

# The Bayesian Approach to Combination of Evidence

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# My Philosophy Towards Combining Evidence

- If information were precise, there would be no issue:
  - each additional piece of information would constrain the solution space;
  - with enough information the answer would eventually become apparent.
- But almost no information is precise in the inferential sense (except, perhaps, that coming from a precise theory, and even then the theory was likely not originally “precise”); thus the real question is how to combine information involving uncertainties.
- Dominant answer (through 250 years of study, including study of hundreds of alternatives): probability theory, the instantiation of which in combining evidence is Bayesian analysis.
- Caveat: computational and real-time processing considerations may entail utilization of many other techniques.

## Some Issues in Bayesian Combination of Evidence

- Expert information is easily combined with other information through prior elicitation, but in many contexts elicitation is difficult or unwanted (FDA device division); one can then still often use Bayesian combination of evidence through
  - hierarchical modeling;
  - objective Bayes.
- Sensitivity or Robustness
- Computation, computation, computation

## A Medical Diagnosis Example (with Mossman, 2001)

### The Medical Problem:

- Within a population,  $p_0 = Pr(\text{Disease } D)$ .
- A diagnostic test results in either a Positive (P) or Negative (N) reading.
- $p_1 = Pr(P \mid \text{patient has } D)$ .
- $p_2 = Pr(P \mid \text{patient does not have } D)$ .

It follows from Bayes theorem that

$$\theta = Pr(D \mid P) = \frac{p_0 p_1}{p_0 p_1 + (1 - p_0) p_2}.$$

**The Statistical Problem:** The  $p_i \in (0, 1)$  are unknown, but three independent medical studies are reported in the literature, yielding  $X_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2$ .

*Goal:* find a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence set for  $\theta$ .

**Suggested Objective Bayes Solution:**

- Assign  $p_i$  the Jeffreys-rule prior (Beta(1/2,1/2) distribution)

$$\pi(p_i) \propto p_i^{-1/2}(1 - p_i)^{-1/2}.$$

- By Bayes theorem, the posterior distribution of  $p_i$  given the data,  $x_i$ , is

$$\pi(p_i \mid x_i) = \frac{p_i^{-1/2}(1 - p_i)^{-1/2} \times \binom{n}{x_i} p_i^{x_i} (1 - p_i)^{n_i - x_i}}{\int p_i^{-1/2}(1 - p_i)^{-1/2} \times \binom{n}{x_i} p_i^{x_i} (1 - p_i)^{n_i - x_i} dp_i},$$

which is the Beta( $x_i + \frac{1}{2}, n_i - x_i + \frac{1}{2}$ ) distribution;

- the joint posterior distribution of  $p_0, p_1$ , and  $p_2$  is (by independence)

$$\pi(p_0 \mid x_0)\pi(p_1 \mid x_1)\pi(p_2 \mid x_2),$$

- which determines  $\pi(\theta \mid x_0, x_1, x_2)$ , the posterior distribution of

$$\theta = Pr(D \mid P) = \frac{p_0 p_1}{p_0 p_1 + (1 - p_0) p_2}.$$

## Computational implementation for determining the confidence set for $\theta$ :

One can simply compute the desired confidence set (formally, the  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  equal-tailed posterior credible set) by

- drawing random  $p_i$  from the  $\text{Beta}(x_i + \frac{1}{2}, n_i - x_i + \frac{1}{2})$  distributions,  $i = 0, 1, 2$ ;
- computing the associated  $\theta = p_0 p_1 / [p_0 p_1 + (1 - p_0) p_2]$ ;
- repeating this process 10,000 times;
- using the  $\frac{\alpha}{2}\%$  upper and lower percentiles of these generated  $\theta$  to form the desired confidence limits.

$n_0 = n_1 = n_2$	$(x_0, x_1, x_2)$	95% confidence interval
20	(2,18,2)	(0.107, 0.872)
20	(10,18,0)	(0.857, 1.000)
80	(20,60,20)	(0.346, 0.658)
80	(40,72,8)	(0.808, 0.952)

Table 1: The 95% equal-tailed posterior credible interval for  $\theta = Pr(D | P) = \frac{p_0 p_1}{p_0 p_1 + (1 - p_0) p_2}$ , for various values of the  $n_i$  and  $x_i$ .

Consider the frequentist percentage of the time that the 95% Bayesian credible sets for  $\theta = Pr(D | P) = \frac{p_0 p_1}{p_0 p_1 + (1 - p_0) p_2}$  miss on the left and on the right (ideal would be 2.5% each) for the indicated parameter values when  $n_0 = n_1 = n_2 = 20$ .

$(p_0, p_1, p_2)$	O-Bayes	Log Odds	Gart-Nam	Delta
$(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$	2.86, 2.71	1.53, 1.55	2.77, 2.57	2.68, 2.45
$(\frac{1}{10}, \frac{9}{10}, \frac{1}{10})$	2.23, 2.47	0.17, 0.03	1.58, 2.14	0.83, 0.41
$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{9}{10}, \frac{1}{10})$	2.81, 2.40	0.04, 4.40	2.40, 2.12	1.25, 1.91



## Adjusting for Multiple Testing

# San Jose Mercury News

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Friday, September 25, 2009

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### AIDS MILESTONE

# New path for HIV vaccine

Some in study protected from infection, but trial raises more questions

By Karen Kaplan  
and Thomas H. Maugh II  
*Los Angeles Times*

Hours after HIV researchers announced the achievement of a milestone that had eluded them for a quarter of a century, reality began

to set in: Tangible progress could take another decade.

A Thai and American team announced early Thursday in Bangkok that they had found a combination of vaccines providing modest protection against infection with the virus that causes AIDS, unleashing excitement worldwide. The idea of a vaccine to prevent infection with the human immunodeficiency virus, HIV, had long been

frustrating and fruitless.

But by Thursday afternoon, initial euphoria gave way to a more sober assessment. There is still a very long way to go before reaching the goal of producing a vaccine that reliably shields people from HIV.

Some researchers questioned whether the apparent 31 percent reduction in infections was a sta-

See **VACCINE**, Page 14



A researcher during the Thai phase III HIV Vaccine Trial, also known as RV 144, tests the "prime-boost" combination of two vaccines.

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## Hypotheses and Data:

- Alvac had shown no effect
- Aidsvac had shown no effect

*Question:* Would Alvac as a primer and Aidsvac as a booster work?

