Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

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These notes are based on the books:

- Collett (2015), Modelling Survival data in Medical Research, Third Edition
- Klein and Moeschberger (1997), Survival analysis, Springer-Verlag, New York.

Some additional reading:

- Liu (2012), Survival Analysis, models and applications
- Kalbfleisch and Prentice (2002), The Statistical Analysis of Failure Time Data, Wiley, New York.
- Andersen, Borgan, Gill, Keiding (1993), Statistical Models Based on counting Processes, Springer-Verlag, New York.
- Hougaard (2000), Analysis of Multivariate Survival Data, Springer-Verlag, New York.

Introduction

∟Some introducing examples

Example: Turbine disk

(Nelson (1982))

In an industrial trial, the lifetime is followed for 206 turbine disks. The data are observed in 100-hour intervals and after each inspection the number of failed disks is recorded.

Extra difficulty: the experiment was stopped after 2100 hours and some disks were still running at that time (censored).

∟Some introducing examples

Example: Computer

A computer is build up out of many parts.

If we know the life expectancy of the hard disk, does this tell us sometime about the life expectancy of the computer?

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Introduction

Some introducing examples

Example: Leukemia

(Klein and Moeschberger (2003))

Bone marrow transplants are a standard treatment for acute leukemia. In this multi center trial, patients were followed from the moment they had a bone marrow transplant until the leukemia returns. The researchers investigated the time until relapse and looked for factors that influenced this time.

Some patients did not have a relapse during the study period or died without relapsing. Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice Lintroduction

Some introducing examples

Example: Vaginal cancer (Kalbfleisch and Prentice (2002))

In a study on carcinogenesis, two groups of rats were exposed to a carcinogen DMBA. One group was keeped in a germ-free environment while the other group was not. In both group the number of days was recorded until these rats died of vaginal cancer. The researchers investigated whether the time until death was different in both groups.

However four rats did not die from cancer or were still alive at the end of the study. ∟Some introducing examples

Example: Recidivism

(Schmidt and Witte (1988))

The North Caroline Department of Correction conducted two studies on recidivism. They looked at the time until a prisoner, who was released from a North Carolina prison, returned to a NC prison.

The goal of these studies was to find possible predicting factors like race, age at release, drug or alcohol problems, marital status, . . .

We note that some released prisoners will never return.

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└ Introduction

Some introducing examples

Example: Liability claims

(Klugman and Rioux (2006))

At an insurance company, liability claims are made after some damage has occurred. There are different policies which have deductibles of 100, 250 or 500 euro and maximum payments of 1000, 3000 or 5000 euro. This insurance company wants to know how much it should pay each year and is interested in the distribution of the claim sizes.

Because they only pay a maximum payment of 5000, it is impossible to express the true amount of the damage.

∟Some introducing examples

Example: Wages

To gain insight into the economical status of a region, you may want to look at the income of every person in this region.

How would you deal with unemployment?

In reliability and survival analysis, we are interested in a non-negative random variable T ($T \ge 0$). This variable T can be discrete with values $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$ or continuous on $(0, \infty)$.

This variable is known under a lot of different names:

- failure time
- lifetime
- time until an event
- loss
- ...

Sometimes we cannot fully observe this random variable T but only observe some boundaries for this time. This is called censoring.

∟_{Censoring}

Example: Leukemia

(Klein and Moeschberger (2003))

Let's go back to the starting examples...

Bone marrow transplants are a standard treatment for acute leukemia. In this multi center trial, patients were followed from the moment they had a bone marrow transplant until the leukemia returns. The researchers investigated the time until relapse and looked for factors that influenced this time.

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└-Censoring

Conclusion:

In each of the examples, we cannot fully observe the time until a certain event. Due to different practical reasons, we only observe in the examples a lower bound of the true time.

This is called right censoring.

In general, any situation in which you cannot fully observe a time until an event but only observe some boundaries for this time is called <u>censoring</u>. In the examples, there is another non-negative random variable C ($C \ge 0$) which we call the censoring variable and which obscures the observation of T.

For the moment, we only consider right censoring. There are three types of censoring.

- Type I or fixed censoring.
- Type II censoring
- Type III or random censoring.

└Types of right censoring

Type I or fixed censoring

Let $t_c \in \mathbb{R}$ be a fixed time point and take a sample lifetimes T_1, \ldots, T_n .

We only observe a lifetime T_i if it is smaller than t_c , otherwise we get this fixed time point.

Hence, we get a sample Y_1, \ldots, Y_n where

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} T_i & \text{, if } T_i \leq t_c \\ t_c & \text{, if } T_i > t_c \end{cases}, i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Example: Study stopped at a fixed time.

└_Types of right censoring

Type II censoring

Let r < n with $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and denote by $T_{(1)} < \ldots < T_{(n)}$ the ordered lifetimes.

We observe until the r-th system has failed.

Hence we get

$$Y_{(i)} = \begin{cases} T_{(i)} & \text{, if } T_{(i)} \leq T_{(r)} \\ T_{(r)} & \text{, if } T_{(i)} > T_{(r)} \end{cases}, i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Example: Industrial test trial.

Type III or random censoring

Let C_1, \ldots, C_n be a sample of censoring times.

We observe a sample of couples, $(Y_1, \delta_1), \ldots, (Y_n, \delta_n)$ where, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$,

$$Y_i = \min(T_i, C_i) = \begin{cases} T_i & \text{, if } T_i \le C_i \\ C_i & \text{, if } T_i > C_i \end{cases}$$

$$\delta_i = I(T_i \le C_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{, if } T_i \le C_i \\ 0 & \text{, if } T_i > C_i \end{cases}$$

In general we assume that, for i = 1, ..., n, T_i and C_i are independent.

└_Types of right censoring

Based on observations of Y_1, \ldots, Y_n , we want to estimate the distribution F.

In a similar way, we can look at other censoring schemes.

Introduction

Uther censoring schemes

Left censoring

We observe a sample $(Y_1, \delta_1), \ldots, (Y_n, \delta_n)$ where, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$,

$$Y_i = \max(T_i, C_i) = \begin{cases} T_i & \text{, if } T_i \ge C_i \\ C_i & \text{, if } T_i < C_i \end{cases}$$

$$\delta_i = I(T_i \ge C_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{, if } T_i \ge C_i \\ 0 & \text{, if } T_i < C_i \end{cases}$$

Some examples:

- Development of children behavior: At which age can a child perform a certain task. Some children can perform the task when they enter the study.
- Detection limits: A measuring device cannot give a correct value below a fixed limit.

Uther censoring schemes

Interval-censoring

Instead of a sample of lifetimes T_1, \ldots, T_n , we get for each individual an interval in which the event occurred. Hence we get $(L_1, R_1], \ldots, (L_n, R_n]$.

Example:

In a clinical trial on breast cancer patients, the researchers were interested whether there was a difference in cosmetic effects for early breast cancer patients when they were treated with radiotherapy only or with radiotherapy and chemotherapy. At each visit, every 4 till 6 month, a clinician recorded a measure for breast retraction. Of interest was the time until moderate or severe breast retraction appeared.

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Introduction

Other censoring schemes

Doubly censoring

We observe a sample $(Y_1, \delta_1), \ldots, (Y_n, \delta_n)$ where, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$,

$$Y_i = \min(\max(T_i, L_i), R_i)$$

$$\delta_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_i = T_i \\ 0 & \text{if } Y_i = R_i \\ -1 & \text{if } Y_i = L_i \end{cases}$$

Example:

In a study conducted at the Stanford-Palo Alto Peer counseling program, 191 California high school boys were asked: "When did you first use marijuana?" The answers were the exact ages (uncensored observations), "I never used it" (right censored observations), "I have used it but can not recall when the first time was" (left censored observations).

In a clinical study, we encounter three main mechanisms of censoring:

- Administrative censoring: due to the end of study.
- Withdrawal: a patient does not want to continue the treatment.
- Loss to follow-up: a patient do not show up anymore at the follow-up visits during trial.

Sometimes we note that the censoring variable is not independent of the lifetime, or the distribution of the censoring variable is linked to the distribution of the lifetime. We then call the censoring informative.

In the example, we see that

- Administrative censoring usually fulfills the independence condition.
- Withdrawals/losses to follow-up are potentially problematic: can be due to, e.g., disease progression or death.

In this course we will mainly deal with non-informative censoring and should try to avoid that we get informative censoring by checking the reasons why individuals leave a study. └Choice of a time frame

To define a lifetime correctly, we need

- A time-origin.
- A time-scale.
- A definition of when the endpoint occurs.

However, sometimes there are several choices of time-origins and associated times-scales. Choosing the right one depends on the purpose of the study. We have in most cases:

- Study time: calendar time between the beginning and end of the study.
- Subject time: time spent in a study, measured from the subject's origin.

∟Introduction

Choice of a time frame

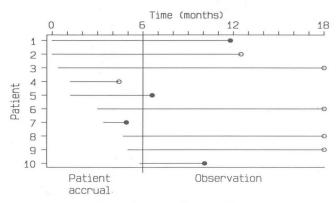
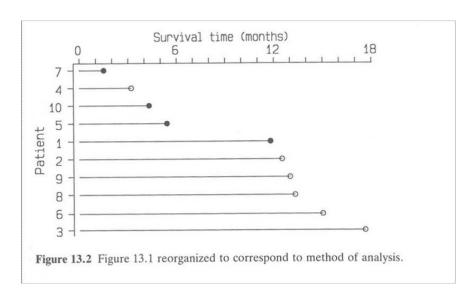


Figure 13.1 Diagram showing patients entering a study at different times and the observation of known (\bullet) and censored (\circ) survival times.

Choice of a time frame



Survival function

One of the important quantities in reliability and survival analysis is the survival function or reliability function

$$S(t) = P(T > t) = 1 - F(t).$$

It is the probability that an event has not occurred by time t.

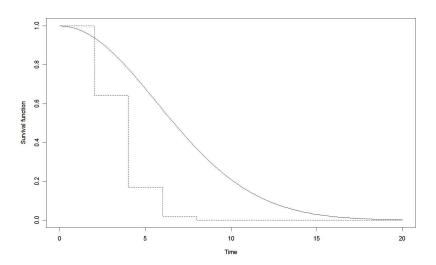
Some properties:

- S(0) = 1.
- $S(+\infty) = \lim_{t \to +\infty} S(t) = 0.$
- S(t) is a non-increasing function of t.

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└Some mathematical notation



Introduction

Some mathematical notation

T is continuous

In this case, we have a density function

$$f(t) = -\frac{dS(t)}{dt}$$
 $\Rightarrow S(t) = \int_{t}^{\infty} f(x)dx.$

A second important quantity in reliability and survival is the hazard function which is often also called (instantaneous) failure rate or intensity function,

$$\lambda(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{P(t \le T < t + h|T > t)}{h}.$$

It describes the probability for an event to take place in an small interval after time t, given that it has not occurred before t,

$$\lambda(t)h \approx P(t \le T < t + h|T > t).$$

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└-Introduction

Some mathematical notation

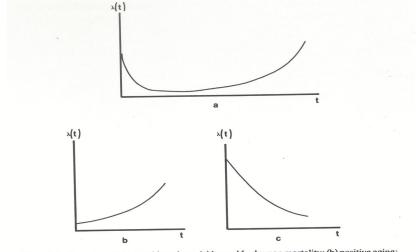


Figure 1.1 Some types of hazard functions: (a) hazard for human mortality; (b) positive aging; (c) negative aging.

Relationship between $\lambda(t)$ and S(t).

$$\lambda(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{P(t \le T < t + h|T > t)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} \frac{P(t \le T < t + h)}{P(T > t)}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} \frac{S(t) - S(t + h)}{S(t)} = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)}.$$

Conversely,

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)} = \frac{-1}{S(t)} \frac{d}{dt} S(t) = -\frac{d}{dt} \log S(t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \log S(t) = -\int_{0}^{t} \lambda(x) dx \Rightarrow S(t) = \exp\left(-\int_{0}^{t} \lambda(x) dx\right)$$

We define the cumulative hazard function as

$$\Lambda(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \lambda(x) dx.$$

We note that
$$\Lambda(0) = 0$$
 and $\Lambda(+\infty) = \int_{0}^{+\infty} \lambda(x)dx = +\infty$.

In reliability and survival analysis, we are also interested in the residual lifetime T_t . This is the remaining lifetime of a system that has survived until time t. The distribution of the residual lifetime is given by

$$F_t(x) = P(T - t \le x | T \ge t) = \frac{F(t + x) - F(t)}{S(t)}.$$

Looking at the average value, we get the mean residual life time,

$$r(t) = E[T - t|T \ge t] = \frac{\int\limits_{t}^{\infty} (x - t)f(x)dx}{S(t)} = \frac{\int\limits_{t}^{\infty} S(x)dx}{S(t)}.$$

Furthermore we can derive the following relationships

$$S(t) = \frac{r(0)}{r(t)} \exp\left(-\int_0^t \frac{du}{r(u)}\right)$$

$$f(t) = \left(\frac{d}{dt}r(t) + 1\right) \frac{r(0)}{r(t)^2} \exp\left(-\int_0^t \frac{du}{r(u)}\right)$$

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{1}{r(t)} \left(\frac{d}{dt}r(t) + 1\right)$$

We note for the mean life time that r(0) = E[T].

Hereby we can show that

$$r(0) = E[T] = \int_{0}^{+\infty} t f(t) dt = \int_{0}^{+\infty} S(t) dt.$$

Sometimes we are confronted in reliability and survival analysis that $E[T] = +\infty$. Therefore we introduce percentiles.

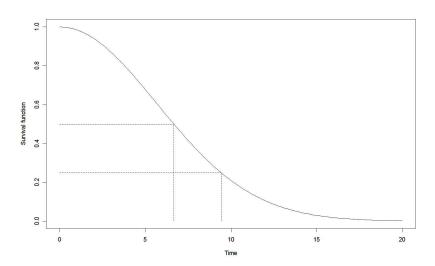
The p-th percentile t_p is the solution of the equation

$$S(t_p) = 1 - p.$$

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└Some mathematical notation



T is discrete

The probability function is given by

$$f(a_i) = P(T = a_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots \Rightarrow S(t) = \sum_{a_i > t} f(a_j).$$

The hazard function is given by

$$\lambda_i = \lambda(a_i) = P(T = a_i | T \ge a_i) = \frac{f(a_i)}{S(a_i)}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots$$

and

$$S(t) = \prod_{a_i \le t} (1 - \lambda_i).$$

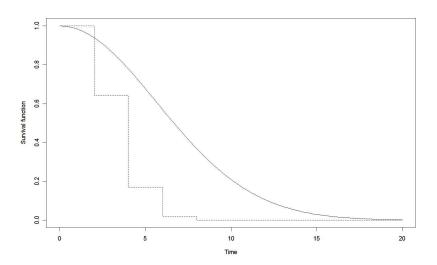
The p -th percentile t_p is the smallest t_p such that $S(t_p) \leq 1 - p$,

$$t_p = \inf\{t : S(t) \le 1 - p\}.$$

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 $\sqsubseteq_{\operatorname{Introduction}}$

└Some mathematical notation



└ Introduction

In an analysis, we first explore the data. Hereby we are also interested in estimating the survival function S from right censored data.

We consider again the previous example.

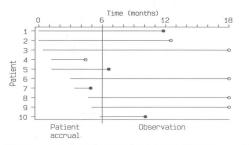


Figure 13.1 Diagram showing patients entering a study at different times and the observation of known (\bullet) and censored (\circ) survival times.

We extract the following data from the graph.

Patient	Random. time (months)	Last obs. (months)	Died?	lifetime (months)	status (1 = yes)
1	0.0	11.8	yes	11.8	1
2	0.0	12.5	no	12.5	0
3	0.4	18.0	no	17.6	0
4	1.2	4.4	no	3.2	0
5	1.2	6.6	yes	5.4	1
6	3.0	18.0	no	15.0	0
7	3.4	4.9	yes	1.5	1
8	4.7	18.0	no	13.3	0
9	5.0	18.0	no	13.0	0
10	5.8	10.1	yes	4.3	1

Example: We want to know the probability that a patient has died at 6 months?

Estimation of the survival function

Introduction

Introduction

If we ignore censoring, we use the empirical distribution function and estimate

$$\hat{p}(6) = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} I(\text{lifetime}_i \le 6) = \frac{4}{10}.$$

However, one patient (no. 4) has survived 3.2 months (censored observation).

How to deal with this patient?

- Assume no. 4 died before 6 months \rightarrow overestimation $(\frac{4}{10})$
- Assume no. 4 survived 6 months \rightarrow underestimation $(\frac{3}{10})$
- Ignore no. $4 \to loss$ of information $(\frac{3}{9})$

Hence, censoring is causing problems!

To derive an estimator for the survival distribution of the lifetime, we introduce the following notation:

- The j-th time interval is $[a_{j-1}, a_j[, j = 1, \dots, K+1. \ a_0 = 0]$ and $a_{K+1} = +\infty$.
- d_j is # failures in the j-th interval.
- c_j is # censored observations in the j-th interval.
- n_j is # individuals entering the j-th interval.

Life tables

We decompose the survival function $S(a_j)$ as

$$S(a_j) = P(T > a_j | T > a_{j-1}) S(a_{j-1})$$

= $P(T > a_j | T > a_{j-1}) \dots P(T > a_1 | T > a_0) S(a_0)$

For each interval $[a_{j-1}, a_j]$, we estimate the conditional survival probability by

$$P(T > a_j | T > a_{j-1}) = P(\text{Survive interval } [a_{j-1}, a_j [| T > a_{j-1})]$$

= $1 - \frac{\text{Number failures}_j}{\text{Number at risk}_j}$.

Life tables

Some questions:

- How do we define the number at risk n'_j in the j-th interval?
- ② What should we do with censored people?

Answer:

We assume that the censoring times are uniformly distributed over the interval, and hence occur on average half-way through the interval. For each interval, we define the number at risk n'_j as

$$n_j' = n_j - \frac{c_j}{2}.$$

We call the obtained estimator, the Actuarial estimator.

Life tables

Until now, we assumed that the individual lifetimes were observed. Sometimes they are grouped in fixed time intervals.

Some examples:

- Cohort life table: presents the actual mortality experience from birth to death for a group of people born at about the same time.
- Current life table: From a cross-sectional study, mostly census information, the number of individuals alive at each age is recorded, together with statistics on number of deaths in each age group.
- Clinical life table: applies to grouped survival data from studies in patients with a specific disease.

An example: Time to weaning of breast-fed newborns

- In the National Labor Survey of Youth (NLSY) data set, youths between age 14 and 21 were yearly interviewed.
- Females were asked about pregnancies and breast-feeding.
- Data on 927 breast-fed first-born children.
- Duration of breast-feeding was recorded in weeks. An indicator whether breast-feeding was completed.

n_{j}	c_{j}	d_{j}
927	2	77
848	3	71
774	6	119
649	9	75
565	7	109
449	5	148
296	3	107
186	0	74
112	0	85
27	0	27
	927 848 774 649 565 449 296 186 112	927 2 848 3 774 6 649 9 565 7 449 5 296 3 186 0 112 0

Life tables

Using SAS software

```
data wean:
input Weeks Status Freq;
cards;
1 1 77
2.5 1 71
4 1 119
6 1 75
8 1 109
15 1 148
20 1 107
30 1 74
40 1 85
60 1 27
102
2.5 0 3
4 0 6
6 0 9
8 0 7
15 0 5
20 0 3
30 0 0
40 0 0
```

60 0 0 ;

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Life tables

proc lifetest data=wean method=lt intervals=(0 2 3 5 7 11 17 25 37 53);
time Weeks*Status(0);
freq Freq;
run;

The LIFETEST Procedure

Life Table Survival Estimates

Interva [Lower,	l Upper)	Number Failed	Number Censored	Effective Sample Size	Conditional Probability of Failure	Conditional Probability Standard Error	Survival	Failure
0	2	77	2	926.0	0.0832	0.00907	1.0000	0
2	3	71	3	846.5	0.0839	0.00953	0.9168	0.0832
3	5	119	6	771.0	0.1543	0.0130	0.8399	0.1601
5	7	75	9	644.5	0.1164	0.0126	0.7103	0.2897
7	11	109	7	561.5	0.1941	0.0167	0.6276	0.3724
11	17	148	5	446.5	0.3315	0.0223	0.5058	0.4942
17	25	107	3	294.5	0.3633	0.0280	0.3381	0.6619
25	37	74	0	186.0	0.3978	0.0359	0.2153	0.7847
37	53	85	0	112.0	0.7589	0.0404	0.1296	0.8704
53		27	0	27.0	1.0000	0	0.0313	0.9687

Estimation of the survival function

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Estimation of the survival function

Life tables

Evaluated at the Midpoint of the Interval

Interval	Upper)	Survival Standard Error	Median Residual Lifetime	Median Standard Error	PDF	PDF Standard Error	Hazard	Hazard Standard Error
0	2	0	11.2078	0.5880	0.0416	0.00454	0.04338	0.004939
2	3	0.00907	10.6957	0.5639	0.0769	0.00877	0.087546	0.01038
3	5	0.0121	11.0717	0.5413	0.0648	0.00554	0.083626	0.007639
5	7	0.0149	11.3915	0.5006	0.0413	0.00457	0.061779	0.00712
7	11	0.0160	11.5839	0.8624	0.0305	0.00273	0.053748	0.005118
11	17	0.0166	11.5508	0.7793	0.0279	0.00209	0.066219	0.005335
17	25	0.0158	14.4748	1.3803	0.0154	0.00139	0.055498	0.005231
25	37	0.0138	15.5765	1.2836	0.00714	0.000790	0.041387	0.00466
37	53	0.0114	10.5412	0.9960	0.00615	0.000630	0.076439	0.00656
53		0.00591						

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

Percent Total Failed Censored

Censored

927 892 35 3.78

NOTE: There were 3 observations with missing values, negative time values or frequency values less than 1.

