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COMMITTEE FOR VETERINARY MEDICINAL PRODUCTS

NOTE FOR GUIDANCE:

APPROACH TOWARDS HARMONISATION OF WITHDRAWAL PERIODS

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COMMITTEE FOR VETERINARY MEDICINAL PRODUCTS

APPROACH TOWARDS HARMONISATION OF WITHDRAWAL PERIODS

1. Even where Community MRLs have been established, similar products in various Member States may differ greatly with respect to the withdrawal periods established by national authorities.
2. A greater degree of harmonisation would be possible if a standard approach for calculating the withdrawal period was adopted throughout the European Union. Moreover, this would also be helpful in establishing withdrawal periods under the new procedures, particularly the centralised procedure. In addition, it would aid the arbitration procedure if differing withdrawal periods became an issue under the decentralised system.
3. At the present time, most Member States employ a simple method whereby the withdrawal period is set at the time when residues in all tissues in all the animals have depleted to below the respective MRL values. In addition some Member States then add an additional safety period if for example there are large variations in the depletion data set, or there are other shortcomings found in the studies.
Some Member States use statistical methods to establish withdrawal periods.
4. The Committee considers that the statistical approach offers the greatest opportunity for harmonisation but recognises there are occasions when a simpler, more pragmatic approach is necessary and recommends the following :

New chemical entities

5. As residue depletion studies for the establishment of withdrawal periods should be conducted in accordance with Volume VI of the Rules governing Medicinal Products in the European Community, data will be sufficiently adequate to use a statistical method.
6. The statistical method chosen would be at the discretion of the applicant but methods, such as the one presented in Annex or the one used by the US FDA would be acceptable. Whichever method is chosen, it should be justified by the applicant and supported with adequate documentation.

Old chemical entities

7. In many cases, depletion studies could have been conducted before the publication of the requirements indicated in Volume VI, so that data are insufficient to evaluate the withdrawal period by a statistical method.

So, the use of a simplified approach is necessary. This could take the form already employed by the majority of Member States : the withdrawal time corresponds to the time point at which the concentrations of residues in all tissues for all animals fall below the respective MRLs.

The objective of the present paper is to provide guidance on how to establish withdrawal periods for edible tissues of food producing animals.

Emphasis has been put on a statistical approach. As the method of first choice, linear regression technique is recommended. Data from an actual residue study were used to demonstrate the applicability of this recognized statistical technique. A step by step procedure is described which has been drawn up with the FDA guideline (1, 2) as a basis. It is recommended in this paper to determine withdrawal periods at the time when the upper one-sided 95 % tolerance limit for the residue is below the MRL with 95 % confidence. However, for comparison of approaches (cf. FDA), 99 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence are also calculated.

The paper also discusses:

- a possible alternative approach (whenever data do not permit the use of the statistical model),
- injection site residues,
- Annex II compounds,
- generic products.

A point not covered by this paper is the establishment of withdrawal periods for milk. However, specific problems concerning milk will be discussed.

**STATISTICAL APPROACH TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF
WITHDRAWAL PERIODS**

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STATISTICAL APPROACH TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF WITHDRAWAL PERIODS

1. *General considerations*

1.1 *Statistical approach*

1.1.1 *Calculation model*

The calculation model for the statistical determination of withdrawal periods is based on accepted pharmacokinetic principles. According to the pharmacokinetic compartment model, the relationship between drug concentration and time through all phases of absorption, distribution and elimination is usually described by multiexponential mathematical terms. However, the terminal elimination of a drug from tissues, the residue depletion, in most cases follows a one compartment model and is sufficiently described by one exponential term. The first order kinetic equation for this terminal elimination is:

$$C_t = C_o' e^{-kt}$$

C_t is the concentration at time t , C_o' is a pre-exponential term (fictitious concentration at $t=0$) and k is the elimination rate constant.

Linearity of the plot $\log_e C$ versus time indicates that the model for residue depletion is applicable and linear regression analysis of the logarithmic transformed data can be considered for the calculation of withdrawal periods.

1.1.2 *Data base*

Regression analysis requires data which are independent from each other. Normally, residue depletion data meet this assumption because they originate from individual animals. In cases of duplicate or triplicate measurements of samples the mean value of each sample has to be used for the calculation. To avoid biasing slope and intercept, each data point of the regression line should originate from the same number of repeated sample measurements. However, the effect of the analytical error on the final results, in most cases, is very small compared with the effect of animal to animal variability.

The FDA (1) recommends excluding from the calculation data observed as below the limit of detection. In the Committee's opinion, this approach biases the regression line. As the low concentrations are due to real empirical observations they should not be ignored.

Therefore, setting the data which are below the limit of detection or quantitation ('less than' values) to one-half of the respective limit is recommended. Alternatively, special procedures may be applied in order to estimate the expected values for missing data. Possible approaches are described by Helsel or Newman (11, 12).

When all or most of the reported data of a slaughter day are 'less than' values it should be considered to exclude the whole time point. However, it should be borne in mind that 3 time points are necessary to allow a meaningful regression analysis. Theoretically, a minimum number of 3 animals at each of a minimum of 3 slaughter times in the \log_e -linear phase of the terminal elimination of residues is required at least.

Suggestions on the numbers of animals to be used for residue depletion studies have been made in Volume VI of The Rules Governing Medicinal Products in the EC, Part IV (Oct. 1991). There, depending on the animal species, 4-10 animals per time point are recommended. The FDA (1) suggests to provide residue data of 20 animals with 5 animals being slaughtered at each of 4 evenly distributed time points.

Remark: Usually, analytical values are reported as they are measured (uncorrected for recovery) with supporting data involving recovery experiments. Therefore, in these cases a correction for recovery has to be carried out prior to any calculation of withdrawal periods.

1.1.3 Linear regression analysis assumptions

It is necessary for linear regression analysis that the following regression assumptions are valid:

- assumption of homogeneity of variances of the \log_e -transformed data on each slaughter day,
- assumption of linearity of the \log_e -transformed data versus time,
- assumption of a normal distribution of the errors.

1.1.3.1 Homogeneity of variances

It should be confirmed that the variances of the \log_e -transformed concentrations of the different slaughter days are homogeneous.

Several tests are available. The FDA (1, 2) recommends Bartlett's test. Bartlett's test is said to be the most powerful test, but it is extremely sensitive to deviations from normality. Furthermore, the test should only be used, when each group numbers 5 or more. Equal sample sizes are not required (3).

Other commonly used tests for homogeneity of variances are Hartley's test and Cochran's test. Hartley's test can only be used if all groups are of the same size (3).

In the Committee's view, Cochran's test is the best choice. It is easier to perform than the test of Bartlett, and it uses more information than Hartley's test. Furthermore, it is not as sensitive to departures from normality than the test of Bartlett. Cochran's test may be used for data whose group sizes do not differ substantially by calculating the harmonic mean of the group sizes.

1.1.3.2 Log_e -linearity

Visual inspection of a plot of the data is often sufficient to assure that there is a useful linear relationship. Obvious deviations from linearity at early time points may indicate that the drug distribution processes have not yet ended. These time points should therefore be excluded. Deviations from linearity at late time points may be due to concentrations below the limit of detection. Depletion kinetics can not be observed at these time points, and it is justified to exclude these data. It should, however, be borne in mind that all other time points have to be kept, unless there is a clear justification for their omission.

