

Bayesian Hierarchical Modeling for Meta-Analysis

Overview

Meta-analysis is an important technique that combines information from different studies. When you have no prior information for thinking any particular study is different from another, you can treat Bayesian meta-analysis as a hierarchical model. This example illustrates two different applications of hierarchical modeling to a meta-analysis in medicine. The first application uses a normal approximation to the likelihood, and the second application uses the exact binomial likelihood.

The SAS source code for this example is available as a text file attachment. In Adobe Acrobat, right-click the icon in the margin and select **Save Embedded File to Disk**. You can also double-click the icon to open the file immediately.

[source code](#)

Analysis

Consider the data from Yusuf et al. (1985), which summarize mortality after myocardial infarction from 22 studies. For each study, the data are in the form of 2×2 tables that consist of patients who are randomly assigned to receive beta-blockers or placebo. For study j , suppose that trt_j is the number of deaths out of trtN_j patients in the treatment group and ctrl_j is the number of deaths out of ctrlN_j patients in the control group.

The following statements read the data into SAS and create the Multistudies data set:

```
data multistudies;
  input studyid ctrl ctrlN trt trtN;
  datalines;
  1 3 39 3 38
  2 14 116 7 114
  3 11 93 5 69
  4 127 1520 102 1533
  5 27 365 28 355
  6 6 52 4 59
  7 152 939 98 945
  8 48 471 60 632
  9 37 282 25 278
  10 188 1921 138 1916
  11 52 583 64 873
  12 47 266 45 263
```

```

13 16 293 9 291
14 45 883 57 858
15 31 147 25 154
16 38 213 33 207
17 12 122 28 251
18 6 154 8 151
19 3 134 6 174
20 40 218 32 209
21 43 364 27 391
22 39 674 22 680
;

```

Suppose you want use a Bayesian random-effects model to estimate both the study-specific treatment effect and the pooled treatment effect. A Bayesian random-effects model assumes that there is no prior information for thinking that one study is different from the other. This assumption is also known as exchangeability.

Hierarchical Model Using Normal Approximation to the Likelihood

Normal approximation to binomial likelihood is a classical method that is commonly used in meta-analysis. Let Y_j be the odds ratio for the j th study:

$$Y_j = \frac{trt_j(ctrlN_j - ctrl_j)}{ctrl_j(trtN_j - trt_j)}$$

You can estimate the treatment effect θ_j , $j = 1, \dots, 22$, through the means of an approximate normal distribution,

$$\log(Y_j) \sim \text{normal}(\theta_j, s_j^2)$$

where θ_j is the study-specific effect and s_j^2 is the known variance of $\log(Y_j)$. For s_j^2 , because all studies have large sample sizes (more than 50 persons in each group in nearly all of the studies), you can use the approximate sampling variance of θ_j :

$$s_j^2 = \frac{1}{trt_j} + \frac{1}{trtN_j - trt_j} + \frac{1}{ctrl_j} + \frac{1}{ctrlN_j - ctrl_j}$$

If the odds ratios are exchangeable between the studies, then the treatment effect in each trial can be considered to be a random quantity drawn from some population distribution. In a Bayesian framework, this means that you can place a common prior distribution on the exchangeable random-effects parameters $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{22}$,

$$\theta_j \sim \text{normal}(\mu, \tau^2)$$

where μ is the population average of the treatment effect across all studies and τ^2 is the between-study variation. Suppose the following noninformative priors are placed on the hyperparameters μ and τ^2 :

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &\sim \text{normal}(0, sd = 3) \\ \tau^2 &\sim \text{igamma}(shape = 0, 01, scale = 0.01) \end{aligned}$$

The following DATA step creates the response variable, $\log(Y_j)$, and its approximate sampling variance, s_j^2 for $j = 1, \dots, 22$.

```

data multistudies;
  set multistudies;
  logy=log(trt/(trtN-trt)/(ctrl/(ctrlN-ctrl)));
  sigma2=1/trt+1/(trtN-trt)+1/ctrl+1/(ctrlN-ctrl);
run;