*The Study:* Conducted in Thailand with 16,395 individuals from the general (not high-risk) population:

- 71 HIV cases reported in the 8198 individuals receiving placebos
- 51 HIV cases reported in the 8197 individuals receiving the treatment

**The test that was performed:**

- Let  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  denote the probability of HIV in the placebo and treatment populations, respectively.
- Test  $H_0 : p_1 = p_2$  versus  $H_1 : p_1 \neq p_2$
- Normal approximation okay, so

$$z = \frac{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_{\{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2\}}}} = \frac{.00926 - .00641}{.00140} = 2.04$$

is approximately  $N(\theta, 1)$ , where  $\theta = (p_1 - p_2)/(.00140)$ .

We thus test  $H_0 : \theta = 0$  versus  $H_1 : \theta \neq 0$ , based on  $z$ .

- Observed  $z = 2.04$ , so the  $p$ -value is 0.04.

**Questions:**

- Is the  $p$ -value useable as a direct measure of vaccine efficacy?
- Should the fact that there were two previous similar trials be taken into account?

## Bayesian Analysis of the Single Trial:

Prior distribution:

- $Pr(H_i)$  = prior probability that  $H_i$  is true,  $i = 0, 1$ ,
- On  $H_1 : \theta > 0$ , let  $\pi(\theta)$  be the prior density for  $\theta$ .

*Note:*  $H_0$  must be believable (at least approximately) for this to be reasonable (i.e., no fake nulls).

Subjective Bayes: choose these based on personal beliefs

Objective (or default) Bayes: choose

- $Pr(H_0) = Pr(H_1) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,
- $\pi(\theta) = \text{Uniform}(0, 6.46)$ , which arises from assigning
  - uniform for  $p_2$  on  $0 < p_2 < p_1$ ,
  - plug in for  $p_1$  .

Posterior probability of hypotheses:

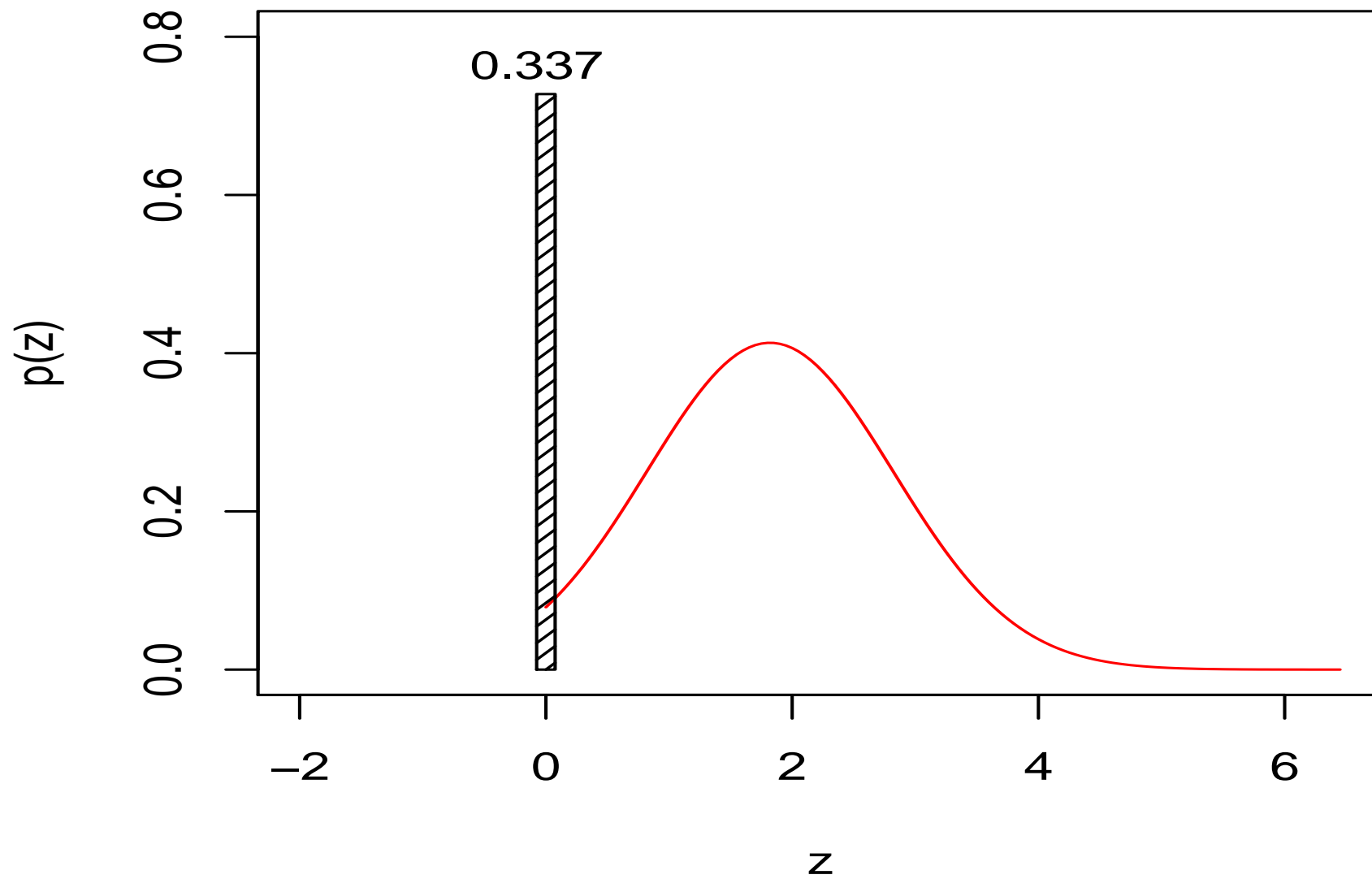
$$\begin{aligned} Pr(H_0|z) &= \text{probability that } H_0 \text{ true, given data } z \\ &= \frac{f(z | \theta = 0) Pr(H_0)}{Pr(H_0) f(x | \theta = 0) + Pr(H_1) \int_0^\infty f(z | \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta} \end{aligned}$$

For the objective prior,  $Pr(H_0 | z = 1.82) \approx 0.337$  (recall, p-value  $\approx .04$ )