Kaplan-Meier estimator

The main quantity of interest is the probability that an event will not occur by time t:

$$S(t) = P(T > t).$$

Kaplan and Meier (1958) develop an estimator for the survival function

$$\hat{S}(t) = \prod_{t_i \le t} \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n_i} \right)^{\delta_i} = \prod_{t_i \le t} \left(\frac{n_i - d_i}{n_i} \right)^{\delta_i}.$$

where

- d_i = number of patients died at t_i
- n_i = number of patients at risk before t_i

Kaplan-Meier estimator

This estimator is called Kaplan-Meier or Product-limit estimator.

Let $t_1 < t_2 < \ldots < t_k$ be the ordered lifetimes.

The main idea: conditional probability

To survive until time t_{j+1} , you need to first survive until time t_j units, and then until t_{j+1} .

Symbolically:

$$S(t_{j+1}) = P(T > t_{j+1}|T > t_j)S(t_j)$$

= $P(\text{Survive interval }]t_j, t_{j+1}]|T > t_j)S(t_j).$

- Estimation of the survival function
 - └Kaplan-Meier estimator

There are three possibilities for each interval:

- There is a censoring \rightarrow We assume that they survive until the end of the interval. The conditional probability is 1.
- There is a death, but no censoring \rightarrow conditional probability of surviving the interval is $1 \frac{d}{r}$ where d is the number of deaths within the interval and r the number at risk at the beginning of the interval.
- There are tied deaths and censoring \rightarrow We assume that censoring occurs at the end of the interval such that the conditional probability is $1 \frac{d}{r}$.

Lifetime (Months)	Status	Number Events (d_i)	Number at risk (n_i)	$\hat{S}(t)$
(Months)		(a_i)	(161)	1
0	4		10	I (0) [1 1/10] 0.0000
1.5	1	1	10	S(0)[1-1/10] = 0.9000
3.2	0	0	9	$S(1.5) \times 1 = 0.9000$
4.3	1	1	8	S(3.2)[1-1/8] = 0.7875
5.4	1	1	7	S(4.3)[1-1/7] = 0.6750
11.8	1	1	6	S(5.4)[1-1/6] = 0.5625
12.5	0	0	5	$S(11.8) \times 1 = 0.5625$
13.0	0	0	4	$S(12.5) \times 1 = 0.5625$
13.3	0	0	3	$S(13.0) \times 1 = 0.5625$
15.0	0	0	2	$S(13.3) \times 1 = 0.5625$
17.6	0	0	1	$S(15.0) \times 1 = 0.5625$

Estimation of the survival function

[└]Kaplan-Meier estimator

Returning to the introduction, we note that the probability of surviving more than 6 months is

$$\hat{S}(6) = 67.5\%.$$

Comparing with some "naive" estimators.

- Assume patient with t = 3.2 died before 6 months $\rightarrow 60\%$.
- Assume patient with t = 3.2 survived 6 months $\rightarrow 70\%$.
- Ignore patient with $t = 3.2 \rightarrow 66.6\%$

└Kaplan-Meier estimator

Some properties for the KM-estimator

• The KM-estimator is a step-function which only jumps at uncensored observations. The different jumps are random, dependent on censored observations.

$$W_j = \hat{S}(t_{j-1}) - \hat{S}(t_j) = \frac{d_j}{n_j} \prod_{t_i < t_{j-1}} \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n_i} \right)^{\delta_i}.$$

- When the largest observation t_k is censored, the KM-estimator does not converge to zero at infinity and is often taken as undefined.
- The KM-estimator is the nonparametric MLE of

$$L = \prod_{j=0}^{k} \left\{ \left[S(t_{j}^{-}) - S(t_{j}) \right]^{d_{j}} \prod_{l=1}^{m_{j}} S(t_{jl}) \right\}.$$

└Kaplan-Meier estimator

If there is no censoring, the KM-estimator reduces to the empirical survival function.

If
$$t_1 < t_2 < \ldots < t_k$$
 then $n_i = n - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} d_j$.

Hence

$$\hat{S}(t) = \prod_{t_i \le t} \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n_i} \right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{n - d_1}{n} \right) \left(\frac{n - d_1 - d_2}{n - d_1} \right) \dots \left(\frac{n - d_1 - \dots - d_i}{n - d_1 - \dots - d_{i-1}} \right)$$

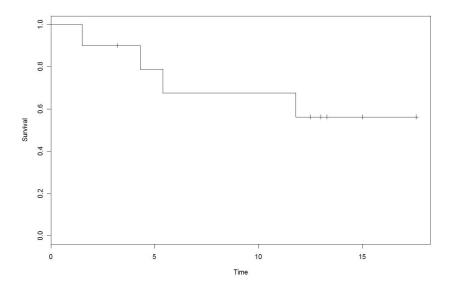
$$= \frac{n - \sum_{j=1}^{i} d_j}{n} = \frac{\text{\# observations } > t}{n}.$$

Using R software

```
> library(survival)
> Time<-c(1.5,3.2,4.3,5.4,11.8,12.5,13.0,13.3,15.0,17.6)
> Status<-c(1.0.1.1.1.0.0.0.0.0)
> Surv(Time,Status)
[1] 1.5 3.2+ 4.3 5.4 11.8 12.5+ 13.0+ 13.3+ 15.0+ 17.6+
> survfit(Surv(Time,Status)~1)
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ 1)
records
         n.max n.start events median 0.95LCL 0.95UCL
  10.0
        10.0 10.0
                          4.0
                                   NA
                                          5.4
                                                  NA
> summary(survfit(Surv(Time,Status)~1))
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ 1)
 time n.risk n.event survival std.err lower 95% CI upper 95% CI
 1.5
         10
                  1 0.900 0.0949
                                          0.732
                  1 0.787 0.1340
 4.3
                                          0.564
 5.4
                  1 0.675 0.1551
                                           0.430
11.8
                  1 0.562 0.1651
                                          0.316
> plot(survfit(Surv(Time,Status)~1,conf.tvpe="none"),xlab="Time",vlab="Survival")
```

Estimation of the survival function

[└]Kaplan-Meier estimator



Using SAS software

```
data clin;
input Time Status;
cards;
1.5 1
3.2 0
17.6 0
run;
proc lifetest data=clin;
time Time*Status(0);
run;
```

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

The LIFETEST Procedure

Product-Limit Survival Estimates

Time	Survival	Failure	Survival Standard Error	Number Failed	Number Left
0.0000	1.0000	0	0	0	10
1.5000	0.9000	0.1000	0.0949	1	9
3.2000*				1	8
4.3000	0.7875	0.2125	0.1340	2	7
5.4000	0.6750	0.3250	0.1551	3	6
11.8000	0.5625	0.4375	0.1651	4	5
12.5000*				4	4
13.0000*				4	3
13.3000*				4	2
15.0000*				4	1
17.6000*				4	0

NOTE: The marked survival times are censored observations.

Estimation of the survival function

[└]Kaplan-Meier estimator

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Estimation of the survival function

└Kaplan-Meier estimator

Summary Statistics for Time Variable Time

Quartile Estimates

	Point	95% Confide	nce Interval
Percent	Estimate	[Lower	Upper)
75		11.8000	
50		5.4000	
25	5.4000	1.5000	

Mean Standard Error

9.2063 1.4535

NOTE: The mean survival time and its standard error were underestimated because the largest observation was censored and the estimation was restricted to the largest event time.

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

Percent Censored	Censored	Failed	Total
60.00	6	4	10

└Kaplan-Meier estimator

An alternative estimator for the Kaplan-Meier estimator is the Nelson-Aalen estimator.

Hereby we used the link between the survival function and the cumulative hazard function,

$$S(t) = \exp(-\Lambda(t)).$$

Estimating first the cumulative hazard function, we then get another estimator for the survival function,

$$\hat{\Lambda}(t) = \sum_{t_i \le t} \frac{d_i}{n_i} \Rightarrow \hat{S}(t) = \exp\left(-\sum_{t_i \le t} \frac{d_i}{n_i}\right).$$

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Estimation of the survival function

└Kaplan-Meier estimator

proc lifetest data=clin nelson method=breslow; time Time*Status(0); run:

The LIFETEST Procedure

Survival Function and Cumulative Hazard Rate

		Breslow	Nelson-Aalen				
Time	Survival	Failure	Survival Standard Error	Cumulative Hazard	Cum Haz Standard Error	Number Failed	Number Left
0.0000	1.0000	0	0	0		0	10
1.5000	0.9048	0.0952	0.0954	0.1000	0.1000	1	9
3.2000*						1	8
4.3000	0.7985	0.2015	0.1359	0.2250	0.1601	2	7
5.4000	0.6922	0.3078	0.1590	0.3679	0.2146	3	6
11.8000	0.5859	0.4141	0.1719	0.5345	0.2717	4	5
12.5000*						4	4
13.0000*						4	3
13.3000*						4	2
15.0000*						4	1
17.6000*	0.5859	0.4141				4	0

We note that

$$\hat{S}(5.4) = \exp(-0.3679) = 0.6922.$$

Using R software

```
> library(survival)
> Time<-c(1.5,3.2,4.3,5.4,11.8,12.5,13.0,13.3,15.0,17.6)
> Status<-c(1.0.1.1.1.0.0.0.0.0)
> Surv(Time,Status)
[1] 1.5 3.2+ 4.3 5.4 11.8 12.5+ 13.0+ 13.3+ 15.0+ 17.6+
> survfit(Surv(Time,Status)~1)
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ 1)
records
         n.max n.start events median 0.95LCL 0.95UCL
10.0
       10.0
               10.0
                        4.0
                                 NΑ
                                        5.4
                                                NΑ
> summary(survfit(Surv(Time,Status)~1,type="fleming-harrington"))
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ 1, type = "fleming-harrington")
time n.risk n.event survival std.err lower 95% CI upper 95% CI
1.5
                                          0.736
        10
                      0.905 0.0954
4.3
         8
                 1 0.799 0.1359
                                          0.572
5.4
                 1 0.692 0.1590
                                          0.441
11.8
                 1 0.586 0.1719
                                          0.330
```

Estimation of the survival function

Kaplan-Meier estimator

└Greenwood's formula

Next to an estimate $\hat{S}(t)$ for the survival function S(t) at t, we want to have an idea about the variability of this estimate.

This is given by Greenwood's formula

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{S}(t)) = \hat{S}(t)^2 \sum_{t_j \le t} \frac{d_j}{n_j(n_j - d_j)}$$

where t_1, \ldots, t_k are the uncensored observed lifetimes.

└Greenwood's formula

Looking at the survival function, we rewrite as

$$\hat{S}(t) = \prod_{t_j \le t} \left(1 - \hat{\lambda}_j \right)$$

where $\hat{\lambda}_j = \frac{d_j}{n_j}$.

The number of events d_j has a binomial distribution, which is approximated by a normal distribution. Hence,

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{\lambda}_j) = \frac{\hat{\lambda}_j \left(1 - \hat{\lambda}_j\right)}{n_j}.$$

In large samples, the $\hat{\lambda}_i$ are independent.

Greenwood's formula

Instead of $\hat{S}(t)$, we look at

$$\log \left[\hat{S}(t) \right] = \sum_{t_i < t} \log \left(1 - \hat{\lambda}_j \right).$$

Using the delta-method, we get that

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}\left[\log\left(\widehat{S}(t)\right)\right] = \sum_{t_j \leq t} \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}\left[\log\left(1 - \widehat{\lambda}_j\right)\right] \\
= \sum_{t_j \leq t} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \widehat{\lambda}_j}\right)^2 \frac{\widehat{\lambda}_j(1 - \widehat{\lambda}_j)}{n_j} \\
= \sum_{t_j \leq t} \frac{d_j}{n_j(n_j - d_j)}.$$

└Greenwood's formula

Since $\hat{S}(t) = \exp\left[\log(\hat{S}(t))\right]$, we get the result from the delta-method,

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{S}(t)) = \hat{S}(t)^2 \sum_{t_j \le t} \frac{d_j}{n_j(n_j - d_j)}.$$

Delta-method:

If Y is normally distributed with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then g(Y) is approximately normal with mean $g(\mu)$ and variance $g'(\mu)^2\sigma^2$.

With no censoring, $\hat{S}(t)$ is the empirical survival function and

$$\hat{S}(t) \approx N\left(S(t), \frac{S(t)(1 - S(t))}{n}\right).$$

A pointwise $(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval for S(t) is given by

$$\hat{S}(t) \pm z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$$
 s.e. $(\hat{S}(t))$.

With censoring,

- $\hat{S}(t)$ still approximately normal.
- the mean of $\hat{S}(t)$ is still the true S(t).
- variance \rightarrow Greenwood's formula.

Estimation of the survival function

Pointwise confidence interval

Pointwise confidence interval

However, the bounds of the C.I can be < 0 or > 1!

Hence, better C.I's by using transformations of S(t).

• Log-function: $\log[\hat{S}(t)] \pm z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ s.e. $\log[\hat{S}(t)]$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\hat{S}(t) \exp \left(z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}} \hat{\tau}(t) \right), \hat{S}(t) \exp \left(-z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}} \hat{\tau}(t) \right) \right]$$

with
$$\hat{\tau}^2(t) = \frac{\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{S}(t))}{\hat{S}(t)^2}$$
 (default: R).

• Log-log-function: $\log(-\log[\hat{S}(t)]) \pm z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ s.e. $\log(-\log[\hat{S}(t)])$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\hat{S}(t)^{\exp\left(z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\hat{\tau}(t)\right)}, \hat{S}(t)^{\exp\left(-z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\hat{\tau}(t)\right)} \right]$$

with
$$\hat{\tau}^2(t) = \frac{\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{S}(t))}{(\hat{S}(t)\log(\hat{S}(t)))^2}$$
 (default: SAS).

A second example: Sea sickness

Prediction of sea sickness, Burns, Aviat Space Environ Med (1984)

- 21 persons are subjected to 2-hr "rocking" with 0.167 Hz frequency and 0.111 G acceleration.
- Time until event: time when vomited for the first time.
- Two persons requested the stop of the experiment.

	,
Time	Vomit
(minutes)	(1=yes)
30	1
50	1
50	0
51	1
66	0
82	1
92	1
120	0
120	0

Estimation of the survival function

[└]Pointwise confidence interval

```
proc lifetest data=vomit;
time time*vomit(0);
survival out=out1 conftype=log;
run;
proc print data=out1;
run;
```

The LIFETEST Procedure

Product-Limit Survival Estimates

time	Survival	Failure	Survival Standard Error	Number Failed	Number Left
0.000	1.0000	0	0	0	21
30.000	0.9524	0.0476	0.0465	1	20
50.000	0.9048	0.0952	0.0641	2	19
50.000*				2	18
51.000	0.8545	0.1455	0.0778	3	17
66.000*				3	16
82.000	0.8011	0.1989	0.0894	4	15
98.000	0.7477	0.2523	0.0981	5	14
120.000*				5	13
120.000*				5	12
120.000*				5	11
120.000*				5	10

120.000*			5	9
120.000*			5	8
120.000*			5	7
120.000*	•		5	6
120.000*			5	5
120.000*	•		5	4
120.000*			5	3
120.000*	•		5	2
120.000*	•		5	1
120.000*	•		5	0

NOTE: The marked survival times are censored observations.

Summary Statistics for Time Variable time

Quartile Estimates

	Point	95% Confide	nce Interval
Percent	Estimate	[Lower	Upper)
75			
50			
25	98.000	51.000	

Mean Standard Error 89.259 4.789

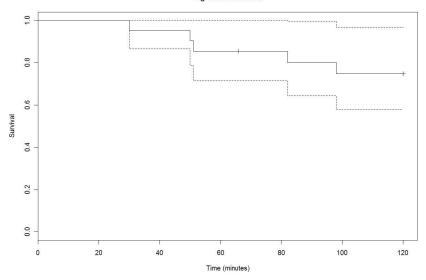
NOTE: The mean survival time and its standard error were underestimated because the largest observation was censored and the estimation was restricted to the largest event time.

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

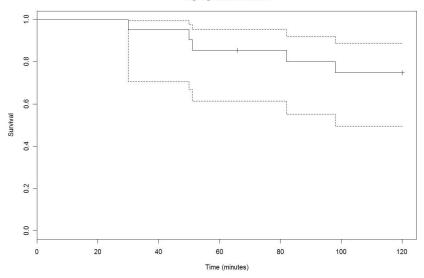
То	otal Fai	led Cens	Percored Censo			
	21	5	16 76	5.19		
Obs	time	_CENSOR_	SURVIVAL	CONFTYPE	SDF_LCL	SDF_UCL
1	0		1.00000		1.00000	1.00000
2	30	0	0.95238	LOG	0.86552	1.00000
3	50	0	0.90476	LOG	0.78754	1.00000
4	50	1	0.90476			
5	51	0	0.85450	LOG	0.71491	1.00000
6	66	1	0.85450			
7	82	0	0.80109	LOG	0.64375	0.99689
8	98	0	0.74769	LOG	0.57817	0.96690
9	120	1				
10	120	1				
11	120	1				
12	120	1				
13	120	1				
14	120	1				
15	120	1				
16	120	1				
17	120	1				
18	120	1				
19	120	1				
20	120	1				
21	120	1				
22	120	1				

```
> survfit(Surv(time.vomit)~1)
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(time, vomit) ~ 1)
records
         n.max n.start events median 0.95LCL 0.95UCL
    21
            21
                    21
                            5
                                   NΑ
                                           NΑ
                                                  NΑ
> summary(survfit(Surv(time,vomit)~1))
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(time, vomit) ~ 1)
time n.risk n.event survival std.err lower 95% CI upper 95% CI
  30
         21
                  1 0.952 0.0465
                                          0.866
                                                       1.000
  50
         20
                  1 0.905 0.0641
                                          0.788
                                                       1.000
  51
         18
                  1 0.854 0.0778
                                          0.715
                                                       1.000
  82
         16
                  1 0.801 0.0894
                                          0.644
                                                       0.997
         15
  98
                  1 0.748 0.0981
                                          0.578
                                                       0.967
> summary(survfit(Surv(time,vomit)~1,conf.type="log-log"))
Call: survfit(formula = Surv(time, vomit) ~ 1, conf.type = "log-log")
time n.risk n.event survival std.err lower 95% CI upper 95% CI
                                          0.707
  30
         21
                  1
                    0.952 0.0465
                                                       0.993
  50
         20
                  1 0.905 0.0641
                                          0.670
                                                       0.975
         18
                  1 0.854 0.0778
                                          0.613
                                                       0.951
  51
  82
         16
                  1 0.801 0.0894
                                          0.552
                                                       0.921
  98
         15
                  1 0.748 0.0981
                                          0.495
                                                       0.887
> plot(survfit(Surv(time,vomit)~1),xlab="Time (minutes)",ylab="Survival",main="log-transformation")
> plot(survfit(Surv(time,vomit)~1,conf.type="log-log"),xlab="Time (minutes)",ylab="Survival".
main="log-log-transformation")
```









Estimation of the survival function

"Redistribute to the right"- algorithm

"Redistribute to the right"- algorithm

Efron developed an alternative method to compute the KM-estimator.

He set up an algorithm which starts by assuming no censoring and, as in the empirical distribution, each observation has the same mass $\frac{1}{n}$.

Afterwards in different steps, we distribute the mass of the censored observations over the observations which are still at risk.

Example: 3, 4, 5+, 6, 6+, 8+, 11, 14, 15, 16+.

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Data	Step 0	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	$\hat{S}(t)$
3	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.900
4	$ \begin{array}{c c} \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \end{array} $	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.800
5+	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.800
6	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{7} \frac{1}{10}$	0.114	0.114	0.686
	10	= 0.114			
6+	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.114	0.000	0.000	0.686
8+	$\begin{array}{c c} \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \end{array}$	0.114	$0.114 + \frac{1}{5}0.114$	0.000	0.686
	10		=0.137		
11	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.114	0.137	$0.137 + \frac{1}{4}0.137$	0.515
	10			=0.171	
14	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.114	0.137	0.171	0.343
15	$\frac{1}{10}$	0.114	0.137	0.171	0.171
16+	$ \begin{array}{c c} \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{10} \end{array} $	0.114	0.137	0.171	0.000*

 $[\]sqsubseteq_{\text{Estimation of the survival function}}$

^{└&}quot;Redistribute to the right"- algorithm

Example: Sea sickness 2

- The "rocking" study on sea sickness was repeated with 28 subjects.
- 2 times higher frequency (0.333 Hz) and acceleration (0.222 G).
- From the table, it seems that the times are shorter in the second study!

