## Joint Modelling of Longitudinal and Survival Data: Tools to Evaluate Exposures and Predict Outcome Across the Lifespan

#### Eleni-Rosalina Andrinopoulou and Rhonda Szczesniak

Erasmus University Medical Center and Cincinnati Children's Hospital

material based on work by Dimitris Rizopoulos

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#### What is this Course About



- Often in follow-up studies different types of outcomes are collected
- Explicit outcomes

  - ▷ time-to-event(s) of particular interest (e.g., death, treatment)

#### What is this Course About (cont'd)



• Methods for the separate analysis of such outcomes are well established in the literature

#### • Longitudinal data:

⊳ mixed effects models, GEE, . . .

#### Survival data:

Document Cox model, accelerated failure time models, . . .

#### What is this Course About (cont'd)



Purpose of this workshop is to present the state of the art in

Joint Modeling Framework for Longitudinal and Survival Data

#### **Learning Objectives**



- Goals: After this workshop participants will be able to
  - □ identify settings in which a joint modeling approach is required,
  - > construct and fit an appropriate joint model, and
  - > correctly interpret the obtained results
- The workshop will be explanatory rather than mathematically rigorous

#### **Agenda**



- Part I: Introduction
  - Data sets that we will use throughout the course
  - ▷ Categorization of possible research questions
- Part II: (brief) Review of Linear Mixed Models
  - > Features of repeated measurements data

## Agenda (cont'd)



- Part III: (brief) Review of Relative Risk Models
  - > Features of survival data

  - > Time-dependent covariates
- Part IV: The Basic Joint Model
  - ▶ Definition
  - ▷ Estimation & Inference

## Agenda (cont'd)



- Part V: Extensions of the Basic Joint Model
  - ▶ Parameterizations
  - ∀ariable selection
  - ▷ Time-varying effcts
- Part VI: Dynamic Predictions
  - > Individualized predictions for the survival

#### Structure of the Course & Material



- Lectures & short software practicals using R package **JMbayes**
- Material (also available in

https://github.com/ERandrinopoulou/JointModelsWorkshopCincinnati2018):

- ▶ Practicals with solutions

#### References



#### • Joint modeling sources

- ▶ Rizopoulos, D. (2012). *Joint Models for Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data, with Applications in R.* Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC.
- Fitzmaurice, G., Davidian, M., Verbeke, G. and Molenberghs, G. (2009). Longitudinal Data Analysis. Handbooks of Modern Statistical Methods. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC, Chapter 15.
- Wu, L. (2009). Mixed Effects Models for Complex Data. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC, Chapter 8.
- ⊳ Ibrahim, J., Chen, M.-H. and Sinha, D. (2001). *Bayesian Survival Analysis*. New York: Springer-Verlag, Chapter 7.

#### References (cont'd)



- Useful material for package **JMbayes** 
  - ▷ a paper describing the current capabilities of the package is available on JSS
     http://dx.doi.org/10.18637/jss.v072.i07

#### References (cont'd)



- Standard texts in **longitudinal** data analysis
  - Verbeke, G. and Molenberghs, G. (2000). Linear Mixed Models for Longitudinal Data. New York: Springer-Verlag.
  - ▶ Molenberghs, G. and Verbeke, G. (2005). Models for Discrete Longitudinal Data.
    New York: Springer-Verlag.
  - Fitzmaurice, G., Laird, N., and Ware, J. (2004). Applied Longitudinal Analysis.
     Hoboken: Wiley.
  - Diggle, P., Heagerty, P., Liang, K.-Y., and Zeger, S. (2002). *Analysis of Longitudinal Data*, 2nd edition. New York: Oxford University Press.

#### References (cont'd)



- Standard texts in **survival** analysis
  - ⊳ Kalbfleisch, J. and Prentice, R. (2002). *The Statistical Analysis of Failure Time Data, 2nd Ed.*. New York: Wiley.
  - ▶ Therneau, T. and Grambsch, P. (2000). Modeling Survival Data: Extending the Cox Model. New York: Springer-Verlag.
  - ▷ Cox, D. and Oakes, D. (1984). *Analysis of Survival Data*. London: Chapman & Hall.
  - Description No. And Processes New York: Springer-Verlag. Statistical Models Based on Counting Processes. New York: Springer-Verlag. ■
  - ▶ Klein, J. and Moeschberger, M. (2003). Survival Analysis Techniques for Censored and Truncated Data. New York: Springer-Verlag.