Posterior density on  $H_1 : \theta > 0$  is

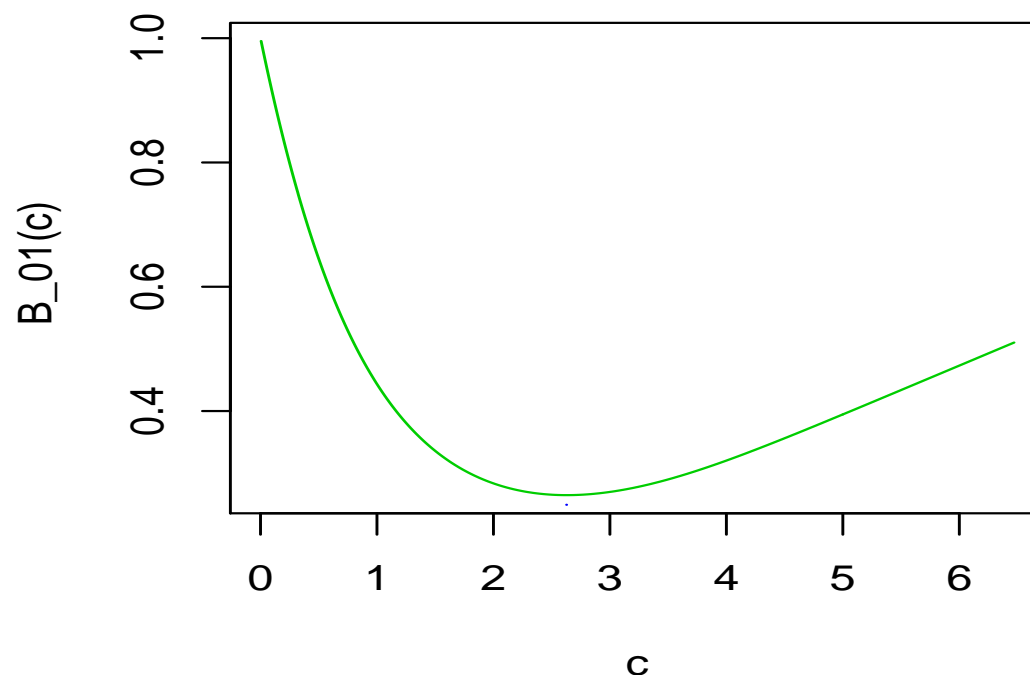
$$\pi(\theta | z = 1.82, H_1) \propto \pi(\theta) f(1.82 | \theta) = (0.413) e^{-\frac{1}{2}(1.82 - \theta)^2}$$

for  $0 < \theta < 6.46$ .



**Robust Bayes:** Report the *Bayes factor* (the odds of  $H_0$  to  $H_1$ ) as a function of  $\pi_C(\theta) \equiv \text{Uniform}(0, C)$ :

$$B_{01}(C) = \frac{\text{likelihood of } H_0 \text{ for observed data}}{\text{average likelihood of } H_1} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(1.82-\theta)^2/2}}{\int_0^C \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(1.82-\theta)^2/2} C^{-1} d\theta}$$



*Note:*  $\min_C B_{01}(C) = 0.265$  (while  $B_{01}(6.46) = 0.51$ ).

**Incorporation information from multiple tests:** To adjust for the two previous similar failed trials, the (exchangeable) Bayesian solution

- assigns each trial common unknown probability  $p$  of success, with  $p$  having a uniform distribution;
- computes the resulting posterior probability that the current trial exhibits no efficacy

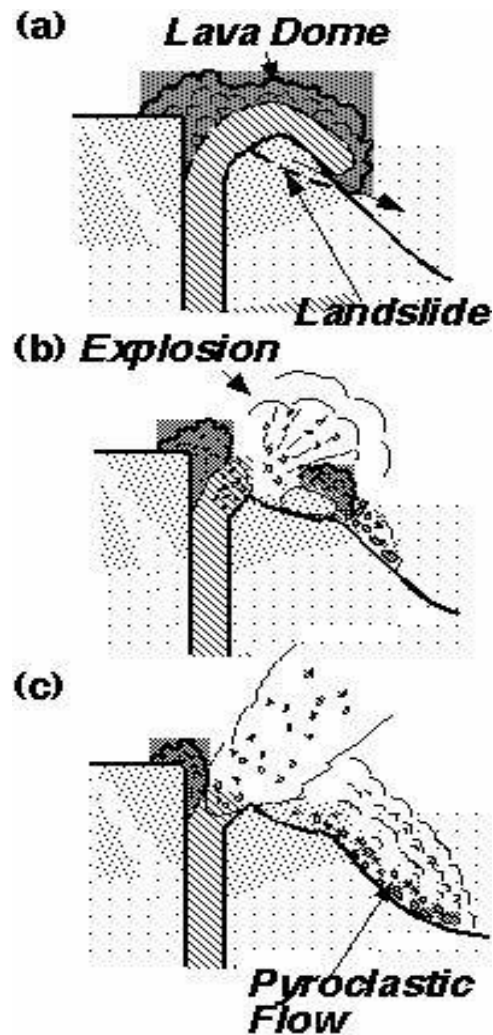
$$Pr(H_0 \mid x_1, x_2, x_3) = \left( 1 + \frac{B_{01}(x_1)B_{01}(x_2) + B_{01}(x_1) + B_{01}(x_2) + 3}{3B_{01}(x_1)B_{01}(x_2) + B_{01}(x_1) + B_{01}(x_2) + 1} \times \frac{1}{B_{01}(x_3)} \right)^{-1}$$

where  $B_{01}(x_i)$  is the Bayes factor of “no effect” to “effect” for trial  $i$ .

The result is  $Pr(H_0 \mid x_1, x_2, x_3) = 0.54$ .



## Combining information from deterministic and statistical models: Example - risk from pyroclastic flows



## Plymouth, the former capital of Montserrat



We combine use of computer models and statistical models to assess the risk of a volcanic hazard. We compute

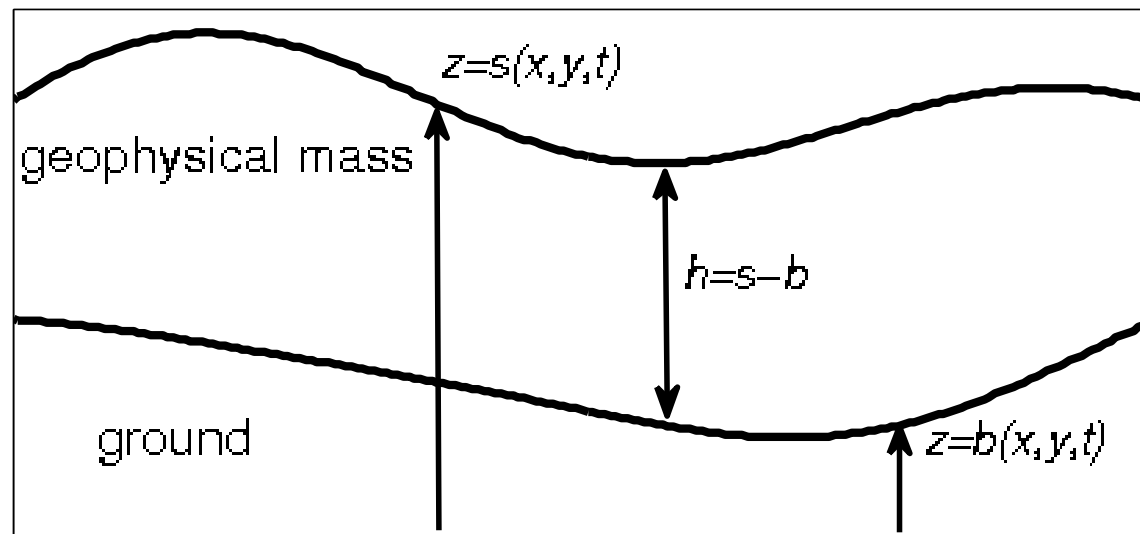
**Pr (a catastrophic event occurs in the next  $T$  years)**

