



University of Dundee

Bayesian methods in palliative care research

Parker, Richard A.; Sande, Tonje A.; Laird, Barry; Hoskin, Peter; Fallon, Marie; Colvin, Lesley

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1 **Experience of using Bayesian methods in Palliative Care Research:**
2 **an example in cancer induced bone pain (CIBP)**

3
4 Richard A. Parker^{1*}, Tonje A. Sande^{1*}, Barry J. A. Laird², Peter Hoskin³, Marie T. Fallon^{2**}, Lesley
5 Colvin^{4**}

6
7 *Joint first authors

8 **Joint senior authors

9
10
11
12 **Affiliations:**

13
14 ¹ Usher Institute, University of Edinburgh, Scotland, United Kingdom

15 ² Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Scotland, United
16 Kingdom

17 ³ Mount Vernon Cancer Centre and University of Manchester, United Kingdom

18 ⁴ Division of Population Health and Genomics, University of Dundee, Scotland, United
19 Kingdom

20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27 **Corresponding author:**

28
29 Richard A. Parker,
30 Edinburgh Clinical Trials Unit,
31 Usher Institute,
32 The University of Edinburgh
33 Level 2, NINE,
34 9 Little France Road,
35 Edinburgh BioQuarter,
36 Edinburgh
37 EH16 4UX
38 Richard.parker@ed.ac.uk
39 0131 651 9953

40
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44 **ABSTRACT**

45 *Objective*

46 To show how a simple Bayesian analysis method can be used to improve the evidence base
47 in patient populations where recruitment and retention are challenging.

48 *Methods*

49 A Bayesian conjugate analysis method was applied to binary data from the Thermal testing
50 in Bone Pain (TiBoP) study: a prospective diagnostic accuracy/predictive study in patients
51 with cancer-induced bone pain (CIBP). This study aimed to evaluate the clinical utility of a
52 simple bedside tool to identify who was most likely to benefit from palliative radiotherapy
53 (XRT) for CIBP.

54 *Results*

55 Recruitment and retention of patients was challenging due to the frail population, with only
56 27 patients available for the primary analysis. The Bayesian method allowed us to make use
57 of prior work done in this area and combine it with the TiBoP data to maximise the
58 informativeness of the results. Positive and negative predictive values were estimated with
59 greater precision, and interpretation of results was facilitated by use of direct probability
60 statements. In particular, there was only 7% probability that the true positive predictive
61 value was above 80%.

62 *Conclusions*

63 Several advantages of using Bayesian analysis are illustrated in this article. The Bayesian
64 method allowed us to gain greater confidence in our interpretation of the results despite
65 the small sample size by allowing us to incorporate data from a previous similar study. We
66 suggest that this method is likely to be useful for the analysis of small diagnostic or
67 predictive studies when prior information is available.

68

69 Keywords: Diagnostic accuracy, conjugate, sensitivity, specificity, Bayesian analysis, beta
70 distribution, small sample size

71

72

73 **INTRODUCTION**

74

The TiBoP study was concerned with improving outcomes for patients with cancer-induced bone pain (CIBP). CIBP is a consequence of metastases to bone; and can have a major impact on day-to-day function and quality of life.[1] Currently, the gold standard treatment is palliative radiotherapy (XRT), although only approximately half of patients will achieve satisfactory pain relief, and this may take up to six weeks to work properly.[2,3]

75

76 Somatosensory testing, used to define pain mechanisms in individual patients, has shown
77 some promise in predicting treatment response in neuropathic pain.[4] Our previous pilot
78 work demonstrated sensory changes in CIBP, with alterations in skin sensation overlying the
79 area of CIBP.[1] This pilot work suggested that altered thermal sensitivity on the skin
80 overlying the site of painful bone metastases might have value in predicting an increased
81 likelihood of a good outcome from XRT.[5]

82

83 Therefore, the Thermal testing in Bone Pain (TiBoP) study was carried out to assess the
84 performance of a simple thermal sensitivity measure that could be used by non-specialists
85 in the community, to identify who was most likely to get analgesic benefit from XRT for

86 CIBP. The study faced challenges with recruitment and retention of patients, and the final
87 study sample size was small. Conducting research in palliative care can be challenging due to
88 the frailty of the patient population making it difficult to establish a robust evidence base.
89 There is need for using innovative methods to deal with this challenging research
90 environment.