For statistical assurance of the linearity of the regression line an analysis of variances has to be performed (lack of fit test). The usual procedure is to compare the variation between group means and the regression line with the variation between animals within groups (see Section 2, Step 5).

An appropriate supplementation to the lack of fit test is the test of the significance of the quadratic time effect according to Mandel (10). The question is, whether a quadratic fit is better than the linear fit. The calculation procedure is described in Annex C of this paper.

1.1.3.3 Normality of errors

A good visual test is to plot the ordered residuals versus their cumulative frequency distribution on a normal probability scale. Residuals are the differences between the observed values and their expectations (i.e. the difference between the observed \log_e -transformed concentration and the value predicted by the regression line).

A straight line indicates that the observed distribution of residuals is consistent with the assumption of a normal distribution. In order to verify the results of the residual plot, the Shapiro-Wilk test can be applied. This test has been shown to be effective even if sample sizes are small (4).

The plot of the cumulative frequency distribution of the residuals can be used as a very sensitive test. Deviations from a straight line, indicating non normality of the residuals, may be due to:

- deviations from normality of the \log_e -transformed residue concentrations within one or more slaughter groups,
- deviations from \log_e -linearity of the regression line,
- non-homogeneity of variances,
- outliers.

In the selected presentation of the data using standardized residuals (standardized by dividing by the residual error $s_{y,x}$), an outlier would have a value < -4 or $> +4$, indicating that the residual is 4 standard deviations off the regression line (see Fig. 2, 3).

1.1.4 Estimation of withdrawal periods by regression analysis

The withdrawal period should be estimated using the results of linear regression calculations. Withdrawal periods are determined at the time when the upper one-sided tolerance limit with a given confidence is below the MRL. If this time point does not make up a full day, the withdrawal period is to be rounded up to the next day.

The FDA (1, 2) recommends to calculate the 99th percentile of the population with a 95 % confidence level by a procedure which requires the noncentral t-distribution.

The calculation of the one-sided upper tolerance limit (95 % or 99 %) with a 95 % confidence according to K. Stange (5) is proposed in this paper. This method of calculation has comparable results (see Annex B) and is easier to perform since only the percentage points of the standardized normal distribution are required.

With the Stange equation one estimates (with a confidence of $1 - \alpha$) the proportion of $1 - \alpha$ of the population which at least is to be expected to be below the one-sided upper tolerance limit. The respective percentage points of the standardized normal distribution are $u_{1-\alpha}$ and $u_{1-\alpha}$ (e.g. for $1 - \alpha = 0.95$ is $u_{1-\alpha} = 1.6449$, for $1 - \alpha = 0.95$ is $u_{1-\alpha} = 1.6449$, and for $1 - \alpha = 0.99$ is $u_{1-\alpha} = 2.32635$).

The equation published by K. Stange (5) is:

$$y = a + bx + k_T s_{y.x}$$

with

$$k_T = \frac{\sqrt{(2n - 4)}}{(2n - 4)^* - u_{1-}^2} \sqrt{(2n - 4)^*} u_{1-} + u_{1-} W_n$$

$$W_n = \sqrt{u_{1-}^2 + [(2n - 4)^* - u_{1-}^2] \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}} \right]}$$

$$S_{xx} = \sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum x_i \right)^2$$

$s_{y.x}$ = residual error $()^* = (2n-5)$, according to Graf et al. (6)

A revised version of the Stange equation (using the term (2n–5) instead of (2n–4) in the three parentheses marked above by an asterix) was published by Graf et al. in 1987 (6). The use of this equation results in slightly higher tolerance limits. According to Stange (5) the equation is valid for n ≥ 10, whereas Graf et al. (6) restrict validity to n ≥ 20.

A listing of data comparing the results of both equations to the results of the FDA procedure can be found in Annex B1 of this paper.

Remark: For reasons discussed below (see Section 3) the selection of the 95 % tolerance limit with 95 % confidence should be preferred.

1.2 Possible alternative approach

Whenever data available do not permit the use of the statistical model, an alternative approach has to be considered in order to estimate withdrawal periods.

A general recommendation for such a procedure (in particular when dealing with old substances) can not be provided. A specific approach depends on many parameters such as sample size, number and day positioning of slaughter times, variation of the data, analytical factors (e.g. level of the detection limit).

One concept is the establishing of the withdrawal period at the time point where the concentrations of residues in all tissues for all animals are below the respective MRLs (13). However, when one has determined that time point, the estimation of a safety span should be considered in order to compensate for the uncertainties of biological variability.

The dimension of a safety span depends on various, not easy to specify factors which are decided by the study design, the quality of the data and finally by the pharmacokinetic properties of the drug. As a result, an overall recommendation can not be provided. An approximate guide for a safety span is likely to be a value of 10% - 30% of the time period, when all observations are below the MRL. Alternatively, a safety span might be calculated as well from the tissue depletion half-life, possibly a value of 1-3 times $t_{1/2}$.

1.3 Injection site residues

When considering the establishment of withdrawal periods for parenterally administered drugs it is important to take into account the residues of the intramuscular (i.m.) or subcutaneous (s.c.) injection site. A working document setting out an approach to deal with residues at the injection site was adopted by the CVMP on its 48th meeting in Nov. 1994 (14).

The following approach was recommended: "For drugs where the target tissue or one of the target tissues is muscle, national authorities should set withdrawal periods on the basis of the MRL for muscle. The injection site and its residues would be treated as 'normal' muscle and the withdrawal period based on residues depletion to below the MRL at the injection site. Where muscle is not a target tissue and hence there is no MRL for muscle, national authorities should ensure that the withdrawal period is established to ensure that the ADI is not exceeded when the usual food package is consumed. Here, the usual food intake package of 300 g of muscle would be considered to include the injection site" (see Section 2, Step 8 for an example).

2. *Example for the statistical analysis of residue data*

Data constructed from an empirical residue depletion study on cattle treated subcutaneously with a veterinary drug were used to demonstrate the applicability of the statistical model for the estimation of withdrawal periods. The residue data for the marker residue in the target tissues liver and fat are listed in Table 1 (see Annex A). An ADI of 35 µg per day for a 60 kg person has been assumed for the total residue. The MRLs for the marker residue have then been set at 30 µg/kg and 20 µg/kg for liver and fat, respectively.

Calculation procedure

Step 1: Inspection of the data (listed in Table 1, Annex A)

As discussed earlier, data below the limit of detection (i.e. 2 µg/kg) were set to one-half of the detection limit (i.e. 1.0 µg/kg).

For fat, the day 35 was excluded from calculation because of too many values below the detection limit (10 of 12 observations). Data for liver on day 35 were not available.

