Hellenic Complex Systems Laboratory

# A Software Tool for Bayesian Probabilistic Methods in Medical Diagnostics

Technical Report XXVII

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# **Abstract**

**Background:** In medical diagnostics, determining disease probabilities and understanding associated uncertainty and confidence intervals are essential for patient care.

**Objective:** This study introduces a software tool developed in the Wolfram Language for the parametric estimation, visualization, and comparison of Bayesian diagnostic measures and their uncertainty.

**Methods:** The tool employs Bayes' theorem to compute posterior probabilities for disease and absence of the disease, and diagnostic thresholds derived positive and negative predictive values. It also quantifies their sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty using normal, lognormal, and gamma distributions, applying uncertainty propagation methods.

**Results:** The tool generates diagnostic measures, standard uncertainty, and confidence intervals estimates and provides plots that offer insights into their precision, thereby supporting clinical decision-making. A case study analyzing fasting plasma glucose data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey in the U.S.A., demonstrates the tool's utility for diagnosing diabetes mellitus. The results underscore the influence of measurement uncertainty on the Bayesian diagnostic measures.

**Conclusion:** The software enhances the estimation and facilitates the comparison of Bayesian diagnostic measures, which are critical for medical practice. It provides a framework for analyzing uncertainty and assists in understanding and applying probabilistic methods in medical diagnostics.

**Keywords:** Bayesian diagnosis; prior probability; posterior probability; likelihood; positive predictive value; negative predictive value; parametric distribution; combined uncertainty; measurement uncertainty; sampling uncertainty; probability density function; diabetes mellitus

# 1. Introduction

#### 1.1.Medical Diagnosis

Diagnosis in medicine is fundamentally the process of identifying the unique characteristics of a disease, through abduction, deduction and induction (Stanley and Campos 2013). The term 'diagnosis,' originating from the Greek ' $\delta\iota\dot{\alpha}$ yv $\omega\sigma\iota\varsigma$ ' meaning 'discernment' (Weiner, Simpson, and Oxford University Press 1989 2004), underscores the critical role of distinguishing between healthy and diseased states in individuals. It can be

defined as the stochastic mapping of symptoms, signs, laboratory and medical imaging findings onto a particular disease condition, derived from medical knowledge.

#### 1.1.1. Threshold Based Diagnosis

Diagnostic tests or procedures are applied for the binary classification of individuals into eitherf diseased or nondiseased populations. The probability distributions of the measurand of a quantitative diagnostic test in these populations overlap. Despite this, the results can be dichotomized by setting a diagnostic threshold or cutoff point (Zou, O'Malley, and Mauri 2007). However, reliance on a single threshold for diagnosis across a spectrum of data points introduces uncertainty, due to the overlapping probability distributions of the measurand in both nondiseased and diseased groups (Chatzimichail and Hatjimihail 2023). Nevertheless this dichotomous approach marks a significant shift in medical decision-making by linking a continuum of evidence to binary clinical decisions such as whether to treat or not to treat (Djulbegovic et al. 2015).

#### 1.1.1.1. Diagnostic Accuracy Measures

To ensure patients' safety it is imperative that the correctness of this classification be rigorously evaluated.

Among the numerous diagnostic accuracy measures (DAM) in the literature, only a few are routinely used for evaluating the diagnostic accuracy of threshold based diagnostic tests in clinical research and practice (Šimundić 2009). These include positive predictive value and negative predictive value, which are defined conditionally on the test outcome and are prevalence dependent.

#### **1.1.2.** Bayesian Diagnosis

In medical diagnostics, Bayes' theorem (Gelman et al. 2013) is pivotal in transforming the initial probability of a disease into a posterior probability following diagnostic tests (Viana and Ramakrishnan 1992; Gelman et al. 2013; van de Schoot et al. 2021; Bours 2021; Fischer 2021; Chatzimichail and Hatjimihail 2023). This theorem links the direct probability P(H|E) of a hypothesis H given specific data E to the inverse probability P(E|H) of data E given the hypothesis H (Joyce 2021).

# 1.2.Uncertainty

Uncertainty represents imperfect or incomplete information. When quantifiable, it can be expressed with probability (Ayyub and Klir 2006).

# 1.2.1. Measurement Uncertainty

As measurements are inherently variable, measurement uncertainty is defined as a "parameter, associated with the result of a measurement, that characterizes the dispersion of the values that could reasonably be attributed to the measurand" (Kallner et al. 2012). Measurement uncertainty is replacing the total analytical error concept (Oosterhuis and Theodorsson 2016).

#### 1.2.2. Sampling Uncertainty

Diagnostic measures are estimated by applying screening or diagnostic tests to samples of populations.

Sampling heterogeneity contributes to their combined uncertainty (M H Ramsey S L R Ellison P Rostron 2019).

Even when simple random sampling is applied, inherent sample heterogeneity exists (Ellison and Williams 2012).

# 1.2.3. Uncertainty of Diagnostic Accuracy Measures and Bayesian Posterior Probabilities

We have already explored the uncertainty of diagnostic accuracy measures and Bayesian posterior probability for disease, which can significantly impact their clinical usefulness (Chatzimichail and Hatjimihail 2021, 2024). Estimating, evaluating, and mitigating this uncertainty is critical in medical diagnosis.

# 1.3. Bayesian Diagnostic Measures

This project introduces a novel software tool designed for the parametric estimation and visualization of four diagnostic measures derived from Bayes' theorem, along with their associated uncertainty:

- a) Positive predictive value and negative predictive value (Bours 2021).
- b) Bayesian posterior probability of disease and its complement, the Bayesian posterior probability for the absence of disease.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first publication comparing the aforementioned four Bayesian diagnostic measures and their uncertainty.

# 2. Methods

#### 2.1.Calculations

#### 2.1.1. Calculation of Bayesian Diagnostic Measures

According to Bayes' theorem the direct probability P(H|E) of a hypothesis H given specific data E and the inverse probability P(E|H) of data E given the hypothesis H are related as follows:

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)}$$

$$= \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E|H)P(H) + P(E|\overline{H})P(\overline{H})}$$

$$= \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E|H)P(H) + P(E|\overline{H})(1 - P(H))}$$

where  $\overline{H} = \neg H$ , therefore  $P(\overline{H}) = 1 - P(H)$ .

#### 2.1.1.1. Positive and Negative Predictive Value

If D denotes the presence, and  $\overline{D}$  the absence of a disease,  $F_D(x|\theta)$  the CDF of the test measurand in the presence of the disease,  $F_{\overline{D}}(x;\theta)$  the CDF in the absence of the disease, and v the prevalence or the prior (pretest) probability P(D) for disease, the positive predictive value for a diagnostic threshold t, can be calculated as follows:

$$P(D|T \ge t) = \frac{P(T \ge t|D)P(D)}{P(T \ge t|D)P(D) + P(T \ge t|\overline{D})(1 - P(D))}$$
$$= \frac{(1 - F_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta}))v}{(1 - F_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta}))v + (1 - F_{\overline{D}}(t|\boldsymbol{\theta}))(1 - v)}$$

while the negative predictive value, can be calculated as:

$$P(\overline{D}|T < t) = \frac{P(T < t|\overline{D})P(\overline{D})}{P(T < t|\overline{D})P(\overline{D}) + P(T < t|D)P(D)}$$
$$= \frac{F_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})(1 - v)}{\left(1 - F_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})\right)(1 - v) + F_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})v}$$

In the above equations  $P(T \ge t|D)$  and  $P(T < t|\overline{D})$  are respectively the sensitivity and the specificity of the test.

#### 2.1.1.2. Posterior Probability for Disease and Absence of Disease

Consequently, if  $f_D(x|\theta)$  the PDF of the test measurand in the presence of the disease, and  $f_{\overline{D}}(x;\theta)$  the PDF in the absence of the disease, the posterior (post-test) probability for disease, is calculated as follows:

$$P(D|T = t) = \frac{P(T = t|D)P(D)}{P(T = t|D)P(D) + P(T = t|\overline{D})(1 - P(D))}$$
$$= \frac{f_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})v}{f_D(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})v + f_{\overline{D}}(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})(1 - v)}$$

while the posterior (post-test) probability for the absence of disease is:

$$P(\overline{D}|T=t) = \frac{P(T=t|\overline{D})P(\overline{D})}{P(T=t|\overline{D})(1-P(D)) + P(T=t|D)P(D)}$$
$$= \frac{f_{\overline{D}}(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})(1-v)}{f_{\overline{D}}(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})(1-v) + f_{\overline{D}}(t|\boldsymbol{\theta})v} = 1 - P(D|T=t)$$

#### 2.1.2. Uncertainty Quantification

Uncertainty of input parameters can manifest as standard uncertainty u(t), the standard deviation of t, and expanded uncertainty U(t), as a range around t encompassing t with a probability p (Kallner et al. 2012).

