treatment-effect, we include Table (tablesubgroups) that reports HR estimates separately for children (age < 18), the elderly (age > 65), female patients, pregnant women, patients with hepatic impairment and patients with renal impairment, using PS stratification.

Residual systematic error. In the absence of bias, we expect 95% of negative and positive control estimate 95% confidence intervals to include their presumed HR. In the case of negative controls, the presumed HR = 1. Figure 5 describes the negative and positive control estimates under the on-treatment with F stratification design. Before calibration, negative and positive controls demonstrate poor coverage. After calibration, controls demonstrate poor coverage.

Schuemie et al.

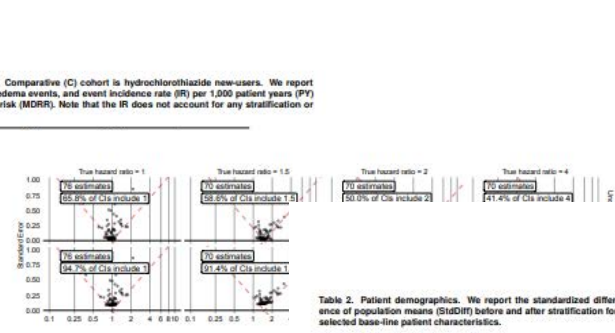


Fig. 5. Evaluation of effect estimation between Lisinopril and hydrochlorothiazide calibration for each negative and synthetic positive control. The bottom plot is for the true hazard ratio = 1.

Conclusions

We find that Lisinopril has a higher risk of angioedema compared to hydrochlorothiazide within the population the CCAE represents.

Supporting Information

Here we enumerate the guiding principles of LEGEND provide linking details on study cohorts and design.

LEGEND principles.

1. Evidence will be generated at large-scale.
2. Dissemination of the evidence will not depend on estimated effects.
3. Evidence will be generated by consistently applying systematic approach across all research questions.
4. Evidence will be generated using a pre-specified analysis design.
5. Evidence will be generated using open source software that is freely available to all.
6. Evidence generation process will be empirically evaluated by including control research questions where the effect size is known.
7. Evidence will be generated using best-practices.
8. LEGEND will not be used to evaluate methods.
9. Evidence will be updated on a regular basis.
10. No patient-level data will be shared between sites in network, only aggregated data.

Study cohorts. Please see the LEGEND hypertension Study protocol (<https://github.com/OHDSI/LEGEND/tree/main/Documents>) for complete specification of the Lisinopril, hydrochlorothiazide and angioedema cohorts using AT1 (<http://www.ohdsi.org/web/atlas>).

Negative controls. We selected negative controls using a process similar to that outlined by Voss et al. (2017). We construct a list of all conditions that satisfy the follow criteria with respect to all drug exposures in the LEGEND hypertension study:

- No Medline abstract where the MeSH terms suggest drug-condition association (Wittenburg et al., 2015)

Table 2. Patient demographics. We report the standardized difference of population means (StdDiff) before and after stratification for selected base-line patient characteristics.

Characteristic	T (N)	C (N)	StdDiff	T (N)	C (N)	StdDiff
Age (years)	60.1	61.1	0.02	60.1	61.1	0.02
10-19	2.7	2.4	0.21	2.7	2.4	0.21
20-29	1.4	1.4	0.01	1.4	1.4	0.01
30-39	2.7	2.4	0.21	2.7	2.4	0.21
40-49	6.2	6.3	0.01	6.2	6.3	0.01
50-59	8.4	9.9	0.08	8.4	9.9	0.08
60-69	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
70-79	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
80-89	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
90-99	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
Gender	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
Male	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
Female	10.2	10.2	0.01	10.2	10.2	0.01
Medical history (Disease)	20.8	20.8	0.02	20.8	20.8	0.02
Acute myocardial infarction	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Angina pectoris	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Chronic kidney disease	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Coronary artery disease	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 1	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 2	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 3	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 4	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 5	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 6	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 7	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 8	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 9	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 10	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 11	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 12	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 13	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 14	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 15	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 16	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 17	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 18	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 19	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 20	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 21	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 22	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 23	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 24	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 25	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 26	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 27	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 28	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 29	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 30	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 31	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 32	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 33	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 34	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 35	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 36	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 37	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 38	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 39	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 40	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 41	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 42	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 43	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 44	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 45	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 46	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 47	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 48	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 49	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 50	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 51	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 52	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 53	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 54	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 55	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 56	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 57	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 58	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 59	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 60	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 61	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 62	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 63	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 64	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 65	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 66	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 67	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 68	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 69	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 70	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 71	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 72	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 73	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 74	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 75	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 76	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 77	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 78	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 79	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 80	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 81	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 82	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 83	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 84	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 85	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 86	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 87	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 88	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 89	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 90	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 91	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 92	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 93	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 94	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 95	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 96	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 97	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 98	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 99	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02
Diabetes mellitus type 100	1.2	1.1	0.02	1.2	1.1	0.02

References

ALLHAT Officers and Coordinators for the ALLHAT Collaborative Research Group (2002). "Major outcomes in high-risk hypertensive patients randomized to angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor or calcium channel blocker vs diuretic: The antihypertensive and lipid-lowering treatment to prevent heart attack trial (ALLHAT)." *Journal of the American Medical Association* 288, 2981-2997.

Austin PC (2009). "Balance diagnostics for comparing the distribution of baseline covariates between treatment groups in propensity score matched samples." *Statistics in medicine*, 28(25), 3083-3107.

