



Quality Control of Qualitative Tests for Medical Laboratories

Introduction to the book

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What is required, and what is not, in the ISO standards? Which are the most significant sources of uncertainty? What is the similarity and difference between “Uncertainty Approach,” and “Error Approach”? Which models do we use to compute both methodologies? And which models to determine conditional accuracy, delta values, and seronegative window period? Which are the best models to compute the agreement of binary results? How do we identify “the best” cutoff point? How do we control the performance of the qualitative results in daily routine? More than 20 examples based on real-world data are presented. The book includes several cases of immunoassays and NAT for screening in virology, ABO blood test, HLA typing, and karyotype tests. The statistical quality control tools applied to the examples are generic; they can be used in most of the qualitative tests.



Paulo Pereira was born on March 10, 1972, in Lisbon, Portugal. He received his Ph.D. from the Catholic University of Portugal (Biotechnology, specialization in Microbiology). Dr. Pereira is a Senior Researcher and the Head of the Research & Development Department of the Portuguese Institute of Blood and Transplantation (IPST). He has been recruited as a Quality and Laboratory Expert for seminars and professional laboratory meetings throughout Europe, South America, and Africa. He has 25+ years of experience in a medical laboratory, having held key scientific leadership roles: 9+ years as a Medical Technician, 15+ years as a Researcher, and 5+ years as a Consultant of a Metrology Laboratory. He has been working for 20+ years as a Consultant and Auditor of Quality Management Systems and Technical Requirements (ISO 9001, ISO/IEC 17025, ISO 15189, and ISO 13485). He has 15+ years of experience as a Quality Manager and the National Coordinator of Quality Assurance in the IPST. He has 15+ years of experience as a University Professor. He has authored several peer-review scientific and technical articles, and several indexed book chapters. He is also a reviewer of several scientific and technical articles and a member of Editorial Boards. Dr. Pereira is a Technical expert on CLSI Document Development Committee on EP12.



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Why publish a book called “Quality control of qualitative tests for medical laboratories”?

- Address the need for a book dedicated to quality control of qualitative tests
- There is a book written primarily for the laboratorian and aims to substantiate the selection of the best statistical tools considering the intended use of the qualitative tests’ results (fitness for purpose)
- The purpose of the book is to answer most of qualitative tests QC questions in a three-pronged vision: the statistical, the clinical and the regulatory vision

- The book seeks to answer questions important to laboratory practice such as:
 - What is required, and what is not, in the ISO standards?
 - Which are the most significant sources of uncertainty?
 - What is the similarity and difference between “Uncertainty Approach,” and “Error Approach”?
 - Which models do we use to compute both methodologies?
 - And which models to determine conditional accuracy, delta values, and seronegative window period?
 - Which are the best models to compute the agreement of binary results?
 - How do we identify “the best” cutoff point?
 - How do we control the performance of the qualitative results in daily routine?
- More than 20 examples based on real-world data are presented
- The book includes several cases of immunoassays and NAT for screening in virology, ABO blood test, HLA typing, and karyotype tests
- The statistical quality control tools applied to the examples are generic; they can be used in most of the qualitative tests
- Approx. 200 pages printed on coated paper (couché) 90 grams; cover printed on 170 gram coated paper with soft-touch plastic coating; 2mm hard card cover

Quality Control of Qualitative Tests
for Medical Laboratories

by Paulo Pereira, Ph.D.

CD is part of the book and cannot be sold separately

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Why include a CD with spreadsheets?