#### 2.1.2.1. Measurement Uncertainty

Measurement uncertainty is computed following guidelines in the "Guide to the expression of uncertainty in measurement" (GUM) (Joint Committee for Guides in Metrology 2011) and "Expression of measurement uncertainty in laboratory medicine" (Kallner et al. 2012). Bias is considered a component of this uncertainty (White 2008). The relationship between the standard measurement uncertainty  $u_m(t)$  to the value of the measurand t, is generally expressed as:

$$u_m(t) = \sqrt{b_0^2 + b_1^2 t^2}$$

where  $b_0$  is a constant and  $b_1$  is a proportionality constant.

If needed, it is approximated linearly as:

$$u_m(t) \cong b_0 + b_1 t$$

The general approach to estimating the coefficients of the above equations is delineated in *Appendix A5* of "Quantifying Uncertainty in Analytical Measurement" (Ellison and Williams 2012).

#### 2.1.2.2. Sampling Uncertainty of Means and Standard Deviations

If  $m_P$  and  $s_P$  are the mean and standard deviation of a measurand in a population sample of size  $n_P$ , then the standard sampling uncertainty of  $m_P$  and  $s_P$  are estimated as:

$$u_s(m_P) \cong \frac{s_P}{\sqrt{n_P}}$$

$$u_s(s_P) \cong \frac{s_p}{\sqrt{2(n_P-1)}}$$

using the central limit theorem and the chi-square distribution (Agresti, Franklin, and Klingenberg 2023; Miller and Miller 2018; J. Aitchison 1957).

2.1.2.3. Sampling Uncertainty of Prevalence or Prior Probability for Disease If  $n_D$  and  $n_{\overline{D}}$  are the respective numbers of diseased and nondiseased individuals in a population sample, then the standard uncertainty of the prevalence or prior probability for disease  $v = \frac{n_D}{n_{\overline{D}} + n_D}$  is estimated as:

$$u_s(v) \cong \sqrt{\frac{(2+n_{\bar{D}})(2+n_D)}{(4+n_{\bar{D}}+n_D)^3}}$$

using the Agresti-Coull adjustment of the Waldo interval (Agresti and Coull 1998).

### 2.1.2.4. Measures Combined Uncertainty

The standard combined uncertainty  $u_c(t)$  of the diagnostic measures is computed via uncertainty propagation rules, employing a first-order Taylor series approximation (B. M. Wilson and Smith 2013) (refer to Supplemental File II). When there are l components of uncertainty, with standard uncertainty  $u_i(t)$ , then:

$$u_c(t) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^l u_i(t)^2}$$

#### 2.1.2.5. Measures Expanded Uncertainty

When there are l components of uncertainty, with standard uncertainty  $u_i(t)$  and  $v_i$  degrees of freedom, then the effective degrees of freedom  $v_{eff}$  of the combined uncertainty  $u_c(t)$  are obtained from the Welch–Satterthwaite formula (Welch 1947; Satterthwaite 1946):

$$v_{eff}(t) \cong \frac{u_c(t)^4}{\sum_{i=1}^l \frac{u_i(t)^4}{v_i}}$$

If  $v_{min}$  the minimum of  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_l$ , then:

$$\nu_{min} \le \nu_{eff}(x) \le \sum_{i=1}^{l} \nu_i$$

If  $F_{\nu}(z)$  is the Student's t-distribution cumulative distribution function with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom and  $u_c(t)$  is the standard combined uncertainty of a Bayesian diagnostic measure, its expanded combined uncertainty  $U_c(t)$  at a confidence level p is:

$$U_c(t) \cong \left(F_{\nu}^{-1}\left(\frac{1-p}{2}\right)u_c(t), F_{\nu}^{-1}\left(\frac{1+p}{2}\right)u_c(t)\right)$$

The confidence interval of t at the same confidence level p is approximated as:

$$CI_p(t) \cong \left(x + F_v^{-1}\left(\frac{1-p}{2}\right)u_c(t), x + F_v^{-1}\left(\frac{1+p}{2}\right)u_c(t)\right)$$

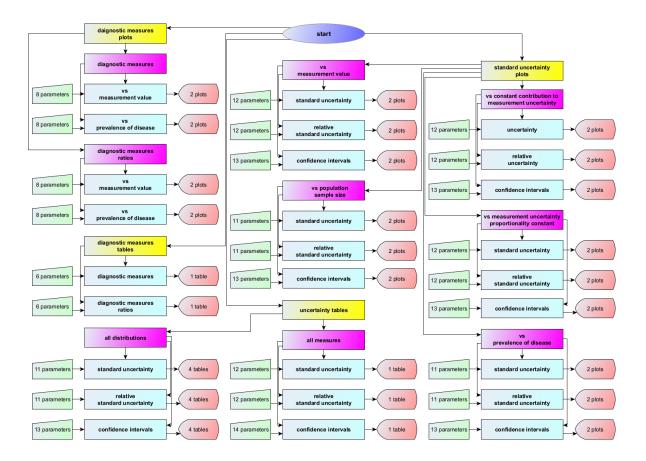
The confidence intervals of the Bayesian diagnostic measures are truncated to the [0,1] range.

# 2.2.The Software

#### 2.2.1. Program Overview

To facilitate the estimation and comparison of Bayesian diagnostic measures the software program *Bayesian Diagnostic Insights* was developed in Wolfram Language, using Wolfram Mathematica® Ver. 14.0 (Wolfram Research, Inc., Champaign, IL, USA). This program is designed to estimate and plot the values, the standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty, and the confidence intervals of Bayesian diagnostic measures for a screening or diagnostic test (refer to Figure 1).

This interactive program is freely available as a Wolfram Language notebook (.nb) (Supplemental File I: BayesianDiagnosticInsights.nb). It can be run on Wolfram Player® or Wolfram Mathematica® (see Appendix A.3). Due to the complexity of the required calculations, it is computationally intensive.



**Figure 1.** A simplified flowchart of the program *Bayesian Diagnostic Insights* with the number of input parameters and outputs for each submodule.

#### 2.3. Input Parameters

#### 2.3.1.Parametric Distributions

Users select the distribution of each population from a predefined list of parametric distributions:

- a) Normal distribution
- b) Lognormal distribution
- c) Gamma distribution.

#### 2.3.2. Bayesian Diagnostic Measures

Users select the Bayesian diagnostic measures to be evaluated among the following:

- a) Positive predictive value  $P(D|T \ge t)$
- b) Negative predictive value  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$
- c) Posterior probability for disease P(D|T = t)
- d) Posterior probability for the absence of disease  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$

#### 2.3.3. Definition of Statistical Parameters

For each population, users define its size n, the mean  $\mu$ , and the standard deviation  $\sigma$  of the measurand. The parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are defined in arbitrary units.

#### 2.3.4.Measurement Uncertainty

Users select a linear or nonlinear equation of the measurement uncertainty versus the value t of the measurand. They define the constant contribution  $b_0$  to the standard measurement uncertainty, the proportionality constant  $b_1$ , and the number of quality control samples that have been analyzed for its estimation.

# 2.4. Output

The program provides plots and tables of the diagnostic measures, their standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty and the associated confidence intervals. By providing this comprehensive set of input parameters and output plots and tables, the program offers a robust platform for exploring and comparing Bayesian diagnostic measures and their uncertainty using parametric distributions of medical diagnostic measurands.