Banda JM, Evans L, Vanguri RS, Tatonetti NP, Ryan PB, Shah NH (2016). "A curated and standardized adverse drug event resource to accelerate drug safety research." *Scientific data*, 3,



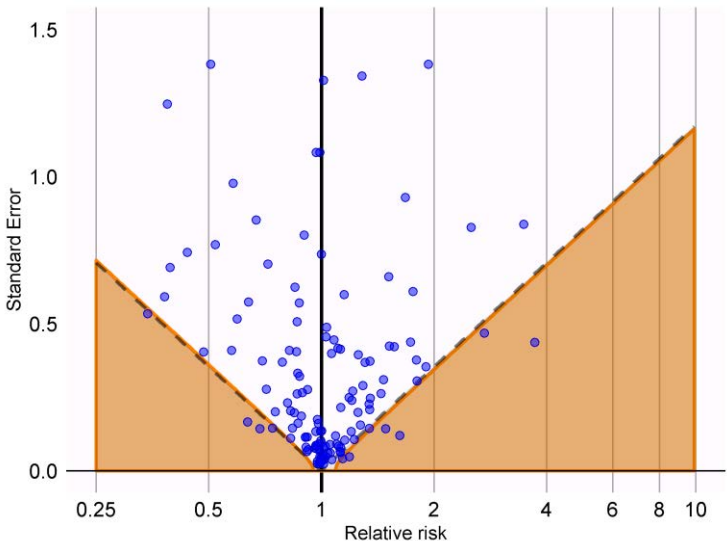
Different use cases of **LEGEND** results

- Current use: Hypothesis testing
question → check **LEGEND** results
One hypothesis, no multiple testing.
- “Signal detection”
e.g. rank-order by lower bound of confidence interval
This requires adjustment for multiple testing!

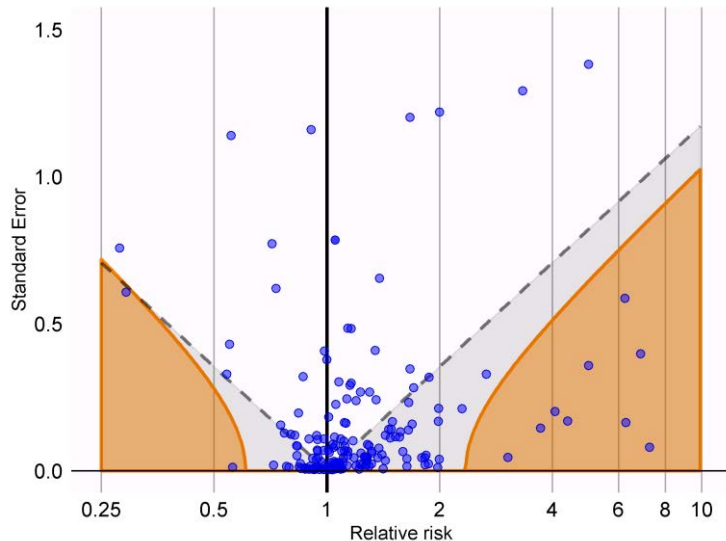
Same goal: provide best estimate



Estimates for 200 negative controls



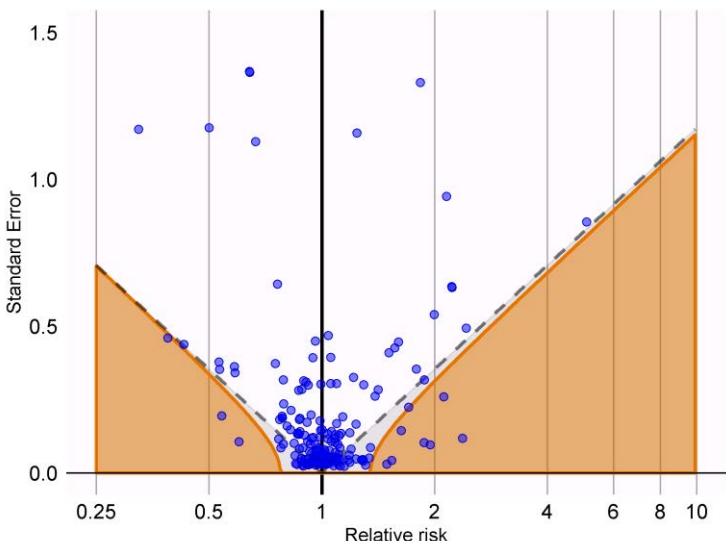
Cohort method using 1-on-1 matching



Nested case-control

Each blue dot is an effect size estimate for a negative control exposure-outcome pair (true relative risk = 1).

Dots below the dashed line have $p < 0.05$.



Multiple Self-controlled Case Series



To evaluate performance, we must decide on the evaluation metrics

- Coverage of the 95% confidence interval
- Type 1 and 2 errors (sensitivity and specificity)
- AUC (Area Under the Receiver Operator Curve)
- MSE (Mean Squared Error)
- Precision

Choice of cutoff (e.g. $p=0.05$)

Empirical calibration?



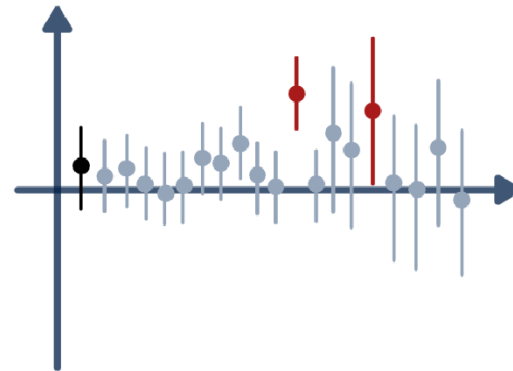
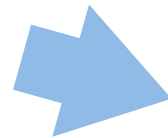
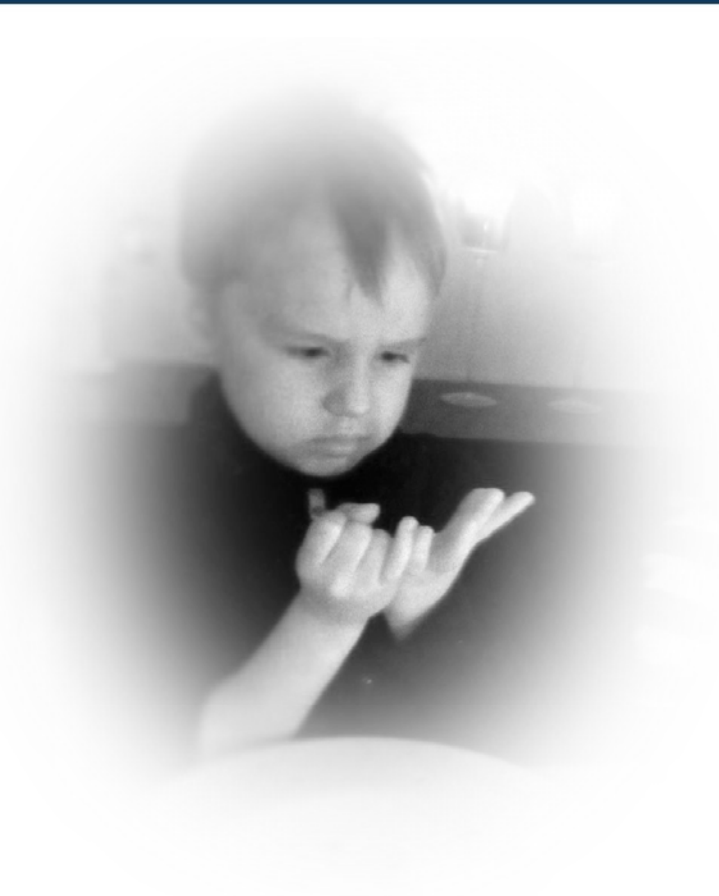
Takeaway points