at specified locations, utilizing

- computer implementations of mathematical models of flows to allow extrapolation to unseen situations;
- statistical models for needed stochastic inputs to the computer model, appropriate for rare events;
- a computational strategy for rare events, based on development of adaptive approximations to the computer model.

## The Geophysical/Math Model

- Use ‘thin layer’ modeling  $\leadsto$  system of PDE for the flow depth and the depth-averaged momenta.
- Main feature: Incorporates topographical data from GIS.



## The Computer Model Implementation

TITAN2D (U Buffalo) computes solution to the math model

- **Stochastic** inputs whose randomness is the basis of the risk uncertainty:
  - $x_1 =$  **initial volume  $V$**  (size of initial flow),
  - $x_2 =$  **initial angle  $\varphi$**  (direction of initial flow).
- $x_3 =$  **basal friction coefficient  $b$**  (friction at interface of flow and ground).
- Other inputs: internal friction, initial velocity (speed and direction)  $\leadsto$  kept fixed for the moment.
- Output: flow height and depth-averaged velocity at every grid point at every time step; we will focus on the maximum flow height at each grid point.
- Each run takes about 1 hour, so that a Gaussian process needs to be developed for most of the computations.

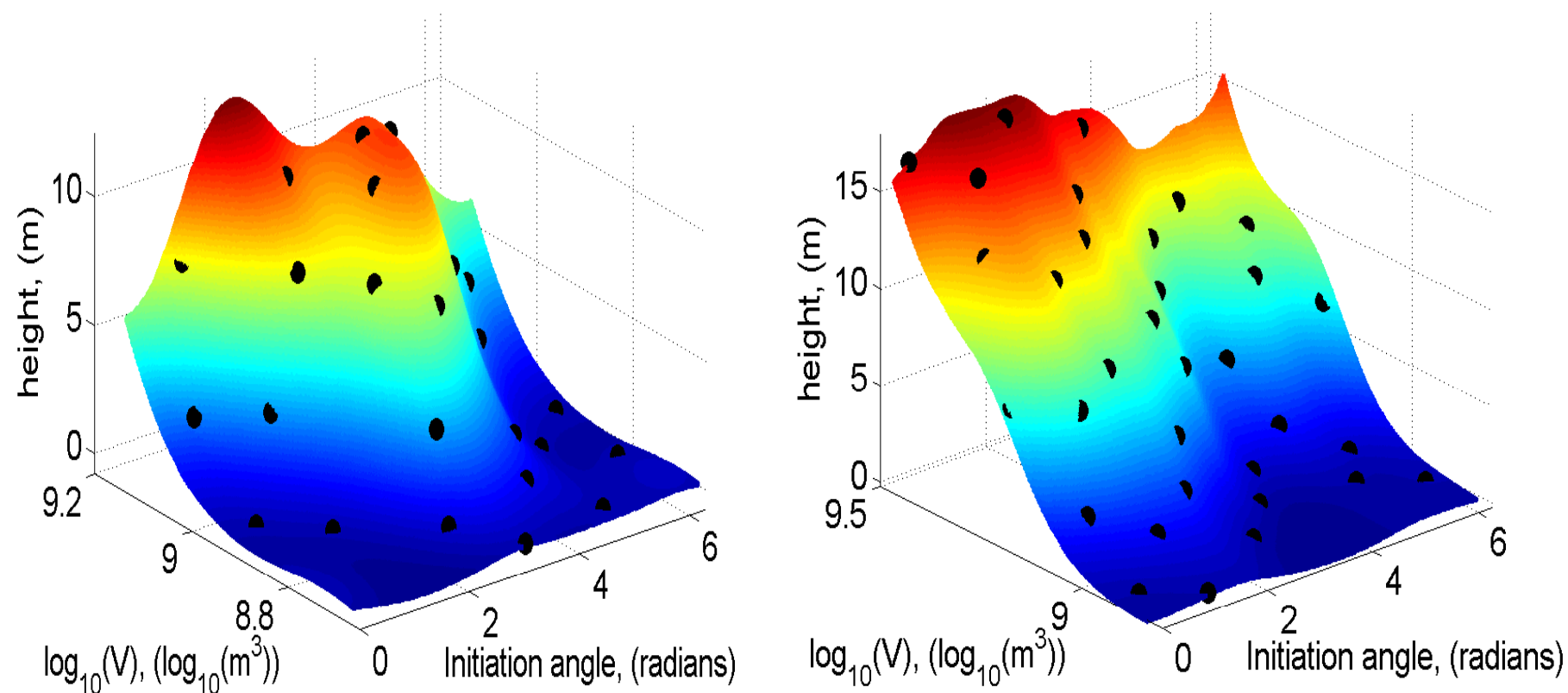


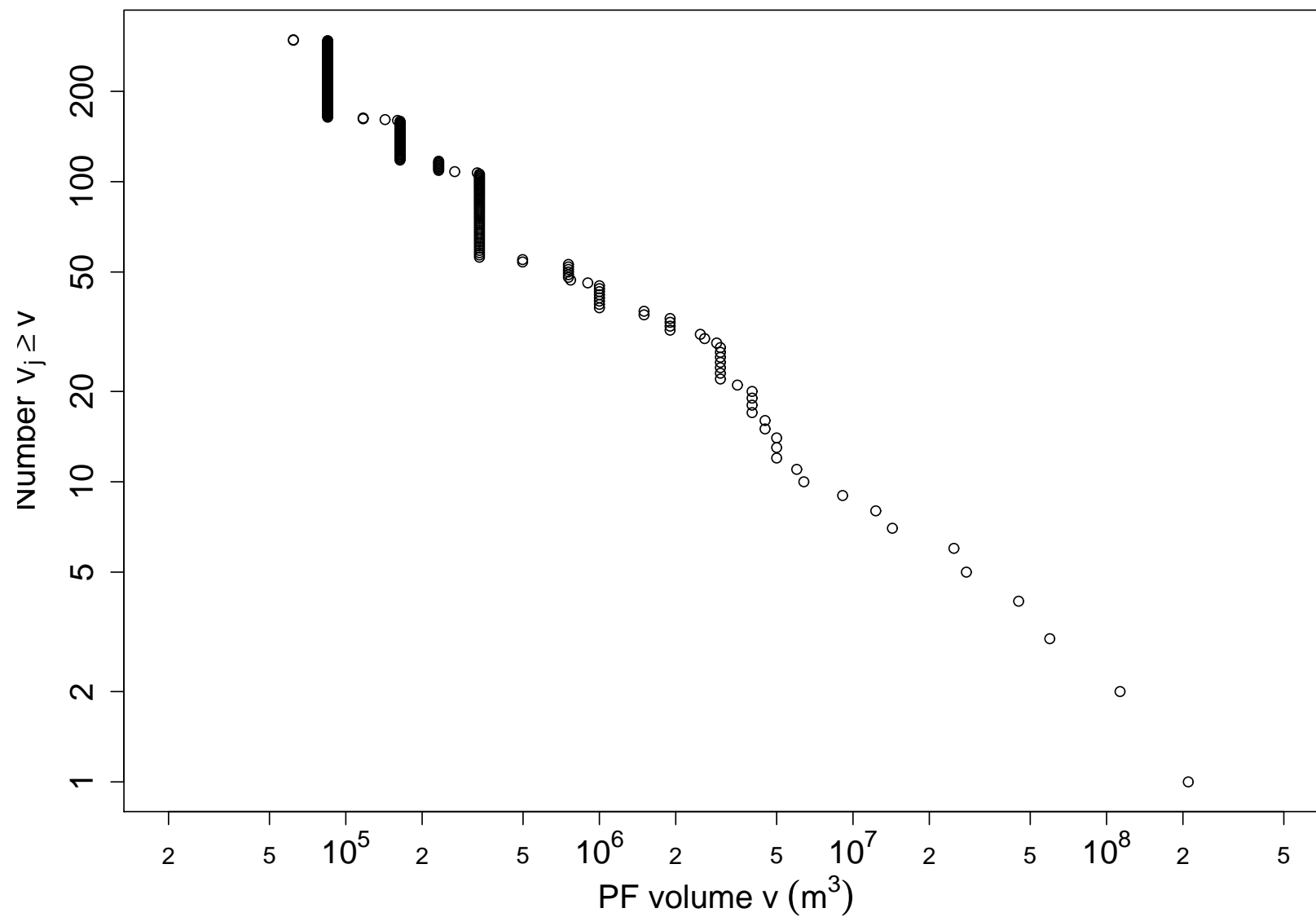
Figure 1: Median of the emulator, transformed back to the original space. Left: Plymouth, Right: Bramble Airport. Black points: max-height simulation outputs at design points.

## Risk Assessment: Probability of Catastrophe

- Use the emulator to determine the *critical region*  $\mathcal{X}_C$  of input values that would lead to a catastrophe.
- Determine the distribution of the input variables  $(V, \varphi, b)$  to compute

$\Pr(\text{at least one } (V, \varphi, b) \in \mathcal{X}_C \text{ in the next } t \text{ years} ) .$

- The distribution of  $b$  is found from auxiliary data concerning information about pyroclastic flow runouts and runs of TITAN2D for those flows.
- The distribution of the stochastic inputs  $(V, \varphi, b)$  is found from field data, using objective Bayesian analysis.