Time	Vomit	Study
(min.)	(yes = 1)	
30	1	1
50	1	1
50	0	1
120	0	1
5	1	2
6	0	2
11	1	2
120	0	2

- + 2,2,2,2,2,2,2)

- + 0.0.0.0.0.0.0)
- > fit<-survfit(Surv(Time,Status)~study)

> summarv(fit)

Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ study)

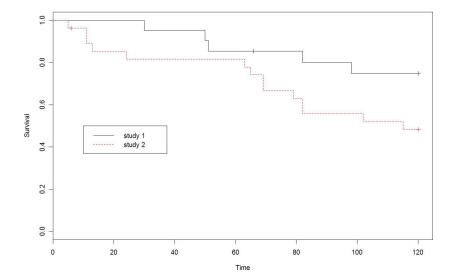
study=1

time	n.risk	${\tt n.event}$	survival	std.err	lower	95% CI	upper	95% CI
30	21	1	0.952	0.0465		0.866		1.000
50	20	1	0.905	0.0641		0.788		1.000
51	18	1	0.854	0.0778		0.715		1.000
82	16	1	0.801	0.0894		0.644		0.997
98	15	1	0.748	0.0981		0.578		0.967

studv=2

/ -										
	time	n.risk	${\tt n.event}$	survival	std.err	lower	95% CI	upper	95% CI	
	5	28	1	0.964	0.0351		0.898		1.000	
	11	26	2	0.890	0.0599		0.780		1.000	
	13	24	1	0.853	0.0679		0.730		0.997	
	24	23	1	0.816	0.0744		0.682		0.976	
	63	22	1	0.779	0.0797		0.637		0.952	
	65	21	1	0.742	0.0841		0.594		0.926	
	69	20	2	0.668	0.0906		0.512		0.871	
	79	18	1	0.630	0.0928		0.472		0.841	
	82	17	2	0.556	0.0956		0.397		0.779	
	102	15	1	0.519	0.0961		0.361		0.746	
	115	14	1	0.482	0.0962		0.326		0.713	

```
> plot(fit[1],xlab="Time",ylab="Survival")
> lines(fit[2],col="red",lty=2)
> legend(10,0.5,legend=c("study 1","study 2"),lty=c(1,2),col=c("black","red"))
```



```
data vomit2;
input time vomit study;
cards;
30 1 1
50 1 1
50 0 1
51 1 1
66 0 1
82 1 1
98 1 1
. . .
120 0 2
120 0 2
120 0 2
120 0 2
120 0 2
120 0 2
run;
proc lifetest data=vomit2;
by study;
time time*vomit(0);
run;
```

The LIFETEST Procedure

study=1

Product-Limit Survival Estimates

time	Survival	Failure	Survival Standard Error	Number Failed	Number Left
0.000	1.0000	0	0	0	21
30.000	0.9524	0.0476	0.0465	1	20
50.000	0.9048	0.0952	0.0641	2	19
50.000*				2	18
51.000	0.8545	0.1455	0.0778	3	17
66.000*				3	16
82.000	0.8011	0.1989	0.0894	4	15
98.000	0.7477	0.2523	0.0981	5	14
120.000*				5	13
120.000*				5	12
120.000*				5	11
120.000*				5	10
120.000*				5	9
120.000*				5	8
120.000*				5	7
120.000*				5	6
120.000*				5	5
120.000*				5	4
120.000*				5	3
120.000*				5	2
120.000*				5	1
120.000*				5	0

NOTE: The marked survival times are censored observations.

Summary Statistics for Time Variable time

Quartile Estimates

	Point		nce Interval
Percent	Estimate	[Lower	Upper)
75			-
50			
25	98.000	51.000	
Mean	Standard 1	Error	
89.259	4	1.789	

NOTE: The mean survival time and its standard error were underestimated because the largest observation was censored and the estimation was restricted to the largest event time.

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

D----

Censored	Censored	Failed	Total
76.19	16	5	21

Product-Limit Survival Estimates

			Survival		
			Standard	Number	Number
time	Survival	Failure	Error	Failed	Left
0.000	1.0000	0	0	0	28
5.000	0.9643	0.0357	0.0351	1	27
6.000*				1	26
11.000				2	25
11.000	0.8901	0.1099	0.0599	3	24
13.000	0.8530	0.1470	0.0679	4	23
24.000	0.8159	0.1841	0.0744	5	22
63.000	0.7788	0.2212	0.0797	6	21
65.000	0.7418	0.2582	0.0841	7	20
69.000				8	19
69.000	0.6676	0.3324	0.0906	9	18
79.000	0.6305	0.3695	0.0928	10	17
82.000				11	16
82.000	0.5563	0.4437	0.0956	12	15
102.000	0.5192	0.4808	0.0961	13	14
115.000	0.4821	0.5179	0.0962	14	13
120.000*				14	12
120.000*				14	11
120.000*			•	14	10
120.000*				14	9
120.000*				14	8
120.000*				14	7
120.000*				14	6
120.000*				14	5
120.000*			•	14	4
120.000*			•	14	3
120.000*				14	2
120.000*	•		•	14	1
120.000*			•	14	0

Summary Statistics for Time Variable time

Quartile Estimates

	Point	95% Confide	nce Interval
Percent	Estimate	[Lower	Upper)
75			
50	115.000	69.000	
25	65.000	13.000	82.000
Mean	Standard	Error	

NOTE: The mean survival time and its standard error were underestimated because the largest observation was censored and the estimation was restricted to the largest event time.

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

Percent Censored	Censored	Failed	Total
50.00	14	14	28

84.739 7.709

La Test for two or more samples

Difference in survival curves at fixed points

At a fixed point t_0 , we look at the different survival probabilities,

$$H_0: S_1(t_0) = S_2(t_0) = \ldots = S_K(t_0)$$
 vs $H_a:$ at least one $\neq .$

Like in regression, we rewrite this hypothesis as

$$H_0: CS(t_0) = 0$$

with $K-1\times K$ contrast matrix C and vector $S(t_0)$ given by

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad S(t_0) = \begin{bmatrix} S_1(t_0) \\ S_2(t_0) \\ \vdots \\ S_K(t_0) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Comparison of survival curves

Lateral Test for two or more samples

Since we have that

$$\hat{S}_j(t_0) \approx N(S_j(t_0), \text{Var}(S_j(t_0))), \quad j = 1, \dots, K$$

Hence, under H_0 ,

$$T = (C\hat{S}(t_0))^t [C\hat{V}C^t]^{-1} (C\hat{S}(t_0)) \approx \chi_{K-1}^2$$

with \hat{V} diagonal matrix containing $\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{S}_j(t_0)), j = 1, \dots, K$.

Remarks:

- Simple method to compare survival curves, but fixed point t_0 has to be chosen in advance!
- More time points $t_{01}, \ldots, t_{0m} \Rightarrow$ correction multiple testing (ex: Bonferroni).

-Comparison of survival curves

Lateral Test for two or more samples

Returning to the example, we compare the survival probability in both groups at time-points $t_0 = 30, 60, 90$.

We have the hypotheses,

$$H_0: S_1(t_0) = S_2(t_0)$$
 vs $H_a: S_1(t_0) \neq S_2(t_0)$.

and the test is, under H_0 ,

$$T = \frac{(\hat{S}_1(t_0) - \hat{S}_2(t_0))^2}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{S}_1(t_0)) + \widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{S}_2(t_0))} \approx \chi_1^2.$$

t_0	$\hat{S}_1(t_0)$	$\hat{S}_2(t_0)$	T	<i>p</i> -value
30	$0.9524 \ (0.0465)$	0.8159 (0.0744)	2.4205	0.1198
60	$0.8545 \ (0.0778)$	$0.8159 \ (0.0744)$	0.1286	0.7199
90	$0.7477 \ (0.0981)$	$0.5563 \ (0.0956)$	1.9525	0.1623

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Comparison of survival curves

Lateral Test for two or more samples

Log-rank test

Instead of looking at fixed time points, we want to compare the whole survival function of different groups,

$$H_0: S_1(t) = S_2(t) = \dots = S_K(t), \ 0 < t < \tau.$$

Since the true survival functions are unknown in each group, we go for a nonparametric test.

Before we derive the test statistic for this nullypothesis. We look at a simpler setting with K=2,

$$H_0: S_1(t) = S_2(t), \ 0 < t < \tau.$$

In this setting it is more clear which idea's we will use here.

La Test for two or more samples

Suppose we observe, from populations j = 0, 1,

$$(T_{j1}, \delta_{j1}), (T_{j2}, \delta_{j2}), \ldots, (T_{jn_j}, \delta_{jn_j}).$$

Under H_0 , both populations are equal. Hence we can order the uncensored lifetimes. Denote by τ_1, \ldots, τ_k be the k ordered, distinct death times.

At the *l*-th death time, we construct a 2×2 contingency table,

Popul / Died	yes	no	Total
0	d_{0l}	$n_{0l} - d_{0l}$	n_{0l}
1	d_{1l}	$n_{1l} - d_{1l}$	n_{1l}
Total	d_l	$n_l - d_l$	n_l

where d_{jl} is the number of deaths and n_{jl} is the number at risk in population j at this time.

Now, under H_0 and conditional on the marginals, d_{jl} has a hypergeometric distribution.

$$d_{jl} \sim \text{Hypergeometric}(n_l, d_l, n_{jl}).$$

Therefore, we find that the mean and variance of d_{jl} are given by

$$E[d_{jl}] = \frac{n_{1l}d_{l}}{n_{l}}$$

$$Var(d_{jl}) = \frac{n_{l} - n_{1l}}{n_{l} - 1} n_{1l} \frac{d_{l}}{n_{l}} \left(1 - \frac{d_{l}}{n_{l}}\right)$$

$$= \frac{n_{1l}n_{0l}d_{l}(n_{l} - d_{l})}{n_{l}^{2}(n_{l} - 1)}.$$

Comparison of survival curves

Lateral Test for two or more samples

If the sample size at each death time is sufficiently large, we approximate the hypergeometric distribution by a normal distribution.

$$d_{1l} - E[d_{1l}] = d_{1l} - \frac{n_{1l}d_l}{n_l} \approx N\left(0, \frac{n_{1l}n_{0l}d_l(n_l - d_l)}{n_l^2(n_l - 1)}\right).$$

Assuming that the contingency tables at different death times are independent, we find the log-rank test,

$$T = \frac{\left[\sum_{l=1}^{k} \left(d_{1l} - \frac{n_{1l}d_l}{n_l}\right)\right]^2}{\sum_{l=1}^{k} \frac{n_{1l}n_{0l}d_l(n_l - d_l)}{n_l^2(n_l - 1)}}$$

which is, under H_0 , approximately χ^2 distributed with df 1.

Some remarks:

- By the hypergeometric distribution, we get in the denominator a finite sample correction factor.
- The numerator can be interpreted as $\sum_{l=1}^{k} (O_l E_l)$ where O_l is the observed number of deaths in group 1, and E_l is the expected number, given the risk set. furthermore E_l is the proportion of deaths in group 1 among those at risk.
- It does not matter which group we choose to sum over because $\sum_{\text{groups}} (O_l E_l) = 0$.

```
proc lifetest data=vomit2;
time time*vomit(0):
strata study;
run;
The LIFETEST Procedure
Testing Homogeneity of Survival Curves for time over Strata
       Rank Statistics
study
          Log-Rank Wilcoxon
1
            -3.8607 -149.00
            3.8607
                      149.00
Covariance Matrix for the Log-Rank Statistics
study
         4.64782 -4.64782
          -4 64782
                   4 64782
```

. .

Test of Equality over Strata

| Pr > | Test | Chi-Square | DF | Chi-Square | Log-Rank | 3.2069 | 1 | 0.0733 | Wilcoxon | 3.1816 | 1 | 0.0745 | -2Log(LR) | 3.4928 | 1 | 0.0616

Comparison of survival curves

Lateral Test for two or more samples

The log-rank test is a special case of the Tarone-Ware class of tests.

$$T = \frac{\left[\sum_{l=1}^{k} w_l \left(d_{1l} - \frac{n_{1l}d_l}{n_l}\right)\right]^2}{\sum_{l=1}^{k} w_l^2 \frac{n_{1l}n_{0l}d_l(n_l - d_l)}{n_l^2(n_l - 1)}}$$

where $w_l \geq 0$ are weights.

Test	w_l
Log-rank	1
Wilcoxon or Gehan	$\mid n_l \mid$
Peto-peto	$ ilde{S}(t_i)$
Harrington-Fleming (p,q)	$\hat{S}(t_i)^p (1 - \hat{S}(t_i))^q, \ p, q \ge 0$

with
$$\tilde{S}(t) = \prod_{t_i \le t} \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n_i + 1}\right)$$
.

- Comparison of survival curves
 - └Test for two or more samples

In a practical data analysis, the choice of the weights is important.

For example,

- Log-rank test has optimal power to detect alternatives in which the hazard are proportional.
- Wilcoxon-Gehan test is more "sensitive" to "early" differences in survival curves (at later times)
- Harrington-Fleming test with p = 0, q > 0 is "sensitive" to "late" differences.

Note: the decision about the choice of the test should be made before seeing the data!

```
proc lifetest data=vomit2;
time time*vomit(0);
strata study/test=(logrank wilcoxon peto);
run;
```

The LIFETEST Procedure

Testing Homogeneity of Survival Curves for time over Strata

Rank Statistics

study	Log-Rank	Wilcoxon	Peto
1 2	-3.8607	-149.00	-3.0632
	3.8607	149.00	3.0632

. . .

Covariance Matrix for the Peto Statistics

study	1	2
1	2.94876	-2.94876
2	-2.94876	2.94876

Test of Equality over Strata

Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > Chi-Squar
Log-Rank	3.2069	1	0.0733
Wilcoxon	3.1816	1	0.0745
Peto	3.1822	1	0.0744

```
> survdiff(Surv(Time,Status)~study)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ study)
```

```
N Observed Expected (0-E)^2/E (0-E)^2/V study=1 21 5 8.86 1.68 3.21 study=2 28 14 10.14 1.47 3.21
```

Chisq= 3.2 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.0733

```
> survdiff(Surv(Time,Status)~study,rho=1)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(Time, Status) ~ study, rho = 1)
```

```
N Observed Expected (O-E)^2/E (O-E)^2/V study=1 21 4.01 7.2 1.41 3.22 study=2 28 11.49 8.3 1.22 3.22
```

Chisq= 3.2 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.0728

When we have K populations, we generalize the previous results.

At the l-th ordered death time, we now construct a $K \times 2$ contingency table,

Popul / Died	yes	no	Total
1	d_{1l}	$n_{1l} - d_{1l}$	n_{1l}
2	d_{2l}	$n_{2l}-d_{2l}$	n_{2l}
K	d_{Kl}	$n_{Kl} - d_{Kl}$	n_{Kl}
Total	d_l	$n_l - d_l$	n_l

where d_{jl} is the number of deaths and n_{jl} is the number at risk in population j at this time.

⁻Comparison of survival curves

La Test for two or more samples

Under H_0 , the vector \mathbf{O}_l of the observed deaths in groups 1 to K-1 at time l,

$$\mathbf{O}_l = (d_{1l}, \dots, d_{K-1})$$

has a multivariate hypergeometric distribution with mean \mathbf{E}_l and covariance matrix \mathbf{V}_l , given by

$$\mathbf{E}_{l} = \left(\frac{d_{l}n_{1l}}{n_{l}}, \dots, \frac{d_{l}n_{(K-1)l}}{n_{l}}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_{jjl} = \frac{n_{jl}(n_{l} - n_{jl})d_{l}(n_{l} - d_{l})}{n_{l}^{2}(n_{l} - 1)}$$

$$\mathbf{V}_{jml} = \frac{-n_{jl}n_{ml}d_{l}(n_{l} - d_{l})}{n_{l}^{2}(n_{l} - 1)}.$$

La Test for two or more samples

Approximating this distribution by a multivariate normal distribution and using an analogous construction as before, we get a test statistic T,

$$T = (\mathbf{O} - \mathbf{E})\mathbf{V}^{-1}(\mathbf{O} - \mathbf{E})^t$$

which is approximately χ^2 distributed with df K-1.

Hereby $\mathbf{O} = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \mathbf{O}_{l}$, $\mathbf{E} = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \mathbf{E}_{l}$, $\mathbf{V} = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \mathbf{V}_{l}$ are the sums over the k distinct death times.

Example: Performance testing

- Test-subject were asked to perform a certain test and the time needed was recorded.
- 3 different noise distractions are applied.
- Did the different noise distractions influence the time to finish the test?

Noise level					
9.0	10.0	12.0			
9.5	12.0	12.0^{+}			
9.0	12.0^{+}	12.0^{+}			
8.5	11.0	12.0^{+}			
10.0	12.0	12.0^{+}			
10.5	10.5	12.0^{+}			

```
> Level<-c(1,1,1,1,1,1,2,2,2,2,2,2,3,3,3,3,3,3)
> Time<-c(9.0,9.5,9.0,8.5,10.0,10.5,10.0,12.0,12.0,11.0,12.0,10.5,12.0,12.0,12.0,12.0,12.0,12.0)</pre>
```

> Censor<-c(1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,0,1,1,1,1,0,0,0,0,0)

> survfit(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level)

Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level)

n events median 0.95LCL 0.95UCL Level=1 6 6 9.25 9.0 Inf Level=2 6 5 11.50 10.5 Inf Level=3 6 1 Inf Inf Inf

> fit<-survfit(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level)

> summary(fit)

Call: survfit(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level)

Level=1

time	n.risk	n.event	survival	std.err	lower	95% CI	upper	95% CI
8.5	6	1	0.833	0.152		0.5827		1.000
9.0	5	2	0.500	0.204		0.2246		1.000
9.5	3	1	0.333	0.192		0.1075		1.000
10.0	2	1	0.167	0.152		0.0278		0.997
10.5	1	1	0.000	NA		NA		NA

Level=2

time	n.risk	n.event	survival	std.err	lower	95% CI	upper	95% CI
10.0	6	1	0.833	0.152		0.5827		1.000
10.5	5	1	0.667	0.192		0.3786		1.000
11.0	4	1	0.500	0.204		0.2246		1.000
12.0	3	2	0.167	0.152		0.0278		0.997

Level=3

time	n.risk	n.event	survival	std.err lower	95% CI upper	95% CI
12.000	6.000	1.000	0.833	0.152	0.583	1.000

> survdiff(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level,rho=1)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level, rho = 1)

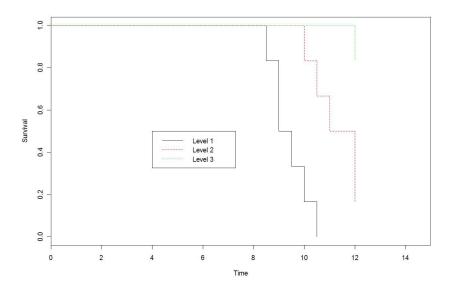
N Observed Expected (0-E)^2/E (0-E)^2/V

 Level=1 6
 5.17
 1.39
 10.2756
 16.2355

 Level=2 6
 3.00
 3.28
 0.0235
 0.0536

 Level=3 6
 0.50
 4.00
 3.0625
 8.4750

Chisq= 18.3 on 2 degrees of freedom, p= 0.000105



```
data noise;
input Time censor level;
cards:
9.0 1 1
9.5 1 1
9.0 1 1
8.5 1 1
10.0 1 1
10.5 1 1
10.0 1 2
12.0 1 2
12.0 0 2
11.0 1 2
12.0 1 2
10.5 1 2
12.0 1 3
12.0 0 3
12.0 0 3
12.0 0 3
12.0 0 3
12.0 0 3
run:
proc lifetest data=noise;
time Time*censor(0);
strata level/test=(logrank wilcoxon peto);
run;
```

The LIFETEST Procedure

Testing Homogeneity of Survival Curves for Time over Strata

Rank Statistics

level	Log-Rank	Wilcoxon	Peto
1 2	4.4261 0.4703	68.000 -5.000	3.4232 -0.3476
3	-4.8964	-63.000	-3.0756

. .

Test of Equality over Strata

Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > Chi-Squar
Log-Rank	20.3844	2	<.0001
Wilcoxon	18.3265	2	0.0001
Peto	18.0014	2	0.0001

-Comparison of survival curves

Large Tests for trend

Sometimes we want to compare survival curves for three or more ordered groups. For example: different tumor stages (T0,T1,T2), age-groups,...

$$H_0: S_1(t) = S_2(t) = \dots = S_K(t), t \le \tau$$

$$H_a: \begin{cases} S_1(t) \ge S_2(t) \ge \dots \ge S_K(t), t \le \tau, \text{ at least one } > \\ \text{or} \\ S_1(t) \le S_2(t) \le \dots \le S_K(t), t \le \tau, \text{ at least one } < \end{cases}$$

In such case one may use a logrank test for trend:

$$T = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{K} a_j (O_j - E_j)}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} a_j a_k V_{jk}}} \approx N(0, 1), \text{ under } H_0,$$

Comparison of survival curves

Tests for trend

where $a_1 < a_2 < \ldots < a_K$ are ordered of scores (mostly $a_j = j$) and

$$O_j = \sum_{l=1}^k d_{jl}$$

$$E_j = \sum_{l=1}^k \frac{n_{jl} d_l}{n_l}.$$

For the ordered alternative hypothesis, the test for trend has got a higher statistical power than the "usual" logrank.

```
proc lifetest data=noise;
time Time*censor(0);
strata level/trend;
run;
```

The LIFETEST Procedure

Scores for Trend Test

level	Score	
1 2 3	1 2 3	

Trend Tests

Test	Statistic	Error	z-Score	Pr > z
Log-Rank	-9.3224	2.1960	-4.2451	<.0001
Wilcoxon	-131.0000	32.2452	-4.0626	<.0001

```
> survdiff(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level)
        N Observed Expected (O-E)^2/E (O-E)^2/V
Level=1 6
                     1.57 12.4463 17.2379
Level=2 6
                5 4.53 0.0488 0.0876
              1 5.90 4.0660 9.4495
Level=3 6
Chisq= 20.4 on 2 degrees of freedom, p= 3.75e-05
> OB<-survdiff(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level)$obs
> NR
[1] 6 5 1
> EX<-survdiff(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level)$exp
> EX
[1] 1.573950 4.529692 5.896359
> V<-survdiff(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level)$var
> V
[,1]
          [,2]
                     [,3]
[1,] 1.1364441 -0.5619089 -0.5745352
[2.] -0.5619089 2.5244614 -1.9625525
[3.] -0.5745352 -1.9625525 2.5370877
> a < -c(1.2.3)
> test<-a%*%(OB-EX)
> stderror<-sqrt(t(a)%*%V%*%a)
> zscore<-test/stderror
> Pvalue <- 2*pnorm(abs(zscore),lower.tail=FALSE)
> data.frame(test,stderror,zscore,Pvalue)
       test stderror
                       zscore
                                    Pvalue
1 -9.322409 2.196042 -4.245095 2.185007e-05
```

—Comparison of survival curves

-Stratified tests

With the log-rank test, we compare two or more survival curves.

However, sometimes there are confounding variables which also affect the outcome and for which we need to adjust for.

If the confounding variable has M levels, we get

$$H_0: S_{1m}(t) = S_{2m}(t) = \ldots = S_{Km}(t), \ t \le \tau, \ m = 1, \ldots, M.$$

Hence, we let the shape of the survival function differ for each level of the confounding variable.