91

92

93 This short report shows how a simple Bayesian analysis can be used to maximise the value
94 of small diagnostic studies by allowing previous data to bolster the results.

95 **METHODS**

96

97 **The TiBoP study**

98 The TiBoP study was a prospective exploratory study, carried out in two centres (Edinburgh
99 and Dundee) and approved by South Central - Oxford C Research Ethics Committee
100 No:16/SC/0260. All patients gave written informed consent to take part in the study.

101

102 The thermal sensitivity tool evaluated in this study involved using warm (40°C) and cool
103 (25°C) thermal rollers (Rolltemp, Somedic, Sweden, CE marked) to assess the thermal
104 sensitivity of the skin overlying the painful bone metastasis in comparison to a
105 corresponding unaffected (control) area.

106

107 Eligible patients were adults (aged 18 or older) scheduled for palliative XRT for treatment of
108 CIBP. A convenience sample of eligible patients were recruited between October 2016 and
109 May 2018; and all were tested using the thermal sensitivity tool prior to receiving XRT. The
110 primary endpoint was pre-specified to be worst pain score at six weeks post-XRT, using the
111 Brief Pain Inventory (BPI) questionnaire. Specifically, the primary endpoint was defined as
112 either (i) a 30% or higher reduction in worst pain score (Q3 of the BPI questionnaire), or (ii) a
113 worst pain score of zero at six weeks. This mirrored the endpoint for pain response used in
114 our previous study.[5,6] Our hypothesis was that patients experiencing “abnormal
115 sensitivity” based on the thermal sensitivity test were more likely to achieve a response to
116 XRT (i.e. pain reduction).

117

118 **Statistical methods**

119

120 The statistical analysis was concerned with making inference about the true values of the
121 sensitivity, specificity, negative predictive value (NPV), and positive predictive value (PPV) of
122 the thermal sensitivity score with respect to experiencing a response to XRT. In practice,
123 there were two components to the thermal sensitivity test: a test involving a warm roller
124 and a separate test involving a cool roller. If patients reported abnormal sensitivity for both
125 tests then the overall score was assumed to be “abnormal”. A separate analysis was
126 conducted under the assumption that *any* of the two tests needed to be “abnormal” for the
127 overall score to be “abnormal”.

128

129 The primary analysis was conducted in a Bayesian framework, using Bayes’ theorem.[7-9]

130 The key to understanding Bayesian analysis is that we begin with prior information

131 regarding the parameters of interest (e.g. sensitivity and specificity); and then we use Bayes'
132 theorem to update our prior information based on observed data.[9] In the case of the
133 TiBoP study, prior information about the likely value of the proportions of interest was
134 gathered from a previous pilot study conducted as part of an MD thesis.[6] In Bayesian
135 analysis, prior information or beliefs are usually expressed as a range of possible values
136 through specification of a probability distribution.[9] In our case, a beta distribution was
137 used for the prior and binomial distribution to model the binary thermal sensitivity test data
138 (e.g. "abnormal" response or not).

139

140 After combining the model for the observed data with the model for the prior information
141 using Bayes' theorem, we obtain a "posterior distribution", which gives us a probability
142 distribution for the probability of the proportions given the observed data, which is what we
143 are really interested in. In our case, we get a posterior distribution that has a beta
144 distributional form just like our prior distribution. Formally, this is called a "conjugate
145 analysis" [7] and we say that the beta distribution is "*conjugate*" to the binomial
146 distribution.

147

148 R software [10] was used to perform the analysis. Graphs of posterior distributions were
149 generated for all diagnostic test statistics of interest (i.e. probability distributions for the
150 true parameters of interest: NPV, PPV, sensitivity, specificity etc.), while posterior means
151 and 95% highest posterior density (HPD) credible intervals were calculated to show the
152 likely range of values for the true parameter (e.g. true NPV).

153

154 A specific (informative) prior was pre-specified based on the previous pilot study, but we
155 also checked the sensitivity of the results to this prior by using a (i) a weakly informative
156 prior and (ii) a flat completely uninformative prior (Beta(1,1)). This allowed us to compare
157 our results with models for which the observed TiBoP study data dominated.

158

159 Results were compared to the classical (frequentist) approach of calculating 95% confidence
160 intervals around parameters without utilizing prior data.

161

162 Further details of the statistical analysis are provided in the online supplementary file along
163 with a mini-literature review suggesting that the use of this method is very uncommon in
164 practice.