## Probability of a catastrophic event

It follows that, for any fixed  $t > 0$ , the number of catastrophic PF's (those with  $V_i > \Psi(\varphi_i)$ ) in  $t$  years is Poisson with (conditional) mean

$$\begin{aligned} E(\# \text{ catastrophic PFs in } t \text{ yrs} \mid \alpha, \lambda) &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{\Psi(\varphi)}^{\infty} [\lambda e^{-\alpha} t] \frac{f(v \mid \alpha)}{2\pi} dv d\varphi \\ &= \frac{t \lambda}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \Psi(\varphi)^{-\alpha} d\varphi, \end{aligned}$$

$$\Pr(\text{At least one CPF in } t \text{ yrs} \mid \alpha, \lambda) = 1 - \exp \left[ -\frac{t \lambda}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \Psi(\varphi)^{-\alpha} d\varphi \right],$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &\equiv \Pr(\text{At least one CPF in } t \text{ yrs} \mid \text{data}) \\ &= 1 - \iint \exp \left[ -\frac{t \lambda}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \Psi(\varphi)^{-\alpha} d\varphi \right] \pi(\alpha, \lambda \mid \text{data}) d\alpha d\lambda, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\pi(\alpha, \lambda \mid \text{data})$  is the posterior distribution of  $(\alpha, \lambda)$  given the data.

## Computing the probabilities of catastrophe

To compute  $\Pr(\text{at least one catastrophic event in } t \text{ years} \mid \text{data})$  for a range of  $t$ , an importance sampling estimate is

$$P(t) \cong 1 - \frac{\sum_i \exp \left[ -\frac{t \lambda_i \hat{\Psi}(\alpha_i)}{2\pi} \right] \frac{\pi^*(\alpha_i, \lambda_i)}{f_I(\alpha_i, \lambda_i)}}{\sum_i \frac{\pi^*(\alpha_i, \lambda_i)}{f_I(\alpha_i, \lambda_i)}},$$

- where  $\hat{\Psi}(\alpha)$  is an MC estimate of  $\int_0^{2\pi} \Psi(\varphi)^{-\alpha} d\varphi$  based on draws  $\varphi_i \sim Un(0, 2\pi)$ ;
- $\pi^*(\alpha, \lambda)$  is the un-normalized posterior;
- $(\alpha_i, \lambda_i)$  are drawn from the importance sampling density  $f_I(\alpha, \lambda) = t_2(\alpha, \lambda \mid \hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma}, 3)$ , with d.f. 3, mean  $\hat{\mu}^t = (\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\lambda})$ , and scale  $\hat{\Sigma} = \text{inverse of observed Fisher information matrix}$ .