To set up a test statistic, we divide the data according the M levels of the confounding variable and construct a 2×2 contingency table for each ordered death time at each level,

-Comparison of survival curves

Stratified tests

Popul / Died	yes	no	Total
1	d_{m0l}	$n_{m0l} - d_{m0l}$ $n_{m1l} - d_{m1l}$	n_{m0l}
2	d_{m1l}	$n_{m1l} - d_{m1l}$	n_{m1l}
Total	d_{ml}	$n_{ml} - d_{ml}$	n_{ml}

Let \mathbf{O}_m be the sum of the observed O's by applying the log-rank calculations in level m. Similar for \mathbf{E}_m , the sum of the expected E's and \mathbf{V}_m , the sum of the v's.

The stratified log-rank is

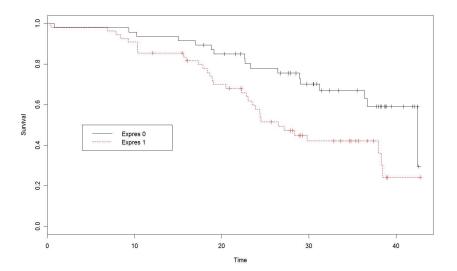
$$Z = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} (\mathbf{O}_m - \mathbf{E}_m)}{\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbf{V}_m}}.$$

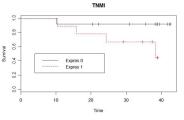
NSCLC

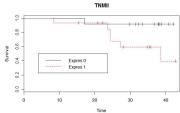
- Laudanski et al., Eur Respir J (2001).
- In this study, we had 102 patients who were operated from long cancer.
- The severity of the cancer was expressed in three TNM (Tumor, Nodes, Metastasis) categories: I, II, IIIa.
- The expression of the P53 protein was found from tumor biopsies.
- We are interested on the effect of this protein on the survival time of a patient.

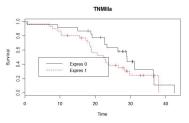
```
> NSCLC<-read.table("C:/Werk/Roel/Onderwijs/Theorie/SurvivalLeuven/NSCLC.txt".header=T.sep="\t")
> fit<-survfit(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres,data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
> plot(fit[1],xlab="Time",ylab="Survival")
> lines(fit[2].col="red".ltv=2)
> legend(4.0.5,legend=c("Expres 0","Expres 1"),ltv=c(1.2),col=c("black","red"))
>
> survdiff(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres,data=NSCLC)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC)
         N Observed Expected (0-E)^2/E (0-E)^2/V
expres=0 47
                 17
                       26.2
                                 3.25
                                            7.1
expres=1 55
                 32
                       22.8 3.75
                                           7.1
Chisq= 7.1 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.00769
> survdiff(Surv(survtime, survind)~expres+strata(tnm),data=NSCLC)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + strata(tnm), data = NSCLC)
         N Observed Expected (O-E)^2/E (O-E)^2/V
expres=0 47
                17
                       25.5
                                 2.82
                                          6.05
expres=1 55
                 32
                       23.5
                              3.06 6.05
```

Chisq= 6.1 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.0139









```
> survdiff(Surv(survtime,survind)~tnm,data=NSCLC)
Call: survdiff(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ tnm, data = NSCLC)
       N Observed Expected (O-E)^2/E (O-E)^2/V
t.nm=1 21
               5
                     13.2
                               5.13
                                        7.30
t.nm=2 27
                    15.8
                            4.91 7.32
               7
tnm=3 54 37 19.9 14.60 26.23
Chisq= 26.3 on 2 degrees of freedom, p= 1.94e-06
> OB<-survdiff(Surv(survtime,survind)~tnm,data=NSCLC)$obs
> NR
[1] 5 7 37
> EX<-survdiff(Surv(survtime.survind)~tnm.data=NSCLC)$exp
> EX
[1] 13.24541 15.81566 19.93893
> V<-survdiff(Surv(survtime,survind)~tnm,data=NSCLC)$var
> V
Γ.17
        [,2]
                   [,3]
[1.] 9.309469 -4.417150 -4.892319
[2.] -4.417150 10.623178 -6.206028
[3.] -4.892319 -6.206028 11.098346
> a < -c(1.2.3)
> test<-a%*%(OB-EX)
> stderror<-sqrt(t(a)%*%V%*%a)
> zscore<-test/stderror
> Pvalue <- 2*pnorm(abs(zscore),lower.tail=FALSE)
> data.frame(test,stderror,zscore,Pvalue)
     test stderror zscore
                                  Pvalue
1 25.30649 5.494766 4.605562 4.113525e-06
```

```
proc lifetest data=nsclc;
time Survtime*Survind(0);
strata expres;
run;
```

Testing Homogeneity of Survival Curves for Survtime over Strata

Rank Statistics

expres	Log-Rank	Wilcoxon
0	-9.2411	-648.00
1	9.2411	648.00

. .

Test of Equality over Strata

Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > Chi-Square
Log-Rank	7.1051	1	0.0077
Wilcoxon	6.5750	1	0.0103
-2Log(LR)	5.2939	1	0.0214

```
proc lifetest data=nsclc;
time Survtime*Survind(0);
test expres;
strata tnm;
run;
```

Univariate Chi-Squares for the Log-Rank Test

Variable	Test Statistic	Standard Deviation	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square
expres	-8.4782	3.4457	6.0541	0.0139

Covariance Matrix for the Log-Rank Statistics

Variable expres expres 11.8730

Forward Stepwise Sequence of Chi-Squares for the Log-Rank Test

Variable	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi-Square	Chi-Square Increment	Pr > Increment
expres	1	6.0541	0.0139	6.0541	0.0139

proc lifetest data=nsclc; time Survtime*Survind(0); strata tnm/trend; run;

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

Stratum	tnm	Total	Failed	Censored	Percent Censored
1	1	21	5	16	76.19
2	2	27	7	20	74.07
3	3	54	37	17	31.48
Total		102	49	53	51.96

Trend Tests

Test	Test Statistic	Standard Error	z-Score	Pr > z
Log-Rank	25.3065	5.4948	4.6056	<.0001
Wilcoxon	1502.0000	403.6583	3.7210	0.0002

In the previous sections, we looked at non-parametric methods.

However, in most studies there are explanatory variables for which we want to look at their influence on the time till event.

The most commonly used classes of regression models in survival data are

 \bullet Cox's regression model \mathbf{or} proportional hazard model

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)g(\beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_p X_p)$$
 with $g \ge 0$ a known function, mostly $g(u) = e^u$.

• Accelerated failure time model (AFT)

$$\log(T) = \mu + \beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_p X_p + \sigma W$$

with W a (parametric) error-distribution.

Here, we study the Cox's regression model or proportional hazard model, introduced by Cox (1972).

In this model, the conditional hazard of an individual, given the covariate values X_1, \ldots, X_p , is defined as

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p} = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}}.$$

where $\lambda_0(t)$ is called the baseline hazard.

The strength of this model is that $\lambda_0(t)$ is left unspecified (unknown function). It represents the hazard of an individual with covariates equal to zero.

We call this a semi-parametric regression model.

Cox's regression model

LIntroduction

This model is often also called proportional hazard model.

Consider two individuals with covariates X and X^* , the ratio of their hazards is

$$HR(t) = \frac{\lambda(t|\mathbf{X})}{\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}^*)} = \frac{\lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t\mathbf{X}}}{\lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t\mathbf{X}^*}} = e^{\sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i(X_i - X_i^*)}$$

which is a constant over time.

This quantity is called the hazard ratio and compares the hazard of having an event with covariate value X to the hazard of having an event with covariate value X^* .

Often, the ratio is (inappropriately) called a *relative risk*.

If X is an indicator for gender: Male (X=0) vs. Female (X=1), we get that

$$HR(t) = \frac{\lambda_F(t)}{\lambda_M(t)} = e^{\beta_1}.$$

In this model, we get for Males: $\lambda_M(t) = \lambda_0(t)$ and for Females: $\lambda_F(t) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_1}$.

Using a different coding for gender: Male (X = 1) vs. Female (X = 0), we get for Males: $\lambda_M(t) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_2}$ and for Females: $\lambda_F(t) = \lambda_0(t)$.

Hence, we get the same results for $HR(t) = e^{\beta_1} = e^{-\beta_2}$ but selecting the baseline is important.

LIntroduction

For a continuous variable X, we note that the hazard ratio of level x+1 versus level x is given by

$$\frac{\lambda(t|X=x+1)}{\lambda(t|X=x)} = \frac{\lambda_0(t)e^{\beta(x+1)}}{\lambda_0(t)e^{\beta x}} = e^{\beta}.$$

Hence, in Cox's regression model

$$\lambda(t|X) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta X}$$

So e^{β} describes the proportional change of the hazard due to the increase of X by one unit.

We note that

$$\beta > 0 \Rightarrow$$
 hazard increases.

$$\beta < 0 \Rightarrow \text{hazard decreases}.$$

LIntroduction.

Example: NSCLC

- Laudanski et al., Eur Respir J (2001).
- In this study, we had 102 patients who were operated from long cancer.
- The severity of the cancer was expressed in three TNM (Tumor, Nodes, Metastasis) categories: I, II, IIIa.
- The expression of the P53 protein was found from tumor biopsies.

Let's take X = 0, 1, 2 for, respectively, TNM = I, II, IIIa.

Hence, we get

- hazard function for TNM I: $\lambda(t|X=0) = \lambda_0(t)$.
- hazard function for TNM II: $\lambda(t|X=1) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta}$.
- hazard function for TNM IIIa: $\lambda(t|X=2) = \lambda_0(t)e^{2\beta}$.

If $\beta = 1$, we get that $e^{\beta} = e^1 = 2.73$. This means that an increase of the TNM stage by one level increases the hazard 2.73 times.

We note that the hazard functions for TNM II and IIIa are specified relative to the hazard function of TNM I.

For another parametrization, X = 2, 1, 0 for TNM= I, II, IIIa.

We get

- hazard function for TNM IIIa: $\lambda(t|X=0) = \lambda_0(t)$.
- hazard function for TNM II: $\lambda(t|X=1) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta}$.
- hazard function for TNM I: $\lambda(t|X=2) = \lambda_0(t)e^{2\beta}$.

The hazard functions for TNM I and II are taken relative to the hazard of TNM IIIa.

The reference level (X = 0) has changed!

└Partial likelihood

Estimation of β

In the Cox's model,

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}},$$

we treat the unknown baseline hazard $\lambda_0(t)$ as a nuisance parameter.

Therefore we need an estimation method for the parameters β without estimating $\lambda_0(t)$.

Hence, we will construct a partial likelihood.

Our data consists a sample of triplets $(T_i, \delta_i, \mathbf{X}_i), i = 1, \dots, n$ where X_i is a vector which contains the values of X for individual i.

We assume

- Given X_i , the lifetime and the censoring time are independent (non-informative censoring).
- Let $\tau_1 < \tau_2 < \ldots < \tau_D$ be the D ordered distinct death times.
- We assume that there are **no tied** death times.

Let us define by

- I_i the identity of the individual who failed at time τ_i .
- V_i the time of the jth failure (τ_i) and all information about censoring in $[\tau_{i-1}, \tau_i]$.

The observable data $(T_i, \delta_i, \mathbf{X}_i)$ is represented by $\{I_j\}$ and $\{V_j\}$. Hence

$$P(\text{Data}) = P(\{I_1, V_1, \dots, I_D, V_D\})$$

$$= P(\{I_1, V_1\}) \times P(\{I_2, V_2\} | \{I_1, V_1\}) \times \dots$$

$$\times P(\{I_D, V_D\} | \{I_1, V_1, \dots, I_{D-1}, V_{D-1}\})$$

$$= \prod_{j=1}^{D} P(I_j | \{I_1, V_1, \dots, I_{j-1}, V_{j-1}, V_j\})$$

$$\times P(V_j | \{I_1, V_1, \dots, I_{j-1}, V_{j-1}\})$$

Due to the non-informative censoring, the second term does not add much information about the parameters β .

Hence, we define the partial likelihood as

$$L^{\text{partial}}(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} P(I_j | \{I_1, V_1, \dots, I_{j-1}, V_{j-1}, V_j\})$$
$$= \prod_{j=1}^{D} P(I_j | H_j)$$

where H_j is the "history" of the data, up to jth failure and including the failure time, but not the identity of the failing.

At each failure, we note that the quantity $P(I_j|H_j)$ is the conditional probability that a specific individual fails at time τ_j , given all the individuals that had not fail before τ_j .

└Partial likelihood

We denote by $\mathcal{R}(t)$ the set of all the individuals under study just prior to time t.

$$P(I_{j}|H_{j}) = P(\text{individual } I_{j} \text{ fails}|\text{one individual fails in } \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j}))$$

$$= \frac{P(\text{individual } j \text{ fails}|\text{at risk at } \tau_{j})}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} P(\text{individual } l \text{ fails}|\text{at risk at } \tau_{j})}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda(\tau_{j}|\mathbf{X}_{j})d\tau_{j}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} \lambda(\tau_{j}|\mathbf{X}_{l})d\tau_{j}} = \frac{\lambda_{0}(\tau_{j})e^{\beta^{t}}\mathbf{X}_{j}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} \lambda_{0}(\tau_{j})e^{\beta^{t}}\mathbf{X}_{l}}$$

$$= \frac{e^{\beta^{t}}\mathbf{X}_{j}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} e^{\beta^{t}}\mathbf{X}_{l}}$$

└Partial likelihood

We get as partial likelihood,

$$L^{\text{partial}}(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \frac{e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{j}}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{l}}}.$$

Some remarks:

• Contributions only at uncensored times.

$$L^{\text{partial}}(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \left[\frac{e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{j}}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{l}}} \right]^{\delta_{j}}.$$

 The partial likelihood is not a product of independent terms, but of conditional probabilities. Hence, Partial likelihood ≠ Usual likelihood. Although not a usual likelihood, the regular likelihood properties are still valid!

So we have that,

• Log-partial likelihood

$$l(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^{D} \left[\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{j} - \log \left[\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{l}} \right] \right].$$

• Partial likelihood score equation

$$U_i(\beta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_i} l(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^{D} \left[\mathbf{X}_{ji} - \frac{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} \mathbf{X}_{li} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}} \right].$$

• Information matrix

$$I_{ik} = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_k} l(\beta) =$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{D} \left[\frac{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} \mathbf{X}_{li} \mathbf{X}_{lk} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}} - \frac{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} \mathbf{X}_{li} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}}{\left(\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}\right)^2} \right]$$

Furthermore, we note that

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta \sim N(0, I^{-1}).$$

Based on these quantities, we derive three main test for the global hypothesis $H_0: \beta = \beta_0$. Under H_0 , we get

Wald-test

$$X_W^2 = (b - \beta_0)^t I(b)(b - \beta_0) \sim \chi_p^2$$

• Score test

$$X_S^2 = (U_1(\beta_0), \dots, U_p(\beta_0))^t I^{-1}(\beta_0)(U_1(\beta_0), \dots, U_p(\beta_0)) \sim \chi_p^2$$

• (Partial) Likelihood ratio

$$X_{LR}^2 = 2l(b) - 2l(\beta_0) \sim \chi_p^2$$

Using SAS

```
data nsclc;
input Survtime Survind tnm expres;
cards;
24.51000023
27.12999916
run;
proc phreg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres;
run;
```

The PHREG Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.NSCLC
Dependent Variable Survitime
Censoring Variable Survind
Censoring Value(s) 0
Ties Handling BRESLOW

Number of Observations Read 102 Number of Observations Used 102

Summary of the Number of Event and Censored Values

Percent Total

102

Event Censored Censored
49 53 51.96

Convergence Status

Convergence criterion (GCONV=1E-8) satisfied.

Model Fit Statistics

	Without Criterion	With Covariates	Covariates
SBC 400.456 397.1	AIC	400.456	393.305 395.305 397.197

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	7.1509	1	0.0075
Score	7.1051	1	0.0077
Wald	6.7640	1	0.0093

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	0.78590	0.30218	6.7640	0.0093	2.194

Conclusion: expression of P53 increases mortality hazard approximately 2 times as compared to no expression.

└Partial likelihood

Using R

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime, survind)~expres,data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC)
n = 102
       coef exp(coef) se(coef) z
expres 0.786
               2.19 0.302 2.6 0.0093
      exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
expres
           2.19
                     0.456
                               1.21
                                         3.97
Rsquare= 0.068 (max possible= 0.98)
Likelihood ratio test= 7.15 on 1 df,
                                      p=0.0075
Wald test
                    = 6.76 on 1 df,
                                      p=0.0093
Score (logrank) test = 7.11 on 1 df.
                                      p=0.00769
```

Using the normality of β , we have a 95% C.I for β :

$$[b-1.96s.e., b+1.96s.e.].$$

Hence, the 95% C.I. for the hazard ratio is:

$$[e^{b-1.96s.e.}, e^{b+1.96s.e.}].$$

└Partial likelihood

Adjustments for ties

Sofar, we assumed no tied death times.

In case of ties, we have to adjust the partial likelihood. Therefore we define

- $\tau_1 < \tau_2 < \ldots < \tau_D$ as the *D* ordered distinct death times.
- d_j the number of failures at τ_j .
- I_{j_1}, \ldots, I_{j_d} the identities of the individuals who failed at time τ_j .
- H_j is the "history" of the data, up to jth failure and including the failure time, but not the identities of the failing.

The partial likelihood is now defined as

$$L^{\text{partial}}(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} P(I_{j_1}, \dots, I_{j_d} | H_j).$$

If the lifetimes are continuous, we find the exact likelihood,

$$L_1 = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \left\{ \int_{0}^{\infty} \prod_{k \in D_j} \left[1 - \exp\left(\frac{e^{\beta^t X_k}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}^*(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t X_l}} t\right) \right] \exp(-t) dt \right\}$$

where $\mathcal{R}^*(\tau_j)$ denote the set of individuals whose event or censored times exceed τ_j or whose censored times are equal to τ_j and D_j is the set of individuals that fail at τ_j .

If the number of ties increases, the denominator is impossible to calculate. Therefore several authors considered approximations

• Breslow

$$L_2(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \frac{e^{\beta^t \sum_{k \in D_j} \mathbf{X}_k}}{\left(\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l}\right)^{d_j}}.$$

• Efron

$$L_3(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \frac{e^{\beta^t \sum_{k \in D_j} \mathbf{X}_k}}{\prod_{k=1}^{d_j} \left(\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l} - \frac{k-1}{d_j} \sum_{l \in D_j} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}_l} \right)}.$$

If the lifetimes are discrete, we get the discrete partial likelihood,

$$L_4(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \frac{e^{\beta^t \sum_{k \in D_j} \mathbf{X}_k}}{\sum\limits_{q \in \mathcal{Q}(\tau_j)} e^{\beta^t \sum\limits_{l=1}^{\Delta_j} \mathbf{X}_{ql}}}$$

where $Q(\tau_j)$ denote the set of all subsets of d_j individuals selected from the risk set $\mathcal{R}(\tau_j)$.

We note that each of these partial likelihoods reduces to the original partial likelihood when there are no ties.

Partial likelihood

Example: Performance testing

- Test-subject were asked to perform a certain test and the time needed was recorded.
- 3 different noise distractions are applied.
- Did the decreasing noise distractions influence the hazard of the time to finish the test?

Noise level						
9.0	10.0	12.0				
9.5	12.0	12.0^{+}				
9.0	12.0^{+}	12.0^{+}				
8.5	11.0	12.0^{+}				
10.0	12.0	12.0^{+}				
10.5	10.5	12.0^{+}				

In SAS, the Breslow method is the default.

```
data noise;
input Time censor level;
cards:
9.0 1 1
9.5 1 1
9.011
12.0 0 3
run:
proc phreg data=noise;
model Time*censor(0)=level:
run;
proc phreg data=noise;
model Time*censor(0)=level/ties=discrete:
run;
proc phreg data=noise;
model Time*censor(0)=level/ties=efron;
run;
proc phreg data=noise;
model Time*censor(0)=level/ties=exact;
run:
```

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Cox's regression model

∟_{Partial likelihood}

Ties Handl	ing	BRESLOW				
Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
level	1	-2.10429	0.62384	11.3781	0.0007	0.122
Ties Handl	ing	DISCRETE				
		Parameter	Standard			Hazard
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
level	1	-2.66767	0.80298	11.0370	0.0009	0.069
Ties Handl	ing	EFRON				
TICS Hundi	1116	EI WOW				
		Parameter	Standard			Hazard
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
level	1	-2.24966	0.63592	12.5149	0.0004	0.105
Ties Handl	ing	EXACT				
	6					
		Parameter	Standard			Hazard
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
level	1	-2.45815	0.73994	11.0364	0.0009	0.086

In R, the Efron method is the default.