A more detailed documentation of the interface of the program is presented in Supplemental file III: BayesianDiagnosticInsightsInterface.pdf

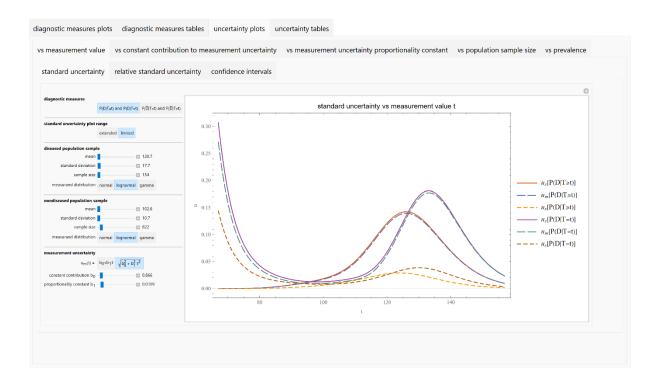


Figure 2. A screenshot of the program Bayesian Diagnostic Insight.

# 2.5.Illustrative Case Study

To demonstrate the application of the program, fasting plasma glucose (FPG) was used as the diagnostic test measurand for the Bayesian diagnosis of diabetes mellitus (hereafter referred as "diabetes"). The oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) was used as the reference diagnostic method. A diagnosis of diabetes was confirmed if the plasma glucose value was equal to or greater than 200 mg/dl, measured two hours after oral administration of 75 g of glucose (ElSayed et al. 2023), during an OGTT (2-h PG). The study population was confined to individuals aged between 70 and 80 years, a decision guided by the well-documented strong correlation between age and the prevalence of diabetes (Sun et al. 2022).

National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) data from participants was retrieved for the period from 2005 to 2016 (n = 60,936). NHANES is a series of studies designed to evaluate the health and nutritional status of adults and children in the United States (National Center for Health Statistics 2005-20016).

The inclusion criteria for participants were:

- a) Valid FPG and OGTT results (n = 13,836).
- b) A negative response to NHANES question DIQ010 regarding a diabetes diagnosis (National Center for Health Statistics 2005-20016) (n = 13,465).

#### c) Age 70–80 years (n = 976).

Participants with a 2-h PG measurement  $\geq$ 200 mg/dl were considered diabetic (n = 154). The prevalence or prior probability of diabetes, along with the probability distributions for fasting plasma glucose (FPG) in both diabetic and non-diabetic individuals, were estimated using empirical Bayes methods (Petrone, Rousseau, and Scricciolo 2014), as:

$$v \cong \frac{154}{976} = 0.158$$

The statistics of the FPG datasets are presented in Table 1 (hereafter, FPG and its uncertainty are expressed in mg/dl).

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of the datasets and the estimated lognormal distributions of the diabetic and nondiabetic populations.

	Diabetic Participants		Nondiabetic Participants			
	Dataset	$L_D$	$l_D$	Dataset	$L_{\overline{D}}$	$l_{\overline{D}}$
n	154	-	-	822	-	-
Mean (mg/dl)	120.7	120.7	120.7	102.6	102.6	102.6
Median (mg/dl)	117.0	119.4	119.4	102.0	102.1	102.1
Standard Deviation (mg/dl)	19.1	17.8	17.7	10.9	10.9	10.7
Mean Uncertainty (mg/dl)	1.586	1.586	0	1.028	1.028	0
Skewness	1.448	0.446	0.444	0.523	0.315	0.312
Kurtosis	6.354	3.355	3.352	3.445	3.177	3.174
p-value (Cramér–von Mises test)	-	0.294	0.295	-	0.281	0.299

Lognormal distributions were estimated to model FPG measurements in diabetic and nondiabetic participants, using the maximum likelihood estimation method (Myung 2003). The respective distributions, parametrized for their means  $\mu_D$  and  $\mu_{\overline{D}}$ , and standard deviations  $\sigma_D$  and  $\sigma_{\overline{D}}$ , were the following:

$$L_D = Lognormal(\mu_D, \sigma_D) = Lognormal(120.671,17.720)$$

$$L_{\overline{D}} = Lognormal(\mu_{\overline{D}}, \sigma_{\overline{D}}) = Lognormal(102.642, 10.653)$$

NHANES quality control data of the FPG measurements was retrieved for the same period (2005–2016). A total of 1350 QC samples had been analyzed. The weighted nonlinear least squares analysis (Nielsen 2007) yielded the following function relating the standard measurement uncertainty  $u_m(t)$  to the measurement value t:

$$u_m(t) = \sqrt{b_0^2 + b_1^2 t^2} = \sqrt{0.7501 + 0.00012t^2}$$

where  $b_0 = 0.866$  and  $b_1 = 0.0109$ .

The means of the standard measurement uncertainty of FPG of the included diabetic and nondiabetic participants were estimated as:

$$\hat{u}_D \cong 1.586 \text{ mg/dl}$$

$$\hat{u}_{\bar{D}} \cong 1.028 \text{ mg/dl}$$

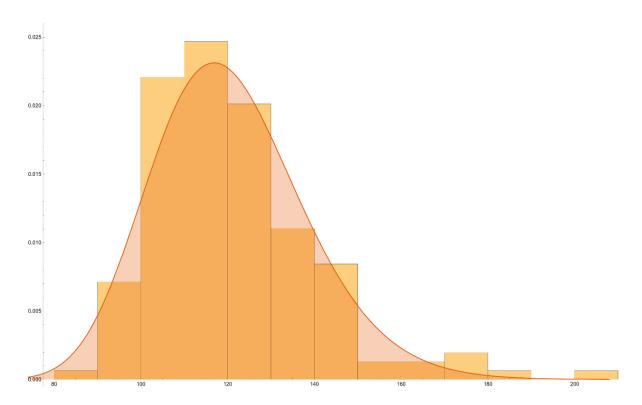
Consequently, the distributions of the measurands, assuming negligible uncertainty, were estimated as:

$$d_D \cong Lognormal\left(\mu_D, \sqrt{\sigma_D^2 - \hat{u}_D^2}\right) \cong Lognormal(120.671,17.720)$$

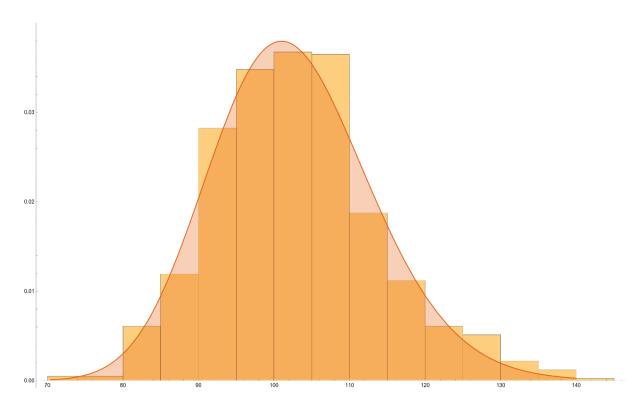
$$d_{\overline{D}} \cong Lognormal\left(\mu_{\overline{D}}, \sqrt{\sigma_{\overline{D}}^2 - \hat{u}_{\overline{D}}^2}\right) \cong Lognormal(102.642, 10.653)$$

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics of the estimated lognormal distributions of the diabetic and nondiabetic populations, including the respective p-values of the Cramér-von Mises goodness-of-fit test (Darling 1957).

Figures 3 and 4 show the estimated PDFs of FPG in the diabetic and nondiabetic populations, assuming a lognormal distribution and negligible measurement uncertainty, and the histograms of the respective NHANES datasets.



**Figure 3.** The estimated PDF of the FPG (mg/dl) in diabetic participants, assuming a lognormal distribution and negligible measurement uncertainty, and the histogram of the respective NHANES dataset, with the parameters of the distribution in Table 2.



**Figure 4.** The estimated PDF of the FPG (mg/dl) in nondiabetic participants, assuming a lognormal distribution and negligible measurement uncertainty, and the histogram of the respective NHANES dataset, with the parameters of the distribution in Table 2.

Likelihoods and posterior probabilities were estimated accordingly.