Step 2: Calculation of the linear regression parameters of the \log_e -transformed data

Table 2: Linear regression parameters

Parameter	Liver	Fat
Number of values *)	n = 48	n = 48
Intercept	a = 5.64 ± 0.35	a = 5.84 ± 0.36
Slope	b = -0.16 ± 0.02	b = -0.17 ± 0.02
Correlation coefficient	r = -0.7927	r = -0.8026
Residual error	$s_{v,x} = 0.9930$	$s_{v,x} = 1.0258$

*) excluded data: day 35 for fat (day 35 for liver: not assayed)

Step 3: Visual inspection of the regression line

Both the regression line for liver and the regression line for fat passed through all slaughter groups. No time points have to be excluded at the end or at the beginning of the line (see Fig. 4 and 5).

Step 4: Homogeneity of variances

Due to the amount of data given per group and due to the equal group sizes, it was possible to use all three tests discussed above. The equations and percentage points have been published in L. Sachs (3). The results of the tests are summarized in the Tables 3-5.

Table 3: Bartlett's test

Tissue	Test value	Degrees of freedom	Probability	Significance
liver	$\hat{\chi}^2 = 4.24$	df = 3	P > 0.05	n.s.
fat	$\hat{\chi}^2 = 5.95$	df = 3	P > 0.05	n.s.

n.s.: differences are not significant

Table 4: Cochran's test

Tissue	Test value	Degrees of freedom	Probability	Significance
liver	$\hat{G}_{max} = 0.343$	df ₁ = 11 df ₂ = 4	P > 0.05	n.s.
fat	$\hat{G}_{max} = 0.442$	df ₁ = 11 df ₂ = 4	P > 0.05	n.s.

n.s.: differences are not significant

Table 5: Hartley's test

Tissue	Test value	Degrees of freedom	Probability	Significance
liver	$\hat{F}_{max} = 3.46$	df ₁ = 4 df ₂ = 11	P > 0.05	n.s.
fat	$\hat{F}_{max} = 4.68$	df ₁ = 4 df ₂ = 11	P > 0.05	n.s.

n.s.: differences are not significant

Conclusion: The variances of the log_e-transformed data at each time point are homogeneous.

Step 5: Analysis of variances (showing lack of fit) according to L. Sachs (3)

The ratio

$$\hat{F} = \frac{\text{MS between group means and the regression line}}{\text{MS within groups}}$$

was calculated and compared to the 5 % percentage point of the F-distribution. Generally, a significant ratio indicates that the log_e-linear model appears to be inadequate.

Table 6: ANOVA table for liver

Source of variation	Degrees of freedom	Sum of square (SS)	Mean square (MS=SS/df)
Between group means and the regression line	2	0.784	0.3919
Within groups (departure of y-values from their group mean)	44	44.573	1.0130
\hat{F} (test) = 0.3869 (df ₁ = 2, df ₂ = 44) P>0.05 n.s.			

n.s.: no significant deviation from linearity

Table 7: ANOVA table for fat

Source of variation	Degrees of freedom	Sum of square (SS)	Mean square (MS= SS/df)
Between group means and the regression line	2	6.240	3.1199
Within groups (departure of y-values from their group mean)	44	42.165	0.9583
\hat{F} (test) = 3.2557 (df ₁ = 2, df ₂ = 44) 0.05> P>0.025 n.s. *)			

*) Potential deviation from linearity emerges.

Conclusion: In any case, the assumption of linearity of the log_e-transformed data versus time can be upheld for liver. In the case of fat a potential deviation from linearity emerges. A critical re-inspection of the plotted data (Fig. 5) suggests that day 7 may possibly belong to an earlier phase of residue depletion. Excluding day 7 from calculation might therefore be taken into account. This approach was not followed up here because the linearity assumption was not seriously violated.

Step 6: Calculation of residuals and plot of cumulative frequency distribution according to the recommendation of the FDA 1983 (2)

The plots for the ordered residuals (standardized by the residual error $s_{y,x}$) versus their cumulative frequency on a normal probability scale are shown in Figure 2 (liver) and Figure 3 (fat).

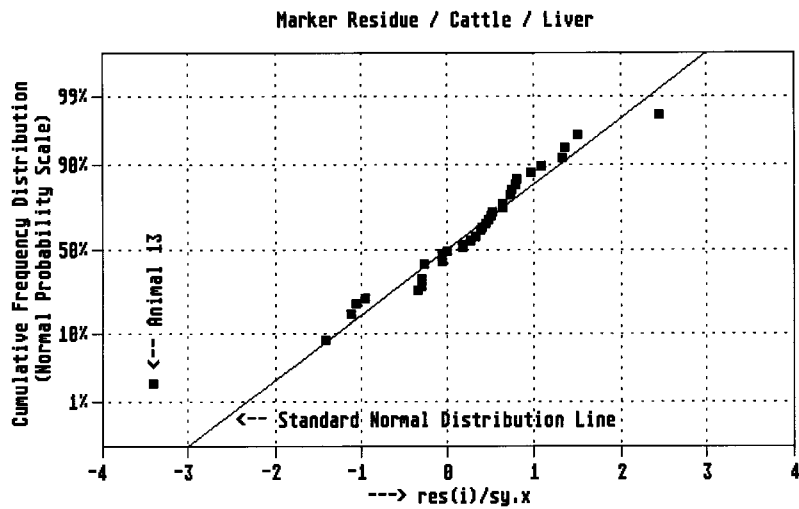


Fig. 2: Cumulative frequency distribution of residuals for liver

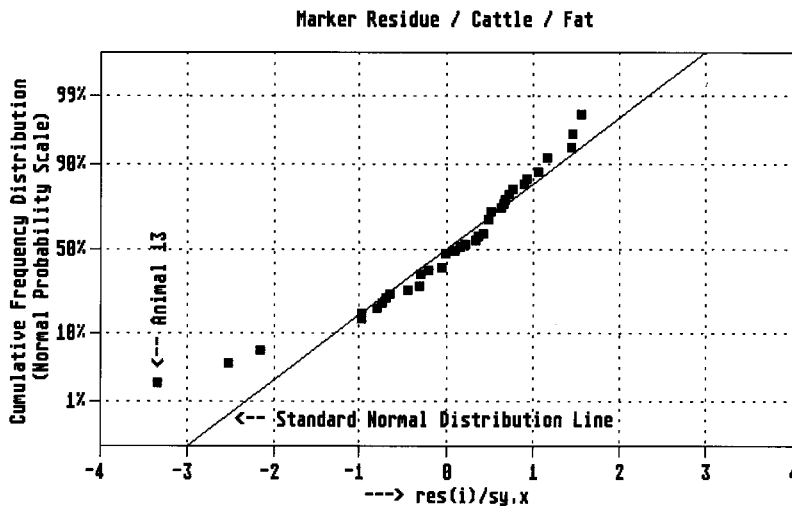


Fig. 3: Cumulative frequency distribution of residuals for fat

Conclusion: Fat shows a marked departure from the straight line at the negative end of this line. The value which deviates most belongs to the animal numbered 13. The plot for liver as well, shows that the sample of animal 13 deviates from the standard normal distribution line. This is a possible indication that the residue data of animal 13 tend to be outliers.

In order to verify the results of the residual plot, the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality was performed according to G. B. Wetherill (4). The coefficients required for calculation of the

test value \hat{W} were taken from Table C7 (see (4), pp. 378 - 379) and compared to the percentage points for the Shapiro-Wilk-test, published in Table C8 (see (4) p. 380). The assumption of a normal distribution (in this case a normal distribution of the errors) holds as long as the test value \hat{W} exceeds the 10 % percentage point for the given sample size.