```
> summary(coxph(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level))
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level)
n= 18
      coef exp(coef) se(coef) z p
Level -2.25 0.105 0.636 -3.54 4e-04
     exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
Level
       0.105
                    9.48 0.0303
                                    0.367
> summary(coxph(Sury(Time,Censor)~Level,method="breslow"))
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level, method = "breslow")
n = 18
      coef exp(coef) se(coef) z
Level -2.10 0.122 0.624 -3.37 0.00074
     exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
Level
       0.122
                  8.2 0.0359
                                    0.414
> summary(coxph(Surv(Time,Censor)~Level,method="exact"))
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(Time, Censor) ~ Level, method = "exact")
n = 18
      coef exp(coef) se(coef) z
Level -2.67 0.0694 0.803 -3.32 0.00089
     exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
Level 0.0694
                   14.4 0.0144
                                     0.335
```

Example: NSCLC

- Laudanski et al., Eur Respir J (2001).
- In this study, we had 102 patients who were operated from long cancer.
- The severity of the cancer was expressed in three TNM (Tumor, Nodes, Metastasis) categories: I, II, IIIa.
- The expression of the P53 protein was found from tumor biopsies.

Sofar, expression of P53 has a positive influence on the hazard, however we did not take the confounder TNM into account.

∟_{Multiple covariates}

Model 1: $\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_1 \times \mathbf{expres} + \beta_2 \times \mathbf{TNM}}$

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+tnm,data=NSCLC)
> summary(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + tnm, data = NSCLC)
n= 102, number of events= 49
        coef exp(coef) se(coef) z Pr(>|z|)
                2.0845 0.3032 2.423 0.0154 *
expres 0.7345
      1.0725
                2.9227 0.2546 4.213 2.52e-05 ***
tnm
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
      exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
          2.085
                   0.4797
                              1.151
                                       3.776
expres
          2.923
                   0.3421 1.775
                                       4.814
tnm
Concordance= 0.7 (se = 0.044)
Rsquare= 0.259 (max possible= 0.98)
Likelihood ratio test= 30.58 on 2 df.
                                     p=2.286e-07
Wald test
                   = 23.75 on 2 df, p=6.947e-06
Score (logrank) test = 26.95 on 2 df, p=1.405e-06
```

Cox's regression model

∟_{Multiple covariates}

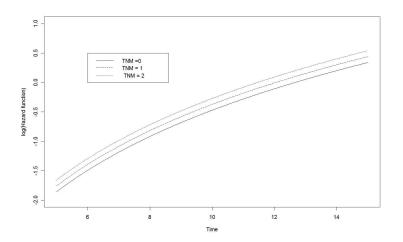
proc phreg data=nsclc; model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM; run;

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	0.73452	0.30316	5.8702	0.0154	2.084
tnm	1	1.07226	0.25455	17.7438	<.0001	2.922

Conclusion: Influence of expression P53 changes slightly, TNM has a large positive influence.

However, for different tumor-categories, the change in expression of P53 remains the same!

$$\frac{\lambda(t|\text{expres}=1,\text{TNM}=1)}{\lambda(t|\text{expres}=0,\text{TNM}=1)} = \frac{\lambda(t|\text{expres}=1,\text{TNM}=2)}{\lambda(t|\text{expres}=0,\text{TNM}=2)} = e^{\beta_1}.$$



Cox's regression model
Multiple covariates

Model 2: $\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_1}\mathbf{expres} + \beta_2\mathbf{TNM} + \beta_3\mathbf{expres}*\mathbf{TNM}$

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime.survind)~expres*tnm.data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres * tnm, data = NSCLC)
n= 102, number of events= 49
            coef exp(coef) se(coef)
                                       z Pr(>|z|)
expres
          3.4814
                   32.5052 1.7444 1.996 0.04595 *
          1.7948 6.0180 0.5612 3.198 0.00138 **
tnm
expres:tnm -1.0186 0.3611
                            0.6198 -1.643 0.10029
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
          exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
expres
           32.5052
                   0.03076 1.0645 992.541
           6.0180 0.16617 2.0034 18.078
tnm
          0.3611 2.76925 0.1072 1.217
expres:tnm
Concordance= 0.709 (se = 0.044)
Rsquare= 0.283 (max possible= 0.98)
Likelihood ratio test= 33.87 on 3 df. p=2.11e-07
Wald test
                   = 18.71 on 3 df, p=0.0003131
Score (logrank) test = 27.02 on 3 df, p=5.827e-06
```

```
Cox's regression model
Multiple covariates
```

```
data nsclc1;
set nsclc;
exTNM=expres*TNM;
run;
proc phreg data=nsclc1;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM exTNM;
run;
```

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	3.48139	1.74435	3.9833	0.0460	32.505
tnm	1	1.79476	0.56120	10.2276	0.0014	6.018
exTNM	1	-1.01857	0.61978	2.7009	0.1003	0.361

Conclusion: Influence of expression P53 changes drastically by interaction with TNM. However, interaction is not significant.

```
Cox's regression model
```

└Multiple covariates

Model 3: $\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_1}\mathbf{expres} + \beta_2(\mathbf{TNM} = 1) + \beta_3(\mathbf{TNM} = 2)$

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+(tnm==1)+(tnm==2).data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + (tnm == 1) + (tnm == 2), data = NSCLC)
n= 102, number of events= 49
            coef exp(coef) se(coef) z Pr(>|z|)
expres
           0.7594
                   2.1369 0.3050 2.490 0.012790 *
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
          exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
expres
            2.1369
                      0.468 1.17532
                                     3.8852
tnm == 1TRUE 0.1786
                    5.598 0.06711 0.4754
tnm == 2TRUE 0.2062 4.849 0.08963 0.4744
Concordance= 0.709 (se = 0.044)
Rsquare= 0.279 (max possible= 0.98)
Likelihood ratio test= 33.31 on 3 df, p=2.768e-07
Wald test
                = 27.71 on 3 df, p=4.173e-06
Score (logrank) test = 32.63 on 3 df, p=3.849e-07
```

```
Cox's regression model
  └Multiple covariates
     > fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres,data=NSCLC)
     > summarv(fit)
     Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC)
     n= 102, number of events= 49
             coef exp(coef) se(coef) z Pr(>|z|)
     expres 0.7859 2.1945 0.3022 2.601 0.0093 **
     Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
            exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
     expres
               2.194 0.4557 1.214
                                             3.968
     Concordance= 0.599 (se = 0.039)
     Rsquare= 0.068 (max possible= 0.98)
     Likelihood ratio test= 7.15 on 1 df,
                                           p=0.007493
     Wald test
                         = 6.76 on 1 df,
                                           p=0.009298
     Score (logrank) test = 7.11 on 1 df. p=0.007687
     > fit1<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+(tnm==1)+(tnm==2),data=NSCLC)
     > anova(fit1.fit)
     Analysis of Deviance Table
     Cox model: response is Surv(survtime, survind)
     Model 1: " expres + (tnm == 1) + (tnm == 2)
     Model 2: ~ expres
       loglik Chisa Df P(>|Chi|)
     1 -183.57
     2 -196.65 26.161 2 2.086e-06 ***
     ---
     Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
```

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice Cox's regression model

∟_{Multiple covariates}

```
data nsclc1;
set nsclc;
TNM1=0;
TNM1=0;
If TNM2=0;
If TNM=1 then TNM1=1;
If TNM=2 then TNM2=1;
run;

proc phreg data=nsclc1;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM1 TNM2;
TNM: test TNM1=0, TNM2=0;
TNMC: test TNM2=2*TNM1;
run;
```

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	0.75936	0.30502	6.1980	0.0128	2.137
TNM1	1	-1.72246	0.49947	11.8927	0.0006	0.179
TNM2	1	-1.57884	0.42512	13.7931	0.0002	0.206

Cox's regression model
Multiple covariates

Linear Hypotheses Testing Results

Wald			
Label	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSo
TNM	21.4783	2	<.0001
TNMC	3.4425	1	0.0635

Conclusion: Considering TNM as a class variable, we still see its significant influence. A local test shows that we can take it as a continuous variable.

Still, we assume that TNM has a proportional influence on the hazard function.

- For some covariates, the proportional hazard assumption can be fulfilled, but not for others.
- In such a situation, one can use the Cox model, using modified baseline hazards.

Assume that the hazard is proportional for a covariate Y, but for X.

We take a stratified Cox's model,

$$\lambda(t|X,Y) = \lambda_{X=x,0}(t)e^{\beta Y}.$$

Note that the baseline hazard functions are different for strata defined by the levels of X, but the effect of Y is still expressed as the proportional change of the hazard function (for a fixed level of X).

Cox's regression model

Stratified proportional hazards

Model 4: $\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_{\mathbf{TNM},0}(t)e^{\beta \times \mathbf{expres}}$

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+strata(tnm),data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + strata(tnm), data = NSCLC)
n= 102, number of events= 49
        coef exp(coef) se(coef) z Pr(>|z|)
               2.0968 0.3076 2.407 0.0161 *
expres 0.7404
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
      exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
          2.097
                   0.4769 1.147
expres
                                        3.832
Concordance= 0.597 (se = 0.058)
Rsquare= 0.059 (max possible= 0.949)
Likelihood ratio test= 6.16 on 1 df,
                                      p=0.0131
Wald test
                    = 5.79 on 1 df.
                                      p=0.01609
Score (logrank) test = 6.05 on 1 df,
                                      p=0.01387
```


_Stratified proportional hazards

proc phreg data=nsclc1; model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres; strata TNM; run;

Summary of the Number of Event and Censored Values

Percent Stratum	tnm	Total	Event	Censored	Censored	
1 1		21	5		76.19	
2 2		27	7	20	74.07	
3 3		54	37	17	31.48	
Total		102	49	53	51.96	
Variable	e DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	0.74029	0.30763	5.7910	0.0161	2.097

Next to the estimation of the parameters β , we want to estimate the survival function at specific covariate values.

Hereto we consider two methods:

• Kalbfleisch-Prentice method (no ties):

$$\hat{S}(t|\mathbf{X}) = S_0(t)^{\exp(\hat{\beta}^t \mathbf{X})}, \ S_0(t) = \prod_{t_i \le t} \left[1 - \frac{\exp(\hat{\beta}^t \mathbf{X}_i)}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(t_i)} \exp(\hat{\beta}^t \mathbf{X}_l)} \right]$$

• Breslow method:

$$\hat{S}(t|\mathbf{X}) = S_0(t)^{\exp(\hat{\beta}^t \mathbf{X})}, \ S_0(t) = \prod_{t_i \le t} \exp\left[-\frac{d_i}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(t_i)} \exp(\hat{\beta}^t \mathbf{X}_l)}\right]$$

```
Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Cox's regression model

Estimation of survival function
```

```
data teken:
input x;
datalines;
0.00
1.00
proc phreg data=test;
model time*status(0)=x/ties=efron;
baseline covariates=teken out=predd survival=_all_/method=pl;
run:
proc print data=predd;
run:
proc phreg data=test;
model time*status(0)=x/ties=efron:
baseline covariates=teken out=predd1 survival=_all_;
run;
proc print data=predd1;
run;
```

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

LEstimation of survival function

				StdErr	Lower	Upper
Obs	x	time	Survival	Survival	Survival	Survival
1	0	0	1.00000			
2	0	1	0.89962	0.09941	0.72444	1.00000
3	0	2	0.63352	0.18915	0.35287	1.00000
4	0	3	0.45826	0.21153	0.18544	1.00000
5	0	4	0.00000	0.00000	•	
6	1	0	1.00000		•	
7	1	1	0.84562	0.13059	0.62478	1.00000
8	1	2	0.48502	0.17082	0.24320	0.96726
9	1	3	0.29027	0.14425	0.10960	0.76881
10	1	4	0.00000	0.00000		
				G. 15		**
Obs		time	Survival	StdErr	Lower	Upper
UDS	х	time	Survival	Survival	Survival	Survival
1	0	0	1.00000			
2	0	1	0.90720	0.10024	0.73055	1
3	0	2	0.68444	0.20435	0.38123	1
4	0	3	0.54840	0.25313	0.22192	1
5	0	4	0.20175	0.22220	0.02330	1
6	1	0	1.00000			
7	1	1	0.85695	0.13234	0.63315	1
8	1	2	0.54825	0.19309	0.27491	1
9	1	3	0.38585	0.19175	0.14568	1
10	1	4	0.07907	0.14905	0.00196	1
	-	-				-

^{└─}Cox's regression model

```
Cox's regression model
```

Estimation of survival function

```
> test1 <- list(time=c(4,3,1,1,2,2,3),
               status=c(1,1,1,0,1,1,0),
               x=c(0,2,1,1,1,0,0))
> summary(survfit(coxph(Surv(time, status) ~ x, test1),type="kalbfleisch-prentice".
newdata=data.frame(x=c(0.1)))
Call: survfit(formula = coxph(Surv(time, status) ~ x, test1), newdata = data.frame(x = c(0,1)),
type = "kalbfleisch-prentice")
time n.risk n.event survival1 survival2
1
      7
                   0.900
                             0.846
2
      5
              2 0.634 0.485
3
      3
             1 0.458
                         0.290
                   0.000
                           0.000
> summary(survfit(coxph(Surv(time, status) ~ x, test1).type="breslow".newdata=data.frame(x=c(0.1))))
Call: survfit(formula = coxph(Surv(time, status) ~ x, test1), newdata = data.frame(x = c(0,1)),
type = "breslow")
time n.risk n.event survival1 survival2
                   0.907 0.8569
1
      7
2
      5
              2
                  0.684 0.5482
            1 0.548 0.3859
3
      3
      1
                   0.202 0.0791
              1
```

Cox's regression model

Time-dependent covariates

Time-dependent covariates

Suppose:

- After a kidney transplantation, we look at the time until the host body rejects the organ.
- Every month, a patient has a check-up and blood pressure, white cell count,... are recorded.
- we are interested how these time-dependent covariates influence the hazard of rejection time.

Hence, we have
$$(T_i, \delta_i, \{\mathbf{X}_i(t), 0 \le t \le T_i\}), i = 1, \dots, n$$
.

Note that fixed-time covariates are a special case, namely,

$$\mathbf{X}(t) = \mathbf{X}(0), \quad \forall t > 0.$$

_Time-dependent covariates

Extending the Cox's model to accommodate for time-dependent covariates, we assume that

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}(t)) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}(t)}.$$

To estimate the parameters β , we extend the partial likelihood.

We assume

- The value of $\mathbf{X}_i(t)$ is known for any time at which the subject is at risk.
- Given $\mathbf{X}_i(t)$, the lifetime and the censoring time are independent (non-informative censoring).
- Let $\tau_1 < \tau_2 < \ldots < \tau_D$ be the *D* ordered distinct death times.
- We assume that there are **no tied** death times.

We get as partial likelihood,

$$L^{\text{partial}}(\beta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \frac{e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{j}(\tau_{j})}}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{R}(\tau_{j})} e^{\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}_{l}(\tau_{j})}}.$$

Some remarks:

- For each individual, we only need the values of $\mathbf{X}(t)$ at the uncensored death times.
- When there are ties, we extend as before one of the previous partial likelihoods.

Example: Cancer in rodents

- Forty-five rodents were randomly assigned to three dose groups of a tumor-promoting agent.
- The rodents were examined every week for the number of papillomas (weeks 27, 34, 37, 41, 43, 45, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 53, 65, 67 and 71).
- Researchers are interested in the time until death of cancer and how this was influenced by dose after adjusting for the number of papillomas.

```
> rodent<-read.table("C:/werk/Roel/Onderwijs/Theorie/GOB67AStatAnalReliaSurvData/
Cursus/Rodent.txt",header=T,sep=";")
> rodent[1:5.]
   Id Time Dead Dose P1 P2 P3 P4 P5 P6 P7 P8 P9 P10 P11 P12 P13 P14 P15
2 2 71
3 3 81
                                                                     - 1
4 4 81
> n<-dim(rodent)[1]
> Date0<-rep(0,n)
> P0 < -rep(0.n)
> Date1<-rep(27,n)
> Date2<-rep(34,n)
> Date3<-rep(37,n)
> Date4<-rep(41.n)
> Date5<-rep(43,n)
> Date6<-rep(45,n)
> Date7<-rep(46,n)
> Date8<-rep(47,n)
> Date9<-rep(49,n)
> Date10<-rep(50.n)
> Date11<-rep(51.n)
> Date12<-rep(53,n)
> Date13<-rep(65.n)
> Date14<-rep(67,n)
> Date15<-rep(71,n)
> rodent1<-data.frame(rodent,P0,Date0,Date1,Date2,Date3,Date4,Date5,Date6,Date6,Date7,Date8,Date9,Date10,
Date11.Date12.Date13.Date14.Date15)
> rodentlong<-tmerge(rodent1[,1:4],rodent1,id=Id,status=event(Time,Dead),pap=tdc(Date0,P0),
+ pap=tdc(Date1,P1),pap=tdc(Date2,P2),pap=tdc(Date3,P3),pap=tdc(Date4,P4),pap=tdc(Date5,P5),
+ pap=tdc(Date6,P6),pap=tdc(Date7,P7),pap=tdc(Date8,P8),pap=tdc(Date9,P9),pap=tdc(Date10,P10),
```

+ pap=tdc(Date11,P11),pap=tdc(Date12,P12),pap=tdc(Date13,P13),pap=tdc(Date14,P14),pap=tdc(Date15,P15))

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Cox's regression model

LTime-dependent covariates

> rodentlong[1:20,4:9]						
	Dose	id	tstart	tstop	status	pap
1	1	1	0	27	0	0
2	1	1	27	34	0	0
3	1	1	34	37	0	5
4	1	1	37	41	0	6
5	1	1	41	43	0	8
6	1	1	43	45	0	10
7	1	1	45	46	0	10
8	1	1	46	47	1	10
9	1	2	0	27	0	0
10	1	2	27	34	0	0
11	1	2	34	37	0	0
12	1	2	37	41	0	0
13	1	2	41	43	0	0
14	1	2	43	45	0	0
15	1	2	45	46	0	0
16	1	2	46	47	0	0
17	1	2	47	49	0	0
18	1	2	49	50	0	1
19	1	2	50	51	0	1
20	1	2	51	53	0	1

Time-dependent covariates

```
> fit<-comph(Surv(tstart,tstop,status)~Dose+pap,data=rodentlong)
> summarv(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(tstart, tstop, status) ~ Dose + pap, data = rodentlong)
n= 428, number of events= 25
       coef exp(coef) se(coef)
                                  z Pr(>|z|)
Dose 0.09132 1.09562 0.05582 1.636 0.10183
pap 0.10303 1.10852 0.03163 3.257 0.00113 **
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
    exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
        1.096
              0.9127
                           0.9821
Dose
                                      1.222
        1.109
                  0.9021
                           1.0419
                                      1.179
pap
Concordance= 0.809 (se = 0.064)
Rsquare= 0.045 (max possible= 0.321)
Likelihood ratio test= 19.75 on 2 df, p=5.139e-05
Wald test
                    = 18.27 on 2 df, p=0.0001078
Score (logrank) test = 23.57 on 2 df, p=7.616e-06
```

```
input ID Time Dead Dose P1-P15;
label ID='Subject ID'; datalines;
1 47 1 1.0 0 5 6 8 10 10 10 10
2711 1.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
3 81 0 1.0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
44 37 1 10.0 0 1 1
45 43 1 10.0 9 19 19 19 19
proc phreg data=rodent;
model Time*Dead(0)=Dose NPap;
array pp{*} P1-P14;
array tt{*} t1-t15;
t1 = 27:
t.2 = 34:
t.3 = 37:
t4 = 41:
t5 = 43:
t6 = 45;
t7 = 46:
t8 = 47:
t.9 = 49:
t10= 50;
t11= 51:
t12= 53;
t13= 65;
t14= 67:
t15= 71:
if Time < tt[1] then NPap=0;
else if time >= tt[15] then NPap=P15:
else do i=1 to dim(pp);
if tt[i] <= Time < tt[i+1] then NPap= pp[i];
end;
run:
```

option nocenter; data rodent:

infile datalines missover;

The PHREG Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.RODENT
Dependent Variable Time
Censoring Variable Dead
Censoring Value(s) 0
Ties Handling BRESLOW

Number of Observations Read 45 Number of Observations Used 45

Summary of the Number of Event and Censored Values

Percent

Total	Event	Censored	Censored
45	25	20	44.44

Convergence Status

Convergence criterion (GCONV=1E-8) satisfied.

Model Fit Statistics

With	
Covariates	Covariates
166.793	143.269
166.793	147.269
166.793	149.707
	Covariates 166.793 166.793

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	23.5243	2	<.0001
Score	28.0498	2	<.0001
Wald	21.1646	2	<.0001

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	Standard		Hazard			
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
Dose	1	0.06885	0.05620	1.5010	0.2205	1.071
NPap	1	0.11714	0.02998	15.2705	<.0001	1.124

∟_{Model building}

Model building

In the previous examples, we looked at how maximal two covariates influenced the survival time in the Cox's regression model.

However in studies with several covariates, we need a procedure to identify interesting covariates.

In nested models, we used the likelihood ratio test to check whether a covariate was significant or not. Here, we extend this idea and consider the AIC-criterium,

$$AIC = -2\log\hat{L} + \alpha q,$$

in which q is the number of unknown β parameters.

∟_{Model building}

In practice, model building is a combination of

- knowledge of the science
- trial and error, common sense
- automatic variable selection
 - stepwise: forward, backward, both
 - best subsets

A general strategy that is commonly used is,

- Perform univariate analysis to "screen" potentially significant variables.
- Fit a multiple model and discard variables that are non-significant.
- Oheck whether variables that were dropped before, interactions or higher order terms should be added.

∟_{Model building}

Example: Leukemia

- Bone marrow transplants are a standard treatment for acute leukemia.
- The researchers investigated the time until relapse of leukemia.
- Several covariates: Disease Group, Patient Age (Years),
 Donor Age (Years), Patient Sex, Donor Sex, Patient CMV
 Status, Donor CMV Status, Waiting Time to Transplant In
 Days, FAB grade, Hospital, MTX Use.

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└─Cox's regression model

└─Model building