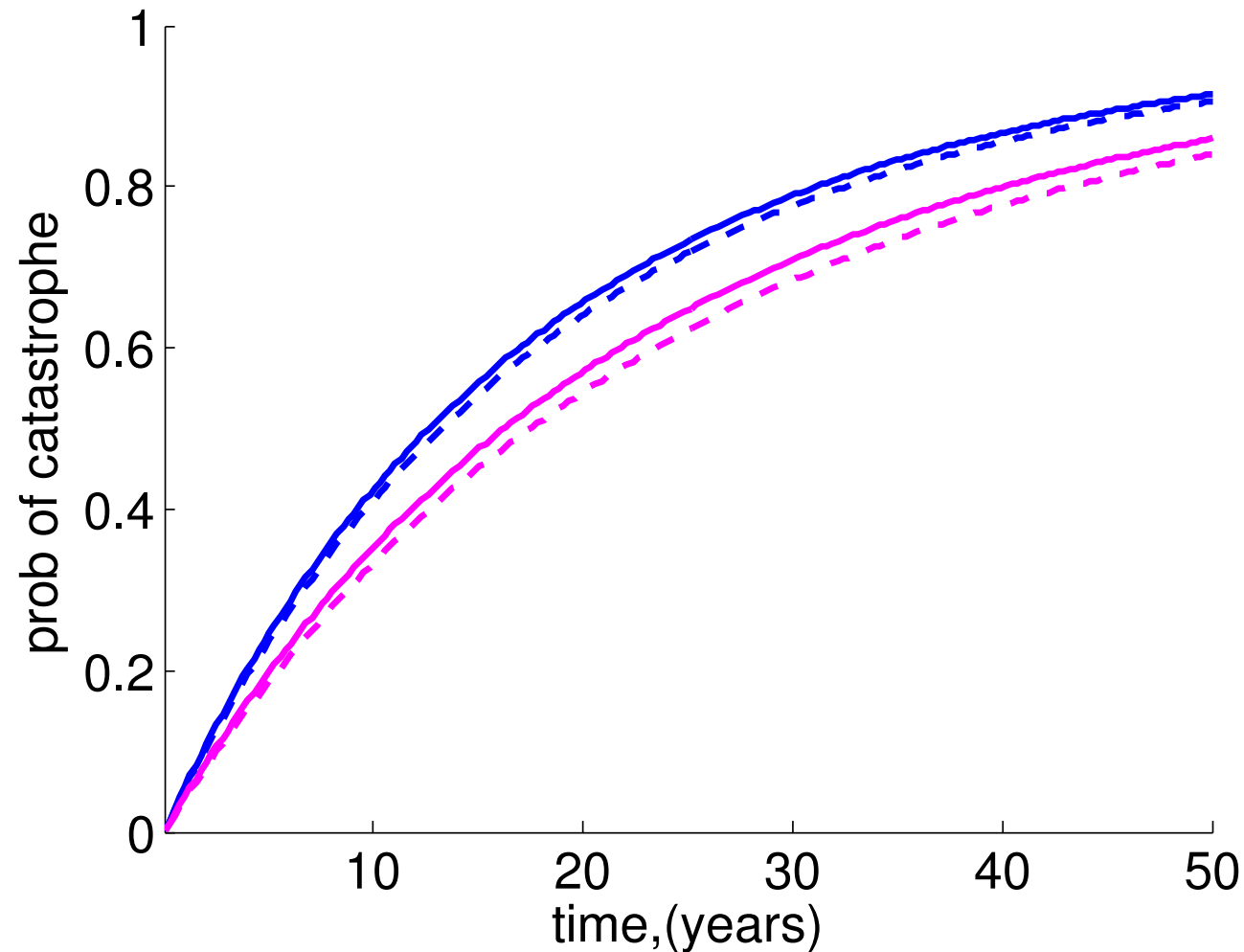


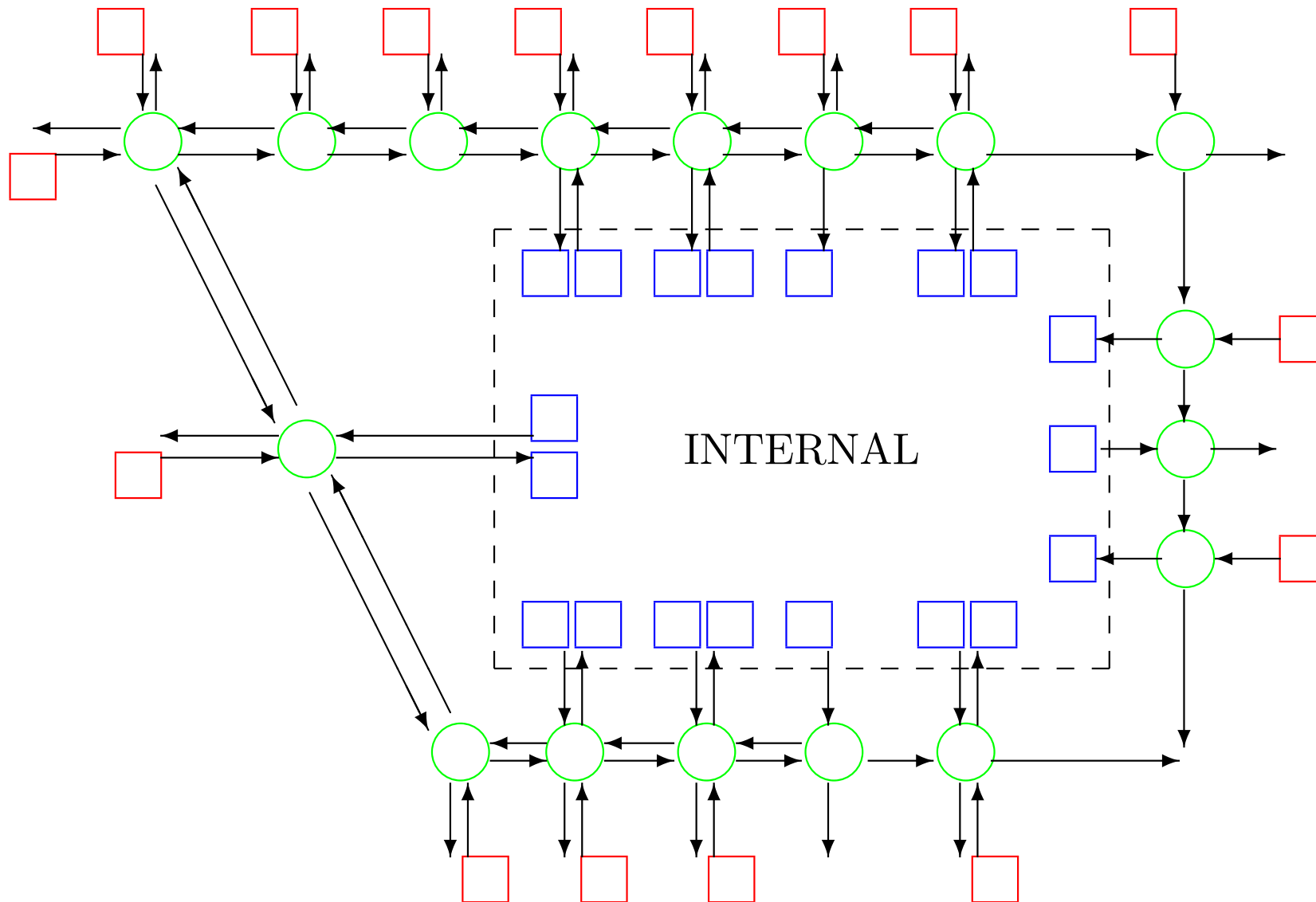
Figure 2:  $P(t)$  at Plymouth (higher curves) and Airport (lower curves). Solid (dashed)  $\leadsto$  computed with the upper (lower) 75% confidence bands. Reference priors lead to overlapping curves.