# 3. Results

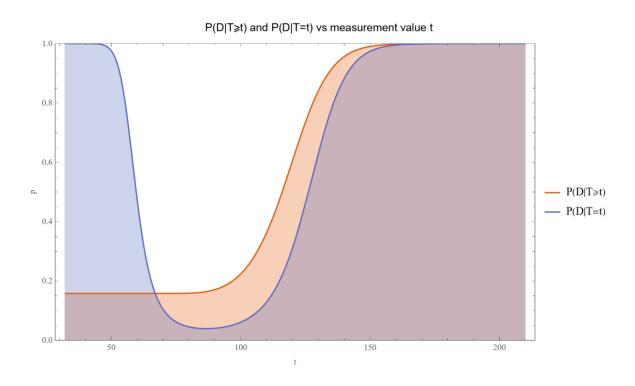
Table 2. The settings of the program 'Bayesian Diagnostic Insight' for the figures 5-19

	Units	Figures 5-	Figures 7-	Fig 0	Figures	Figures	Figures	Figures	Figure 10	Fig 10
		6	8	Figure 9	10-11	12-13	14-15	16-17	Figure 18	Figure 19
p		-	-	-	-	0.95	-	0.95	-	0.95
+	mg/dl	32.0-	126	126	32.0-	32.0-	126.0	126.0	126.0	126.0
t	ilig/ul	210.0	126	126	210.0	210.0	120.0	120.0	126.0	126.0
$\mu_D$	mg/dl	120.8	120.8	120.8	120.8	120.8	120.8	120.8	120.8	120.8
$\sigma_D$	mg/dl	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7
$n_D$		154	-	154	154	154	-	-	154	154
$\mu_{\overline{D}}$	mg/dl	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.6
$\sigma_{\overline{D}}$	mg/dl	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7
$n_{\overline{D}}$		822	-	822	822	822	-	-	822	822
n		976	-	976	976	976	976	976	976	976
		0.158	0.001-	0.158	0.158	0.158	0.001-	0.001-	0.158	0.158
V		0.136	0.999	0.136	0.136	0.138	0.999	0.999	0.136	0.136
$b_0$		0.866	0.866	0.866	0.866	0.866	0.866	0.866	0.866	0.866
$b_1$		0.0109	0.0109	0.0109	0.0109	0.0109	0.0109	0.0109	0.0109	0.0109
$n_U$		-	-	-	-	1350	-	1350	-	1350
				normal						
$d_D$		lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal
				gamma						
				normal						
$d_{\overline{D}}$		lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal	lognormal
				gamma						

Results of the application of the program are presented in Figures 5-19, while the program settings are displayed in Table 2.

#### Figure 5 shows the plots of:

- a) The positive predictive value  $P(D|T \ge t)$  of FPG for diabetes versus threshold value  $t \pmod{dl}$ , (orange curve). The curve is smooth, monotonically increasing, and approximately sigmoidal.  $P(D|T \ge t)$  is asymptotically equal to prevalence of diabetes for lower values of t, then rises rapidly to become asymptotically equal to 1.00.
- b) The posterior probability for diabetes versus FPG value  $t\pmod{d}$ . The curve is smooth, approximately double sigmoidal. For t=86.9 mg/dl P(D|T=t) has a minimum value 0.04. P(D|T=t) is asymptotically equal to 1.00 for lower values of t, then decreases rapidly to its minimum before then rising rapidly again to become asymptotically equal to 1.00.

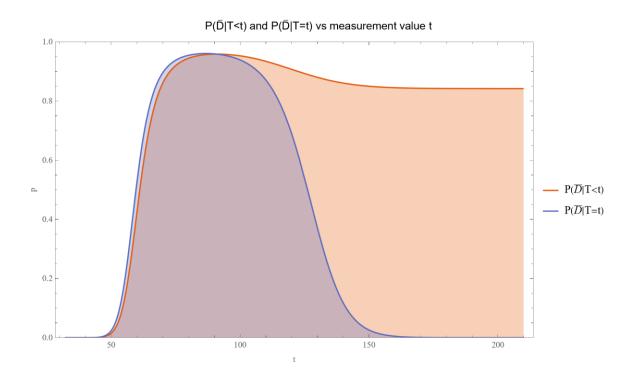


**Figure 5.** Positive predictive value and posterior probability for diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$  curves plot, with the settings of the program in Table 2.

#### Figure 6 shows the plots of:

a) The negative predictive value  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  of FPG for diabetes versus threshold value  $t \pmod{dl}$  (orange curve). The curve is smooth and unimodal, with a maximum value of 0.96 at  $t = 91.3 \pmod{dl}$ .  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$ 

- is asymptotically equal to 0.00 for lower values of t, then rises rapidly to its maximum, and becomes asymptotically equal to 1.00-v, where v the prevalence of diabetes.
- b) The posterior probability  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$  for the absence of diabetes versus FPG value  $t\pmod{d}$  (orange curve). The curve is smooth unimodal, approximately double sigmoidal. For an FPG value t=86.9 mg/dl,  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$  has a maximum value of 0.96.  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$  is asymptotically equal to 0.00 for lower values and higher values of t.



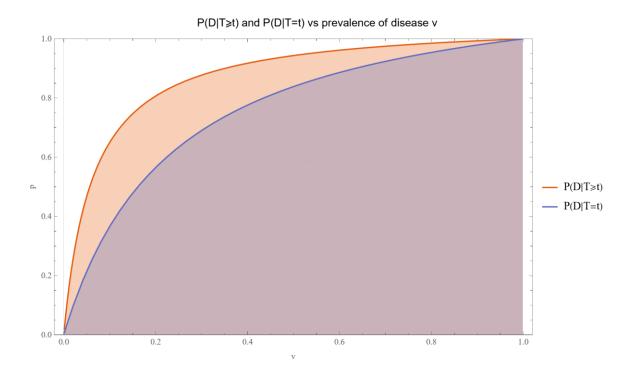
**Figure 6.** Negative predictive value for diabetes and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{d}$  curves plot, with the settings of the program in Table 2.

#### Moreover:

- a) For t = 67.3 mg/dl we have  $P(D|T \ge t) = P(D|T = t) = 0.158 = v$
- b) For t < 67.3 mg/dl we have  $P(D|T \ge t) < P(D|T = t)$ ,
- c) For t > 67.3 mg/dl we have  $P(D|T \ge t) > P(D|T = t)$ .
- d) For t = 91.3 mg/dl we have  $P(\overline{D}|T < t) = P(\overline{D}|T = t) = 0.95$ .
- e) For t < 91.3 mg/dl we have  $P(\overline{D}|T < t) < P(\overline{D}|T = t)$
- f) For t > 91.3 mg/dl we have  $P(\overline{D}|T < t) > P(\overline{D}|T = t)$ .

Additionally, as Figures 7 and 8 show, for an FPG value t = 126.0 mg/dl and for prevalence 0.0 < v < 1.0:

- a) Both  $P(D|T \ge t)$  and P(D|T = t) curves are smooth, monotonically increasing from a probability asymptotically equal to 0.00.
- b) Both  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  and  $P(\overline{D}|T = t)$  curves are smooth, monotonically decreasing from a probability asymptotically equal to 1.00.
- c)  $P(D|T \ge t) > P(D|T = t)$ , and
- d)  $P(\overline{D}|T < t) > P(\overline{D}|T = t)$ .



**Figure 7.** Positive predictive value and posterior probability for diabetes versus prior probability for diabetes v curves plot, for an FPG value t=126 mg/dl, with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

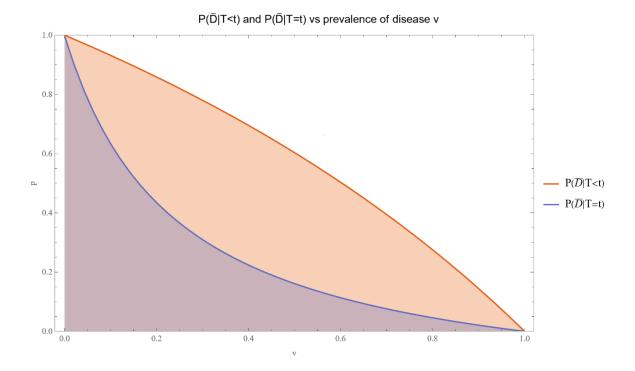


Figure 8. Negative predictive value for diabetes and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus prior probability for diabetes v curves plot, for an FPG value  $t=126~{\rm mg/dl}$ , with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

Figure 9 shows a table of Bayesian diagnostic measures for an FPG value  $t=126~{
m mg/dl}$ , the established threshold for the diagnosis of diabetes (ElSayed et al. 2023), assuming normal, lognormal, and gamma distributions o FPG.

diagnostic measures							
measuran	d distribution	measure					
diseased	nondiseased	P(D T≽t)	P(D T=t)	P(D T <t)< td=""><td>P(D T=t)</td></t)<>	P(D T=t)		
normal	normal	0.833	0.542	0.895	0.458		
	lognormal	0.771	0.509	0.894	0.491		
	gamma	0.790	0.516	0.894	0.484		
lognormal	normal	0.823	0.527	0.891	0.473		
	lognormal	0.758	0.494	0.890	0.506		
	gamma	0.778	0.501	0.890	0.499		
gamma	normal	0.827	0.532	0.892	0.468		
	lognormal	0.763	0.498	0.892	0.502		
	gamma	0.783	0.505	0.892	0.495		

**Figure 9.** Table of positive predictive value, posterior probability, and negative predictive value for diabetes, and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes, for an FPG value  $t=126~{\rm mg/dl}$ , with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

Figure 10 shows the plots of:

- a) The standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the positive predictive value for diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$ . The curves are smooth unimodal.
- b) The standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the posterior probability for diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$ . The curves are smooth bimodal.