165

166 **RESULTS**

167 Forty patients were recruited to the study between October 2016 and April 2018 from two
168 locations (34 from Edinburgh and six from Dundee, United Kingdom). Twenty-seven patients
169 (67%) completed the primary outcome assessment at six weeks.

170

171 Of the 27 patients recording primary outcome data, the mean age was 65 (SD 9.5, range 43
172 to 84). Eleven patients (41%) were female. Thirteen had a primary diagnosis of prostate
173 cancer (48%), eight had breast cancer (30%) and the remaining six patients (22%) had
174 various other types of cancer.

175

176 Considering the comparison of patients with both abnormal thermal sensitivity tests
177 compared to those with at least one normal, the observed sensitivity, specificity, PPV and

178 NPV of the thermal sensitivity score (with corresponding exact binomial 95% confidence
179 intervals) were calculated as 9/15 (60%, 95% CI 32% to 84%), 5/12 (42%, 95% CI 15% to
180 72%), 9/16 (56%, 95% CI 30% to 80%), and 5/11 (45%, 95% CI 17% to 77%) respectively.
181 These 95% confidence intervals were computed using the standard classical method
182 ignoring prior data.

183

184 The observed results with classical confidence intervals suggest that thermal sensitivity
185 score is a poor predictor of positive response to XRT. PPV and NPV are close to 50% and
186 specificity is very low. Confidence intervals were very wide, so there was a great deal of
187 uncertainty associated with the estimates when just considering the current study data.

188

189 After using results from the previous pilot study to inform the prior distribution, Bayes'
190 Theorem was used to produce plots of the posterior distributions for each diagnostic test
191 statistic (see Figure 1).

192

193 The posterior mean PPV (95% credible interval) was 70% (57% to 83%), suggesting that it is
194 unlikely that the true PPV for the thermal sensitivity tool is above 83%. Indeed, the
195 probability that the true PPV is above 80% was only 7% ($\mathbb{P}(PPV > 0.80) = 0.07$). This
196 means that the thermal sensitivity test is unlikely to be useful in accurately identifying
197 patients who will go on to get a positive response to XRT at six weeks. The credible interval
198 upper bound is similar to the classical frequentist confidence interval of 80%, but note that
199 the interval is much narrower since we have combined with the previous data (PPV
200 estimated as 81%) to increase the precision of estimation. Using a flat non-informative prior

201 (i.e. ignoring the prior data we have), results in a credible interval from 33% to 77%, which is
202 similar to that from the frequentist 95% CI as we might expect.

203

204 For NPV, the posterior mean was 48%, but the 95% credible interval had a very wide range
205 from 30% to 66% due to the low number of patients in this category. Note that this interval
206 is also much narrower than the corresponding frequentist 95% confidence interval of 17% to
207 77%. Indeed, it is true in general that precision of estimation will often be improved through
208 using Bayesian methods, particularly if specific informative priors are used and the study
209 sample size is small.

210

211 To provide a more extreme example: only 3 patients had thermal test results which were
212 both normal. Two of these did not show a positive response to XRT, and so the NPV under
213 the “at least one abnormal” classification was calculated as 2/3 (67%). Naturally, the
214 standard 95% CI for the NPV was extremely wide (9% to 99%). However, after combining
215 with the prior information (NPV 3/4, 75%), the 95% HPD interval was 38% to 94%, which
216 although still wide, does inform us that very high values of the NPV above 94% are unlikely.
217 We can also calculate $\mathbb{P}(NPV > 0.90) = 0.04$ which supports this conclusion.

218

219 In contrast, the PPV (“at least one abnormal” classification), was based on more substantial
220 sample sizes (PPV was 14/24 (58%) for the current study and 28/38 (74%) in the previous
221 study). In this example, the 95% HDP interval was 56% to 78% compared to a 95% CI of 57%
222 to 87%. Thus, our interval upper bound reduces from 87% down to 78% with the addition of
223 prior information. We can also calculate $\mathbb{P}(PPV > 0.80) = 0.01$, which shows there is only
224 1% probability that the true PPV is above 80%.

225

226 For the above examples, the estimates based on the prior information are not too
227 inconsistent with those from the present study. If hypothetically, the prior PPV was only 3%
228 (1/38), then the 95% HPD interval becomes substantially different, 15% to 36%, albeit the
229 interval is still much narrower than the corresponding 95% CI.