- For a more natural comprehension of the approaches
- Facilitate the understanding of theory based on practice
- A practical way to demonstrate the case studies included in the book
- The laboratorian can easily replicate the models for his practice
- All the computations can be done using a conventional computer spreadsheet
- Excel[®] (Microsoft[®], Redmond, Washington, USA) is immediately recognized as very intuitive software for laboratorian
- Readers will receive free updates to the spreadsheet package

Chapter 1 – ISO compliance

1.1 Introduction

ISO defines “quality” as the “degree to which a set of inherent characteristics of an object fulfills requirements” (3.6.2 of [1]). In medical laboratories, a requirement is referred to as a “need or expectation that is stated, generally implied or obligatory” (3.6.4 of [1]). For instance, an ISO 15189 performance specification such as the allowable total error (ATE), or any other target or goal, can be classified using adjectives such as “poor,” “good” or “excellent.” Otherwise, “quality control” is defined as the “part of quality management focused on fulfilling quality requirements” (3.3.7 of [1]). It cannot be seen merely as an individual group of specifications as it is dependent on the quality management system (QMS) dynamics. Note that a lab QMS involves not only the application of a PDCA (plan-do-check-act) cycle, but also support resources / methodologies, such as personnel, laboratory equipment, infrastructure including information technology (IT), accommodation, environmental conditions for the operation of processes, monitoring and measurement resources, communication, documented information, and organizational knowledge [2].

The execution of the pre-examination, examination, and post-examination phases is also dependent on the support resources / methodologies. ISO defines “quality policy” as the “intentions and direction of an organization as formally expressed by its top management” (3.5.8 of [1]) “related to quality” (3.5.9 of [1]). Therefore, a successful quality policy (5.2.1) of [2] is also dependent on the dynamics and effectiveness of the support resources. The policy must also be in accordance with the ISO specification in any med lab accredited or certified to an ISO standard. This Chapter primarily discusses ISO 15189 [3] technical specifications from a qualitative test perspective. ISO 9001 is a general QMS standard implemented in several laboratories in a technical specifications logic, especially in Europe [4].

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good quality control practices manual. For

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- **Chapter 1 – ISO compliance** introduces mainly ISO 15189 for the accreditation of medical laboratory methods or tests
- For a consistent application of this global standard, the laboratorian must understand its specifications
- We have discussed the use of most of its technical requirements that involve the selection, verification, validation, measurement uncertainty, internal quality control, and external quality assessment / proficiency testing (EQA / PT) of qualitative results
- Moreover, we have crossed ISO 15189 with ISO 9001 requirements for a more natural interpretation of this guideline, which is oriented to a generic implementation of a quality management system
- How do we meet the referred ISO claims? See the following chapters for suggested methodologies

Chapter 2 – Significant causes of uncertainty in qualitative tests

2.1 Introduction

The recognition of uncertainty sources is needed for a more sustained quality control policy. "Uncertainty Approach" [1] defines the measurement uncertainty as of the "non-negative parameter characterizing the dispersion of the quantity values being attributed to a measurand, based on the information used" (2.26 of [2]). Therefore, when a qualitative result is classified on an ordinal scale according to a cutoff, the uncertainty can be viewed as the dispersion of the quantitative results that can contribute to false binary classifications. Uncertainty can nevertheless also be interpreted according to qualitative results as condition for the risk of false results" (3, 5.3.1 of [4]). All the components

- **Chapter 2 – Significant causes of uncertainty in qualitative tests** discusses the main sources of error that can cause untrue binary results
- As the test methodology is essential to recognize the most common analytical causes of failure, we have presented a brief overview of qualitative test design
- The impact of the analytical error on the cutoff trueness is discussed, as well as the effect of the analytical error on the accuracy of the classification of binary results
- The importance of the "gray zone" and the associated trinary classification to minimize the impact of analytical error in the results is debated
- The biased results due to biological factors are presented with a focus on the seroconversion window period
- The contribution of other possible sources of bias to the lack of representativeness of patients' samples is also pondered.
- The impact of interferences in bias is discussed
- This debate is important for a better focus on the use of the quality control tools that allow us to see what is and what is not measurable (limitation of the studies)

Chapter 3 – Measurement uncertainty and total analytical error in qualitative tests