```

The following MCMC procedure statements fit the described random-effects model:

```

proc mcmc data=multistudies outpost=nlout seed=276 nmc=50000 thin=5
  monitor=(OR Pooled);
  array OR[22];
  parms mu tau2;
  prior mu ~ normal(0, sd=3);
  prior tau2~ igamma(0.01,s=0.01);
  random theta ~n(mu, var=tau2) subject=studyid;
  OR[studyid]=exp(theta);
  Pooled=exp(mu);
  model logy ~ n(theta, var=sigma2);
run;

```

The PROC MCMC statement specifies the input data set as `Multistudies` and the output data set as `Nlout`, sets a seed for the random number generator, and requests a large simulation size with thinning. The `MONITOR=` option in the PROC MCMC statement outputs the analyses or saves the posterior samples for the specified variables. The `ARRAY` statement allocates an array variable `OR` of size 22, which is the number of random-effects parameters. The `PARMS` statement declares μ and τ^2 as model parameters, and the `PRIOR` statements specify their prior distributions.

The `RANDOM` statement declares θ_j as random-effects parameters and specifies the normal prior distribution with hyperparameters μ and τ^2 . The `SUBJECT=` option in the `RANDOM` statement specifies the group index as the data set variable `studyid`. The `RANDOM` statement generates 22 random-effects parameters, one for each unique value in the `studyid` variable. To monitor the function of 22 random-effects parameters, you must allocate an array and store the transformation of every random-effects parameter. The next programming statement, `OR[studyid]=exp(theta)`, does precisely this. As the procedure steps through the data set, it calculates the exponential of each θ_j parameter and stores the result in the j th element of the `OR` array according to the `studyid` variable value (indexing). For this statement to work, the subject index variable `studyid` must have an integer value (1, 2, 3, and so on). The symbol `Pooled` calculates the exponential of the hyperparameter μ , which is the pooled treatment effect. The `MODEL` statement specifies the normal likelihood for the log odds ratios.

Figure 1 reports posterior summary statistics for each of the 22 odds ratios and for the Pooled estimate. The odds ratios provide the multiplicative change in the odds of mortality in the treatment group with respect to the control group. Some variation exists among the treatment effects. The pooled estimate of the odds ratio is 0.7849, indicating that mortality is less likely in the treatment groups.