```
proc phreg data=bmt1;
model T2*delta2(0)=g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 Z91 z92 z93 Z10/selection=forward details sle=0.1
include=2;
run;

proc phreg data=bmt1;
model T2*delta2(0)=g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 Z91 z92 z93 Z10/selection=backwards details sls=0.1
include=2;
run;

proc phreg data=bmt1;
model T2*delta2(0)=g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 Z91 z92 z93 Z10/selection=stepwise details sls=0.1
sls=0.07 include=2;
run;

proc phreg data=bmt1;
model T2*delta2(0)=g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 Z91 z92 z93 Z10/selection=stepwise details sle=0.1
sls=0.07 include=2;
run;

proc phreg data=bmt1;
model T2*delta2(0)=g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 Z91 z92 z93 Z10/selection=score best=4 include=2;
run;
```

The PHREG Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.BMT1

Dependent Variable T2
Censoring Variable delta2
Censoring Value(s) 0

Ties Handling BRESLOW

Number of Observations Read 137 Number of Observations Used 137

Summary of the Number of Event and Censored Values

Percent
Total Event Censored Censored
137 42 95 69.34

The following variable(s) will be included in each model:

g1 g2

Convergence Status

Analysis of Variables Not in the Model

score		
Variable	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Z1	0.0099	0.9209
Z2	0.0580	0.8097
Z3	2.0354	0.1537
Z4	0.8051	0.3696
Z5	0.8466	0.3575
Z6	0.0231	0.8793
Z7	2.6081	0.1063
Z8	11.2959	0.0008
z91	0.2108	0.6462
z92	0.1297	0.7187
z93	0.5913	0.4419
Z10	0.8084	0.3686

Residual Chi-Square Test

Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSo
19.1425	11	0.0586

Step 1. Variable Z8 is entered. The model contains the following explanatory variables:

g1 g2 Z8

Convergence Status

Model Fit Statistics

Without Criterion	With Covariates	Covariates
-2 LOG L	380.487	353.210
AIC	380.487	359.210
SBC	380.487	364.423

The PHREG Procedure

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq	
Likelihood Ratio	27.2772	3	<.0001	
Score	27.8146	3	<.0001	
Wald	24.4659	3	<.0001	

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	St	andard		Н	azard	
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
g1	1	-1.53927	0.51812	8.8260	0.0030	0.215
g2	1	-0.22154	0.48465	0.2090	0.6476	0.801
Z8	1	1.31812	0.41855	9.9179	0.0016	3.736

Analysis of Variables Not in the Model

pcore		
Variable	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Z1	0.6505	0.4199
Z2	0.0024	0.9613
Z3	0.7547	0.3850
Z4	0.9355	0.3334
Z5	0.4415	0.5064
Z6	0.0071	0.9329
Z7	2.5716	0.1088
z91	0.0330	0.8558
z92	0.0003	0.9854
z93	1.1483	0.2839
Z10	0.7865	0.3751

Residual Chi-Square Test

Score

Chi-Square DF Pr > ChiSq 7.7833 10 0.6500

NOTE: No (additional) variables met the 0.1 level for entry into the model.

Summary of Forward Selection

Variable	Number		Score	
Step	Entered	In	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1 Z8		3	11.2959	0.0008

Model Information

Ties Handling

Data Set WORK.BMT1
Dependent Variable T2
Censoring Variable delta2
Censoring Value(s) 0

Number of Observations Read 137 Number of Observations Used 137

Summary of the Number of Event and Censored Values

BRESLOW

Percent

Total Event Censored Censored

137 42 95 69.34

The following variable(s) will be included in each model:

g1 g2

Step 0. The model contains the following variables:

g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93 Z10

Convergence Status

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	S	tandard		H	azard	
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
g1	1	-1.97737	0.60510	10.6789	0.0011	0.138
g2	1	-0.49615	0.53394	0.8635	0.3528	0.609
Z1	1	0.04161	0.03170	1.7223	0.1894	1.042
Z2	1	-0.03104	0.02816	1.2154	0.2703	0.969
Z3	1	-0.30270	0.35289	0.7358	0.3910	0.739
Z4	1	0.39950	0.37151	1.1564	0.2822	1.491
Z5	1	0.14540	0.38000	0.1464	0.7020	1.157
Z6	1	-0.07759	0.36061	0.0463	0.8296	0.925
Z7	1	-0.0009995	0.0007768	1.6555	0.1982	0.999
Z8	1	1.44166	0.44917	10.3015	0.0013	4.228
z91	1	0.63995	0.57090	1.2565	0.2623	1.896
z92	1	0.51117	0.76634	0.4449	0.5048	1.667
z93	1	0.86387	0.59507	2.1075	0.1466	2.372
Z10	0	0				

Step 1. Variable Z10 is removed because of its redundancy.

Step 2. Variable Z6 is removed. The model contains the following explanatory variables:

g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93

Convergence Status

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	S	tandard		Н	azard	
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
g1	1	-1.96479	0.60164	10.6650	0.0011	0.140
g2	1	-0.48874	0.53240	0.8427	0.3586	0.613
Z1	1	0.04197	0.03163	1.7606	0.1845	1.043
Z2	1	-0.03203	0.02772	1.3350	0.2479	0.968
Z3	1	-0.28731	0.34564	0.6909	0.4058	0.750
Z4	1	0.40862	0.36893	1.2267	0.2680	1.505
Z5	1	0.11851	0.35856	0.1092	0.7410	1.126
Z7	1	-0.0009920	0.0007736	1.6442	0.1998	0.999
Z8	1	1.45514	0.44548	10.6698	0.0011	4.285
z91	1	0.64716	0.56998	1.2892	0.2562	1.910
z92	1	0.51320	0.76571	0.4492	0.5027	1.671
z93	1	0.86823	0.59393	2.1370	0.1438	2.383

٠.

g1 g2 Z8

Convergence Status

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	St	andard		H	azard	
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Ratio
g1	1	-1.53927	0.51812	8.8260	0.0030	0.215
g2	1	-0.22154	0.48465	0.2090	0.6476	0.801
Z8	1	1.31812	0.41855	9.9179	0.0016	3.736

NOTE: No (additional) variables met the 0.1 level for removal from the model.

Summary of Backward Elimination

Var	iable Number		Wald	
Ste	e Removed	In	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	Z10	13		
2	Z6	12	0.0463	0.8296
3	Z5	11	0.1092	0.7410
4	z92	10	0.6167	0.4323
5	Z3	9	0.6233	0.4298
6	z91	8	0.5974	0.4396
7	Z4	7	0.7501	0.3864
8	z93	6	1.0015	0.3169
9	Z2	5	1.2315	0.2671
10	Z1	4	0.3947	0.5299
11	Z7	3	2.4189	0.1199

Analysis of Variables Not in the Model

score		
Variable	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Z1	0.0099	0.9209
Z2	0.0580	0.8097
Z3	2.0354	0.1537
Z4	0.8051	0.3696
Z5	0.8466	0.3575
Z6	0.0231	0.8793
Z7	2.6081	0.1063
Z8	11.2959	0.0008
z91	0.2108	0.6462
z92	0.1297	0.7187
z93	0.5913	0.4419
Z10	0.8084	0.3686

Residual Chi-Square Test

Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSo
19.1425	11	0.0586

Step 1. Variable Z8 is entered. The model contains the following explanatory variables:

g1 g2 Z8

Convergence Status

Analysis of Variables Not in the Model

Score		
Variable	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
7.1	0.6505	0.4199
Z2	0.0024	0.9613
Z3	0.7547	0.3850
Z4	0.9355	0.3334
Z5	0.4415	0.5064
Z6	0.0071	0.9329
Z7	2.5716	0.1088
z91	0.0330	0.8558
z92	0.0003	0.9854
z93	1.1483	0.2839
Z10	0.7865	0.3751

Residual Chi-Square Test

Score

Chi-Square DF Pr > ChiSq 7.7833 10 0.6500

NOTE: No (additional) variables met the 0.1 level for entry into the model.

Summary of Stepwise Selection

Variable	Number	Score	Wald			
Step Entered	Removed	In	Chi-Square	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
1 Z8		3	11.2959		0.0008	

NOTE: The following variables are not used in the SCORE selection since they are a linear combination of other variables as shown.

$$Z10 = 1 * z92 + 1 * z93$$

Number of

Regression Models Selected by Score Criterion

Variables Chi-Square Variables Included in Model

Score

```
16.4771 g1 g2
3
     27.8146 g1 g2 Z8
3
   19.5130 g1 g2 Z7
   18.4199 g1 g2 Z3
3
    17.3021 g1 g2 Z5
     30.9681 g1 g2 Z7 Z8
4
    29.2600 g1 g2 Z3 Z8
4
    28.6084 g1 g2 Z8 z93
4
     28.4205 g1 g2 Z4 Z8
5
     31.8900 g1 g2 Z3 Z7 Z8
5
     31.6531 g1 g2 Z7 Z8 z93
     31.3819 g1 g2 Z5 Z7 Z8
5
5
     31.3151 g1 g2 Z4 Z7 Z8
     32.5001 g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8
6
6
    32.4470 g1 g2 Z3 Z7 Z8 z93
6
     32.4034 g1 g2 Z3 Z5 Z7 Z8
6
     32.0224 g1 g2 Z4 Z7 Z8 z93
```

02.0001	81 82 20 21 20 201 200	
33.4602	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z93	
33.2658	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 z91 z93	
33.1314	g1 g2 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 z93	
	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 z92 z93	
33.6562	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z93	
33.5729	g1 g2 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z93	
33.4994	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 z93	
33.4965	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
33.7837	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
33.7755	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 z91 z93	
33.7660	g1 g2 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z93	
33.7142	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z93	
	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z93	
33.9245	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
33.8610	g1 g2 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
33.8210	g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 z91 z93	
	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z6 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
33.8841	g1 g2 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	
34.1454	g1 g2 Z1 Z2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z6 Z7 Z8 z91 z92 z93	

33.0644 g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z7 Z8 Z93 32.9565 g1 g2 Z3 Z4 Z5 Z7 Z8 32.8969 g1 g2 Z3 Z5 Z7 Z8 Z93

32.6351 g1 g2 Z3 Z7 Z8 z91 z93

└Model checking

After fitting a Cox's regression model to a practical data set, it is important to check whether the Cox's regression model is an correct model for this data set.

Like in ordinary regression, we use residuals to assess goodness of fit.

In survival analysis, several types of residuals can be determined:

- Cox-Snel residuals
- Schoenfeld residuals
- Martingale residuals

Cox's regression model

Model checking

As a first type of residuals, we consider Cox-Snel residuals.

These residuals are defined as

$$r_i = \hat{H}_0(t_i) \exp(x_i \hat{\beta})$$

where $\hat{H}_0(t_i)$ is the baseline cumulative hazard function at t_i .

If the Cox's regression model is satisfied, we get that r_i is a censored sample of an exponential distribution with lambda 1.

Testing for this, gives a test of model adequacy.

Graphically, we can do this by plotting a cumulative hazard estimate of these residuals. Since $H_0(t) = t$ for an exponential distribution, we should see a straight line.

∟_{Model checking}

We concentrate on martingale residuals.

For every individual, we get

$$r_i^m = \delta_i - \hat{H}(T_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

where \hat{H} is the fitted cumulative hazard function under the Cox's regression model.

We note that

- The martingale residuals sum to zero.
- In large sample, the martingale residuals are uncorrelated and have an expected value of zero.
- For each individual, the martingale residual looks like the difference of the observed number of deaths in interval $[0, t_i[$ minus expected number under the fitted value.

By plotting these values against index, fitted values or covariates we asses whether there are outliers, the models fits or the functional form of the covariates is satisfied. A third type of residuals are the Schoenfeld residuals.

From the partial likelihood, we know that the parameter β are estimated from

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} (x_i - E[x_i | \mathcal{R}(t_i)]) = 0$$

with

$$E[x_i|\mathcal{R}(t_i)] = \frac{\sum\limits_{l \in \mathcal{R}(t_i)} x_l \exp(x_l^t \beta)}{\sum\limits_{l \in \mathcal{R}(t_i)} \exp(x_l^t \beta)}.$$

The Schoenfeld residual are defined as

$$r_i^s = x_i - E[x_i | \mathcal{R}(t_i)]$$

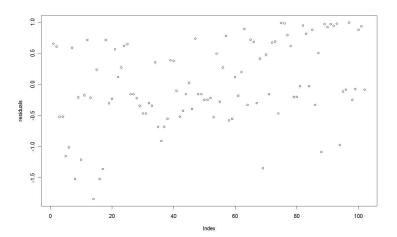
We note that this leads to a multivariate residual.

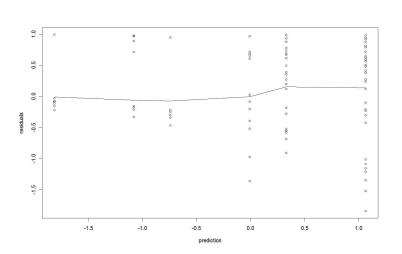
We use these residuals to asses whether the covariates satisfy the proportional hazards assumption.

Hereto we plot them versus ranks of the survival times.

Example: NSCLC

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+tnm,data=NSCLC)
> summary(fit)
> fitresi<-residuals(fit,type="martingale")
> fitred<-predict(fit)
> plot(fitresi,ylab="residuals")
> plot(fitresi,ylab="residuals")
> lines(lowess(fitpred,fitresi))
> plot(NSCLC$expres,fitresi,xlab="expression",ylab="residuals")
> lines(lowess(NSCLC$expres,fitresi))
> plot(NSCLC$tnm,fitresi,xlab="TNM",ylab="residuals")
> lines(lowess(NSCLC$tnm,fitresi,xlab="TNM",ylab="residuals")
> lines(lowess(NSCLC$tnm,fitresi,xlab="TNM",ylab="residuals")
```





Until now, we assumed that a covariate X satisfied the proportional hazards assumption. However in practice we need to check for this.

Under this assumption, we have that

$$\Lambda(t|X) = \int_{0}^{t} \lambda(s|X)ds = e^{\beta X} \int_{0}^{t} \lambda_{0}(s)ds = e^{\beta X} \Lambda_{0}(t)$$

and

$$S(t|X) = e^{-\Lambda(t|X)} = e^{-\Lambda_0(t)e^{\beta X}} = S_0(t)^{e^{\beta X}}.$$

Hence,

$$\log(-\log(S(t|X))) = \log(-\log(S_0(t))) + \beta X.$$

- Cox's regression model
 - Assessing proportional hazards

We use this relationship for a graphical check of proportional hazards.

Consider a discrete covariate X with levels x_1, \ldots, x_K .

- Calculate KM curves for the various levels of X.
- Plot $\log(-\log(S(t|X=x)))$ versus $\log(t)$.
- If they are parallel, the proportional hazard assumption is satisfied.

Note:

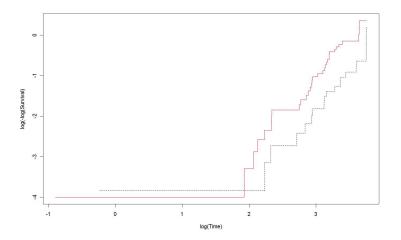
- For a continuous variable, we discretizes into categories.
- For more than one variable, we calculate a KM curve for each combination of values.

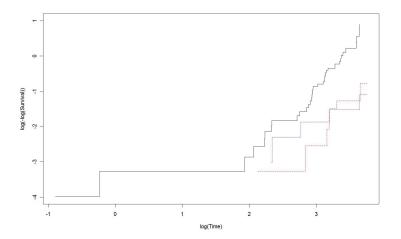
```
Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice  
Cox's regression model
```

LAssessing proportional hazards

```
fit<-survfit(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres,data=NSCLC)
summary(fit)
plot(log(fit[2]$time),log(-log(fit[2]$surv)),xlab="log(Time)",ylab="log(-log(Survival)",
type="s",col="red")
lines(log(fit[1]$time),log(-log(fit[1]$surv)),lty=2,type="s")

fit<-survfit(Surv(survtime,survind)~tnm,data=NSCLC)
summary(fit)
plot(log(fit[3]$time),log(-log(fit[3]$surv)),xlab="log(Time)",ylab="log(-log(Survival))",
type="s",ylim=c(-4,1))
lines(log(fit[2]$time),log(-log(fit[2]$surv)),lty=2,type="s",col="red")
lines(log(fit[1]$time),log(-log(fit[1]$surv)),lty=3,type="s",col="red")
lines(log(fit[1]$time),log(-log(fit[1]$surv)),lty=3,type="s",col="red")</pre>
```





Until now we assumed only one covariate but the idea also holds for multiple covariates.

Consider a discrete covariate X with levels x_1, \ldots, x_K .

- Calculate the fitted curves containing other covariates for the various levels of X.
- Plot $\log(-\log(S(t|X=x)))$ versus $\log(t)$.
- If they are parallel, the proportional hazard assumption is satisfied.

- Cox's regression model
 - LAssessing proportional hazards

A major use of time-dependent covariate methodology is to test the proportionality assumption for a fixed-time covariate X_1 .

• Define an **artificial** time-dependent covariate $X_2(t)$,

$$X_2(t) = X_1 \times g(t)$$

where g(t) is a known function of time t (ex: $g(t) = \log(t)$).

• Test $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ in the Cox's model,

$$\lambda(t|X_1, X_2(t)) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2(t)}.$$

Now,

$$HR(t) = e^{\beta_1(X_1 - X_1^*) + \beta_2 g(t)(X_1 - X_1^*)}$$

which is independent of t when $\beta_2 = 0$.

```
Cox's regression model
```

Assessing proportional hazards

Example: NSCLC

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+tnm+tt(expres),data=NSCLC,tt=function(x.t...)x*log(t))
> summary(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + tnm + tt(expres),data = NSCLC,
tt = function(x, t, ...) x * log(t))
n= 102, number of events= 49
            coef exp(coef) se(coef) z Pr(>|z|)
         0.49387 1.63864 1.08088 0.457
expres
                                         0.648
         1.07384 2.92660 0.25485 4.214 2.51e-05 ***
t.nm
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
         exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
expres
             1.639
                      0.6103
                              0.1970
                                       13.631
             2.927 0.3417 1.7760
                                        4 823
t.nm
tt(expres) 1.087
                  0.9199 0.5354
                                     2.207
Concordance= 0.7 (se = 0.287)
Rsquare= 0.259 (max possible= 0.98)
Likelihood ratio test= 30.63 on 3 df, p=1.015e-06
                  = 23.79 on 3 df, p=2.761e-05
Wald test
Score (logrank) test = 27.03 on 3 df. p=5.792e-06
```

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice Cox's regression model

Assessing proportional hazards

```
> fit<-coxph(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+tnm+tt(tnm),data=NSCLC,tt=function(x,t,...)x*log(t))
> summarv(fit)
Call: coxph(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + tnm + tt(tnm).data = NSCLC.
tt = function(x, t, ...) x * log(t))
n= 102, number of events= 49
        coef exp(coef) se(coef) z Pr(>|z|)
expres 0.7399
               2.0957 0.3035 2.438 0.0148 *
tnm
      0.5151 1.6737 0.7837 0.657 0.5110
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
       exp(coef) exp(-coef) lower .95 upper .95
expres
          2.096
                   0.4772
                            1.1560
                                     3.799
          1.674 0.5975 0.3603 7.776
tnm
tt(tnm) 1.211
                   0.8256 0.7259
                                     2.021
Concordance= 0.695 (se = 0.287)
Rsquare= 0.262 (max possible= 0.98)
Likelihood ratio test= 31.05 on 3 df. p=8.303e-07
Wald test
                  = 24.22 on 3 df. p=2.251e-05
                                   p=4.254e-06
Score (logrank) test = 27.67 on 3 df,
```

```
Cox's regression model
```

LAssessing proportional hazards

Example: NSCLC

```
proc phreg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM exptime;
exptime=expres*log(Survtime);
run;
```

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	0.49389	1.08088	0.2088	0.6477	1.639
tnm	1	1.07358	0.25482	17.7503	<.0001	2.926
exptime	1	0.08352	0.36139	0.0534	0.8172	1.087