3.1 Introduction

Currently, measurement uncertainty is probably the metrology issue that has more “unanswered” questions in the medical laboratory, contrary to total analytical error (TAE). What is measurement uncertainty? Why do we need to consider it? Is it similar to total analytical error? Should it replace total analytical error? Is it also influenced by bias? To clarify these issues, two models based on different metrological perspectives are discussed: measurement uncertainty conforming to “Uncertainty Approach” principles, and TAE following the “Error Approach” (also documented as Traditional Approach or True Value Approach). The “Uncertainty Approach” requires the root of the sum of the squared deviations to express measurement uncertainty and the “Error Approach” requires the sum of precision and bias to compute TAE. The Measurement Uncertainty and TAE are evaluated against target measurement uncertainty (2.34 of [1]) and allowable total

uncertainty and total analytical error in qualitative tests

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Average

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- **Chapter 3 – Measurement uncertainty and total analytical error in qualitative methods** introduces both the “Uncertainty Approach” and the “Error Approach”
- The challenge is to introduce the laboratorian to the similarities and differences of the visions, wherein empirical models are considered for both visions
- While not ignoring the usefulness of the modular models to the manufacturer, they are not discussed further here since they are not meant to be used in medical laboratory practice
- The models presented are based on recognized protocols in med lab requiring data from single-laboratory validation, interlaboratory comparisons or EQA/PT
- The importance of the metrological traceability of the results is considered
- Compliance assessment is associated with the empirical estimate of the “gray zone” and the limit of detection (LoD)
- The evaluation of analyte concentrations near the cutoff is presented as a complementary tool to estimate an identical zone

Chapter 4 – Performance of binary classification tests

4.1 Introduction

4.1 Introduction

Performance of binary classification (true / false, positive / negative) test can be determined by several statistical measures such as sensitivity and specificity. Diagnostic accuracy is one example of a statistical model to compute binary results of a diagnostic test to discriminate between diseased and non-diseased subjects or between two or more clinical states" [1]. It is probably the most recognized statistical measurement in medical laboratories to determine the performance of a qualitative test for the detection of infections. Nevertheless, some points require clarification for a more robust application. What is the added value of the confidence interval? What can be inferred to the population? What are the limitations of the evaluation?

A test result is considered "positive" if it is characteristic of a positive condition and "negative" if characteristic of negative condition populations. Although usually test results are negative when lower than the cutoff, and positive when equal or higher, this is not always the case, as for example when using a competitive method. For example, to diagnose hypothyroidism, T_4 is "positive" (characteristic of patients) if inferior to cutoff.

The statistical principles are based on Bayesian probability models. Typically, the methodology uses a 2x2 contingency table to compute the condition sensitivity and specificity using positive condition and negative condition samples, respectively. For an easier understanding, the Chapter mainly refers to the case of individuals with the disease (positive condition) and individuals without the disease (negative condition) with the performance interpreted as "diagnostic accuracy." The same logic can be applied to any other true condition (also referred to as target condition or condition of interest) as determined by the accuracy criteria. Examples include any other identifiable condition within an individual, such as a blood group, a karyotype, human leukocyte

- **Chapter 4 – Performance of binary classification tests** is based on condition accuracy, probably the most well-known methodology for validating qualitative results
- In this chapter, we introduce the basis of the statistics concepts applied and discuss the importance of the samples to the robustness of the estimates
- We have used 2x2 contingency tables, followed by a discussion about the value of the analysis of the numerical data to distinguish between two or more tests with identical condition sensitivity and specificity
- The concept of “condition uncertainty” is introduced, analogous to the “measurement uncertainty” of quantitative dimensions
- The window period is presented using a binary and trinary

Chapter 5 – Agreement of binary classification tests

5.1 Introduction

5.1 Introduction

Every so often, samples with the known condition for evaluating qualitative tests are not available, especially those intended to detect rare conditions, such as diseases. As an alternative, samples with known results in a comparator test are suggested (10.2 of [1]). A disadvantage is that it is not possible to compute condition accuracy rates (see **Chapter 4**). Sometimes the agreement is misunderstood with condition accuracy recognized, as condition accuracy rates require evidenced-based condition information as diagnostic info. Condition sensitivity and specificity cannot be determined just by the results of a test that is not a “gold standard” (see 4.3.1). Misinterpretation of the accuracy of results of a new test could, therefore, happen, and the correct use of the binary may be compromised. If the positive condition and negative condition samples are not available, one could ask a few questions. How do we determine the agreement of binary results? Does the confidence interval add value to the evaluation? Can the agreement be inferred to the population? What are the limitations of the study?