Figure 1 Posterior Summaries for the Normal Approximation Model

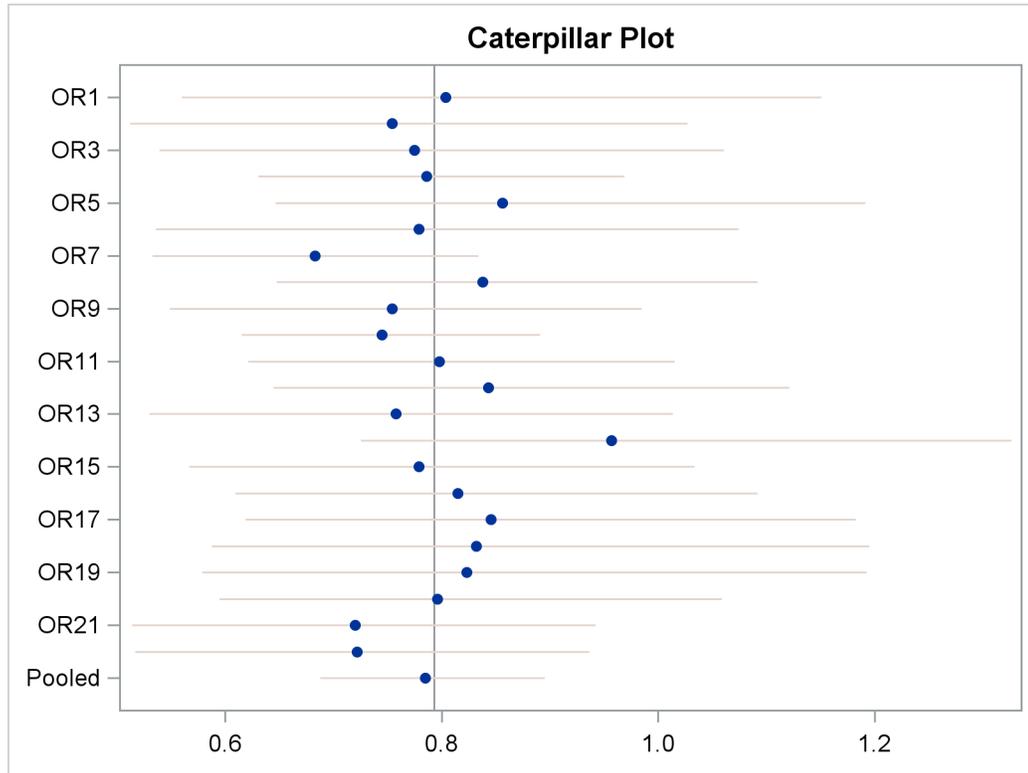
The MCMC Procedure						
Posterior Summaries						
Parameter	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentiles		
				25%	50%	75%
OR1	10000	0.8038	0.1471	0.7112	0.7879	0.8749
OR2	10000	0.7545	0.1253	0.6764	0.7523	0.8285
OR3	10000	0.7752	0.1313	0.6913	0.7663	0.8494
OR4	10000	0.7863	0.0852	0.7284	0.7809	0.8387
OR5	10000	0.8563	0.1366	0.7629	0.8370	0.9248
OR6	10000	0.7791	0.1370	0.6924	0.7697	0.8529
OR7	10000	0.6829	0.0776	0.6312	0.6835	0.7349
OR8	10000	0.8381	0.1116	0.7628	0.8269	0.9007
OR9	10000	0.7544	0.1095	0.6829	0.7499	0.8216
OR10	10000	0.7449	0.0705	0.6964	0.7423	0.7896
OR11	10000	0.7978	0.1007	0.7294	0.7910	0.8572
OR12	10000	0.8430	0.1203	0.7609	0.8293	0.9073
OR13	10000	0.7580	0.1211	0.6797	0.7536	0.8286
OR14	10000	0.9573	0.1570	0.8469	0.9297	1.0455
OR15	10000	0.7793	0.1166	0.7023	0.7727	0.8458
OR16	10000	0.8151	0.1202	0.7334	0.8052	0.8803
OR17	10000	0.8454	0.1429	0.7516	0.8250	0.9157
OR18	10000	0.8322	0.1525	0.7349	0.8122	0.9061
OR19	10000	0.8232	0.1511	0.7284	0.8036	0.8941
OR20	10000	0.7964	0.1168	0.7195	0.7847	0.8621
OR21	10000	0.7202	0.1067	0.6484	0.7191	0.7879
OR22	10000	0.7218	0.1055	0.6541	0.7222	0.7866
Pooled	10000	0.7849	0.0525	0.7498	0.7826	0.8166

You can use `%CATER` autocall macro to create a caterpillar plot of the odds ratios. The following statement takes the output from the `Nlout` data set and generates a caterpillar plot of all study-specific odds ratios and the pooled odds ratio:

```
%CATER(data=nlout, var=OR: Pooled);
```

Figure 2 shows the posterior means and the 95% equal-tail credible intervals of odds ratios from the 22 studies and for the pooled odds ratio. It looks like the treatment is most effective for Study 7 and least effective for Study 14. This result illustrates another advantage of the random-effects models: a fixed-effects model focuses on the coefficient effects after averaging study differences, whereas a random-effects model can help identify studies that are very different from others, such as ones with very high or low treatment effects.

Figure 2 Caterpillar Plot of the Odds Ratios for the Normal Approximation Model



Hierarchical Model Using Binomial Likelihood

The standard normal approximation method might not be appropriate because the approximation becomes less precise in the extreme probabilities (for example, 0,1). In the Multistudies data set, the mortality rates in the thirteenth study and nineteenth study are closest to 0 (≈ 0.03). Therefore, an alternative approach is to use the exact likelihood approach as opposed the normal approximation.