```
proc phreg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM TNMtime;
TNMtime=TNM*log(Survtime);
run;
```

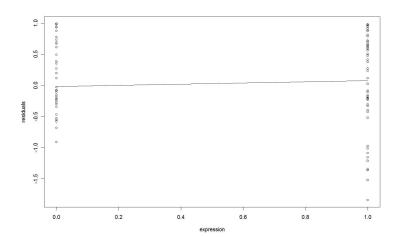
Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Hazard Ratio
expres	1	0.73986	0.30352	5.9417	0.0148	2.096
tnm	1	0.51472	0.78357	0.4315	0.5113	1.673
TNMtime	1	0.19170	0.26120	0.5387	0.4630	1.211

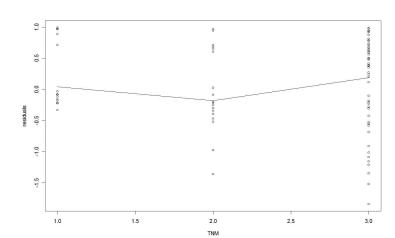
Sometimes, we are interested in checking which the best functional form of a covariate.

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(f(x_i)\beta_1 + x_m^t \beta)$$

To check which functional form is best, we can estimate several functional forms and compare them by the partial likelihood ratio test.

By plotting the martingale residuals versus a covariate, we can verify whether the functional form is correct.





LIntroduction.

In the previous lectures, we did not make any assumptions on the distribution of the lifetime variable T

Since this random variable is only defined for positive value and often is highly skewed, we intuitively feel that a normal distribution is not suited to describe this distribution.

Therefore we propose some popular survival distributions.

As a first popular parametric distribution, we consider the exponential distribution.

A lifetime T has an exponential distribution if for $\lambda > 0$,

$$f(t) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda t), \quad t > 0$$

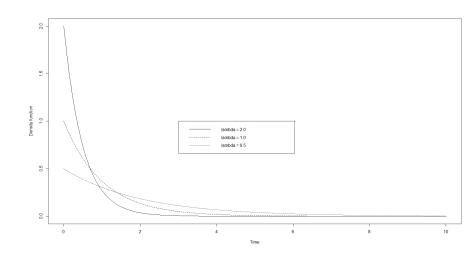
$$S(t) = \exp(-\lambda t), \quad t > 0$$

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda, \quad t > 0$$

This is the only distribution with a constant hazard.

└Some popular survival distributions

LExponential distribution



Some popular survival distributions

Exponential distribution

Furthermore we can show that

$$E[T] = \frac{1}{\lambda} < +\infty.$$

The median $t_{50\%}$ is the time point at which 50% has failed,

$$S(t_{50\%}) = 0.5 \Leftrightarrow t_{50\%} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \log 2.$$

More generally, the p-th percentile of the survival distribution is given by

$$S(t_p) = 1 - p \Leftrightarrow t_p = -\frac{\log(1-p)}{\lambda}.$$

The exponential distribution has a lack of memory property, given by

$$P(T > t + x | T > x) = P(T > t).$$

In reality, most processes rarely follow an exponential distribution.

This is the result of having a hazard function which depends on time and age of an individual.

If we have events which tend to occur constantly over time, we still can use the exponential distribution.

For the mean residual lifetime, we get

$$r(t) = E[T - t|T > t] = E[T] = \frac{1}{\lambda}.$$

This means that the expected future lifetime for a system or individual is not influenced by the time t that it has lived so far.

It is assumed that there is no ageing effect.

Also if we look a small time intervals, the exponential distribution gives good approximations.

Some popular survival distributions

Weibull and extreme value distribution

Weibull distribution

A lifetime T has a Weibull distribution if for $\lambda > 0$ and $\alpha > 0$,

$$f(t) = \alpha \lambda \exp(-\lambda t^{\alpha - 1}), \quad t > 0$$

$$S(t) = \exp(-\lambda t^{\alpha}), \quad t > 0$$

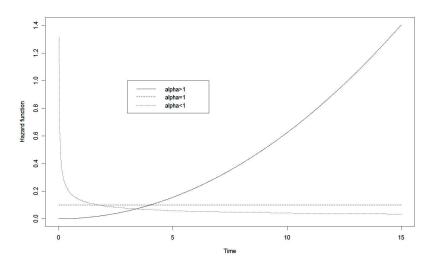
$$\lambda(t) = \lambda \alpha t^{\alpha - 1}, \quad t > 0$$

where λ is a scale parameter while α is a shape parameter.

We note that the exponential distribution is a special case of the Weibull ($\alpha = 1$).

Some popular survival distributions

Weibull and extreme value distribution



Some popular survival distributions

Weibull and extreme value distribution

As for the exponential distribution, we can show that

$$E[T] = \lambda^{-1/\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha^{-1} - 1)$$

with

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_{0}^{\infty} u^{x-1} e^{-u} du.$$

The median $t_{50\%}$ is the time point at which 50% has failed,

$$S(t_{50\%}) = 0.5 \Leftrightarrow t_{50\%} = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \log 2\right)^{1/\alpha}.$$

More generally, the p-th percentile of the survival distribution is given by

$$S(t_p) = 1 - p \Leftrightarrow t_p = \left(-\frac{\log(1-p)}{\lambda}\right)^{1/\alpha}.$$

Some popular survival distributions

Weibull and extreme value distribution

Extreme value distribution

Sometimes it is more useful to work with the logarithm of the lifetimes.

If $T \sim \text{Weibull}(\lambda, \alpha)$, we get that

$$Y = \log(T) = \mu + \sigma E$$

with $\mu = (-\log \lambda)/\alpha$, $\sigma = 1/\alpha$ and E the standard extreme value distribution

$$f_E(w) = \exp(w - e^w), \quad w \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We note that a reparametrization of the parameters gives $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma > 0$.

A lifetime T has a gamma distribution if for $\lambda > 0$ and $\beta > 0$,

$$f(t) = \frac{\lambda^{\beta} t^{\beta - 1}}{\Gamma(\beta)} \exp(-\lambda t), \quad t > 0$$

$$S(t) = 1 - \frac{1}{\Gamma(\beta)} \int_{0}^{\lambda t} u^{\beta - 1} \exp(-u) du, \quad t > 0$$

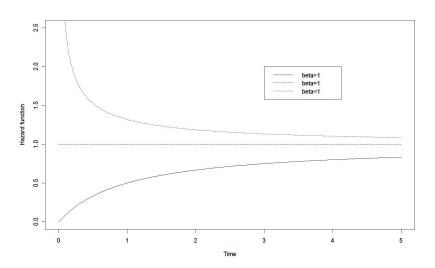
where λ is a scale parameter while β is a shape parameter.

We note that

$$E[T] = \frac{\beta}{\lambda}$$
 and $Var(T) = \frac{\beta}{\lambda^2}$.

└Some popular survival distributions

└Gamma distribution



A lifetime T has a lognormal distribution if log(T) has a normal distribution.

This gives

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{t\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\log t - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right), \quad t > 0$$

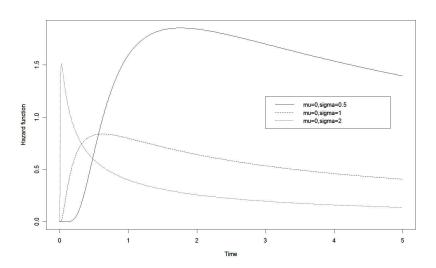
$$= \frac{1}{t} \phi\left(\frac{\log t - \mu}{\sigma}\right), \quad t > 0$$

$$S(t) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\log t - \mu}{\sigma}\right), \quad t > 0$$

where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma > 0$.

Some popular survival distributions

Lognormal distribution



A lifetime T has a log-logistic distribution when for $\kappa > 0$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$f(t) = \frac{e^{\theta} \kappa t^{\kappa - 1}}{(1 + e^{\theta} t^{\kappa})^2}$$

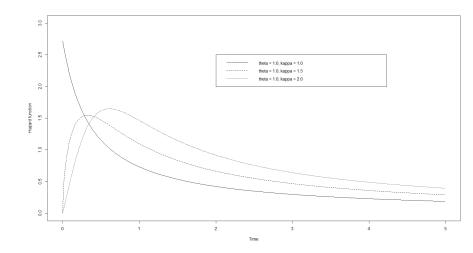
$$S(t) = [1 + e^{\theta} t^{\kappa}]^{-1}$$

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{e^{\theta} \kappa t^{\kappa - 1}}{1 + e^{\theta} t^{\kappa}}$$

As for the lognormal distribution, we note that T has a log-logistic distribution if log(T) has a logistic distribution.

└Some popular survival distributions

Log-logistic distribution



Some popular survival distributions

Gompertz distribution

A lifetime T has a Gompertz distribution if

$$f(t) = \theta e^{\alpha t} \exp\left(\frac{\theta}{\alpha}(1 - e^{\alpha t})\right), \quad t > 0$$

$$S(t) = \exp\left(\frac{\theta}{\alpha}(1 - e^{\alpha t})\right), \quad t > 0$$

$$\lambda(t) = \theta e^{\alpha t}, \quad t > 0$$

where $\alpha > 0$ and $\theta > 0$.

We note that the hazard function is increasing in t and that $\lim_{t\to 0} \lambda(t) = \theta \Rightarrow \theta$ is background hazard.

Generalized Gamma distribution

We extend the Gamma distribution and define

$$f(t) = \frac{\theta \lambda^{\rho \theta} t^{\rho \theta - 1} \exp[-(\lambda t)^{\theta}]}{\Gamma(\rho)}.$$

- If $\theta = \rho = 1 \Rightarrow$ Exponential
- If $\theta = 1 \Rightarrow \text{Gamma}$
- If $\rho = 1 \Rightarrow$ Weibull
- If $\rho \to +\infty \Rightarrow \text{Lognormal}$

Pareto distribution

A lifetime T has a Pareto distribution if

$$f(t) = \frac{\theta \lambda^{\theta}}{t^{\theta+1}}, \quad t > \lambda$$

$$S(t) = \frac{\lambda^{\theta}}{t^{\theta}}, \quad t > \lambda$$

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{\theta}{t}, \quad t > \lambda$$

where $\lambda > 0$ and $\theta > 0$.

Some popular survival distributions

└Other survival distributions

Inverse Gaussian distribution

A lifetime T has an Inverse Gaussian distribution if

$$\begin{split} f(t) &= \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{2\pi t^3}} \exp\left(\frac{\lambda(t-\mu^2)}{2\mu^2 t}\right), \quad t>0 \\ S(t) &= \Phi\left(\sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{t}} \left(1-\frac{t}{\mu}\right)\right) - e^{\frac{2\lambda}{\mu}} \Phi\left(-\sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{t}} \left(1+\frac{t}{\mu}\right)\right), \quad t>0 \end{split}$$

where $\lambda > 0$.

The hazard of this distribution has a complicated form!

For some parametric distributions, we can easily verify whether they are a good candidate.

• If $T \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$, we have that

$$S(t) = \exp(-\lambda t)$$
$$\log(S(t)) = -\lambda t.$$

 \Rightarrow Plot $\log(\hat{S}(t))$ vs t.

• If $T \sim \text{Weibull}(\lambda, \alpha)$, we have that

$$S(t) = \exp(-\lambda t^{\alpha})$$
$$\log(S(t)) = -\lambda t^{\alpha}$$
$$\log(-\log(S(t))) = \log(\lambda) + \alpha \log(t).$$

 \Rightarrow Plot $\log(-\log(\hat{S}(t)))$ vs $\log(t)$.

• If T has a log-logistic distribution, we have that

$$\frac{S(t)}{1 - S(t)} = e^{-\theta} t^{-\kappa}$$

$$\log \left(\frac{S(t)}{1 - S(t)} \right) = -\theta - \kappa \log(t).$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Plot } \log \left(\frac{\hat{S}(t)}{1 - \hat{S}(t)} \right) \text{ vs } \log(t).$$

• If T has a lognormal distribution, we have that

$$S(t) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\log t - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

$$\Phi^{-1}(1 - S(t)) = \frac{\log(t) - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Plot } \Phi^{-1}(1 - \hat{S}(t)) \text{ vs } \log(t).$$

Some popular survival distributions

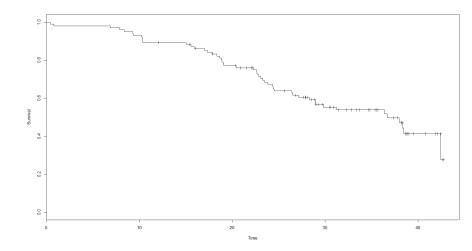
LAssessing of a parametric distribution

Example: NSCLC

```
NSCLC<-read.table("C:/werk/Roel/Onderwijs/Theorie/GOB67AStatAnalReliaSurvData/Cursus/NSCLC.txt",
header=T,sep="\t")
fit <- survfit (Surv(survtime, survind)~1, data=NSCLC)
summary(fit)
plot(survfit(Surv(survtime, survind)~1, conf.type="none", data=NSCLC), xlab="Time", ylab="Survival")
#Exponential
plot(fit$time,log(fit$surv),type="s",xlab="time",ylab="log(survival)",main="Exponential")
#Weibull
#-----
plot(log(fit$time),log(-log(fit$surv)),type="s",xlab="log(time)",ylab="log(-log(survival))",
main="Weibull")
#log-logistic
plot(log(fit$time).log(fit$surv/(1-fit$surv)).tvpe="s".xlab="log(time)".
vlab="log(survival/1-survival)",main="Log-logistic")
#log-normal
#-----
plot(log(fit$time),qnorm(1-fit$surv),type="s",xlab="log(time)",ylab="qnorm(1-survival)",
main="Log-normal")
```

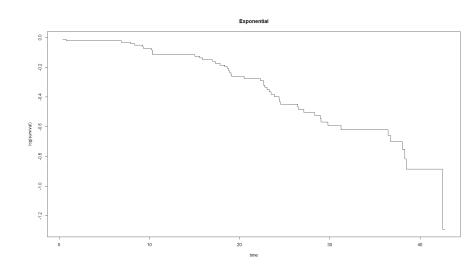
Some popular survival distributions

LAssessing of a parametric distribution



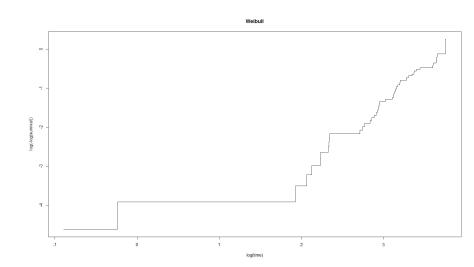
Some popular survival distributions

Assessing of a parametric distribution



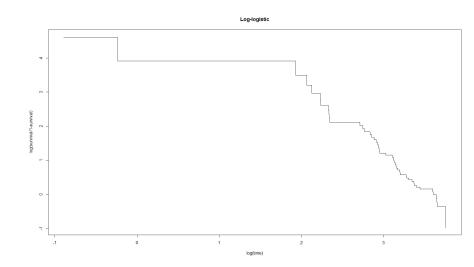
Some popular survival distributions

Assessing of a parametric distribution



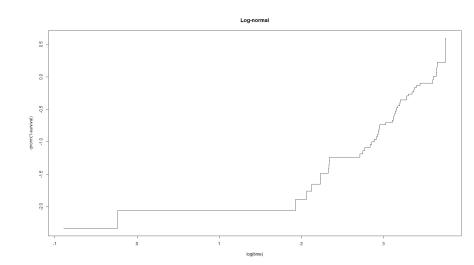
Some popular survival distributions

LAssessing of a parametric distribution



Some popular survival distributions

Assessing of a parametric distribution



In the previous section, we looked at commonly used parametric distributions for the response lifetime T.

However, in most situations, we are also interested in investigating the influence of other random variables, covariates, on the response lifetime.

In survival analysis, we can discriminate between two different approaches:

- the proportional hazards models
- the accelerated failure time models

Proportional hazard regression models

In the proportional hazards models, we study the influence of covariates through the conditional hazard function.

We assume that the conditional hazard function of the lifetime T is given by

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}}.$$

Hereby,

- we call $\lambda_0(t)$ the baseline hazard function. It represent the hazard function when the covariates are zero.
- the influence of the covariates is multiplicative through the $e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}}$ -term.

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

Proportional hazard regression models

These models are called proportional hazards model because the ratio for two different individuals is constant.

$$\frac{\lambda(t|\mathbf{X})}{\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}')} = \frac{\lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}}}{\lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}'}} = e^{\beta^t(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}')}.$$

In an analysis, we specify for the baseline hazard function $\lambda_0(t)$ always a parametric hazard function.

Using the relationship a hazard and a survival function, we get that

$$S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp\left(-\int_{0}^{t} \lambda_{0}(u)e^{\beta^{t}\mathbf{X}}du\right) = \exp(-\exp(\beta^{t}\mathbf{X})\Lambda_{0}(t))$$
$$= S_{0}(t)^{\exp(\beta^{t}\mathbf{X})}$$

where $S_0(t)$ is the baseline survival function.

- Parametric regression models in survival analysis
 - _Accelerated failure time regression models

An alternative regression model in survival data is the Accelerated failure time model.

Hereby we can consider on a log-scale that

$$Y = \log(T) = \mu + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p + \sigma W$$
$$= \beta^t \mathbf{X} + \sigma W$$

with $W \sim F$ a parametric error distribution.

We note that this looks like the situation which we have in a standard generalized linear regression model.

When we denote by S_0 the survival function when $\mathbf{X} = 0$ then we find that

$$P(T > t|\mathbf{X}) = P(Y > \log(t)|\mathbf{X})$$

$$= P(\mu + \sigma W > \log(t) - \beta^t \mathbf{X}|\mathbf{X})$$

$$= P(\exp(\mu + \sigma W) > t \exp(-\beta^t \mathbf{X})|\mathbf{X})$$

$$= S_0(t \exp(-\beta^t \mathbf{X}))$$

The effect of the covariates on the survival function is that the time scale is changed by a factor $\exp(-\beta^t \mathbf{X})$.

We call this an acceleration factor.

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

_Accelerated failure time regression models

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

LAccelerated failure time regression models

We note that when

$$\exp(-\beta^t \mathbf{X}) > 1 \Rightarrow$$
 the survival process accelerates.
 $\exp(-\beta^t \mathbf{X}) < 1 \Rightarrow$ the survival process decelerates.

If **X** is an indicator variable, this is equivalent to

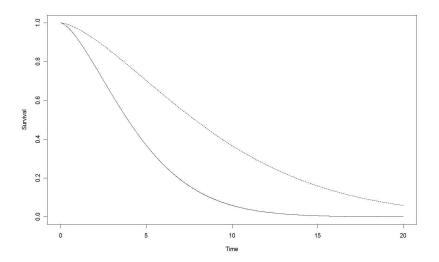
$$\beta > 0 \Rightarrow$$
 Time shrinks.

 $\beta < 0 \Rightarrow$ Time accelerates.

The hazard function is in this case is given by

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(te^{-\beta^t \mathbf{X}})e^{-\beta^t \mathbf{X}}$$

- Parametric regression models in survival analysis
 - Accelerated failure time regression models



In each distribution we have (several) parameter(s) which determined the shape of this distribution.

How will we estimate the parameters of the models in a practical data set?

In survival analysis, some observations are **censored**!

Hence, estimation method has to be adapted to censoring.

In parametric modeling, Maximum Likelihood Estimation is commonly used.

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

[└] Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

No censoring

Let T_1, \ldots, T_n be a sample from a population $T \sim F(t, \theta)$. $F(t, \theta)$ a continuous distribution with density $f(t, \theta)$.

The maximum likelihood function is defined as

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i, \theta).$$

We estimate θ by maximizing this expression $(\hat{\theta})$.

Example: T_1, \ldots, T_n with $T_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$.

$$L(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda \exp(-\lambda t_i) = \lambda^n \exp\left(-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i\right).$$

To find an estimate for λ , we calculate

$$l(\lambda) = n \log(\lambda) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i.$$

and solve the equation

$$U(\lambda) = \frac{d}{d\lambda}l(\lambda) = \frac{n}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \hat{\lambda} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i} = \frac{1}{\bar{t}}.$$

To get a maximum, we check that

$$\frac{d^2}{d\lambda^2}l(\hat{\lambda}) = \frac{-n}{\hat{\lambda}^2} < 0.$$

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

With censoring

Suppose we have a censored sample $(Y_1, \delta_1), \ldots, (Y_n, \delta_n)$ where

$$Y_i = \min(T_i, C_i)$$
 and $\delta_i = I(T_i \le C_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$

with

- a sample $T_1, \ldots, T_n \sim f(t, \theta)$ lifetimes. We denote the survival function by $S(t, \theta)$.
- a sample $C_1, \ldots, C_n \sim g(c)$ censoring times with survival function G(t).
- T_i and C_i are independent.

Note: We assume non-informative censoring.

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

For an uncensored observation ($\delta = 1$), we calculate the contribution to the likelihood by

$$\begin{split} P(Y \leq y, \delta = 1) &= P(\min(T, C) \leq y, T \leq C) \\ &= P(T \leq y, C \geq T) \\ &= \int\limits_{0}^{y} C(t) f(t, \theta) dt \\ \Rightarrow f_{Y, \delta = 1}(y, \theta) &= f(y, \theta) G(y). \end{split}$$

For a censored observation ($\delta = 0$), we get similarly

$$f_{Y,\delta=0}(y,\theta) = g(y)S(y,\theta).$$

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Hence, we get the likelihood function

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i,\delta_i=1} f(y_i, \theta) G(y_i) \times \prod_{i,\delta_i=0} g(y_i) S(y_i, \theta).$$

Since we assumed that the censoring is non-informative, we remove the terms g and G. So, we get

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i,\delta_i=1} f(y_i, \theta) \times \prod_{i,\delta_i=0} S(y_i, \theta)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i, \theta)^{\delta_i} S(y_i, \theta)^{1-\delta_i}.$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda(y_i, \theta)^{\delta_i} S(y_i, \theta).$$

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Returning to the example T_1, \ldots, T_n with $T_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$, we get

$$L(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda^{\delta_i} \exp(-\lambda y_i)$$

and corresponding log-likelihood function

$$l(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \log(\lambda) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i.$$

Furthermore we get

$$U(\lambda) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i = 0.$$

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Solving this equation, we get

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}$$

This is a maximum since

$$\frac{d^2}{d\lambda^2}l(\hat{\lambda}) = -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i}{\hat{\lambda}^2} < 0.$$

Finding a analytic solution is the exception rather than the rule!

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Assume that the lifetimes are Weibull with $\lambda, \gamma > 0$. We get

$$L(\lambda, \gamma) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(\lambda \gamma y_{i}^{\gamma-1}\right)^{\delta_{i}} \exp(-\lambda y_{i}^{\gamma})$$

$$l(\lambda, \gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i} \left[\log(\lambda) + \log(\gamma) + (\gamma - 1)\log(y_{i})\right] - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{\gamma}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} l(\lambda, \gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_{i}}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{\gamma} = 0 \Rightarrow \hat{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{\gamma}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} l(\lambda, \gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_{i}}{\gamma} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i} \log(y_{i}) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{\gamma} \log(y_{i}) = 0$$

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Regression models

Until now, we only looked at a (censored) failure time T > 0.

Often there are covariates $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$ in a study.

Examples:

- Different treatments in cancer or AIDS -trialS.
- Gender-effect in sociology studies.
- Temperature, pressure in industrial trials.
- . . .

How do these covariates influence T?

- Parametric regression models in survival analysis
 - Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

When conditional on the covariates, the censoring C is non-informative for the lifetime T,

we get a similar expression for the likelihood

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)^{\delta_i} S(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)^{1-\delta_i}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)^{\delta_i} S(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta).$$

We get estimate for the different parameter when we maximize this function. Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

Inference of parametric models and likelihood estimation

Asymptotic results

The asymptotic results of the maximum likelihood function remain in general valid.

- MLE $\hat{\theta}$ asymptotic normal
- Likelihood ratio test χ^2 distributed
- Score statistics
- ..

Exponential regression models

Next we give some examples.

The simplest regression model is the Exponential proportional hazard model.

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda(\mathbf{X})$$

Given X, the hazard function is constant.

Mostly, the influence is described multiplicative as

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda c(\beta^t \mathbf{X})$$

where

 λ a constant $\beta^t = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)$ regression parameters c is a known positive function (Commonly: $c(s) = \exp(s)$)

Exponential regression models

We note that when in this model

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}),$$

the conditional distribution of T, given \mathbf{X} , is

$$f(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}) \exp[-\lambda t \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})]$$

$$S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp[-\lambda t \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})].$$

This is a proportional hazards models since

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(t)e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}} = \lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}).$$

Exponential regression models

We can also write this models as an accelerated failure model.

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_0(te^{-\beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X}})e^{-\beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X}}$$
$$= \lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})$$

where the parameter estimates are related through

$$\beta = -\beta_{aft}$$
.

Using the log-scale notation,

$$Y = \log(T) = \mu + \beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X} + E$$

with E an extreme value distribution, we get that

$$\lambda = \exp(-\mu)$$
 and $\beta = -\beta_{aft}$.

Weibull regression models

A generalization of the exponential model is the Weibull proportional hazard model.

Hereto we assume that

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \alpha \lambda t^{\alpha - 1} \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}).$$

The conditional distribution of T, given \mathbf{X} , is now

$$f(t|\mathbf{X}) = \lambda \alpha \lambda t^{\alpha-1} \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}) \exp[-\lambda t^{\alpha} \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})]$$

$$S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp[-\lambda t^{\alpha} \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})].$$

Weibull regression models

Also this model can be rewritten as accelerated failure model.

$$S(t|\mathbf{X}) = S_0(t \exp(-\beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X}))$$
$$= \exp(-\lambda t^{\alpha} \exp(-\alpha \beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X}))$$

where the parameters λ and α are the same and the other estimates are related through

$$\beta = -\alpha \beta_{aft}.$$

Weibull regression models

Using the log-scale notation, we could estimate the parameters of this model

$$Y = \log(T) = \mu + \beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X} + \sigma E$$

with E an extreme value distribution, we get that

$$\lambda = \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right), \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{\sigma} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = -\frac{\beta_{aft}}{\sigma}.$$

The standard errors of these parameters can be estimated by the delta-method.

- Parametric regression models in survival analysis
 - Practical aspects for accelerated failure time models

Example: NSCLC

- Laudanski et al., Eur Respir J (2001).
- In this study, we had 102 patients who were operated from long cancer.
- The severity of the cancer was expressed in three TNM (Tumor, Nodes, Metastasis) categories: I, II, IIIa.
- The expression of the P53 protein was found from tumor biopsies.
- We are interested on the effect of this protein on the survival time of a patient.