Table 8: Shapiro-Wilk test

Tissue	Test value	n	Probability	Significance
Liver	$\hat{W} = 0.960$	48	$P > 0.10$	n.s.
Fat	$\hat{W} = 0.922$	48	$P < 0.01$	*)
Fat (animal 13 excl.)	$\hat{W} = 0.955$	47	$P > 0.10$	n.s.

n.s.: No significant deviation from normality; *) Significant deviation from normality

Conclusion: No deviation from normality could be observed for liver. For fat, there was a significant deviation of the errors from normality when testing all fat samples. As discussed above, the sample 13 may possibly be seen as outlier. Excluding animal 13 from calculation for fat, the distribution returned to normality.

Step 7: Calculation of the one-sided 95 % and 99 % upper tolerance limits (both with a 95 % confidence level) according to K. Stange (5):

The numerical values are summarized in Table 9 and 10. Plots of withdrawal period calculations for liver and fat are shown in Figures 4 and 5.

Table 9: Results for liver (full data set, including animal 13):

Days post dose	Statistical tolerance limits with 95 % confidence	
	95 % Tolerance limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	99 % Tolerance limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
26	35.7	77.9
27	30.9	67.4
28	26.8*	58.3
29	23.3	50.5
30	20.3	43.7
31	17.6	38.0
32	15.3	33.0
33	13.4	28.7*

*) below the MRL (30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) for liver

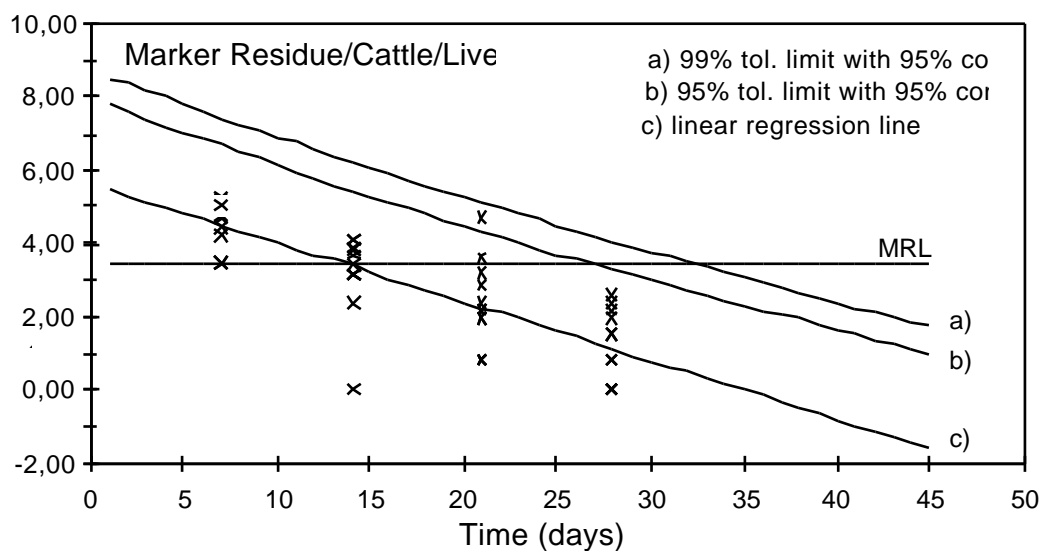


Fig. 4: Plot of withdrawal period calculation for liver

Table 10: Results for fat (full data set, including animal 13):

Days post dose	Statistical tolerance limits with 95 % confidence	
	95 % Tolerance limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	99 % Tolerance limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
26	35.1	78.6
27	30.1	67.2
28	25.8	57.5
29	22.2	49.3
30	19.1*	42.3
31	16.4	36.3
32	14.2	31.2
33	12.2	26.8
34	10.5	23.1
35	9.1	19.9*
36		17.2

*) below the MRL (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) for fat

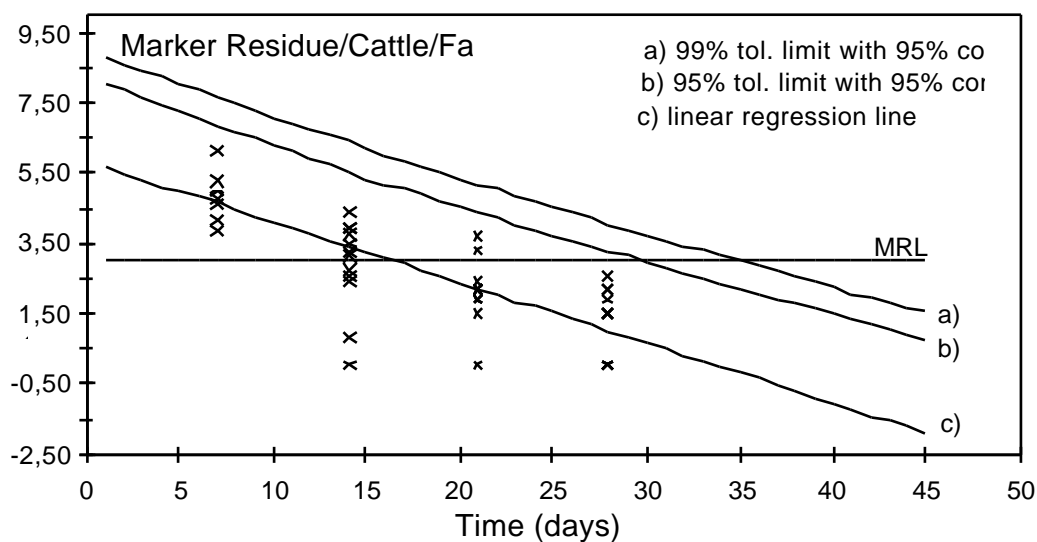


Fig. 5: Plot of withdrawal period calculation for fat

The MRLs for the target tissues liver and fat are 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ and 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$, respectively. The time points when the residues in fat and liver dropped below their MRLs are summarized in Table 11.

Table 11: Withdrawal periods obtained for the full data set including animal 13

Withdrawal times obtained from		Liver	Fat
95 % tolerance limit (95% conf.)		28 days	30 days
99 % tolerance limit (95% conf.)		33 days	35 days

Re-evaluation of data excluding animal 13

Table 12: Test results (excluding 13)

	Liver	Fat
Bartlett's test	$0.05 > P > 0.025$	$P > 0.05$
Cochran's test	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$
Lack of fit test	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$
Shapiro-Wilk test	$P > 0.10$	$P > 0.10$

The regression assumptions are not seriously violated.

Taking into account MRLs of 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ and 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ for liver and fat, respectively, the withdrawal times listed below were estimated:

Table 13: Withdrawal periods obtained (excluding 13)

Withdrawal times obtained from	Liver	Fat
95 % tolerance limit (95% conf.)	26 days	29 days
99 % tolerance limit (95% conf.)	31 days	33 days

Step 8: Estimation of the withdrawal period for the injection site (using an alternative approach)

In the example discussed here, the withdrawal periods estimated in Step 7 were based on the MRLs for the target tissues fat and liver. An MRL for muscle was not established for the drug under review. Therefore, the withdrawal period for injection site residues has to be calculated on the basis of the ADI being 35 µg (per day for a 60 kg person) for the total residue (listed in Table 1, Annex A).