Chapter presents a set of good practices to guarantee reliable characteristics are suited to support the robust use of the models.

The Chapter presents a set of good practices to guarantee reliable agreement evaluations. These practices are suited to support the robust use of agreement methods. Real-world data is used to illustrate the models.

5.2 Principles

5.2 Principles

The purpose of the agreement of binary results is to evaluate a test based on the agreement of the results of a candidate and a comparative test. The comparator results are assumed as those with the highest probability of being true. Thus, the accuracy of the study depends on the comparative test performance. This test should not be confused with a "gold standard." Thus, the comparator should show at least state-of-the-art performance, i.e., a demonstrated top performance of condition accuracy. This information can be collected in a review of the literature for most of the assays. The candidate test performance decreases proportionally with the number of discrepant results against the comparative assay. Then, the selection of the comparator is critical to the reliability and consistency of the evaluation. For example, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) ranking (V.C.1 of [2]) classifies the quality of a comparative method as follows:

... "a quantitative reference method (...) with the appropriate cutoff results";

- type A as “a quantitative reference method”; value for the positive and negative results”;
- type B as “a qualitative reference method (...)”;

the positive agreement is equivalent to condition (4.4.2). The statistical principles considered are similar to those used to test the false rates and the confidence interval. Again, the value of the positive agreement is exclusively associated with the samples of positives. Let us assume the cases where 95% of positive agreement results $\in [90, 100]$.

Five test results		Total
Negative ($X = 0$)	b, α -error	$a + b$
	d	$c + d$
	$b + d$	n

n	of binary results of two test.
1	1
2	3
3	7
4	15
5	31
6	63
7	127
8	255
9	511
10	1023
11	2047
12	4095
13	8191
14	16383
15	32767
16	65535
17	131071
18	262143
19	524287
20	1048575
21	2097151
22	4194303
23	8388607
24	16777215
25	33554431
26	67108863
27	134217727
28	268435455
29	536870911
30	1073741823
31	2147483647
32	4294967295
33	8589934591
34	17179869183
35	34359738367
36	68719476735
37	137438953471
38	274877906943
39	549755813887
40	1099511627775
41	2199023255551
42	4398046511103
43	8796093022207
44	17592186044415
45	35184372088831
46	70368744177663
47	140737488355327
48	281474976710655
49	562949953421311
50	1125899906842623
51	2251799813685247
52	4503599627370495
53	9007199254740991
54	18014398509481983
55	36028797018963967
56	72057594037927935
57	144115188075855871
58	288230376151711743
59	576460752303423487
60	1152921504606846975
61	2305843009213693951
62	4611686018427387903
63	9223372036854775807
64	18446744073709551615
65	36893488147419103231
66	73786976294838206463
67	147573952589676412927
68	295147905179352825855
69	590295810358705651711
70	1180591620717411303423
71	2361183241434822606847
72	4722366482869645213695
73	9444732965739290427391
74	18889465931478580854783
75	37778931862957161709567
76	75557863725914323419135
77	151115727451828646838271
78	302231454903657293676543
79	604462909807314587353087
80	1208925819614629174706175
81	2417851639229258349412351
82	4835703278458516698824703
83	9671406556917033397649407
84	19342813113834066795298815
85	38685626227668133590597631
86	77371252455336267181195263
87	154742504910672534362390527
88	309485009821345068724781055
89	618970019642690137449562111
90	1237940039285380274899124223
91	2475880078570760549798248447
92	4951760157141521099596496895
93	9903520314283042199192993791
94	19807040628566084398385987583
95	39614081257132168796771975167
96	79228162514264337593543950335
97	158456325028528675187087900671
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99	633825300114114700748351602687
100	1267650600228229401496703205375