- Goal: to reliably estimate causal effects
whether one hypothesis at a time or many hypotheses at a time ("signal detection")
- Apply best practices, even at large scale
 - Confounding adjustment
 - Proper outcome definitions
 - Sensitivity analyses
 - Study diagnostics
 - Multiple databases
- Always measure operating characteristics using
 - Negative and positive controls
 - Multiple metrics

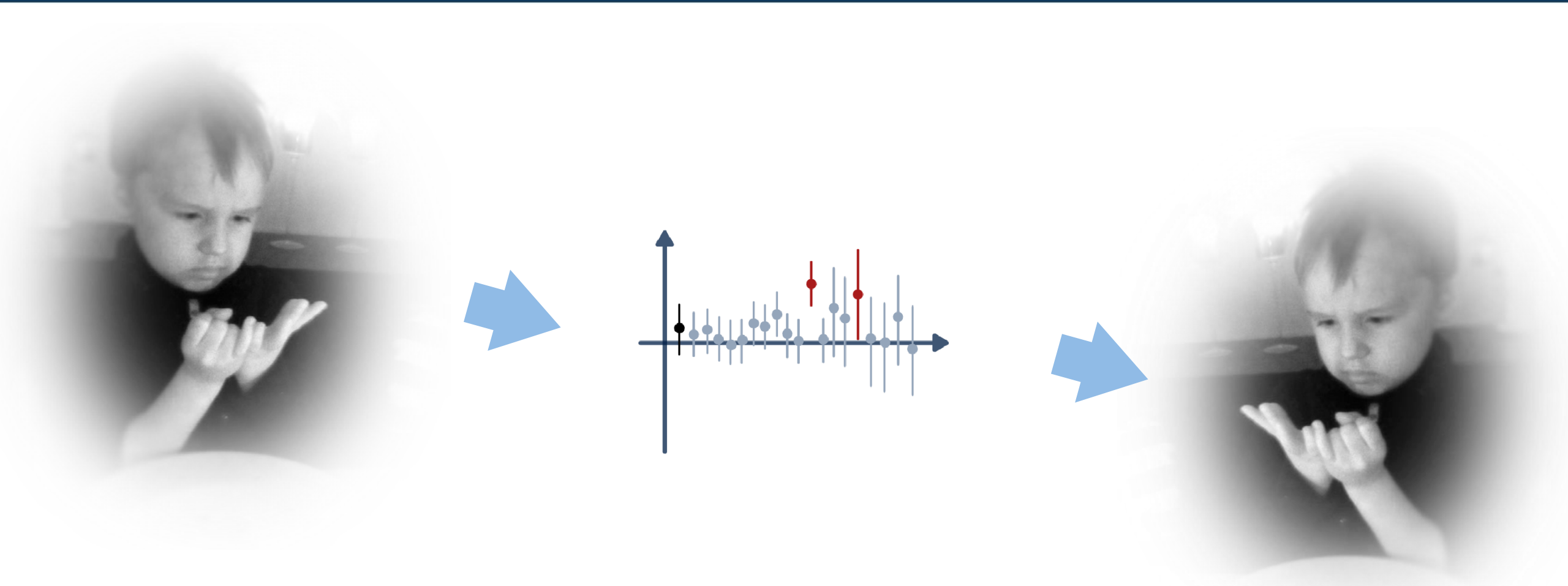
Temporal pattern discovery for signal detection in electronic healthcare data