Figure 11 shows the plots of:

- a) The standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the negative predictive value for diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$ . The curves are smooth and unimodal.
- b) The standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$ . The curves are smooth and bimodal.

In the assessment of the combined standard uncertainty of posterior probability for diabetes  $u_c[P(D|T=t)]$  and absence of diabetes  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T=t)]$ :

- a) They are equal.
- b) They are substantially affected by measurement uncertainty of FPG.
- c) Two local maxima are observed, corresponding to the regions near the steepest segments of the measures curves, which exhibit an approximately double sigmoidal configuration. The maxima are quantitatively approximated as follows:
  - a. At an FPG value of t=58.7 mg/dl, the combined standard uncertainty is 0.893.
  - b. At an FPG value of t = 133.2 mg/dl, the combined standard uncertainty is 0.182.

The standard combined uncertainty  $u_c[P(D|T\geq t)]$  of the positive predictive value for diabetes of FPG has a maximum value 0.143 for t=126.2 mg/dl, while the standard combined uncertainty  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T< t)]$  of the negative predictive value for diabetes has a maximum value 0.894 for t=60.1 mg/dl. This pattern of local maxima is indicative of heightened uncertainty in the regions where the diagnostic measures curves demonstrate their most pronounced inflections (refer to Figures 5 and 6).

In addition:

- a) For t = 95.9 mg/dl we have  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] = u_c[P(D|T = t)] = 0.013$ .
- b) For t = 126.8 mg/dl we have  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] = u_c[P(D|T = t)] = 0.143$ .
- c) For 0 < t < 95.9 mg/dl and 126.8 < twe have  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] < u_c[P(D|T = t)]$ .
- d) For 95.9 mg/dl < t < 126.8 mg/dl we have  $u_c[P(D|T = t)] < u_c[P(D|T \ge t)]$
- e) For t = 59.4 mg/dl we have  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T < t)] = u_c[P(\overline{D}|T = t)] = 0.883$ .
- f) For t=103.3 mg/dl we have  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T < t)] = u_c[P(\overline{D}|T = t)] = 0.014$ .
- g) For 0 < t < 59.4 mg/dl and 103.3 < t we have  $u_c[P(D|T < t)] < u_c[P(D|T = t)]$ .
- h) For 59.4 mg/dl < t < 103.3 mg/dl we have  $u_c[P(D|T = t)] < u_c[P(D|T \ge t)]$ .

The confidence intervals are affected accordingly (refer to Figures 12 and 13):

- a) The confidence intervals of positive predictive value P(D|T=t) (blue curves) are narrower for lower and higher values of t.
- b) The confidence intervals of Bayesian posterior probability  $P(D|T \ge t)$  (orange curves) narrow considerably for lower values of t.
- c) The confidence intervals of Bayesian posterior probability  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$  are wider at the extremes of the t spectrum.
- d) The confidence intervals of negative predictive value  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  are wide at lower t values, to become considerably narrower at higher values.

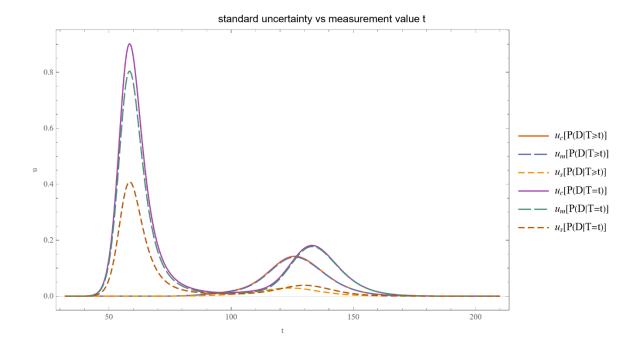


Figure 10. Standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the positive predictive value, and posterior probability for diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$  curves plot, with the settings of the program in Table 2.

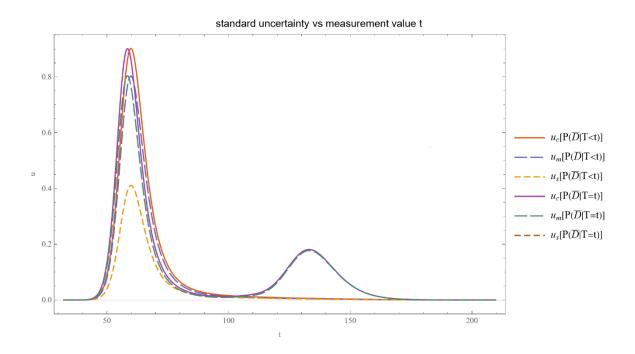
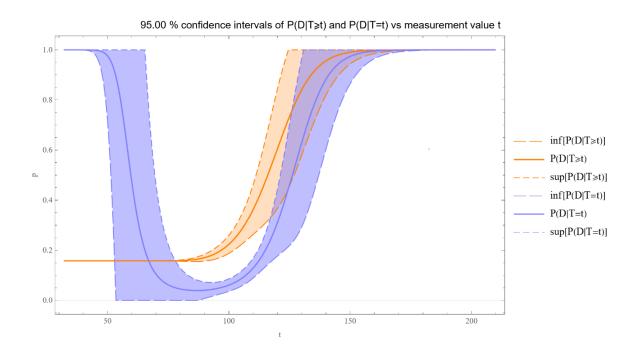
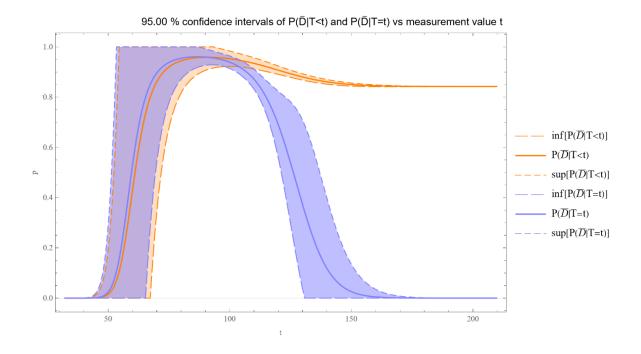


Figure 11. Standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the negative predictive value for diabetes, and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{dl}$  curves plot, with the settings of the program in Table 2.



**Figure 12.** Confidence intervals of the positive predictive value, and posterior probability for diabetes versus FPG value  $t \pmod{d}$  curves plot, with the settings of the program in Table 2.



**Figure 13.** Confidence intervals of the negative predictive value, and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus FPG value t (mg/dl) curves plot, with the settings of the program in Table 2.

For an FPG value  $t=126~{
m mg/dl}$  Figures 14 and 15 show the plots of the standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of positive predictive value, posterior probability for diabetes, negative predictive value, and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus prior probability for diabetes v. The combined uncertainty of the diagnostic measures is substantially affected by measurement uncertainty of FPG. The curves are unimodal, with the respective maxima quantitatively approximated as follows:

- a) For v = 0.056,  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] = 0.195$ .
- b) For v = 0.160,  $u_c[P(D|T = t)] = 0.134$ .
- c) For v = 0.589,  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T < t)] = 0.015$ .
- d) For v = 0.160,  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T = t)] = 0.134$ .

The local maxima are indicative of heightened uncertainty in the regions where the respective diagnostic measures curves demonstrate their most pronounced inflections (refer to Figures 7 and 8).