```
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime.survind)~expres.data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC)
            Value Std. Error
                                z
(Intercept) 4.014 0.154 26.13 1.80e-150
expres
         -0.450 0.177 -2.54 1.11e-02
Log(scale) -0.553 0.127 -4.34 1.40e-05
Scale= 0.575
Weibull distribution
Loglik(model) = -235.8 Loglik(intercept only) = -239.3
Chisa= 7.12 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.0076
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 5
n = 102
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres,dist="exponential",data=NSCLC)
> summary(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC,
dist = "exponential")
            Value Std. Error
(Intercept) 4.405 0.243 18.16 9.99e-74
expres -0.673 0.300 -2.24 2.49e-02
Scale fixed at 1
Exponential distribution
Loglik(model) = -243.3 Loglik(intercept only) = -246
Chisq= 5.29 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.021
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 4
n = 102
```

```
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime, survind)~expres, dist="lognormal", data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC,
dist = "lognormal")
            Value Std. Error
(Intercept) 3.9573 0.205 19.263 1.10e-82
expres
        -0.5417 0.249 -2.175 2.96e-02
Log(scale) 0.0771 0.108 0.712 4.76e-01
Scale= 1.08
Log Normal distribution
Loglik(model) = -244 Loglik(intercept only) = -246.4
Chisq= 4.83 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.028
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 3
n = 102
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime.survind)~expres.dist="loglogistic".data=NSCLC)
> summary(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres, data = NSCLC.
dist = "loglogistic")
            Value Std. Error z
(Intercept) 3.837 0.154 24.84 3.25e-136
expres -0.477 0.190 -2.52 1.19e-02
Log(scale) -0.713 0.126 -5.66 1.54e-08
Scale= 0.49
Log logistic distribution
Loglik(model) = -237.1 Loglik(intercept only) = -240.4
Chisq= 6.52 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 0.011
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 4
n = 102
```

```
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+tnm,data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + tnm, data = NSCLC)
            Value Std. Error
                                 Z.
(Intercept) 5.174 0.383 13.51 1.45e-41
expres
        -0.356 0.158 -2.25 2.42e-02
        -0.517 0.132 -3.93 8.54e-05
tnm
Log(scale) -0.664 0.126 -5.27 1.38e-07
Scale= 0.515
Weibull distribution
Loglik(model) = -224.8 Loglik(intercept only) = -239.3
Chisq= 29.09 on 2 degrees of freedom, p= 4.8e-07
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 6
n = 102
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres*tnm,data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call:survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres * tnm, data = NSCLC)
            Value Std. Error
                                 z
(Intercept) 6.241 0.870 7.18 7.09e-13
expres -1.844 0.923 -2.00 4.57e-02
tnm -0.908 0.301 -3.02 2.53e-03
expres:tnm 0.552 0.326 1.69 9.05e-02
Log(scale) -0.665 0.126 -5.27 1.35e-07
Scale= 0.514
Weibull distribution
Loglik(model) = -222.9 Loglik(intercept only) = -239.3
Chisq= 32.77 on 3 degrees of freedom, p= 3.6e-07
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 6
n = 102
```

```
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+factor(tnm),data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
```

Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + factor(tnm),data = NSCLC) Value Std. Error Z. (Intercept) 4.4085 0.262 16.81 1.95e-63

expres -0.3586 0.157 -2.29 2.22e-02 factor(tnm)2 -0.0509 0.299 -0.17 8.65e-01

Scale= 0.51Weibull distribution Loglik(model) = -223.5 Loglik(intercept only) = -239.3

Chisa= 31.67 on 3 degrees of freedom, p= 6.1e-07 Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 6 n = 102

Practical aspects for accelerated failure time models

We consider the accelerated failure time models with distributions: Weibull, exponential, generalized gamma and lognormal.

```
proc lifereg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres;
run;
proc lifereg data=nsclc:
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres/distribution=expontial;
run:
proc lifereg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres/distribution=gamma;
run:
proc lifereg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres/distribution=lognormal;
run:
proc lifereg data=nsclc;
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM expres*TNM:
run:
proc lifereg data=nsclc:
class TNM:
model Survtime*Survind(0)=expres TNM;
run;
```

The LIFEREG Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.NSCLC
Dependent Variable	Log(Survtime)
Censoring Variable	Survind
Censoring Value(s)	0
Number of Observations	102
Noncensored Values	49
Right Censored Values	53
Left Censored Values	0
Interval Censored Values	0
Name of Distribution	Weibull
Log Likelihood	-96.25063495

Number of Observations Read 102 Number of Observations Used 102

Algorithm converged.

Type III Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSo	
expres	1	6.4463	0.0111	

Analysis of Parameter Estimates

			Standard	95% Con	fidence	Chi-	
Parameter	DF	${\tt Estimate}$	Error	Lim	its	Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	1	4.0138	0.1536	3.7127	4.3149	682.62	<.0001
expres	1	-0.4502	0.1773	-0.7978	-0.1027	6.45	0.0111
Scale	1	0.5753	0.0732	0.4482	0.7383		
Weibull Shape	1	1.7383	0.2213	1.3545	2.2310		

The parameter Weibull Shape is the inverse of Scale.

Name of Distribution Exponential Log Likelihood -103.8227604

Analysis of Parameter Estimates

				Standard	95% Con	fidence	Chi-	
Par	rameter	DF	Estimate	Error	Lim	its	Square	Pr > ChiSq
<u>.</u> .						4 0000		
Int	ercept	1	4.4054	0.2425	3.9300	4.8807	329.92	<.0001
exp	ores	1	-0.6730	0.3001	-1.2612	-0.0848	5.03	0.0249
Sca	ale	0	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	1.0000		
Wei	bull Shape	0	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	1.0000		

Lagrange Multiplier Statistics

Parameter Chi-Square Pr > ChiSq Scale 99.7168 <.0001 Name of Distribution Gamma Log Likelihood -95.98435044

WARNING: Iteration limit exceeded.

Analysis of Parameter Estimates

			Standard	95% Con	fidence	Chi-	
Parameter	DF	Estimate	Error	Lim	its	Square P	r > ChiSq
Intercept	1	4.1238	0.1509	3.8280	4.4195	746.65	<.0001
expres	1	-0.3732	0.1602	-0.6872	-0.0593	5.43	0.0198
Scale	1	0.2492	0.0336	0.1914	0.3245		
Shape	0	2.8349	0.0000	2.8349	2.8349		

The parameter Shape is an extra parameter.

Name of Distribution Lognormal Log Likelihood -104.473411

Analysis of Parameter Estimates

Parameter	DF	Estimate	Standard Error		fidence its	Chi- Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	1	3.9573	0.2054	3.5547	4.3600	371.06	<.0001
expres	1	-0.5417	0.2490	-1.0298	-0.0536	4.73	0.0296
Scale	1	1.0801	0.1168	0.8737	1.3352		

Name of Distribution Log Likelihood Weibull -83.42497702

Algorithm converged.

Type III Analysis of Effects

		Wald	
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
		•	-
expres	1	3.9914	0.0457
tnm	1	9.1166	0.0025
expres*tnm	1	2.8662	0.0905

Analysis of Parameter Estimates

			Standard	95% Con	fidence	Chi-	
Parameter	DF	Estimate	Error	Lim	its	Square H	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	1	6.2413	0.8695	4.5370	7.9455	51.52	<.0001
expres	1	-1.8437	0.9228	-3.6524	-0.0350	3.99	0.0457
tnm	1	-0.9083	0.3008	-1.4979	-0.3187	9.12	0.0025
expres*tnm	1	0.5515	0.3258	-0.0870	1.1900	2.87	0.0905
Scale	1	0.5145	0.0648	0.4019	0.6587		
Weibull Shape	1	1.9437	0.2450	1.5182	2.4884		

Name of Distribution Log Likelihood Weibull -83.97589782

Algorithm converged.

Type III Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
expres	1	5.2336	0.0222
tnm	2	18.2350	0.0001

Analysis of Parameter Estimates

Parameter		DF	Estimate	Standard Error		fidence its	Chi- Square	Pr > ChiSc
Intercept		1	3.5972	0.1357	3.3313	3.8631	702.92	<.0001
expres		1	-0.3586	0.1567	-0.6658	-0.0514	5.23	0.0222
tnm	1	1	0.8113	0.2532	0.3150	1.3075	10.27	0.0014
tnm	2	1	0.7603	0.2212	0.3268	1.1939	11.81	0.0006
tnm	3	0	0.0000					
Scale		1	0.5100	0.0641	0.3986	0.6525		
Weibull Shape		1	1.9610	0.2466	1.5326	2.5091		

Back to proportional hazard models

We saw earlier that a Weibull (or Exponential) proportional hazard model and accelerated failure time model are actually the same model, but with a transformation of the parameters.

$$\lambda(t|\mathbf{X}) = \alpha \lambda t^{\alpha-1} \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})$$

$$\Rightarrow S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp\left(-\lambda t^{\alpha} e^{\beta^t \mathbf{X}}\right)$$

$$Y = \log(T) = \mu + \beta_{aft}^t \mathbf{X} + \sigma E$$

$$\Rightarrow S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp\left(-t^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} e^{-\frac{\mu}{\sigma}} e^{-\frac{\beta_{aft}^t}{\sigma} \mathbf{X}}\right)$$

with E an extreme value distribution, we get that

$$\lambda = \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right), \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{\sigma} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = -\frac{\beta_{aft}}{\sigma}.$$

Back to proportional hazard models

Using the output of the accelerated failure model, we derive estimates for the parametric proportional hazards model by the delta-method,

$$\lambda = \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\exp(l\sigma)}\right) = \exp\left(-\mu \exp(l\sigma)\right)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\exp(l\sigma)} = \exp(-l\sigma)$$

$$\beta_i = -\frac{\beta_{i,aft}}{\sigma} = -\frac{\beta_{i,aft}}{\exp(l\sigma)} = -\beta_{i,aft} \exp(-l\sigma), i = 1, \dots, m$$

```
> fit<-survreg(Surv(survtime,survind)~expres+factor(tnm),data=NSCLC)
> summarv(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(survtime, survind) ~ expres + factor(tnm),data = NSCLC)
               Value Std. Error
                                     Z.
(Intercept) 4.4085
                           0.262 16.81 1.95e-63
expres -0.3586 0.157 -2.29 2.22e-02 factor(tnm)2 -0.0509 0.299 -0.17 8.65e-01
factor(tnm)3 -0.8113 0.253 -3.20 1.35e-03
Log(scale) -0.6734 0.126 -5.35 8.56e-08
Scale= 0.51
Weibull distribution
Loglik(model) = -223.5 Loglik(intercept only) = -239.3
Chisa= 31.67 on 3 degrees of freedom, p= 6.1e-07
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 6
n = 102
> para<-fit$coef
> lscale<-log(fit$scale)
> V<-fit$var
> para
(Intercept)
                  expres factor(tnm)2 factor(tnm)3
4 40847577 -0 35859629 -0 05093227 -0 81126028
> lscale
[1] -0.6734365
> V
             (Intercept) expres factor(tnm)2 factor(tnm)3 Log(scale)
(Intercept) 0.06874934 -0.0161316354 -5.089700e-02 -0.0572241351 1.228617e-02
expres
             -0.01613164 0.0245703252 -2.028463e-03 -0.0005509755 -4.008380e-03
factor(tnm)2 -0.05089700 -0.0020284634 8.933596e-02 0.0522539493 -1.198954e-05
factor(tnm)3 -0.05722414 -0.0005509755 5.225395e-02 0.0641076951 -8.665926e-03
Log(scale) 0.01228617 -0.0040083796 -1.198954e-05 -0.0086659265 1.581553e-02
```

```
> lambda<-exp(-para[1]*exp(-lscale))
> alpha<-exp(-lscale)
> beta<--para[-1]*exp(-lscale)
> x<-c(lambda,alpha,beta)
> names(x)[1]<-"lambda"
> names(x)[2]<-"alpha"
> m<-length(para[-1])
> G<-matrix(0,nrow=m+2,ncol=m+2)
> G[1.1]<--exp(-para[1]*exp(-lscale))*exp(-lscale)
> G[2:(m+1),3:(m+2)]<-diag(m)*(-exp(-lscale))
> G[m+2,1] <-exp(-para[1]*exp(-lscale))*para[1]*exp(-lscale)
> G[m+2.2]<--exp(-lscale)
> G[m+2,3:(m+2)] <-para[-1] *exp(-lscale)
> G
Γ.17
         Γ.21
               [.3]
                               ۲.41
                                        Γ.51
[1,] -0.0003451855 0.000000 0.0000000 0.00000000 0.000000
[2,] 0.000000000 0.000000 -1.9609647 0.00000000 0.000000
[3,] 0.000000000 0.000000 0.0000000 -1.96096466 0.000000
[5.] 0.0015217418 -1.960965 -0.7031946 -0.09987639 -1.590853
> PrVar<-t(G)%*%V%*%G
> PrVar
             [,2]
                          [,3]
                                       [,4]
                                                    Γ.51
Γ.17
[1.] 3.190825e-08 -3.887838e-05 -1.289976e-05 -3.639639e-05 -4.441547e-05
[2.] -3.887838e-05 6.081677e-02 6.394915e-03 3.051432e-03 1.601443e-02
[3.] -1.289976e-05 6.394915e-03 9.124817e-02 -7.491043e-03 -8.880563e-03
[4.] -3.639639e-05 3.051432e-03 -7.491043e-03 3.436840e-01 2.017147e-01
[5,] -4,441547e-05 1.601443e-02 -8,880563e-03 2.017147e-01 2.324762e-01
```

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

Back to proportional hazard models

```
> PrStd<-sqrt(diag(PrVar))
> PrStd
[1] 0.0001786288 0.2466105616 0.3020731279 0.5862456807 0.4821578539
> PrChisa<-c(" "." ".(x[3:(m+2)]/PrStd[3:(m+2)])^2)
> PrPvalue<-c(" "," ",pchisq((x[3:(m+2)]/PrStd[3:(m+2)])^2,1,lower.tail=F))
> out<-data.frame(x,PrStd,PrChisq,PrPvalue)
> names(out)<-c("Estimate", "StdError", "Chisq", "P-value")
> 011t.
                 Estimate
                              StdError
                                                                        P-value
                                                    Chisq
lambda
             0.0001760284 0.0001786288
alpha
            1.9609646641 0.2466105616
expres
             0.7031946467 0.3020731279
                                         5.41909702045414
                                                            0.0199176582666829
factor(tnm)2 0.0998763852 0.5862456807 0.0290246050649941
                                                             0.864722237494367
factor(tnm)3 1.5908527380 0.4821578539
                                        10.8863293368624 0.000968766257431309
```

Goodness-of-fit tests

For these models, we want to verify whether a specific distribution is satisfied. Hereto we generalize some previous ideas.

• If $T|\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}))$, we have that

$$S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp(-\lambda t \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}))$$
$$\log(S(t|\mathbf{X})) = -\lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X})t.$$

 \Rightarrow Plot $\log(\hat{S}(t|\mathbf{X}))$ vs t.

• If $T|\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Weibull}(\lambda \exp(\beta^t \mathbf{X}), \alpha)$, we have that

$$S(t|\mathbf{X}) = \exp(-\lambda t^{\alpha} \exp(\beta^{t} \mathbf{X}))$$
$$\log(S(t|\mathbf{X})) = -\lambda t^{\alpha} \exp(\beta^{t} \mathbf{X})$$
$$\log(-\log(S(t|\mathbf{X}))) = \log(\lambda) + \beta^{t} \mathbf{X} + \alpha \log(t).$$

 \Rightarrow Plot $\log(-\log(\hat{S}(t|\mathbf{X})))$ vs $\log(t)$.

Other censoring schemes

Until now, we considered in the parametric models only right-censored data.

If we have a different censoring scheme, it is also possible to get results. The only change is the construction of the parametric likelihood function.

For example, if we have left-censored data (under non-informative censoring), the likelihood function has the following shape:

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)^{\delta_i} F(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)^{1-\delta_i}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \{\lambda(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)S(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)\}^{\delta_i} (1 - S(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta))^{1-\delta_i}.$$

Uther censoring schemes

Example: Tobit regression

Let us consider a sub-set of the Mroz(1987) data set.

Hours	YrsEd	YrsExp
0	8	9
0	8	12
0	9	10
0	10	15
0	11	4
0	11	6
1000	12	1
1960	12	29
0	13	3
2100	13	36
3686	14	11
1920	14	38
0	15	14
1728	16	3
1568	16	19
1316	17	7
0	17	15

Uther censoring schemes

Hereby we have that

- Hours = numbers of hours the wife worked outside the household in a given year
- YrsEd = numbers of years of education
- YrsExp = numbers of years of experience

We want to know how Hours depends on YrsEd and YrsExp:

$$Hours = \alpha + \beta_1 YrsEd + \beta_2 YrsExp + \varepsilon$$

with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

Parametric regression models in survival analysis
Other censoring schemes

Since some women do not work outside the household, we observe only left-censored observations:

$$Hours = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} Hours^* & , Hours^* > 0 \\ 0 & , Hours^* \leq 0 \end{array} \right. .$$

If we construct the likelihood function correctly, we can take this problem into account for a parametric regression.

```
data Mroz;
input Hours YrsEd YrsExp @@;
if Hours eq 0
then Lower=.;
else Lower=Hours;
datalines;
0 8 9 0 8 12 0 9 10 0 10 15 0 11 4 0 11 6
1000 12 1 1960 12 29 0 13 3 2100 13 36
3686 14 11 1920 14 38 0 15 14 1728 16 3
1568 16 19 1316 17 7 0 17 15;
run;
proc lifereg data=Mroz;
model (lower, hours) = yrsed yrsexp / d=normal;
run;
```

The LIFEREG Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.MROZ
Dependent Variable	Lower
Dependent Variable	Hours
Number of Observations	17
Noncensored Values	8
Right Censored Values	0
Left Censored Values	9
Interval Censored Values	0
Name of Distribution	Normal
Log Likelihood	-74.9369977
Number of Observations Read	17
Number of Observations Used	17

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	149.87
AIC (smaller is better)	157.87
AICC (smaller is better)	161.20
BIC (smaller is better)	161.20

Algorithm converged.

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimates

HODE MOOR

Parameter	DF	Estimate	Standard Error		nfidence nits	Chi- Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	1	-5598.64	2850.248	-11185.0	-12.2553	3.86	0.0495
YrsEd	1	373.1477	191.8872	-2.9442	749.2397	3.78	0.0518
YrsExp	1	63.3371	38.3632	-11.8533	138.5276	2.73	0.0987
Scale	1	1582.870	442.6732	914.9433	2738.397		

Introduction to Survival Analysis using R: Theory and Practice

Parametric regression models in survival analysis

Under censoring schemes

```
> MROZ<-read.table("C:/werk/Roel/Onderwijs/Theorie/GOB67AStatAnalReliaSurvData/Cursus/MROZ.txt",
header=T.sep=":")
> start<-MROZ$Hours
> start[start==0]<--Inf
> stop<-MROZ$Hours
> Surv(start,stop,type="interval2")
Γ17
      0-
                                   0- 1000 1960
                                                    0-2100 3686 1920
            0-
                 0-
                             0-
[13]
       0- 1728 1568 1316 0-
> MROZ1<-data.frame(MROZ,start,stop)
> fit<-survreg(Surv(start,stop,type="interval2")~YrsEd+YrsExp,dist="gaussian",data=MROZ1)
> summarv(fit)
Call: survreg(formula = Surv(start, stop, type = "interval2") ~ YrsEd + YrsExp,
data = MROZ1, dist = "gaussian")
              Value Std. Error
                                 z
(Intercept) -5598.64 2850.25 -1.96 4.95e-02
         373.15 191.89 1.94 5.18e-02
YrsEd
YrsExp 63.34 38.36 1.65 9.87e-02
Log(scale) 7.37 0.28 26.34 6.30e-153
Scale= 1583
Gaussian distribution
Loglik(model) = -74.9 Loglik(intercept only) = -78.6
Chisa= 7.33 on 2 degrees of freedom, p= 0.026
Number of Newton-Raphson Iterations: 4
n = 17
```