Niklas Norén

Confirmatory study

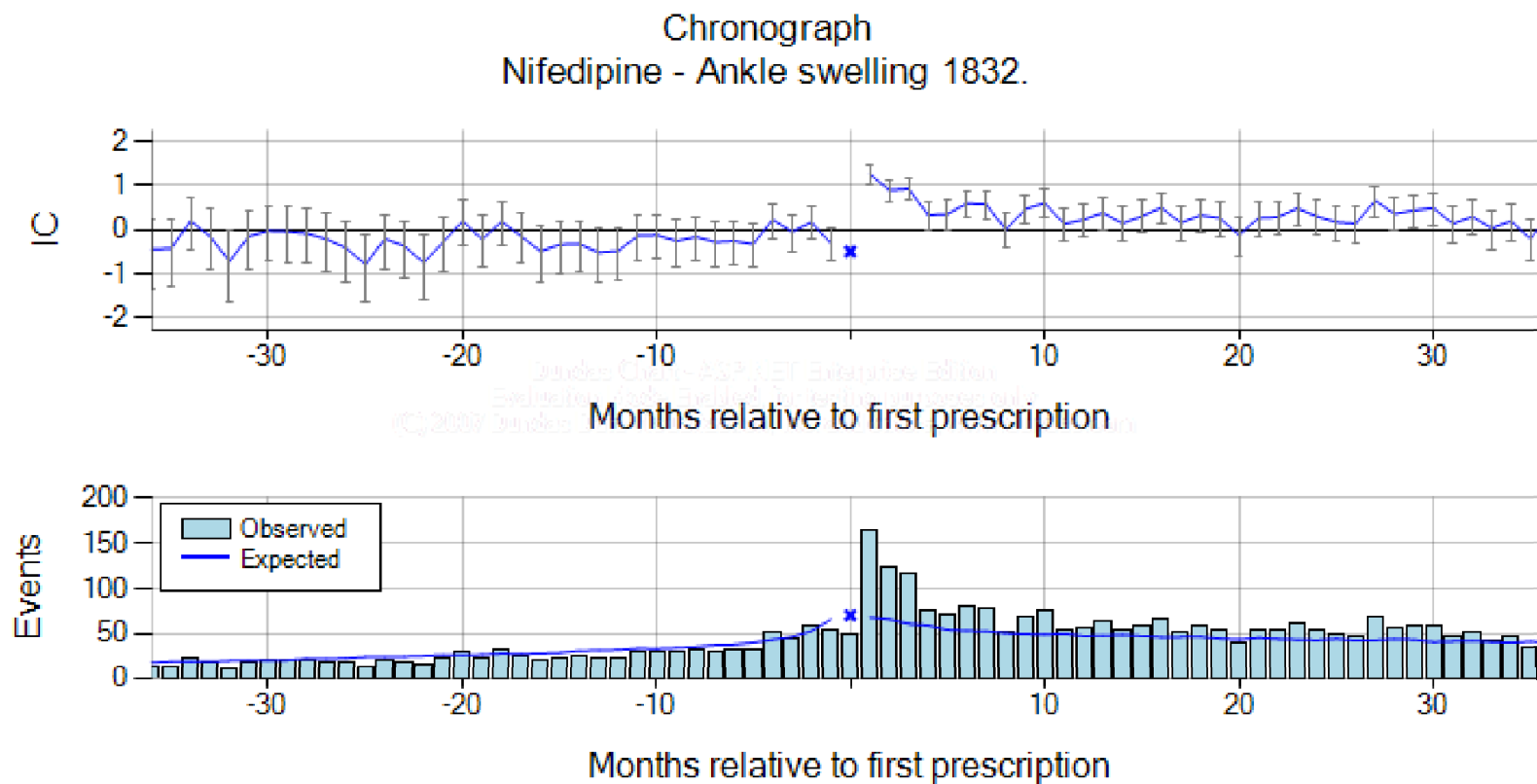


Exploratory study

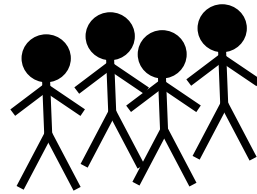


Temporal pattern discovery

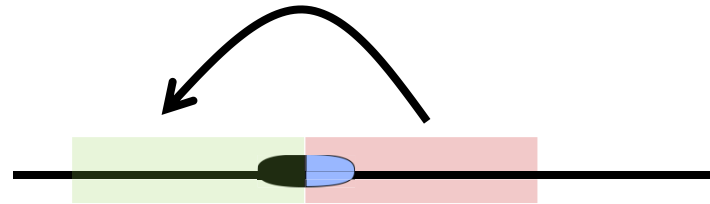
Norén et al. Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery, 2010



Self-control

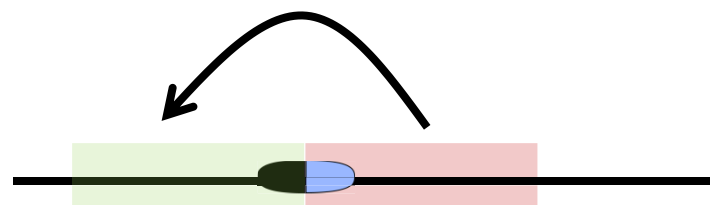
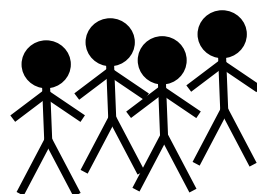


VS

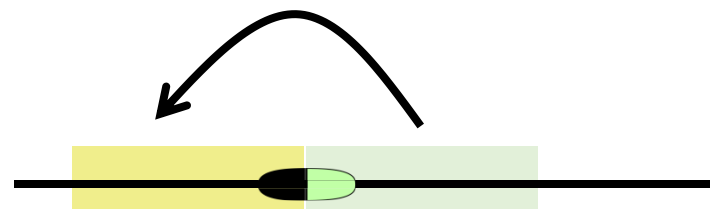
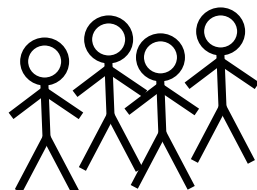