# Chapter 1 Introduction

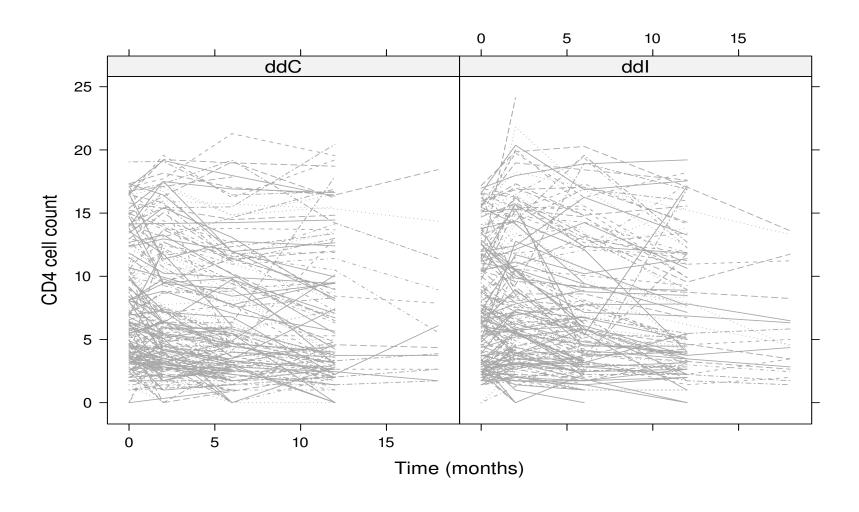
## 1.1 Motivating Studies



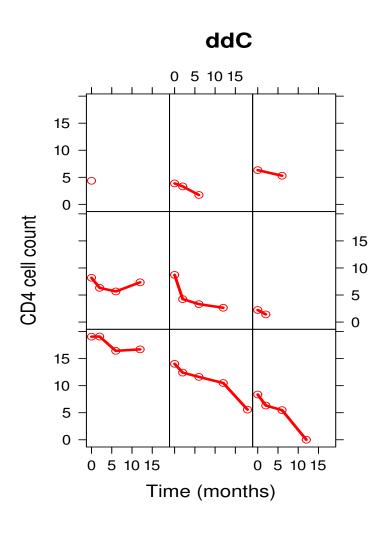
- AIDS: 467 HIV infected patients who had failed or were intolerant to zidovudine therapy (AZT) (Abrams et al., NEJM, 1994)
- The aim of this study was to compare the efficacy and safety of two alternative antiretroviral drugs, didanosine (ddl) and zalcitabine (ddC)
  - ▷ Randomized treatment: 230 patients ddl and 237 ddC
- Outcomes of interest:

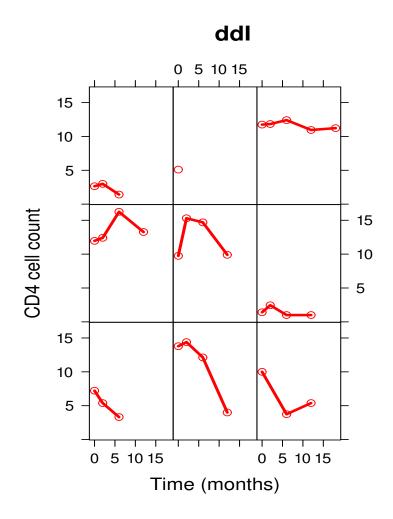
  - ▷ CD4 cell count at baseline, 2, 6, 12 and 18 months