It has to be shown that the ADI is not exceeded when the usual food package (0.5 kg) includes 0.3 kg injection site (instead of 'normal' muscle).

For this purpose, marker residue concentrations from Table 1 were converted to total residues according to the average ratios marker/total (0.3 for liver, fat and kidney, and 0.6 for injection site muscle), determined in a total residue depletion study. The daily intake of the total residue from each tissue type was calculated using the standard food consumption figures (300 g injection site, 100 g liver, 50 g kidney and 50 g fat). In other words, the total residue in the 0.5 kg food package was determined for each slaughter day by using the following equation:

$RI = (c_L \times F_L / R_L) + (c_K \times F_K / R_K) + (c_F \times F_F / R_F) + (c_M \times F_M / R_M)$ <p>RI = residue intake (µg) c = concentration of the marker residue (µg/kg) F = food consumption figures (0.3 kg muscle, 0.1 kg liver, 0.05 kg kidney, 0.05 kg fat) R = ratio marker residue vs. total residue (to be applied when the ADI refers to the total residues) Indices L, K, F, M = liver, kidney, fat and muscle (here injection site)</p>
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Day 28 was not excluded from calculation even though there were only 2 values (out of 12) above the limit of detection for the injection site. However, day 35 was excluded because data for liver and kidney were not available. Data below the limit of detection were set to one-half of the limit of detection. The results of this calculation are listed in the last column of Table 1 (Annex A).

As residue depletion from the injection site was rather erratic (high animal to animal variation) the statistical requirements for regression analysis were not met by these data

for the daily dietary residue intake. The data revealed a significant deviation from normality and the homogeneity of variances was slightly violated.

Table 14: Test results

Edible portion		
Bartlett's test	0.05 > P > 0.025	*
Lack of fit test	P > 0.05	n.s.
Shapiro-Wilk test	0.05 > P > 0.02	**

n.s.: no significant deviation from linearity

*) potential non-homogeneity of variances

***) significant deviation from normality

Furthermore, the tolerance limits crossed the ADI-line far after the time range when data for the total residue intake were available (95 % tolerance limit: day 35, 99 % tolerance limit: day 42). Since the time period between day 28 and day 35/42 was not covered by data and since the regression assumptions were not met, the statistical approach of setting a withdrawal period seemed to be inadequate.

Therefore, an alternative approach was applied:

Inspection of the data for the daily dietary residue intake (Table 1) showed that on day 28 the highest individual residue amount (calculated as 32.3 µg) was just below the ADI being 35 µg. In order to account for the high variability of the residue data, especially the variability of the injection site data, a safety span has to be added to the depletion time of 28 days. A safety span of 7 days can be seen as appropriate. This safety span corresponds to 25 % of the 28 day depletion time. The alternative approach would then result in a withdrawal period of 35 days.

On the whole, it should be noted here that any alternative approach is of course rather subjective and depends on the significance given to specific aspects of the information available.

Remark: The final withdrawal period has to be set in a way that the residues in all target tissues drop below their specific MRLs, and, in addition that the amount of residues in the edible portion drops below the ADI. This means, that in any case the longest withdrawal period has to be selected in order to be in full compliance with the MRLs and the ADI. In the example discussed here, the withdrawal times obtained from the statistical 95 % tolerance limits for fat and liver residues were 30 and 28 days, respectively. However, the withdrawal period of 35 days derived for the injection site would determine the conclusive withdrawal period.

3. *Discussion on the regression analysis*

Data on residues in cattle liver and fat (constructed from real empirical data) were analyzed by using a set of basic statistical tests in order to prove that linear regression analysis is an appropriate model for estimation of withdrawal periods. It was shown that assumptions on which the regression analysis is based could in principle be upheld when tested on these data. Only in the case of fat was the normality assumption violated (Shapiro-Wilk test). However, excluding one sample (which was suspected to be an outlier) the distribution of the fat data returned to a normal distribution.

The statistical procedure applied to these data revealed a number of problems associated with estimating withdrawal periods:

3.1 *To what extent a departure from the regression assumptions may be acceptable?*

The first general question is where to set the significance levels of the tests and to what extent a departure from the regression assumptions may be acceptable. And, should these assumptions absolutely dictate whether the calculation model can be used or not.

In other words, one could be faced with a situation in which the data do not sufficiently satisfy the statistical assumptions. In this situation one has to decide whether the calculation procedure should be stopped, strictly according to the rules of statistics or whether the calculation procedure may be continued under more investigative considerations: As far as the regression assumptions are not seriously violated the tolerance limits might be used as a reference for an appropriate safety span. In our view, this pragmatic approach will at least provide rough orientation for a potential withdrawal period.

3.2 *Withdrawal periods should be set by interpolation and not by extrapolation.*

In many cases the concentrations of the MRLs are close to the limit of quantitation of the analytical method which has been used to measure these residues. As a consequence, data nearest the time point when the upper tolerance limit crosses the MRL-line are not available. It seems, therefore, inevitable that the regression line and its tolerance interval have to be extrapolated to achieve a result.

Again, it has to be considered whether the treatment of the data should be done strictly according to the rules of statistics or whether an extrapolation can be allowed. In our view, a slight extrapolation may be possible because the depletion kinetic is assumed to be linear with time (\log_e -linearity). Furthermore, tolerance limits are described by hyperbolic curves. Accordingly, the withdrawal period is certainly not underestimated when derived by slight extrapolation.

Extrapolation has to be considered with care, when there is indication (e.g. from pharmacokinetic parameters) of a slower final depletion kinetic. Extrapolation far

removed from the range of observed data should be avoided. In cases when a withdrawal period can only be derived by a significant extrapolation, it should be considered to support the appropriateness of the extrapolated withdrawal period by additional residue data provided by the applicant subsequently.

3.3 *Should the 95 % or the 99 % tolerance limit be applied?*

Calculations were performed with both the 95 % and the 99 % onesided upper tolerance limits (each with a 95 % confidence level). Taking into account the MRLs proposed for the target tissues liver and fat, and using the full data set (including animal 13), withdrawal periods of 28/30 days (95 % tolerance limit) and 33/35 days (99 % tolerance limit) were calculated. These withdrawal periods were derived by a minimal extrapolation at the 95 % tolerance limit for fat and by increased extrapolation at the 99 % tolerance limit for both fat and liver.

When applying the 99 % tolerance limit one is often confronted with the problem of extreme extrapolation which may result in inadequate withdrawal periods. The 95 % tolerance limit in some cases may diminish the extrapolation problem and is therefore expected to provide more realistic withdrawal periods.

For the reasons above the more pragmatic approach - the selection of the 95 % tolerance limit for setting withdrawal periods - should be preferred.

3.4 *Dealing with 'less than' values*

Generally, these data can not be excluded from calculation a priori, since they are due to real observations concerning the depletion kinetics. As discussed earlier, setting these data to one-half of the detection or quantitation limit should be taken into account. 'Less than' values may also be estimated by special procedures (11, 12).