Self-control calibrated by active comparator

Norén et al.
Drug Safety, 2013



VS

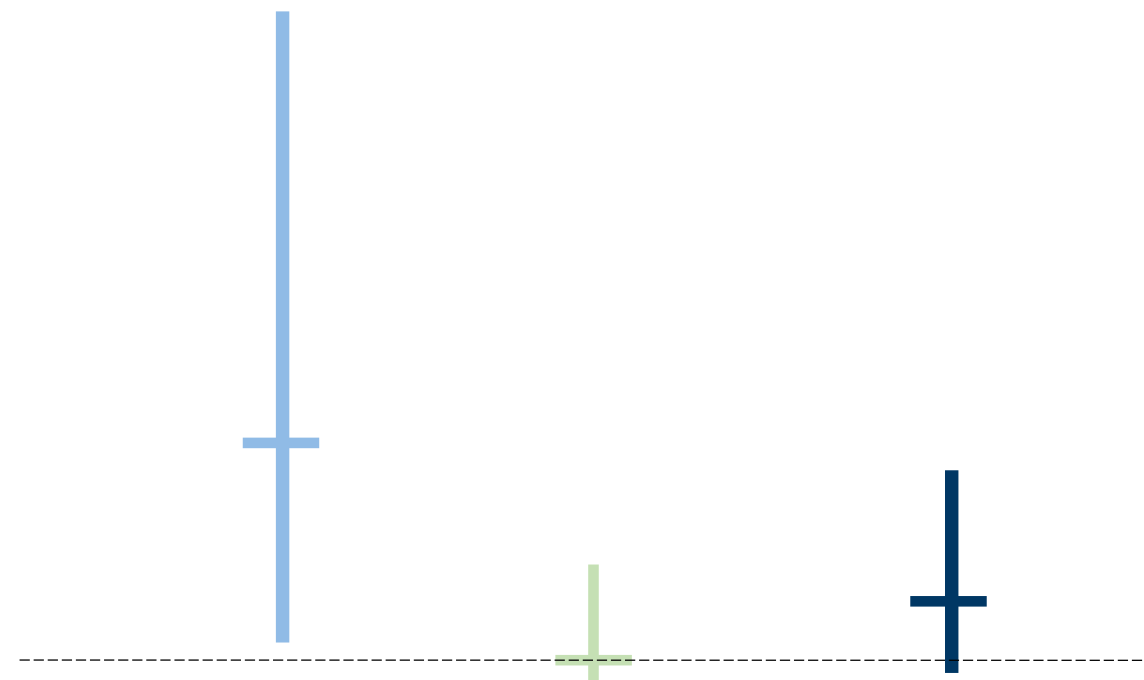


Simple statistical shrinkage

Norén et al
Stat Meth Med Res, 2013

Observed + 1/2

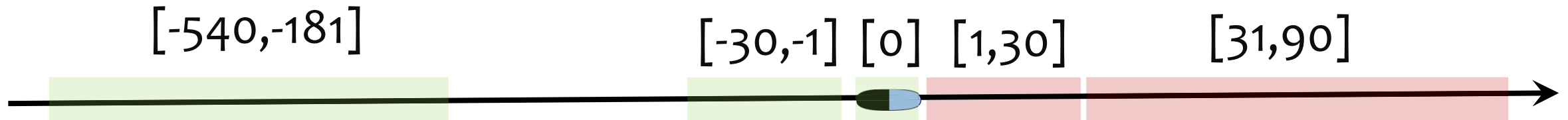
Expected + 1/2



Data + Prior = Posterior

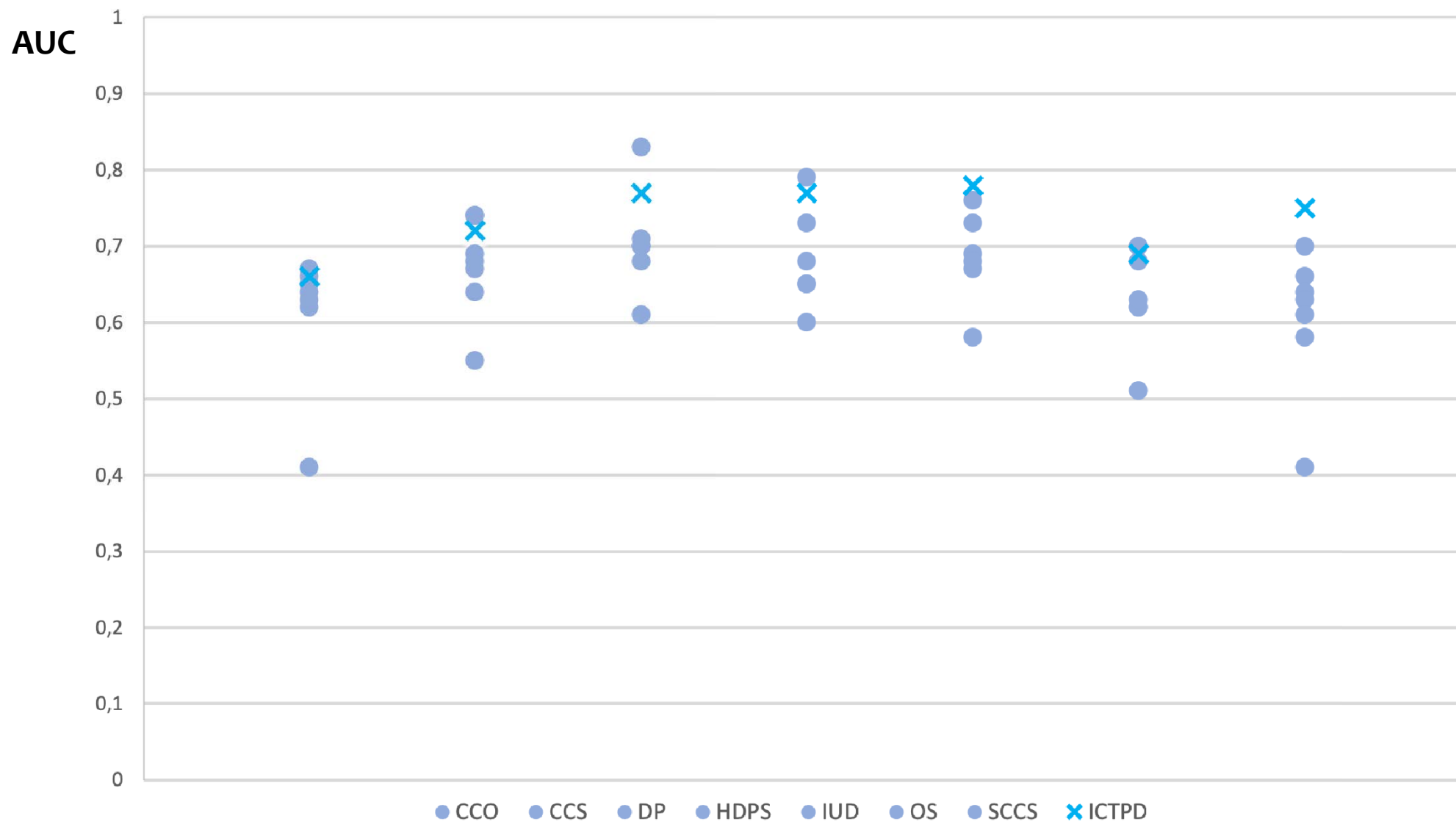
Multiple risk and comparison windows

Norén et al.
Drug Safety, 2013



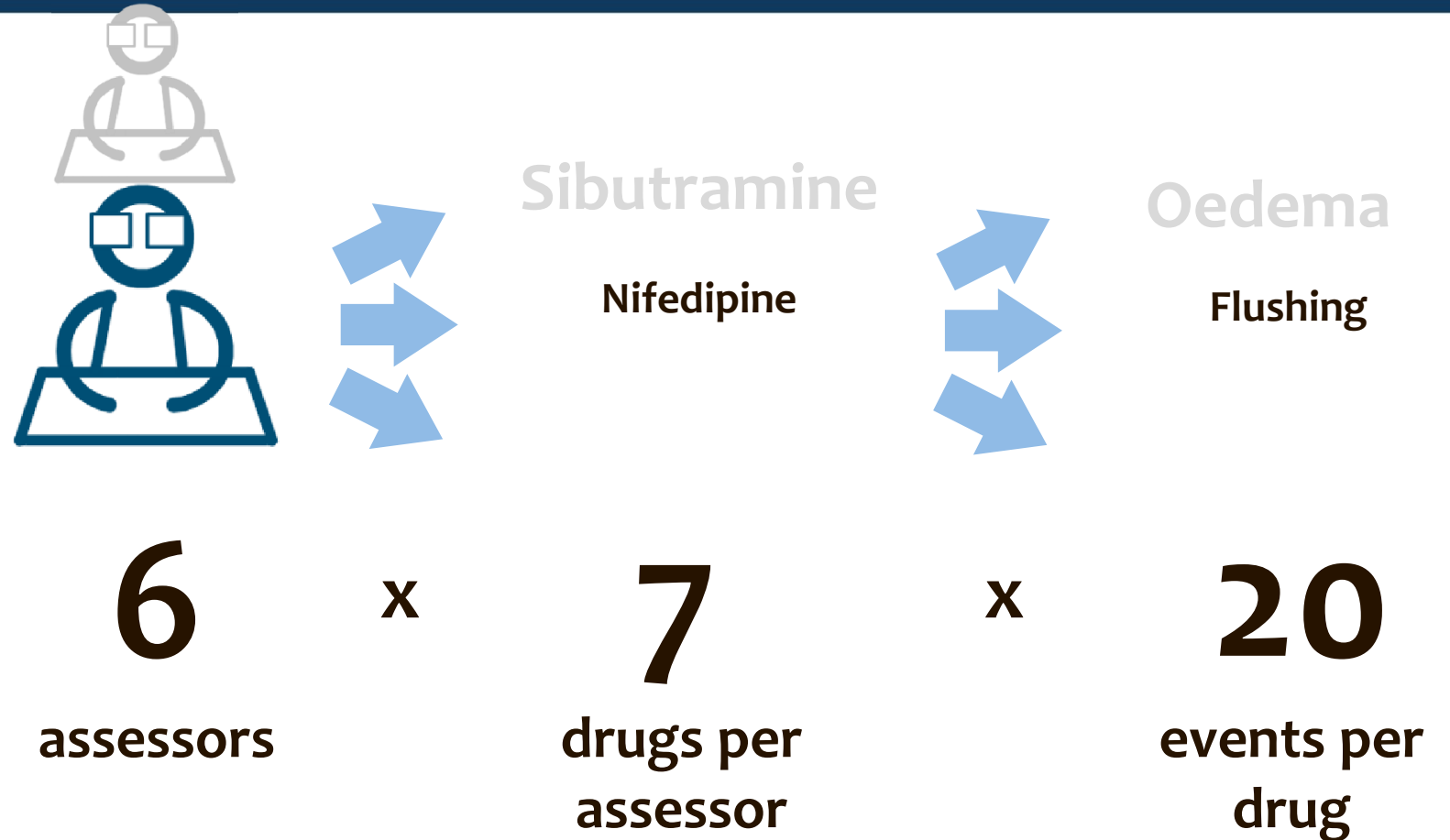
OMOP results (2012 study)

Ryan et al
Drug Safety, 2013



Prospective screening study

Cederholm et al.
Drug Safety, 2015



Drug Saf (2015) 38:87–100
DOI 10.1007/s40264-014-0251-y

ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE

Structured Assessment for Prospective Identification of Safety Signals in Electronic Medical Records: Evaluation in the Health Improvement Network

S. Cederholm · G. Hill · A. Asimwe ·
A. Bate · F. Bhayat · G. Persson Brobert ·
T. Bergvall · D. Ansell · K. Star · G. N. Norén

Published online: 25 December 2014
© The Author(s) 2014. This article is published with open access at Springerlink.com

Abstract

Background Pharmacovigilance signal detection largely relies on individual case reports, but longitudinal health data are being explored as complementary information sources. Research to date has focused on the ability of epidemiological methods to distinguish established adverse drug reactions (ADRs) from unrelated adverse events.

Objective The aim of this study was to evaluate a process for structured clinical and epidemiological assessment of temporally associated drugs and medical events in electronic medical records.

Methods Pairs of drugs and medical events were selected for review on the basis of their temporal association according to a calibrated self-controlled cohort analysis in The Health Improvement Network. Six assessors trained in pharmacovigilance and/or epidemiology evaluated seven drugs each, with up to 20 medical events per drug. A pre-specified questionnaire