Additionally:

- a) For v = 0.176 we have  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] = u_c[P(D|T = t)] = 0.133$ .
- b) For 0 < v < 0.176 we have  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] > u_c[P(D|T = t)]$ .
- c) For 0.176 < v < 1.0 we have  $u_c[P(D|T \ge t)] < u_c[P(D|T = t)]$ .
- d) For 0 < v < 1.0 we have  $u_c[P(\overline{D}|T < t)] < u_c[P(\overline{D}|T = t)]$ .

Remarkably, the combined uncertainty of the negative predictive value is considerably less than the combined uncertainty of the posterior probability for the absence of diabetes.

The confidence intervals are adjusted accordingly (refer to Figures 16-17):

- a) The confidence intervals of Bayesian posterior probability P(D|T=t) for diabetes (Figure 16, blue curves), positive predictive value  $P(D|T \ge t)$  (Figure 16, blue curves), Bayesian posterior probability  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$  for the absence of diabetes (Figure 17, blue curves), and negative predictive value  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  (Figure 17, orange curves) are narrowest at both lower and higher prevalences.
- b) The confidence intervals of  $P(D|T \ge t)$  (Figure 16, orange curves) are generally narrower than the confidence intervals of P(D|T = t) (Figure 16, blue curves).

c) The confidence intervals of  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  (Figure 17, orange curves) are considerably narrower than the confidence intervals of  $P(\overline{D}|T = t)$  (Figure 17, blue curves).

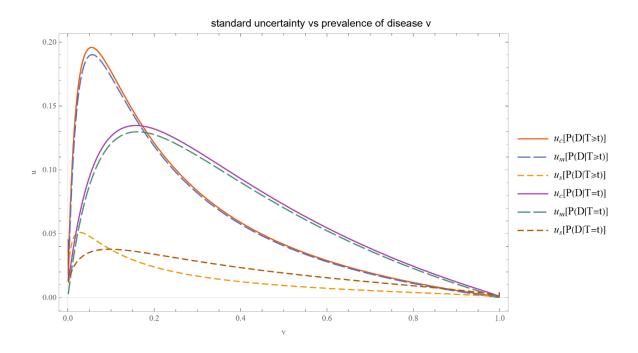
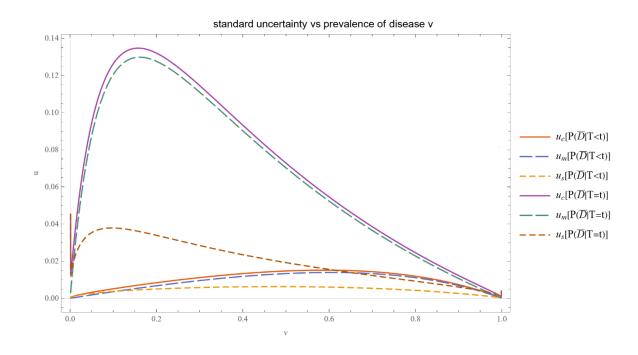
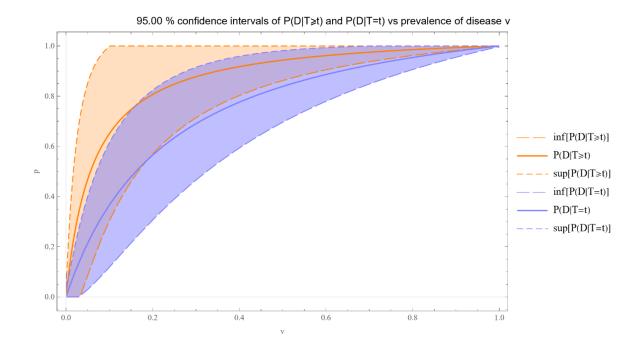


Figure 14. Standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the positive predictive value, and posterior probability for diabetes versus versus prior probability for diabetes v curves plot, for an FPG value t = 126 mg/dl, with the other settings of the program in Table 2.



**Figure 15.** Standard sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the negative predictive value for diabetes, and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus prior probability for diabetes  $\nu$  curves plot, for an FPG value  $t=126~{\rm mg/dl}$ , with the other settings of the program in Table 2.



**Figure 16.** Confidence intervals of the positive predictive value, and posterior probability for diabetes versus prior probability for diabetes v curves plot, for an FPG value t=126 mg/dl, with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

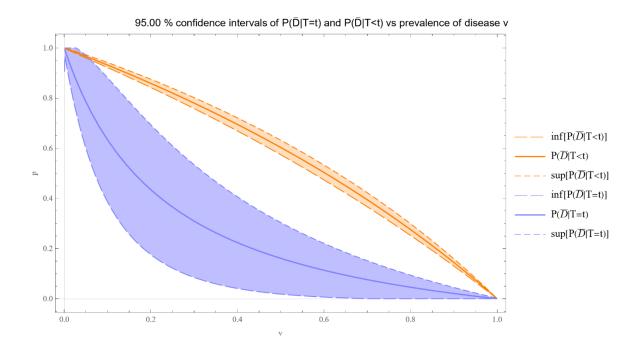


Figure 17. Confidence intervals of the negative predictive value for diabetes, and posterior probability for the absence of diabetes versus prior probability for diabetes v curves plot for an FPG value  $t=126 \, \mathrm{mg/dl}$ , with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

standard uncertainty						
prevalence of disease v = 0.158						
measure	point estimation	standard uncertainty				
		combined	measurement	sampling		
P(D T≽t)	0.758	0.142	0.140	0.029		
P(D T=t)	0.494	0.135	0.130	0.036		
P(D T <t)< td=""><td>0.890</td><td>0.007</td><td>0.005</td><td>0.005</td></t)<>	0.890	0.007	0.005	0.005		
P(D T=t)	0.506	0.135	0.130	0.036		

**Figure 18.** Table of the sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of the Bayesian diagnostic measures for an FPG value  $t=126~{\rm mg/dl}$ , with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

The table with the standard uncertainty of the Bayesian diagnostic measures of Figure 18 shows that for value t = 126 mg/dl, shows that measurement uncertainty is the main component of their combined uncertainty.

95.00% confidence intervals						
prevalence of disease v = 0.158						
measure	point estimation	lower bound	upper bound			
P(D T≽t)	0.758	0.479	1.000			
P(D T=t)	0.494	0.229	0.758			
P(D T <t)< td=""><td>0.890</td><td>0.877</td><td>0.904</td></t)<>	0.890	0.877	0.904			
P(D T=t)	0.506	0.242	0.771			

Figure 19. Table of the sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty confidence intervals of the Bayesian diagnostic measures for an FPG value  $t=126~{
m mg/dl}$ , with the other settings of the program in Table 2.

The table with the confidence intervals of the Bayesian diagnostic measures of Figure 19 shows that for value t = 126 mg/dl:

- a)  $P(D|T = t) < P(D|T \ge t)$
- b) The sizes of the confidence intervals of  $P(D|T \ge t)$  and P(D|T = t) are comparable.
- c) There is a considerable overlap between them.
- d)  $P(\overline{D}|T = t) < P(\overline{D}|T < t)$
- e) The size of the confidence intervals of  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  are considerably less than the size of the confidence intervals of  $P(\overline{D}|T = t)$ .
- f) There is no overlap between them.

Furthermore, all the figures provided by the program for the *Illustrative Case Study* are presented in Supplemental file IV: BayesianDiagnosticInsightsFigures.pdf.

# 4. Discussion

There is a persistent need to estimate diagnostic measures and their uncertainty, especially regarding screening and diagnostic tests of life-threatening diseases. The COVID-19 has convincingly exposed this need (Lippi, Simundic, and Plebani 2020; Martin H. Kroll, MD Bipasa Biswas Jeffrey R. Budd, PhD Paul Durham, MA Robert T. Gorman, PhD Thomas E. Gwise, PhD Abdel-Baset Halim, PharmD, PhD, DABCC Aristides T. Hatjimihail, MD, PhD Jørgen Hilden, MD Kyunghee Song 2011; Tang et al. 2020; Deeks et al. 2020; Infantino et al. 2020; Mahase 2020).