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 $\dots + c) / n)^{1/2}$, and

- **Chapter 5 – Agreement of binary classification tests** is intended to lead the reader to validation where samples with a true condition are unavailable
- Since the consistency of the results is dependent on the comparative test performance, its selection should be applied uniquely if the condition is unknown

Chapter 6 – Computation of the cutoff for “in-house” and modified tests

6.1 Introduction

6.1 Introduction

The clinical decision point is defined as the test decision value (threshold) that differentiates positive from negative results, referred to as the "cutoff." A sensitivity-specificity tradeoff derived from the cutoff choice usually happens, i.e., an increase in sensitivity is accompanied by a reduction in specificity and vice versa. The only exception is when the efficiency is 100% (see 4.4.5 a). Manufacturers have the role of identifying "the best" discriminator on the ordinal scale suited to the purpose of the test, for example, for identifying infectious samples of individuals. A "best" tradeoff. Assuming a screening purpose of the test, for example, in the Blood Bank, the focus is on a "better" cutoff is associated with a "best" specificity (see 4.4.3). Other clinical

- **Chapter 6 – Computation of the cutoff for “in-house” and modified tests**, as the title refers, applies solely to tests prepared in the laboratory requiring cutoff determination
- The “realism” of the cutoff does not depend only on the samples but also on the intended use of the results
- Usually, false-positive results are better accepted than false-negative ones
- The computation of the cutoff by the receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) is discussed
- Although we have tried to use the most accessible language, it is probably the most complex statistical model presented in this book
- However, its principle is simple: it provides the various condition sensitivities and specificities for all the possible cutoff points
- The laboratorian selects the point that meets the requirements related to the intended use of the results, i.e., according to the clinical application
- An area ranking allows the classification of the detection capability of the test for a certain cutoff

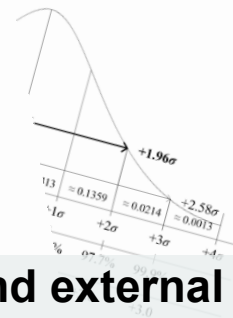
Chapter 7 – Internal quality control and external quality assessment / proficiency testing

7.1 Introduction

Internal Quality Control (IQC) is intended to assure that reported results comply with claimed specifications, i.e., results do not have a high risk of being misclassified. An IQC protocol should be established to ensure that the number of incorrect patient results reported when a measurand is out of control is minimized. The protocol should cover the entire 24 hours working period of the laboratory.

Compared to method validation, IQC methodology is more straightforward to be used in “daily” practice. A quality control (QC) material is required to monitor run to run performance (see 7.4). From the laboratorians’ point of view, the control procedure should merely alert when the assay has a significant error, giving a real alarm, and not alert when an error is clinically nonsignificant. Therefore, the operator should be focused only on “true alarms” without wasting time on “false alarms.” An example of a “false alarm” is the rejection of a run when no errors are occurring except for the inherent random method error. On the other hand, an example of a “true alarm” is the rejection of a run when there is an error occurring in addition to the stable or inherent random error. In an ideal case, an alarm should appear whenever a medically important mistake occurs in an analytical run.

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- Chapter 7 – Internal quality control and external quality assessment / proficiency testing debate models suitable for qualitative tests
- The internal quality control principles are discussed to aid the selection of the best designs based on a qualitative logic
- Demystification of control rules in qualitative tests statistically and clinically supported
- Novel approaches to compute sigma metrics in qualitative tests
- The DPMO-derived and SE_{crit} -derived sigma metrics express the capability of tests to meet the specifications
- Models are presented for variables using numerical results (ordinal tests), and an application to monitor “pure” qualitative results (nominal tests)
- Both methodologies are intended to control the loss of sensitivity in the qualitative tests
- EQA /PT is introduced