considered aspects related to the nature of the temporal pattern, demographic features of the cohort, concomitant medicines, earlier signs and symptoms, and possible confounding by underlying disease. This informed a classification of drug–event pairs as known ADRs, meriting further evaluation, or dismissed. **Results** The number of temporally associated medical events per drug ranged from 11 to 307 (median 50) for the 42 selected drugs. Out of the 509 relevant drug–event combinations subjected to the assessment, 127 (25 %) were classified as known ADRs. Ninety-one (24 %) of the remaining pairs were classified as potential signals meriting further evaluation and 291 (76 %) were dismissed. Suggestive temporal patterns and lack of clear alternative explanations were the most common reasons that drug–event pairs were classified as meriting further evaluation. Earlier signs and symptoms and confounding by the underlying disease were the most common reasons that drug–event pairs were dismissed.

Conclusions Exploratory analysis of electronic medical records can detect important potential safety signals. However, effective signal detection requires that statistical signal detection be combined with clinical and epidemiological review to achieve an acceptable false positive rate.

Key Points

Exploratory analysis of electronic medical records can detect important potential safety signals.

To achieve an acceptable false positive rate, statistical signal detection should be combined with clinical and epidemiological review.

Such review also requires a deep understanding of the analytical methods employed, and insight into data collection and medical practice in the setting at hand.