230

231 The Bayesian results suggested that the thermal sensitivity tool alone is unlikely to be useful
232 in practice for identifying patients who experience a response to XRT treatment. This was
233 despite the use of an informative prior distribution based on promising results from an
234 earlier study.[5,6]

235

236 Full analysis results are provided in a supplementary file.

237

238

239 **DISCUSSION**

240 Bayesian analysis has some advantages over classical analysis. In particular:

241

242 (i) It makes full use of previous work done in the same area so that it informs the statistical
243 analysis. The Bayesian argument is that no study happens in isolation, and that it makes
244 sense to incorporate external information when performing statistical inference because
245 scientific progress generally always involves building on what has been done before.

246 (ii) In small studies, the informativeness of the results can be maximised through more
247 precise estimates of diagnostic test measurements (e.g. NPV and PPV).

- 248 (iii) Interpretation of results is easier and more intuitive. For example, the true value lies
249 within a 95% credible interval with 95% probability.
- 250 (iv) Posterior distribution graphs of parameters can be generated from Bayesian analysis
251 (see Figure 1) to provide helpful visual information regarding the likely true value.
- 252 (v) In addition, direct probability statements can be made that are easier to interpret
253 clinically.[11] As shown above, we can easily answer questions such as “What is the
254 probability that the true negative predictive value is above 80%?” Whereas in classical
255 analysis it is very difficult to answer such questions.
- 256 (vi) Bayesian analysis is more ethical because it fully exploits the clinical experience of past
257 patients to maximise the potential of a small sample size to generate meaningful
258 results.[11] Even data from very small prior studies is not wasted and can contribute to
259 the analysis.

260

261 Bayesian analysis was particularly useful for the TiBoP example because data was available
262 from a very similar previous study, the study was small (and so we could take full advantage
263 of the improvement in precision resulting from incorporating prior data), and there was an
264 ethical imperative to make maximal use of all data collected. These advantages more
265 generally apply in studies in palliative care, where patients are frail, with life limiting disease
266 and therefore it is especially important to ensure that precious data collected from patients
267 is not wasted. In general patients are supportive of participating in clinical research, often
268 for altruistic reasons, although naturally there may be burden placed on these patients
269 when collecting data.[12]

270

271 In the TiBoP study, there was a consistent gain in precision from using Bayesian methods:
272 our 95% credible intervals were narrower than the corresponding 95% confidence intervals.

273 In some situations (e.g. in our NPV example), this enabled us to salvage data that may
274 otherwise have been completely unusable due to the tiny sample size. However, there is a
275 note of caution associated with this. As we saw in the PPV example, artificially changing the
276 prior information led to a dramatic change in the values of the credible interval estimates.
277 This was because we were using a specific informative prior to combine with the observed
278 information, which places a high weight on prior information. This was justified in our case
279 since the studies were very similar in design, with the same lead researchers and
280 assessment approaches used for both studies, and the majority of patients recruited from
281 the same centre (Edinburgh). However, it was still important for us to test the sensitivity of
282 the results to the use of non-informative priors (see supplementary file).

283

If on the other hand, the previous study was conducted under very different conditions, had a different patient population, or was more susceptible to bias, then less weight should have been placed on the prior information and it would have been necessary to use vague or non-informative priors for our primary analysis. However, collaterally we lose the advantage of improved precision from using Bayesian methods.

Bayesian analysis may be less useful in circumstances which nullify some of the advantages listed above. For example, if our study has a large sample size with no similar previous studies, then finding suitable information to inform the prior distribution may be difficult and there may be little or no gain in precision from using a Bayesian approach.

Nevertheless, some advantages of Bayesian analysis will still remain regardless of the context (e.g. the ability to make direct probability statements).

The methodology used in this study is particularly beneficial in settings where it is difficult to establish a robust evidence base (e.g. in frail populations or rare conditions) due to its ability to effectively assimilate prior data and enhance the value of information from small studies.

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291

292 **Competing Interest**

293 Competing Interest: None declared.

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Data

Requests for data sharing should be directed to: ECTUdatashare@ed.ac.uk

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327

328

329 **FIGURE**

330

331

332 **Figure 1: Plots showing the posterior distributions for the diagnostic test parameters**
333 **under the strategy of using “at least one test abnormal” as the diagnostic test marker to**
334 **predict positive response. Solid line indicates specific prior, dashed line is weakly specific**
335 **prior, and dotted line is uninformative prior.**

336

337

338