If, however, the majority of data from one slaughter day are below the limit of detection (or limit of quantitation) the whole time point should be excluded. This is to be the case, especially when the time point in question is a late one which is well off the regression line defined by the other data.

3.5 *Dealing with obvious outliers.*

For example, could there be any justification to reject the residue data measured for animal 13 of the present data set?

Inspection of the residue data indicated that animal 13 may possibly be an outlier. The residues in all the tissues of this animal (including the injection site) were at or below the limit of detection at a relative early time point post dose (day 14, see Table 1). As discussed earlier, the regression assumptions were violated for fat when the full data set was evaluated. Exclusion of animal 13 gave a more reliable basis for the statistical estimation of the withdrawal period.

Usually, due to the limited number of animals and due to the biological animal to animal variability, exclusion of values has to be considered with care. In order to prevent an automatism, a formal test for outliers was not taken into account in this paper. It may occur, however, that there is a clear reasoning for an exclusion.

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Annex A

Table 1: Individual results for the marker residue in cattle and calculated daily total residue intake (Data constructed from a real empirical data set)

Animal number	Days post dose	Liver	Fat	Kidney	Muscle	Inj.site	Daily intake*
		(µg/kg)					(µg)
1	7	85.5	96.8	27.0	11.3	123.8	111.0
2	7	141.8	225.0	29.3	11.3	74250.0	37214.7
3	7	198.0	213.8	47.3	15.8	6750.0	3484.5
4	7	31.5	48.3	18.0	4.5	n.a.	-
5	7	119.3	119.3	38.3	9.0	18000.0	9066.0
6	7	108.0	204.8	38.3	18.0	922.5	537.8
7	7	171.0	157.5	6.8	15.8	19125.0	9646.9
8	7	31.5	450.0	11.3	2.3	24.8	99.8
9	7	189.0	65.3	13.5	20.3	4050.0	2101.1
10	7	67.5	195.8	18.0	6.8	495.0	305.6
11	7	135.0	148.5	49.5	20.3	65.3	110.7
12	7	150.8	202.5	60.8	20.3	4500.0	2344.2
13	14	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	2.3	1.8
14	14	22.5	11.3	6.8	2.3	180.0	100.5
15	14	60.8	78.8	20.3	11.3	85.5	79.5
16	14	60.8	51.8	9.0	4.5	2025.0	1042.9
17	14	47.3	33.8	13.5	4.5	121.5	84.4
18	14	22.5	24.8	2.3	2.3	13.5	18.8
19	14	11.3	2.3	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	5.0
20	14	22.5	15.8	13.5	4.5	585.0	304.9
21	14	49.5	51.8	4.5	6.8	49500.0	24775.9
22	14	22.5	13.5	4.5	2.3	105.8	63.6
23	14	40.5	22.5	9.0	4.5	20.3	28.9
24	14	29.3	42.8	18.0	6.8	31.5	35.7
25	21	36.0	27.0	11.3	6.8	33.8	35.3
26	21	9.0	9.0	2.3	2.3	4.5	7.1
27	21	9.0	6.8	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	5.0
28	21	6.8	6.8	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	4.3
29	21	18.0	6.8	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	8.0
30	21	6.8	11.3	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	5.0
31	21	108.0	40.5	11.3	9.0	14850.0	7469.6
32	21	11.3	9.0	4.5	<2.0	11.3	11.7
33	21	2.3	4.5	2.3	<2.0	31.5	17.7
34	21	2.3	9.0	6.8	<2.0	<2.0	3.9
35	21	24.8	9.0	4.5	4.5	11.3	16.2
36	21	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	1.6

Table 1 (continued)

Animal number	Days post dose	Liver	Fat	Kidney	Muscle	Inj.site	Daily intake*
		(µg/kg)					(µg)
37	28	4.5	4.5	<2.0	<2.0	4.5	4.7
38	28	2.3	4.5	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	2.2
39	28	11.3	9.0	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	6.2
40	28	9.0	6.8	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	5.0
41	28	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	1.2
42	28	4.5	4.5	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	3.1
43	28	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	1.2
44	28	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	1.2
45	28	2.3	4.5	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	2.2
46	28	6.8	9.0	2.3	<2.0	<2.0	4.7
47	28	13.5	13.5	4.5	2.0	49.5	32.3
48	28	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	<2.0	1.2
49	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
50	35	n.a.	4.5	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
51	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
52	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
53	35	n.a.	4.5	n.a.	n.a.	4.5	-
54	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
55	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
56	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
57	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
58	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
59	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-
60	35	n.a.	<2.0	n.a.	n.a.	<2.0	-

*) Amount of total residue calculated by using the ratios marker/total 0.3 for liver, fat, kidney and 0.6 for injection site. The arbitrary food consumption figures used were 100 g liver, 50 g fat, 50 g kidney and 300 g injection site. Values below the limit of detection were set to one-half of the limit of detection.

n.a.: not assayed

Detection limit: 2 µg/kg

Results corrected for recoveries

Annex B 1

Comparison to the FDA approach:

In order to compare the results of the equations according to Stange (5) and Graf et al. (6) to the results of the FDA procedure, three data sets out of the data set for liver from Table 1 (Annex A) were tested:

1. The full data set for liver (n=48).
2. The last 5 data of each time point for liver (n=20).
3. The last 3 data of each time point for liver (n=12).

For all three data sets the regression assumptions were met. This can be seen from Table 15.

Table 15: Test results

Data set:	1 (n=48)	2 (n=20)	3 (n=12)
Bartlett's test	p>0.05	p>0.05	p>0.05
Cochran's test	p>0.05	p>0.05	p>0.05
Lack of fit test	P>0.05	p>0.05	p>0.05
Shapiro-Wilk test	P>0.10	p>0.10	p>0.10

Remark: for all calculation procedures used here values below the LOD were set to one-half of the LOD

Calculation of the tolerance limits:

The tolerance limits according to Stange (5) and Graf et al. (6) were calculated as described earlier (section 2).

The calculation using the non central t-distribution was performed as recommended by the FDA (1, 2):

- calculation of the non-centrality parameter d,
- calculation of the 95th percentile (designated k or t_0 of the non-central t-distribution by using the inverse of the noncentral t-distribution function),
- calculation of the tolerance limit according to the equation given in the FDA guideline.

Since the tolerance limits for the calculation of withdrawal periods require only 95 % confidence, the tables provided by Owen (8) can also be used. The 95th percentile of the non-central t-distribution for the given non-centrality parameter d and the given degrees of freedom (df=n-2) can be calculated by using the table on page 111 in conjunction with the interpolation procedure described on page 109 of the Owen handbook (8). Because of the very tight tabulation of values the interpolated figures are sufficiently exact. An additional advantage is that the table as well as the interpolation procedure can easily be integrated in any calculation program.