△ Adis

S. Cederholm · G. Hill · T. Bergvall · K. Star ·
G. N. Norén (✉)
Uppsala Monitoring Centre, WHO Collaborating Centre
for International Drug Monitoring, Box 1051,
SE-75140 Uppsala, Sweden
e-mail: niklas.noren@who-umc.org

A. Asimwe
Eli Lilly UK, Sumey, UK

A. Bate
Pfizer UK, Sumey, UK

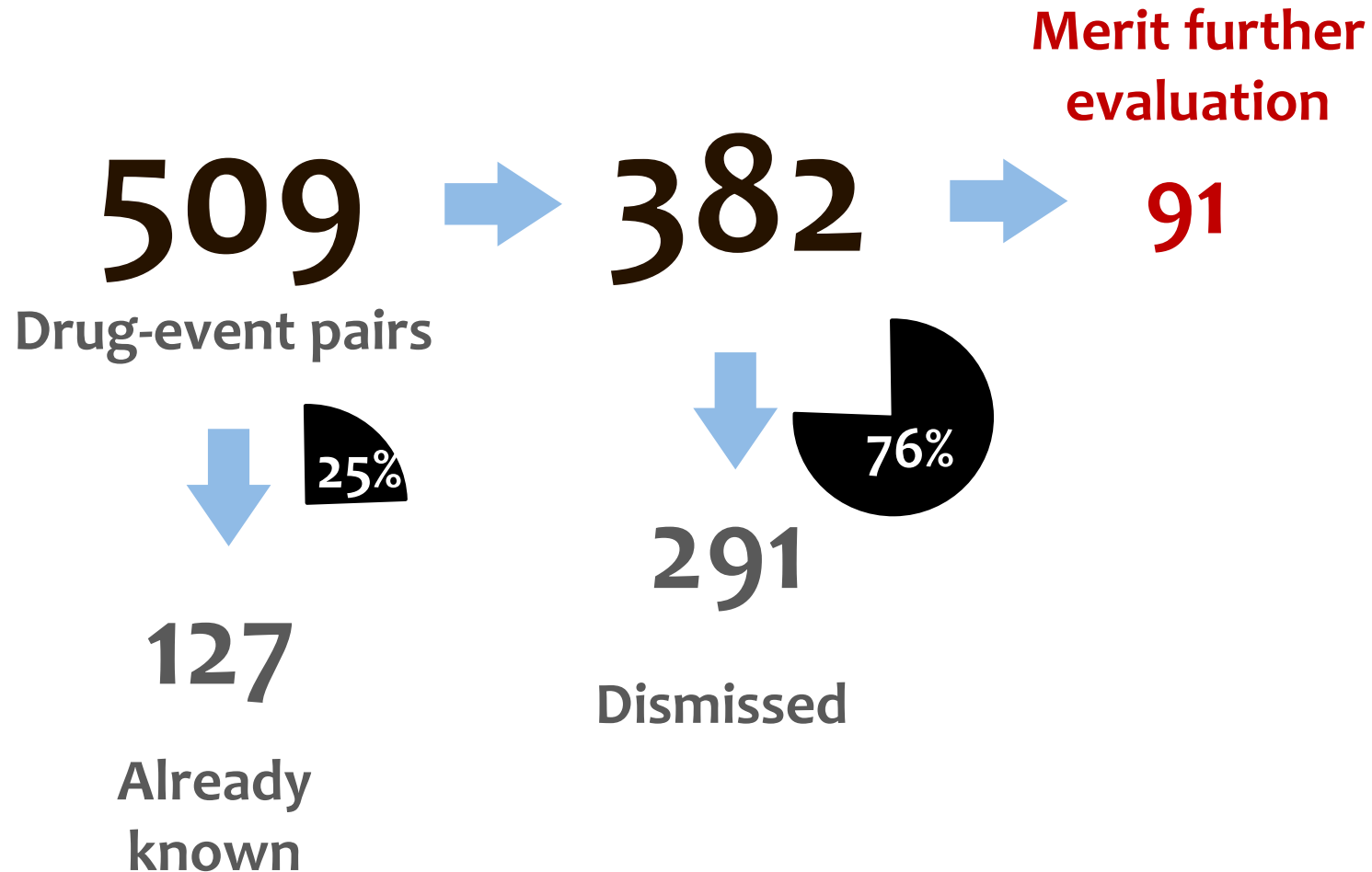
F. Bhayat
Takoda (TGRO), London, UK

G. Persson Brobert
Bayer Pharma AG, Berlin, Germany

D. Ansell
Cegehim Strategic Data Medical Research, London, UK

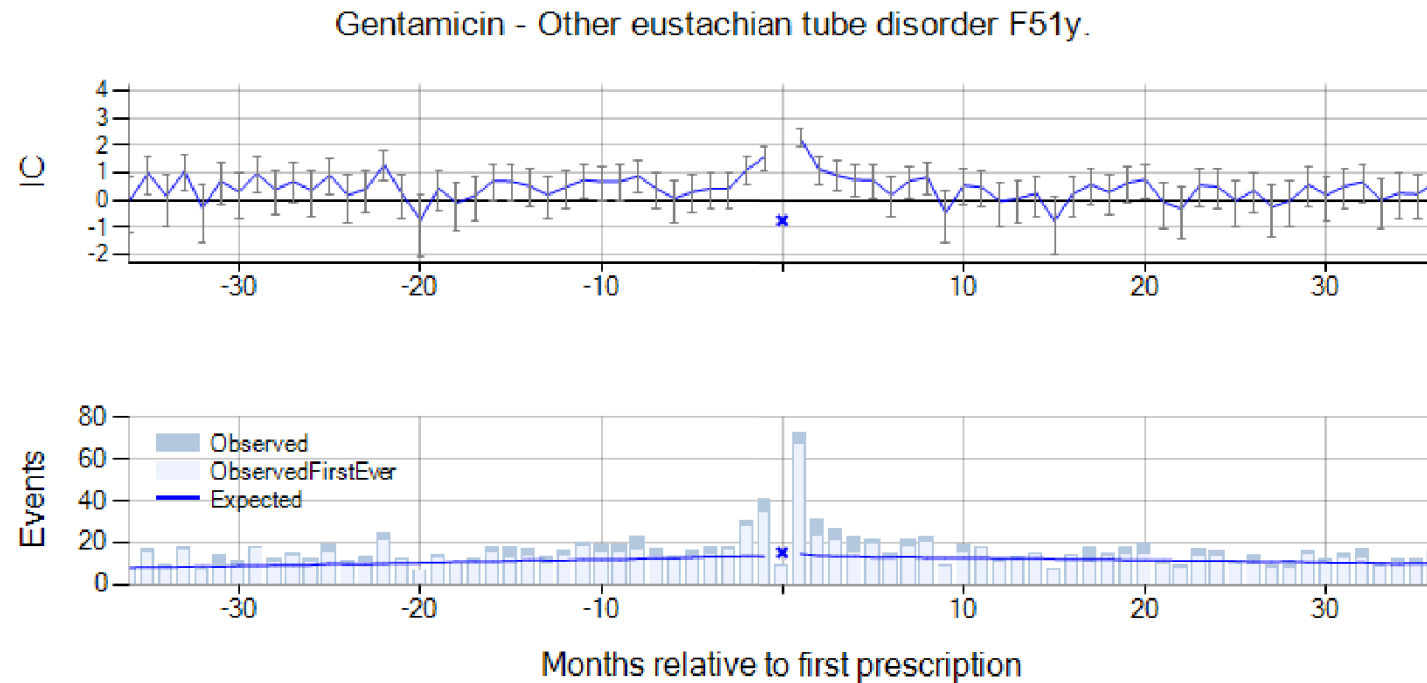
Prospective screening study

Cederholm et al.
Drug Safety, 2015



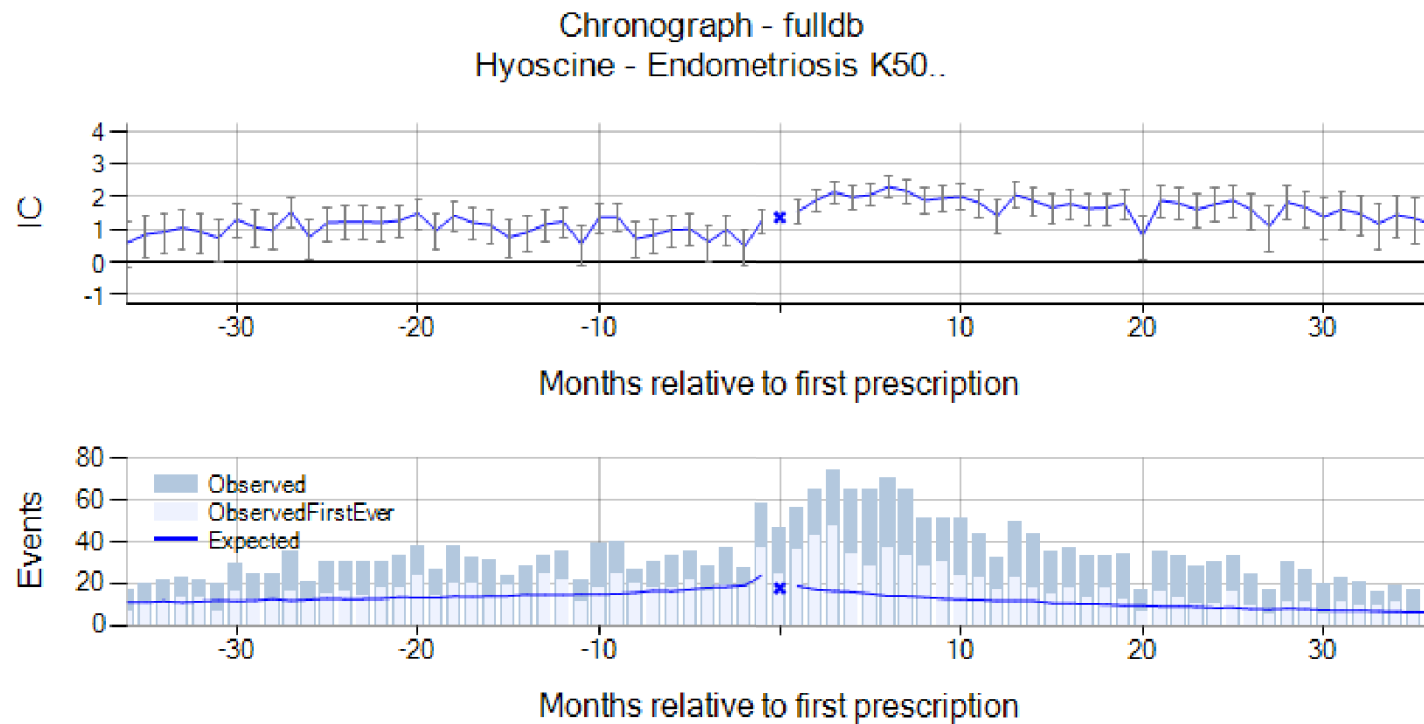
Confounding by underlying disease

Cederholm et al.
Drug Safety, 2015



Protopathic bias?

Cederholm et al.
Drug Safety, 2015



References

1. Norén GN, Hopstadius J, Bate A, Star K, Edwards IR. **Temporal pattern discovery in longitudinal electronic patient records.** *Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*, 2010. **20**(3):361-387.
2. Norén GN, Bergvall T, Ryan P, Juhlin K, Schuemie MJ, Madigan D. **Empirical Performance of the Calibrated Self-Controlled Cohort Analysis within Temporal Pattern Discovery: Lessons for Developing a Risk Identification and Analysis System.** *Drug Safety* 2013; **36**(S1):107-121.
3. Norén GN, Hopstadius J, Bate A. **Shrinkage observed-to-expected ratios for robust and transparent large-scale pattern discovery.** *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 2013; **22**(1):57-69.
4. Ryan PB, Stang PE, Overhage JM, Suchard MA, Hartzema AG, DuMouchel W, Reich CG, Schuemie MJ, Madigan D. **A Comparison of the Empirical Performance of Methods for a Risk Identification System.** *Drug Safety* 2013; **36**(S1):143-158.
5. Cederholm S, Hill G, Asiimwe A, Bate A, Bhayat F, Persson Brobert G, Bergvall T, Ansell D, Star K, Norén GN. **Structured assessment for prospective identification of safety signals in electronic medical records: evaluation in The Health Improvement Network.** *Drug Safety*, 2015; **38**(1):87-100.