Traditional diagnostic methods rely on predetermined thresholds; however, this often fails to consider the complexities of disease pathology. While historically effective, this approach may lack the ability to offer a holistic perspective in today's patient-centered medicine, where personalized care is paramount (Obermeyer and Emanuel 2016). The evolving nature of diseases and shifts in patient demographics increase the complexity of the diagnostic process, pushing the boundaries of conventional methodologies. In this challenging context, Bayesian inference emerges as an alternative approach, offering probabilistic evaluations that can adapt to the individual patient profiles (Choi, Johnson, and Thurmond 2006; Chatzimichail and Hatjimihail 2023).

Despite the evident merits of Bayesian analytics in medical diagnostics, it is paramount to address the intrinsic challenges associated with this methodological shift. One such issue resides in the limited availability of scholarly publications that provide a comprehensive statistical exploration of the measurands in both the diseased and nondiseased populations (Smith and Gelfand 1992).

Diagnostic measures based on Bayes' theorem are integral in the field of medical diagnostics. This theorem provides a statistical basis for the update of the probability estimate of a disease as more evidence or test results become available. Essentially, it allows healthcare professionals to adjust the probabilities of a disease being present based on new data and prior information.

The software tool introduced in this study has been developed to explore and compare two pairs of Bayesian diagnostic measures of screening or diagnostic tests, assuming parametric distributions of the measurands:

- a) The positive predictive value with the posterior probability for disease, and
- b) The negative predictive value for disease with the posterior probability for the absence of disease.

Estimating the uncertainty of these measures remains a pivotal challenge (Srinivasan, Westover, and Bianchi 2012; Chatzimichail and Hatjimihail 2021, 2024). This issue is critically important in the context of diagnostic and screening tests for life-threatening conditions or those associated with considerable morbidity risk. It underscores the need for well-informed clinical judgments and comprehensive uncertainty evaluation in medical decision-making. Key examples include:

- a) Cardiac troponin for diagnosing myocardial injury and infarction (Wereski et al. 2021);
- b) Natriuretic peptides for the diagnosis of heart failure (Roberts et al. 2015);

- D-dimer for diagnosing thromboembolic events (Freund et al. 2021);
- d) FPG, OGTT, and glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) for diagnosing diabetes (ElSayed et al. 2023);
- e) OGTT for the diagnosis of gestational diabetes (Rani and Begum 2016);
- f) Thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH), free serum triiodothyronine (T<sub>3</sub>), and free serum thyroxine (T<sub>4</sub>) for diagnosing thyroid dysfunction (Reyes Domingo, Avey, and Doull 2019).

The ability to quantify this uncertainty is not a purely academic concern but also a practical necessity in improving diagnosis and patient outcomes. To address this, our software explores the sampling, measurement, and combined uncertainty of Bayesian diagnostic measures and the associated confidence intervals. By plotting confidence intervals around the estimated diagnostic measures at various measurand levels, clinicians and researchers can visually discern the range within which they might lie, accounting for sample variability and other sources of uncertainty. The plots of confidence intervals serve multiple purposes:

- a) Assessment of precision: They provide insights into the precision of probability estimates at different measurand levels. Narrower intervals indicate more precise estimates, which is critical for reliable diagnosis and monitoring.
- b) Decision-making support: For clinical decision-making, these plots can highlight the measurand thresholds where the probability of disease shifts significantly, guiding interventions or further testing. Furthermore, the analysis of such graphs can contribute to a deeper understanding of the diagnostic thresholds and the associated confidence in clinical decisions based on diagnostic test measurements.
- c) Epidemiological insights: In epidemiological studies, understanding how probability for disease changes across a population's measurand spectrum can help identify risk factors and inform public health strategies.

This exploration also plays a significant role in the fields of quality and risk management in laboratory medicine (Haeckel et al. 2016). Additionally, it may contribute to the design and implementation of test accuracy studies (J. Andre Knottnerus and Buntinx 2011; Hajian-Tilaki 2014). As mentioned in the Introduction section, despite the extensive body of research on Bayesian diagnosis and uncertainty as separate entities, the intersection of these two areas remains relatively unexplored (Baron 1994; Ashby and Smith 2000).

The illustrative case study, focusing on individuals aged 70 to 80 years, was designed to mitigate agerelated variations in disease prevalence. This focus exemplifies the considerations required in modern diagnostics, where factors such as age, genetics, and lifestyle choices should be accounted for in the diagnostic equation. The case study highlights the substantial impact of combined uncertainty on the diagnostic process. This finding emphasizes the predominant role of measurement uncertainty, thus stressing the demanding path toward enhancing diagnostic accuracy. By improving the analytical methods of screening and diagnostic tests, the medical community could achieve more accurate diagnosis, leading to more effective and tailored patient care.

Analyzing in more detail Figures 5-8, 12,13, 16, and 17 of the illustrative case study described above, we may note the following clinical implications:

- a) The positive predictive value  $P(D|T \ge t)$  of the FPG test is highly influenced by the chosen threshold and the prevalence of diabetes, emphasizing the importance of selecting the appropriate cutoff for accurate diagnosis.
- b) The double-threshold pattern in the Bayesian posterior probability P(D|T=t) for diabetes suggests the need to understand different FPG levels' pathological implications for tailored diagnostic strategies.
- c) The variability in confidence intervals of both  $P(D|T \ge t)$  and P(D|T = t) at middle FPG levels underscores the need for cautious interpretation of test results in this range.
- d) The differing trends in negative predictive value  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  highlight the significance of selecting the appropriate threshold for excluding diabetes.
- e) The unique behavior of Bayesian posterior probability  $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$  for the absence of diabetes at lower FPG values and the variability in its confidence intervals of at both lower and higher FPG values impact diagnostic decisions, necessitating careful interpretation.
- f) Despite the interpretative challenges of  $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$  at lower FPG values, it is generally more robust than  $P(\overline{D}|T = t)$  at higher FPG values.

The tables of Figure 18 suggest a limited concordance between the classification criteria of diabetes derived from the OGTT and FPG tests, as found previously in existing literature (Tucker 2020). Additionally, it shows that for FPG and diabetes, the point estimation of each Bayesian posterior probability is substantially less than the respective predictive value.

Looking ahead, future research should focus on improving the estimations of the uncertainty of Bayesian diagnostic measures of different measurands under a diverse array of clinically and laboratory relevant parameter settings. To transition from research into practical application, it is necessary to focus on clinical decision analysis, studies on cost-effectiveness, and research on risk assessment and quality of care, which includes conducting implementation studies (J. Andre Knottnerus and Buntinx 2011). Such efforts are necessary in addressing the complex issues in diagnostic medicine and finding new and effective approaches to tackle ongoing challenges.

All major general or medical statistical software packages (JASP\* ver. 0.20.0, Mathematica\* ver. 14.0, Matlab\* ver. R2023b, MedCalc\* ver. 22.008, metRology ver. 1.1-3, NCSS\* ver. 24.0.0, NIST Uncertainty Machine ver. 2.0.0, OpenBUGS ver. 3.3.0, R ver. 4.3.1, SAS\* ver. 9.5, SPSS\* ver. 29, Stan ver. 2.33.0, Stata\* ver. 19, and UQLab ver. 2.0.0) include routines for the calculation and plotting of various diagnostic measures and their confidence intervals. The program presented in this work provides 38 different types of plots and 17 different types of comprehensive tables of the four Bayesian diagnostic measures, their uncertainty, and the associated confidence intervals (Figure 1), many of which are novel. To the best of our knowledge, none of the above-mentioned programs or any other software provides this range of plots and tables without advanced statistical programming.

The program complements our previously published tools for exploring diagnostic measures and Bayesian posterior probability for disease and their uncertainty (Chatzimichail and Hatjimihail 2018, 2021, 2023, 2024), facilitating their comparison.

# 4.1. Limitations of the Program

This program's limitations, which provide paths for further research, include:

- a) Underlying assumptions:
  - a. Existence of "gold standards" in diagnostics. If a "gold standard" does not exist, there are alternative approaches for classification (J. A. Knottnerus and Dinant 1997; Pfeiffer and Castle 2005; van Smeden et al. 2014).
  - b. Hypothesis of normal, lognormal or gamma distribution of measurands or their transformations.
     There is related literature on the distribution of measurements of diagnostic tests, in the context of

- reference intervals and diagnostic thresholds or clinical decision limits (Solberg 1987; Pavlov, Wilson, and Delgado 2012; Sikaris 2012; Daly et al. 2013; Ozarda et al. 2018).
- Generally accepted bimodality of the measurands, although unimodal distributions could be considered (J. M. G. Wilson and Jungner 1968; Petersen and Horder 1992).