## A Traffic Microsimulator

- **CORSIM** is a vehicular traffic microsimulator.
- Application: use CORSIM to model a 44-intersection neighborhood in Chicago.
- Data: Vehicle counts (many inaccurate) from a 1-hour period during rush hour (9am-10am) on a single day.
- Goal: Solve the ‘inverse problem’ (or parameter estimation problem) of determining needed inputs for CORSIM from this data.

## Needed CORSIM inputs and data

- Needed CORSIM inputs:
  - *Demands* ( $\lambda$ ): 16 Means of exponential inter-arrival time distributions, at entry points to the network.
  - 84 *turning probabilities* ( $\mathbf{P}$ ).
- Data: Types of counts ( $\mathbf{C}$ ):
  - **Demands**: Observer counts of # vehicles entering network at the 16 entry locations during the hour.
  - **Turning Counts**: Observer counts of # vehicles turning at each intersection during 20-minute intervals.
  - **Video Counts**: Counts from a video recording of the # vehicles passing through central intersections.
- Goal: Obtain  $\pi(\lambda, \mathbf{P} \mid \mathbf{C})$ , the posterior distribution of the inputs  $\lambda, \mathbf{P}$  given the data.



Locations of **Observer counts**, **Video counts**, and **Turning counts**.

## Probabilistic Structure and Latent Counts

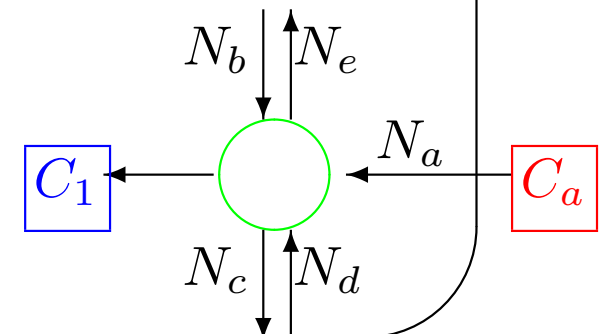
- Each network link has unobserved **latent** number of vehicles  $N_i$ .
- **Observed Demand Counts**  $C_i \sim \text{Poisson}(b_i N_i)$ .

Observer bias  $b_i \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$  with  $\pi(\alpha, \beta) = 1_{\alpha < 2\beta}$

True Demand counts  $N_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_i)$  with  $\pi(\lambda_i) \propto \lambda_i^{-1}$

- **Latent turning counts**  $(N_{iL}, N_{iT}, N_{iR}) \sim \text{MN}(N_i | P_{iL}, P_{iT}, P_{iR})$  with  $\pi(P_{iL}, P_{iT}, P_{iR}) \propto (P_{iL} P_{iT} P_{iR})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$
- Observed turning counts: independent observations coming from the same multinomial distribution as the latent counts.
- **Network restrictions** (27):  $N_{bT} + N_{aL} = N_c (= N_{cL} + N_{cT} + N_{cR})$ .
- **Video restrictions** (10):  

$$C_1 = N_{dL} + N_{aT} + N_{bR}.$$



Problem 1: Reparameterization of the Posterior The 37 linear restrictions essentially mean that there are 37 extra parameters in the model. Write the restrictions as

$$\boxed{\Gamma \mathbf{N} = \Lambda} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Gamma: (37 \text{ by } 127) \text{ matrix of } \{-1,0,1\} \text{ coefficients} \\ \mathbf{N}: (127 \text{ by } 1) \text{ matrix of parameters} \\ \Lambda: (37 \text{ by } 1) \text{ matrix of known coefficients (video or zeros)} \end{array} \right.$$

To reparameterize,

- find a **singular** (37 by 37)  $\Gamma^*$  and (37 by 90)  $\mathbf{B}$  (with corresponding partitions  $\mathbf{N}_1$  and  $\mathbf{N}_2$  of  $\mathbf{N}$ ) such that

$$\boxed{\Gamma^* \mathbf{N}_1 + \mathbf{B} \mathbf{N}_2 = \Lambda};$$

- replace  $\mathbf{N}_1$  in the likelihood with  $\boxed{\mathbf{N}_1 = (\Gamma^*)^{-1} \Lambda - (\Gamma^*)^{-1} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{N}_2}$ .

Computation of  $\Gamma^*$  is a fast and easy preprocessing step.

Existence of (at least one)  $\Gamma^*$  is guaranteed by the nontriviality of the restrictions.



Problem 2: Iteration-dependent support of the  $N_i$  Cheaply finding the exact support of each of the 90 remaining  $N_i$  is crucial for efficient MCMC. To compute the support

- note that nonnegativity of counts  $\equiv$  nonnegativity of each multinomial factorial argument in the likelihood:

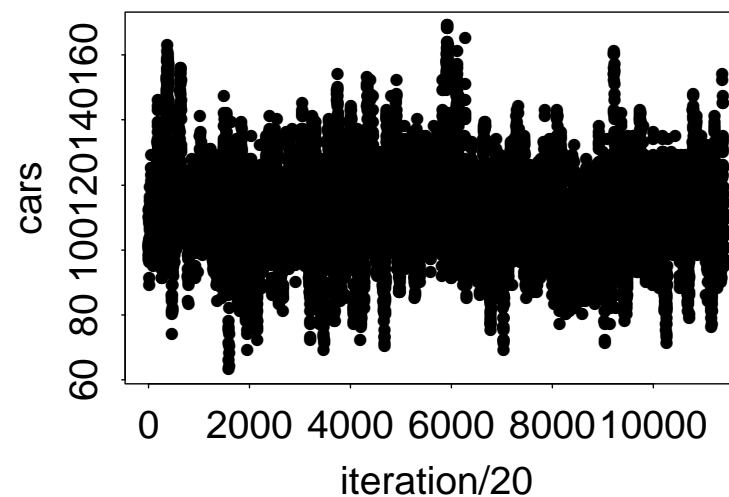
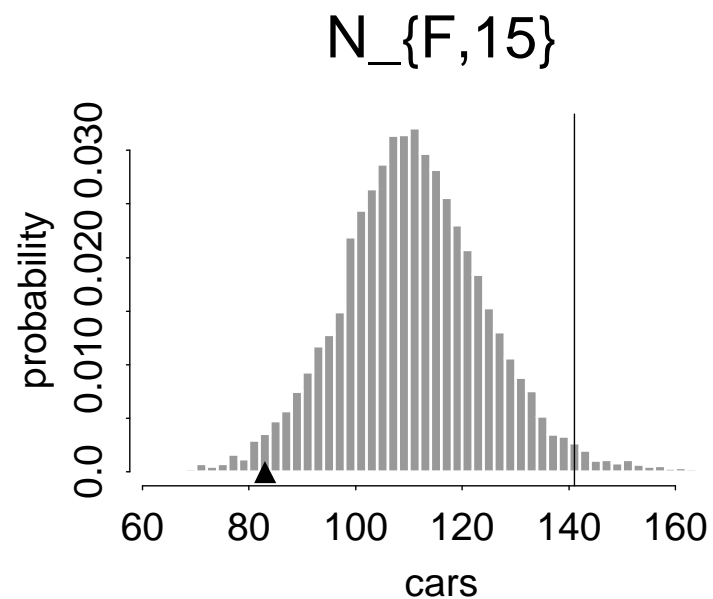
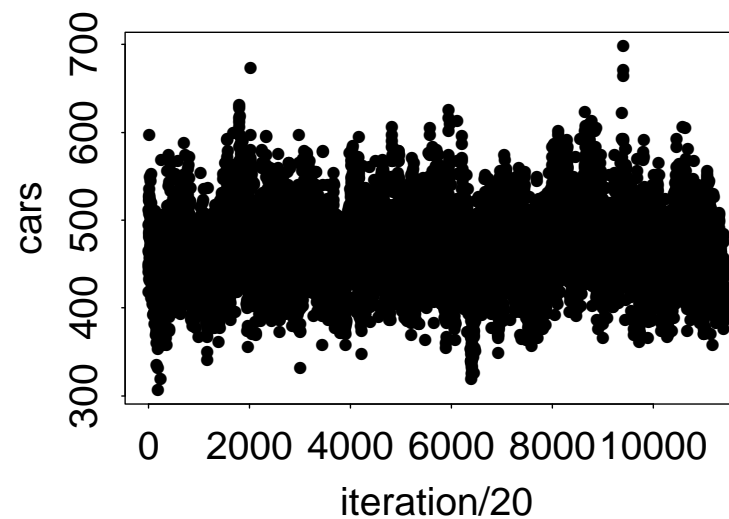
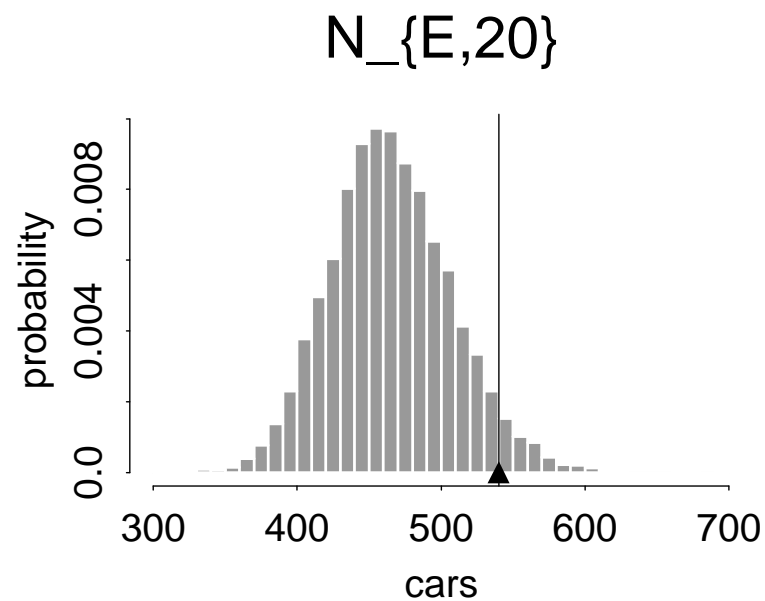
$$[N_i | \dots] \propto \frac{(f_1(N_{-i}, C) + a_1 N_i)! f_6(P)^{N_i}}{(f_2(N_{-i}, C) + a_2 N_i)! (f_3(N_{-i}, C) + a_3 N_i)! (f_4(N_{-i}, C) - a_4 N_i)! (f_5(N_{-i}, C) - a_5 N_i)!},$$

where  $f_1, f_2, f_3$  (+ sign) *can* be negative, and  $f_4, f_5$  (- sign) *are* non-negative;

- also, G.L.B. =  $-\min(0, \frac{f_1}{a_1}, \frac{f_2}{a_2}, \frac{f_3}{a_3})$ , L.U.B. =  $+\min(\frac{f_4}{a_4}, \frac{f_5}{a_5})$ ,  
with the existence of support in the previous iteration guaranteeing that L.U.B.  $\geq$  G.L.B;
- which together imply  $N_i \in [-\min(0, \frac{f_1}{a_1}, \frac{f_2}{a_2}, \frac{f_3}{a_3}), +\min(\frac{f_4}{a_4}, \frac{f_5}{a_5})]$ .

### Problem 3: MCMC starting values for the latent counts

- A starting value of the 90-dimensional  $\mathbf{N}$  must satisfy  $\Gamma\mathbf{N} = \Lambda$ ,  $\mathbf{N} \geq 0$ , and all  $N$ 's are integer-valued.
- Since the demand inputs to the network are unknown, this is actually easy to ensure for our case.
- Indeed, a simple algorithm can be created which provides a satisfactory starting value for any set of data.



Posterior distributions of two of the latent demands.

## Final Comments

- Bayesian combination of evidence (of all types) is conceptually straightforward.
- It is often done through hierarchical modeling and utilization of objective Bayesian methods.
- Subjective Bayesian analysis is a crucial addition if one wishes to incorporate expert opinion.
- Computational issues can require the need of many types of approximation.

Thanks!