Results:

1. Data set of 48 animals, 12 per slaughter day, MRL = 30 µg/kg

Table 16: Upper 95 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence

Days post dose	Non-central t-distrib. (µg/kg)	Stange (5) (µg/kg)	Graf et al. (6) (µg/kg)
25	41.60	41.26	41.82
26	36.00	35.70	36.18
27	31.20	30.93	31.35
28	27.07	26.83	27.20
29	23.51	23.30	23.62
30	20.45	20.25	20.53

Table 17: Upper 99 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence

Days post dose	Non-central t-distrib. (µg/kg)	Stange (5) (µg/kg)	Graf et al.(6) (µg/kg)
25	91.20	90.33	92.03
26	78.72	77.94	79.41
27	68.04	67.35	68.62
28	58.88	58.26	59.36
29	51.01	50.46	51.41
30	44.24	43.74	44.57
31	38.40	37.96	38.68
32	33.36	32.96	33.60
33	29.00	28.65	29.20

2. Data set of 20 animals, 5 per slaughter day, MRL = 30 µg/kg

Table 18: Upper 95 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence

Days post dose	Non-central t-distrib. (µg/kg)	Stange (5) (µg/kg)	Graf et al.(6) (µg/kg)
25	37.21	36.47	38.00
26	31.98	31.32	32.63
27	27.53	26.95	28.08
28	23.75	23.23	24.21
29	20.52	20.05	20.91
30	17.76	17.33	18.08

Table 19: Upper 99 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence

Days post dose	Non-centr. t-distrib. ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	Stange(5) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	Graf et al.(6) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
25	82.57	80.70	85.42
26	70.69	69.02	73.07
27	60.63	59.15	62.63
28	52.10	50.78	53.77
29	44.83	43.66	46.24
30	38.64	37.59	39.83
31	33.35	32.41	34.35
32	28.82	27.98	29.66

3. Data set of 12 animals, 3 per slaughter day, MRL = 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$

Table 20: Upper 95 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence

Days post dose	Non-centr. t-distrib. ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	Stange (5) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	Graf et.al. (6) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
25	88.53	85.10	94.94
26	77.93	74.76	83.45
27	68.79	65.87	73.57
28	60.89	58.19	65.03
29	54.03	51.52	57.63
30	48.04	45.72	51.17
31	42.79	40.64	45.53
32	38.18	36.19	40.58
33	34.12	32.27	36.23
34	30.53	28.82	32.39
35	27.35	25.76	28.99

Table 21: Upper 99 % tolerance limits with 95 % confidence

Days post dose	Non-centr. t-distrib. ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	Stange (5) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)	Graf et al.(6) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
25	240.37	230.00	267.87
26	210.33	200.88	234.02
27	184.56	175.92	205.01
28	162.38	154.44	180.06
29	143.20	135.91	158.52
30	126.57	119.86	139.87
31	112.09	105.91	123.67
32	99.45	93.75	109.54
33	88.39	83.13	97.20
34	78.67	73.83	86.39
35	70.13	65.66	76.89

Table 22: Withdrawal periods obtained

Data set:	n=48		n=20		n=12	
Tolerance limits*:	95 %	99 % (days)	95 %	99 % (days)	95 %	99 % (days)
Non central t-distribution	28	33**	27	32**	35**	-***
Stange (5)	28	33**	27	32**	34**	-***
Graf et al.(6)	28	33**	27	32**	35**	-***

*) with 95 % confidence

**) more or less severe extrapolation

***) unacceptable extrapolation

Discussion:

Tables 16-21 show that all three methods of calculation gave similar results. When comparing the results of the procedure using the non-central t-distribution to the others, the tolerance limits calculated according to Graf et al (6) were somewhat higher, while those calculated according to Stange (5) were somewhat lower. The time points when the tolerance limits dropped below the MRL of 30 µg/kg are listed in Table 22. As it can be seen in that case, only in one data set (n=12 data set) did a difference of one day appear. The results from Table 22 also show that the evaluation of small data sets (e.g. n=12) could result in relative long withdrawal periods.

To set withdrawal periods, all three methods of calculation can be considered to be appropriate and of equal value.

With a view to more practical considerations, we propose the procedure according to Stange (6). This approach is not confined to n = 20 as the procedure according to Graf et al. (7) and is much easier to perform than the FDA procedure (1, 2) which requires a more elaborate computer program.

Annex B 2

Comparison of different approaches to deal with censored data

In order to compare different approaches to deal with 'less than' values (censored data), the data sets for liver described in Annex B1 were tested by using the following procedures:

Values below the LOD were excluded (FDA approach)

Values below the LOD were replaced with LOD/2 (approach currently recommended)

Values below the LOD were replaced with predicted values (according to the robust method described by Helsel 1990 (11))

Estimated values for the non-detects:

1. Full data set for liver (n=48, see Annex A).

In the full data set, 1 out of 12 liver samples on day 14 and 4 out of 12 liver samples on day 28 showed values below the LOD ($< 2 \mu\text{g/kg}$). The predicted values for the non-detects were 10.7 (!) $\mu\text{g/kg}$ for day 14 and 2.0 $\mu\text{g/kg}$, 1.5 $\mu\text{g/kg}$, 1.1 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ and 0.7 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ for day 28.

As discussed in Section 2 (Step 6) of the main body of this paper, animal 13 is possibly an outlier. This is indicated here by the great difference between the predicted value (10.7 $\mu\text{g/kg}$) and the observed value ($< 2 \mu\text{g/kg}$).

2. The last 5 data of each time point for liver (n=20, see Annex A).

In this data set, only 2 out of 5 liver samples on day 28 yielded values below the LOD. Values of 1.26 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ and 0.46 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ were estimated for these two samples.

3. The last 3 data of each data point for liver (n=12, see Annex A).

In this data set, the residue concentration of 1 of 3 samples on day 28 was below the LOD. The predicted value for this sample was 3.43 $\mu\text{g/kg}$.

ad 1. Full data set: 48 animals, 12 per slaughter day:

Table 23: Upper 95% tolerance limits with 95% confidence (non central t-distribution by using the tables provided by Owen (8))

Liver	Values below LOD		
	excluded	LOD/2	predicted values*
Calc.withdrawal period incl. animal 13	27.4****	27.3	25.7
Calc. withdrawal period excl.animal 13**	27.4****	25.7	25.8

*) According to Helsel's robust method (11); **) Homogeneity of variances is violated in all three data sets ($0.05 > P > 0.025$); ****) Note that the observed value for animal 13 was a value below the LOD. Consequently, both withdrawal periods are identical.

ad 2. Data set of 20 animals, 5 per slaughter day:

Table 24: Upper 95% tolerance limits with 95% confidence (non central t-distribution by using the tables provided by Owen (8))

	Values below LOD		
Liver	excluded	LOD/2	predicted values*
Calc. withdrawal period	29.6	26.5	26.8

The regression assumption were met in all data sets; *) According to Helsel's robust method (11)

ad 3. Data set of 12 animals, 3 per slaughter day:

Table 25: Upper 95% tolerance limits with 95% confidence (non central t-distribution by using the tables provided by Owen (8))

	Values below LOD		
Liver	excluded	LOD/2	predicted values*
Calc. withdrawal period	41.0 ***	34.2**	35.4**

The regression assumption were met in all data sets; *) According to Helsel's robust method (11); **) Severe extrapolation; ***) Unacceptable extrapolation

The results show that the two substitution methods (i.e. values below the LOD are either replaced with LOD/2 or with the predicted values according to Helsel) resulted in similar withdrawal periods when animal 13 of the full data set (suspected to be an outlier) was excluded from calculation. With the inclusion of animal 13 into the calculation, a shorter withdrawal period was achieved with the Helsel method. This was because the low value of

< 2 µg/kg had to be substituted by the high predicted value of 10.7 µg/kg and, therefore, the tolerance interval became closer due to the smaller variance of the data. Omission of the non-detects (FDA approach) resulted in clearly longer withdrawal periods.