#### b) Approximations used for the estimations:

- Use of first-order Taylor series approximations in uncertainty propagation calculations. Higher-order approximations or Monte-Carlo simulation may provide more accurate estimations (Joint Committee for Guides in Metrology 2008, 2011).
- b. Approximation of the uncertainty of prevalence or prior probability for disease v using the Agresti–Coull-adjusted Waldo interval, despite more accurate methods being available (Pires and Amado 2008).
- c. Approximations of the sampling uncertainty for both the sample means and standard deviations.
  These can be improved for smaller samples or pronounced skewness observed in lognormal and gamma distributions (Schmoyeri et al. 1996; Bhaumik, Kapur, and Gibbons 2009).
- d. Use of confidence intervals derived from the t-distribution despite the high relative uncertainty (Williams 2020). Though not typical in a Bayesian context, these can be employed instead of credible intervals as a practical tool under certain circumstances (Gelman et al. 2013; Stephens 2023).

While addressing these limitations would increase considerably computational complexity, they represent key areas for future enhancement (Joint Committee for Guides in Metrology 2008, 2020).

# 4.2.Limitations of the Case Study

The case study's main limitations include reliance on the OGTT as the reference method for diagnosing diabetes mellitus, despite several factors influencing glucose tolerance (Rao, Disraeli, and McGregor 2004; Meneilly and Elliott 1999; Geer and Shen 2009; Van Cauter, Polonsky, and Scheen 1997; Colberg et al. 2010; Salmerón et al. 1997; Surwit et al. 2002; Pandit et al. 1993; Dupuis et al. 2010). Additionally, the lognormal distributions used only approximate the distributions of the FPG measurements from NHANES datasets, highlighting the need for more flexible statistical models.

# 5. Conclusion

Bayesian Diagnostic Insights significantly enhances the estimation, visualization, and comparison of Bayesian diagnostic measures, including their associated uncertainty. It facilitates better clinical decision-making by providing insights into the uncertainty of disease probabilities. The tool's case study, using FPG for the diagnosis of diabetes, demonstrated the impact of measurement uncertainty on diagnostic measures, underlining its importance in improving diagnostic practices. Overall, the software provides a comprehensive framework for understanding and applying Bayesian probabilistic methods in medical diagnostics, fostering improved assessment and diagnosis of various health conditions.

**Supplemental Material:** The following supplemental files can be downloaded at <a href="https://www.hcsl.com/Supplements/SBDI.zip">https://www.hcsl.com/Supplements/SBDI.zip</a>:

- a) Supplemental File I:
  - BayesianDiagnosticInsights.nb: The program as a Wolfram Mathematica Notebook.
- b) Supplemental File II:
  - Bayesian Diagnostic Insights Calculations.nb: The calculations for the estimation Bayesian posterior probability for disease and its standard uncertainty in a Wolfram Mathematica Notebook
- c) Supplemental File III:
  - BayesianDiagnosticInsightsInterface.pdf: A brief description of the interface of the program.
- d) Supplemental File IV:
  - BayesianDiagnosticInsightsFigures.pdf: The Supplemental figures of the output of the program for the illustrative case study.

**Author Contributions:** Conceptualization: T.C.; methodology: T.C. and A.T.H.; software: T.C. and A.T.H.; validation: T.C.; formal analysis: T.C. and A.T.H.; investigation: T.C.; resources: A.T.H.; data curation: T.C.; writing—original draft preparation: T.C.; writing—review and editing A.T.H.; visualization: T.C.; supervision: A.T.H.; project administration: T.C. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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**Institutional Review Board Statement:** Data collection was carried out following the rules of the Declaration of Helsinki. The Ethics Review Board of the National Center for Health Statistics approved

data collection and posting the data online for public use. The National Center for Health Statistics NHANES—NCHS Research Ethics Review Board Approval (Protocols #2005-06 and #2011-17) is available online at: https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/irba98.htm (accessed on 18 May 2024).

**Informed Consent Statement:** Written consent was obtained from each subject participating in the survey.

**Data Availability Statement:** The data presented in this study are available at https://wwwn.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/default.aspx (accessed on 18 May 2024).

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

# 6. Appendix

# 7.1. Notation

#### 7.1.1. Abbreviations

D: Disease

 $\overline{D}$ : Absence of disease

# 7.1.2. Parameters

 $n_D$  : size of diseased population

 $\mu_{\it D}$ : mean of diseased population

 $\sigma_D$ : standard deviation of diseased population

 $n_{\overline{D}}$ : size of nondiseased population

 $\mu_{\overline{D}}$  : mean of nondiseased population

 $\sigma_{\overline{\it D}}$  : standard deviation of nondiseased population

v: prior probability for disease (prevalence rate)

 $n_{\it U}$  : number of quality control measurements

 $b_0$ : constant contribution to measurement uncertainty

 $b_1$ : measurement uncertainty proportionality constant

*p* : confidence level

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ : Parameter vector

7.1.3. Bayesian Diagnostic Measures

P(D|T > t): positive predictive value

 $P(\overline{D}|T < t)$ : negative predictive value

P(D|T = t): posterior probability for disease

 $P(\overline{D}|T=t)$ : posterior probability for the absence of disease

7.1.4. Functions

f(x): probability density function

F(x): cumulative distribution function

 $u_m(x)$ : standard measurement uncertainty

 $u_s(x)$ : standard sampling uncertainty

 $u_c(x)$ : standard combined uncertainty

 $v_{eff}(x)$ : effective degrees of freedom

inf(f): lower bound of f

sup(f): upper bound of f

7.2. Range of input parameters

 $t: maximum(0, minimum(\mu_{\overline{D}} - 6\sigma_{\overline{D}}, \mu_D - 6\sigma_{\overline{D}})) - maximum(\mu_{\overline{D}} + 6\sigma_{\overline{D}}, \mu_D + 6\sigma_{\overline{D}})$ 

 $n_D: 2-10,000$ 

 $\mu_D$ : 0.1 – 10,000

 $\sigma_D$ : 0.01 – 1,000

 $n_{\overline{D}}$ : 2 – 10,000

 $\mu_{\overline{D}}: 0.1-10,000$ 

 $\sigma_{\overline{D}}:0.01-1{,}000$ 

v: 0.001 - 0.999

 $n_U$ : 20 – 10,000

 $b_0: 0-\sigma_{\overline{D}}$ 

 $b_1$ : 0 – 0.1000

p: 0.900 - 0.999

t,  $\mu_D$ ,  $\sigma_D$ ,  $\mu_{\overline{D}}$ , and  $\sigma_{\overline{D}}$  are defined in arbitrary units.

# 7.3. Software Availability and Requirements

Program name: Bayesian Diagnostic Measures

Version: 1.0.0

Project home page: https://www.hcsl.com/Tools/BayesianDiagnosticInsights/ (accessed on 7 May 2024)

Available at: https://www.hcsl.com/Tools/BayesianDiagnosticInsights/BayesianDiagnosticInsights.nb (accessed

on 7 May 2024)

Operating systems: Microsoft Windows 10+, Linux 3.15+, Apple macOS 11+

Programming language: Wolfram Language

Other software requirements: For running the program and reading the

Bayesian Diagnostic Insights Calculations. nb file Wolfram Player® ver. 12.0+ is required, freely available at:

https://www.wolfram.com/player/ (accessed 7 May 2024) or Wolfram Mathematica® ver. 14.0+

System requirements: Intel<sup>®</sup> i9™ or equivalent CPU and 32 GB of RAM

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# 7.4. A Note about the Program

About the Program Controls

The program features an intuitive tabbed user interface, designed to streamline users interaction and facilitate effortless navigation across its multiple modules and submodules.

The numerical settings are defined by users with menus or sliders. Sliders can be finely manipulated by holding down the *alt* key or *opt* key while dragging the mouse. They be even more finely manipulated by also holding the *shift* and/or *ctrl* keys.

Dragging with the mouse while pressing the *ctrl*, *alt*, or *opt* keys zooms plots in or out.

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