Emulating the binomial model as outlined in Spiegelhalter, Abrams, and Myles (2004), you can use the following model, where the treatment and control groups have their own binomial likelihood functions, with death probabilities p_j and q_j in the treatment group and control group, respectively:

$$\begin{aligned} trt_j &\sim \text{binomial}(trtN_j, p_j) \\ ctrl_j &\sim \text{binomial}(ctrlN_j, q_j) \end{aligned}$$

Let the log odds for the control group be ϕ_j and let the log odds for the treatment group be $\theta_j + \phi_j$ as follows:

$$\phi_j = \log(q_j/1 - q_j) \qquad \theta_j + \phi_j = \log(p_j/1 - p_j)$$

Then θ_j is the log odds ratio:

$$\theta_j = \log(p_j(1 - q_j)/(1 - p_j)q_j)$$

If treatment group risks are exchangeable, then you can assume that $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_j$ are random-effects parameters that are drawn from some common prior distribution:

$$\pi(\theta_j) = \text{normal}(\mu_\theta, \sigma_\theta^2)$$

If the control group risks are also exchangeable, then you can consider ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_j as other random-effects parameters with the following common prior:

$$\pi(\phi_j) = \text{normal}(\mu_\phi, \sigma_\phi^2)$$

Suppose the following priors are placed on the model parameters:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\mu_\theta), \pi(\mu_\phi) &= \text{normal}(0, sd = 3) \\ \pi(\sigma_\theta^2), \pi(\sigma_\phi^2) &= \text{igamma}(shape = 0.01, scale = 0.01) \end{aligned}$$

The following PROC MCMC statements fit the described model:

```
proc mcmc data=multistudies outpost=blout seed=126 nmc=50000 thin=5
  monitor=(OR Pooled);
  array OR[22];
  parms mu_theta mu_phi s_theta s_phi;
  prior mu:~ normal(0, sd=3);
  prior s:~ igamma(0.01, s=0.01);
  random theta ~n(mu_theta, var=s_theta) subject=studyid;
  random phi ~n(mu_phi, var=s_phi) subject=studyid;
  p = logistic(theta + phi);
  q = logistic(phi);
  model trt ~ binomial(trtN, p);
  model ctrl ~ binomial(ctrlN, q);
  OR[studyid]=exp(theta);
  Pooled=exp(mu_theta);
run;
```

The PROC MCMC statement specifies the input data set as `Multistudies` and the output data set as `Blout`, sets a seed for the random number generator, and requests a large simulation size with thinning. The `MONITOR=` option in the PROC MCMC statement saves the posterior samples for the specified variables. The `ARRAY` statement allocates an array variable `OR` of size 22. The `PARMS` statement declares $\mu_\theta, \mu_\phi, \sigma_\theta^2$, and σ_ϕ^2 as model parameters, and the `PRIOR` statements specify their prior distributions. The `RANDOM` statements declare θ_j and ϕ_j as random-effects parameters and specify a normal prior distribution for them. The `SUBJECT=` option in both `RANDOM` statements indicates the group index as data set variable `studyid`. The `LOGISTIC` functions perform logistic transformation from the log odds of the treatment and control groups to the corresponding binomial mortality probabilities. The `MODEL` statements specify the binomial likelihood for the treatment and the control groups. The programming statement in the next line,

`OR[studyid]=exp(theta)`, calculates the exponential of each ‘theta’ effect and stores the result in the OR array according to the studyid variable value (indexing). The symbol Pooled calculates the exponential of the hyperparameter μ_θ , which is the pooled treatment effect.

Figure 3 reports posterior summary statistics for each of the 22 odds ratios.