Remark: When it is decided to include animal 13 into the calculation, the use of LOD/2 is to be considered rather than the predicted value of 10.7 µg/kg. This is because the value of LOD/2 (1 µg/kg) appears to show more consistency with the observed value (<2 µg/kg).

Annex C

Test of the Significance of the Quadratic Time Effect:

In order to test linearity, checking the significance of the quadratic time effect according to Mandel (10) can be done in advance as an appropriate supplementation to the lack of fit test. The question is, whether a quadratic fit is better than the linear fit.

The linear model is represented by the relation $y = a + bx$, the quadratic model by $y = a + bx + cx^2$.

Both equations have to be fitted by the method of least squares and the residual errors ($s_{y,x}$) have to be calculated (using the \log_e -transformed residue concentrations).

The question is then to determine whether the residual variance of the quadratic fit is significantly smaller than the residual variance of the linear fit. It should be noted, however, that this test only shows if one model is or is not significantly better than the other one, whereas both may be inadequate.

If there is a significant quadratic time effect which is due to the first time point, the next step is to remove the first time point and re-run the analysis.

Remark: A coefficient of the quadratic term equivalent to zero (in the statistical sense) is in accordance with the statement that the linear model is the better one. A statistically significant positive coefficient has to be seen as the most likely alternative model (biphasic elimination kinetic). A statistically significant negative coefficient of the quadratic term indicates that the maximum concentration in tissues has not been reached at early time points.

The test of significance gave the following results for the data for liver and fat from Table 1 (Annex A):

1. Liver

Coefficient c: 0.0017 ± 0.0029 (not significant different from zero at $P = 0.05$)

Residual error (linear fit): 0.9930

Residual error (quadratic fit): 1.0004

Table 26: Analysis of variance for liver

	Number of parameters in model	Remaining degrees of freedom	Sum of squares of residuals	Mean square (SS/df)
Linear fit:	2	48-2=46	SS _L =45.3569	MS _L = 0.9860
Quadratic fit:	3	48-3=45	SS _Q =45.0339	MS _Q =1.0008
Difference		1	SS _D =0.3230	MS _D = 0.3230

$$\hat{F} = \frac{MS_D}{MS_Q} = \frac{0.3230}{1.0008} = 0.323$$

F (P = 0.05; df1=1, df2=45) = 4.06

Result: The quadratic model is not significantly better than the linear model at the 5 per cent level.

2. Fat:

Coefficient c: 0.0065 ± 0.0029 (not significant different from zero at P = 0.025)

Residual error (linear fit): 1.0258

Residual error (quadratic fit): 0.9839

Table 27: Analysis of variance for fat

	Number of parameters in model	Remaining degrees of freedom	Sum of squares of residuals	Mean square (SS/df)
Linear fit:	2	48-2=46	SS _L =48.4049	MS _L =1.0523
Quadratic fit:	3	48-3=45	SS _Q =43.5584	MS _Q =0.9680
Difference		1	SS _D = 4.8465	MS _D =4.8465

$$\hat{F} = \frac{MS_D}{MS_Q} = \frac{4.8465}{0.9680} = 5.01$$

F (P = 0.05; df1=1, df2=45) = 4.06

F (P = 0.025; df1=1, df2=45) = 5.38

Result: The quadratic model is significantly better than the linear model at the 5 per cent level but not at the 2.5 per cent level. In other words, deviation from linearity emerges.

Conclusion: The quadratic time significance test showed the same results as the lack of fit test (see Step 5 of the draft document). The liver data can be considered linear. For fat, deviation from linearity emerged ($0.05 > P > 0.025$). As already stated in the main part of the draft document, a re-calculation of the data for fat excluding day 7 from calculation was not taken into account because in our view the linearity assumption was not seriously violated.

Reference:

10. J. Mandel, The Statistical Analysis of experimental Data, Interscience Publ., J. Wiley & Sons, New York 1964

Annex D

- *Annex II compounds:*

As stated in the 'Notice to Applicants' for the establishment of MRLs (Volume VI of the rules governing medicinal products in the EC), a recommendation to insert a compound in Annex II should not be interpreted as automatically implying that no withdrawal period is necessary.

If there is any indication that the amount of drug derived residues in an edible portion may exceed the ADI, a withdrawal period has to be set. The respective edible portion should include the injection site muscle for substances to be injected intramuscularly or subcutaneously.

Since no MRLs are set for Annex II compounds, this withdrawal period has to be estimated on the basis of the ADI.

For compounds which may cause injection site residues with potential pharmacological effects, it may be necessary to establish a precautionary withdrawal period even when an ADI has not been set (e.g. in the case of hormones the naturally occurring levels in tissues should be used as a withdrawal period basis).

- *Generic products:*

When the formulation (identical active and inactive ingredients), the dose schedule, the route of administration and the targeted species of one specific generic product are identical to a currently approved product, then the withdrawal period of the latter can be used for the former. But when there is indication that the manufacturing process of the generic product may have affected the physicochemical properties of one of the active or inactive ingredients (and in consequence, the bioavailability of the drug) a blood level bioequivalence study is required. This condition, however, holds only true when there is evidence that this modified manufacturing process does not generate impurities or by-products of concern requiring a toxicological re-evaluation.

Demonstration of blood level bioequivalence will also be sufficient to cover differences concerning the formulation of the generic product when the target species and the route of administration are identical.

In the case of products administered subcutaneously or intramuscularly, small differences in composition may have significant effects on injection site depletion which may not be detected in the standard blood level bioequivalence studies. Therefore, for such formulations in addition to bioequivalence studies, equivalent (or faster) depletion of residue from the injection site should be demonstrated.

In cases where a change of the target species and/or the route of administration is claimed, information on tissue residue depletion is considered to be necessary. Changes in the dose will require as well residue depletion data.

Remark: For experimental design of blood level bioequivalence studies the guideline provided by the EC (7) should be taken into account.

- *Specific problems concerning milk:*

The procedure described to estimate withdrawal periods for tissues cannot be directly applied to milk samples. The analysis of milk data involves specific statistical problems, requiring a different statistical approach. A proposal for milk needs to be therefore subject of a separate paper.

Whereas the residue values for tissues originate from individual animals (for each tissue: one sample per animal), milk is collected continuously (several samples per animal). Consequently, the milk data are not independent from each other (the independence assumption is violated). Therefore, when calculating tolerance limits for milk, one has to consider the interindividual and the intraindividual variances. These two parameters have to be distinguished between very carefully. Application of the tissue approach would underestimate the residual error $s_{y,x}$ and consequently the tolerance limits and the withdrawal period.

It is noted here that the FDA has proposed a statistical approach taking into account the specific problems concerning milk (1).