Figure 3 Posterior Summaries for the Binomial Model

The MCMC Procedure						
Posterior Summaries						
Parameter	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentiles		
				25%	50%	75%
OR1	10000	0.7960	0.1410	0.7066	0.7867	0.8668
OR2	10000	0.7477	0.1221	0.6698	0.7428	0.8202
OR3	10000	0.7734	0.1308	0.6913	0.7639	0.8460
OR4	10000	0.7801	0.0817	0.7230	0.7758	0.8308
OR5	10000	0.8461	0.1322	0.7573	0.8274	0.9163
OR6	10000	0.7771	0.1345	0.6924	0.7656	0.8515
OR7	10000	0.6868	0.0762	0.6346	0.6859	0.7376
OR8	10000	0.8377	0.1113	0.7626	0.8286	0.9012
OR9	10000	0.7583	0.1104	0.6854	0.7533	0.8250
OR10	10000	0.7402	0.0701	0.6907	0.7386	0.7864
OR11	10000	0.7947	0.1016	0.7270	0.7854	0.8570
OR12	10000	0.8577	0.1288	0.7692	0.8414	0.9259
OR13	10000	0.7365	0.1201	0.6592	0.7334	0.8094
OR14	10000	0.9382	0.1443	0.8361	0.9168	1.0183
OR15	10000	0.7954	0.1174	0.7185	0.7849	0.8625
OR16	10000	0.8290	0.1265	0.7470	0.8138	0.8961
OR17	10000	0.8502	0.1424	0.7578	0.8290	0.9196
OR18	10000	0.8082	0.1391	0.7171	0.7908	0.8819
OR19	10000	0.7840	0.1338	0.6993	0.7748	0.8561
OR20	10000	0.8078	0.1185	0.7279	0.7948	0.8771
OR21	10000	0.7190	0.1049	0.6503	0.7182	0.7879
OR22	10000	0.7064	0.1077	0.6348	0.7055	0.7753
Pooled	10000	0.7810	0.0529	0.7446	0.7795	0.8151

You can use `%CATER` autocall macro to create a caterpillar plot of the odds ratios. The following statement takes the output from the `Nlout` data set and generates a caterpillar plot of all study-specific treatment effects and the overall treatment effect:

```
%CATER(data=blout, var=OR: Pooled);
```

Figure 4 shows 95% credible intervals of odds ratios from the 22 studies. Comparing Figure 2 and Figure 4, you can see that the posterior means and the credible intervals that are obtained by using the approximate normal likelihood and the binomial likelihood are very similar.

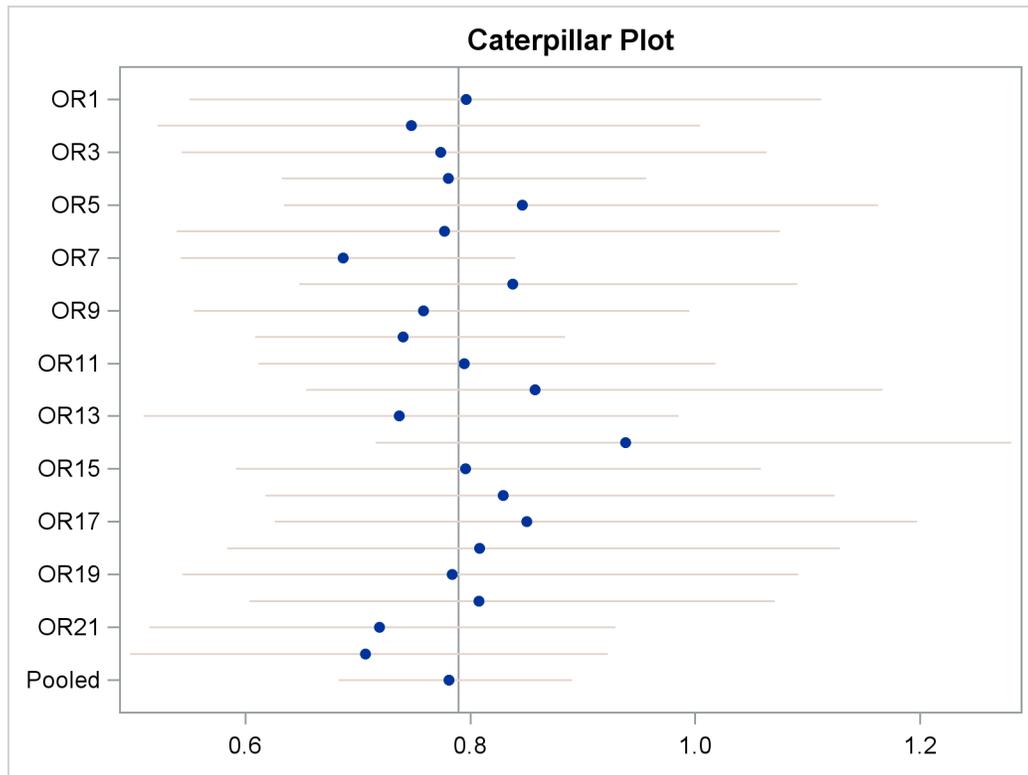
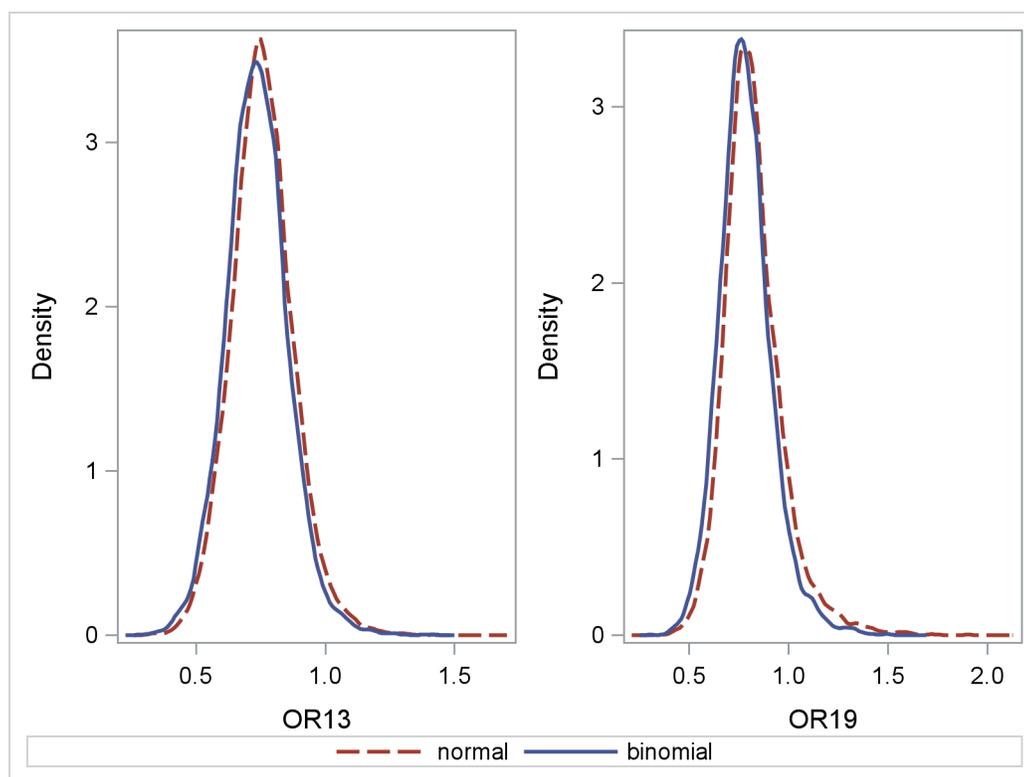
Figure 4 Caterpillar Plot of the Odds Ratios for the Binomial Model

Figure 5 compares the kernel density plots of the odds ratios that are produced by using the approximate normal likelihood and the exact binomial likelihood. The first plot shows the comparison for the thirteenth study, and the second plot shows the comparison for the nineteenth study. Even though the observed mortality rates (≈ 0.03) are close to 0 for both studies, the kernel density plots that are produced by using the approximate normal likelihood and the exact binomial likelihood are very similar. Hence, this example shows very little sensitivity to the likelihood assumption. In general, this can be explained by the large sample sizes of the studies included in the meta-analysis.

Figure 5 Kernel Density Comparison of Odds Ratios

References

Spiegelhalter, D. J., Abrams, K. R., and Myles, J. P. (2004), *Bayesian Approaches to Clinical Trials and Health-Care Evaluation*, Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons.

Yusuf, S., Petro, R., Lewis, J., Collins, R., and Sleight, P. (1985), "Beta Blockade During and After Myocardial Infarction: An Overview of Randomized Trials," *Progress in Cardiovascular Diseases*, 27, 335–371.