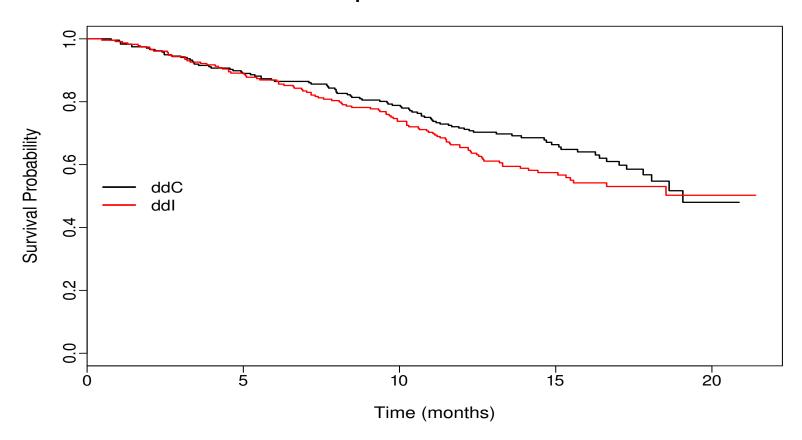








#### Kaplan-Meier Estimate





- Research Questions:

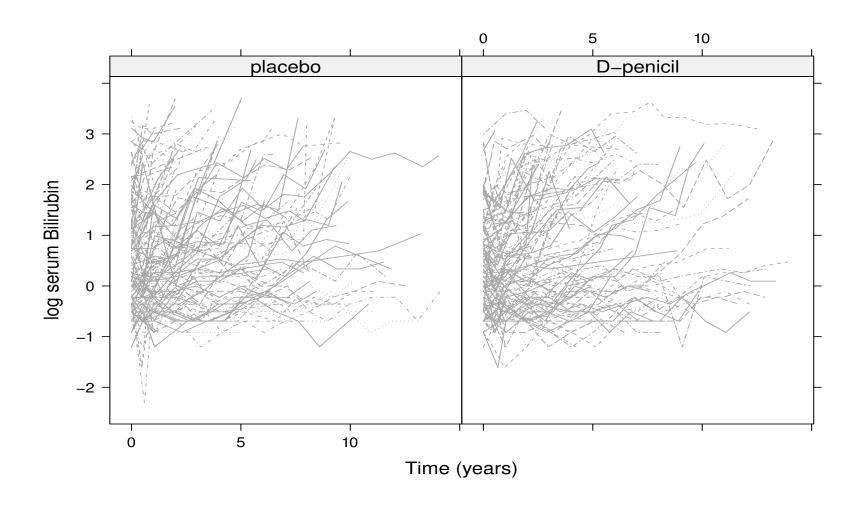
  - ▷ Is CD4 cell count a good biomarker?
    - \* if treatment improves CD4 cell count, does it also improve survival?



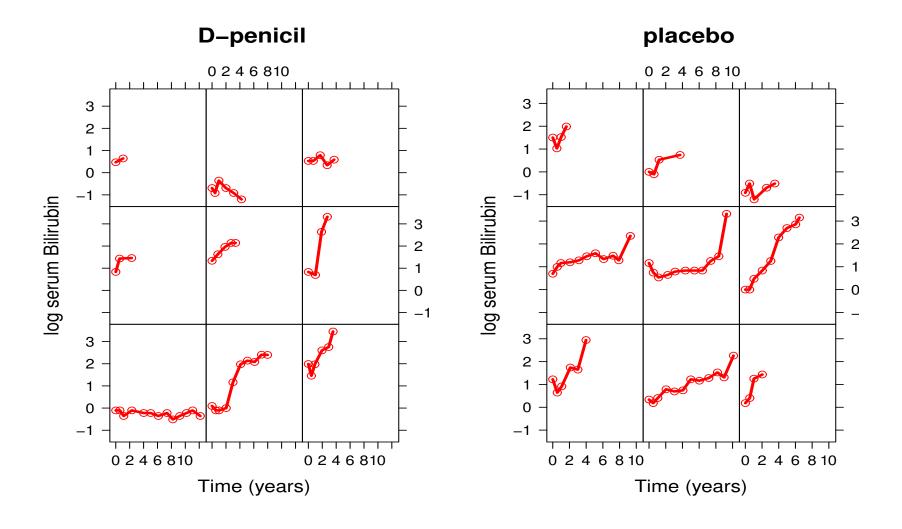
- PBC: 312 patients with Primary Biliary Cirrhosis which is a chronic, fatal but rare liver disease
- Data collected by Mayo Clinic from 1974 to 1984 (Murtaugh et al., Hepatology, 1994)
  - > Randomized treatment: 158 patients received D-penicillamine and 154 placebo
- Outcomes of interest:

  - > longitudinal serum bilirubin levels
  - **▷** longitudinal serum cholesterol levels



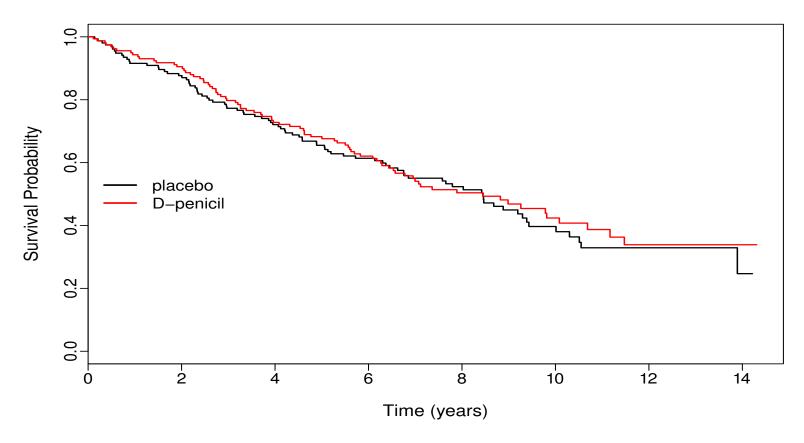








#### Kaplan-Meier Estimate





#### • Research Questions:

- > Can bilirubin and cholesterol discriminate between patients of low and high risk?

#### 1.2 Research Questions



- Depending on the questions of interest, different types of statistical analysis are required
- We will distinguish between two general types of analysis
  - > separate analysis per outcome
- Focus on each outcome separately

  - > are the average longitudinal evolutions different between the two treatments or between males and females?

## 1.2 Research Questions (cont'd)



- Focus on multiple outcomes

  - - \* which feature of the biomarker(s) is associated with the hazard of death?
    - \* how marker-specific evolutions are related to each other
  - > Prediction: can we improve prediction for the time to death by considering all available information simultaneously?

#### 1.3 Recent Developments



- Up to now emphasis has been
  - > restricted or coerced to separate analysis per outcome
  - ▷ or given to naive types of joint analysis (e.g., last observation carried forward, mean or slope of the repeated covariate, . . . )
- Main reasons
  - □ lack of appropriate statistical methodology

### 1.3 Recent Developments (cont'd)



- However, recently there has been an explosion in the statistics and biostatistics literature of joint modeling approaches
- Many different approaches have been proposed that
  - > can handle different types of outcomes
  - > can be utilized in pragmatic computing time
  - > can be rather flexible
  - > most importantly: can answer the questions of interest

## Chapter 2 Linear Mixed-Effects Models

#### 2.1 Features of Longitudinal Data



- Repeated evaluations of the same outcome in each subject over time
  - ▷ CD4 cell count in HIV-infected patients
  - > serum bilirubin and cholesterol in PBC patients
- Longitudinal studies allow to investigate
  - 1. how treatment means differ at specific time points, e.g., at the end of the study (cross-sectional effect)
  - 2. how treatment means or differences between means of treatments change over time (*longitudinal effect*)

## 2.1 Features of Longitudinal Data (cont'd)





Measurements on the same subject are expected to be (positively) correlated

• This implies that standard statistical tools, such as the *t*-test and simple linear regression that assume independent observations, are not optimal for longitudinal data analysis.

#### 2.2 The Linear Mixed Model



ullet The direct approach to model correlated data  $\Rightarrow$  *linear regression* 

$$y_i = X_i \beta + \varepsilon_i, \quad \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, V_i),$$

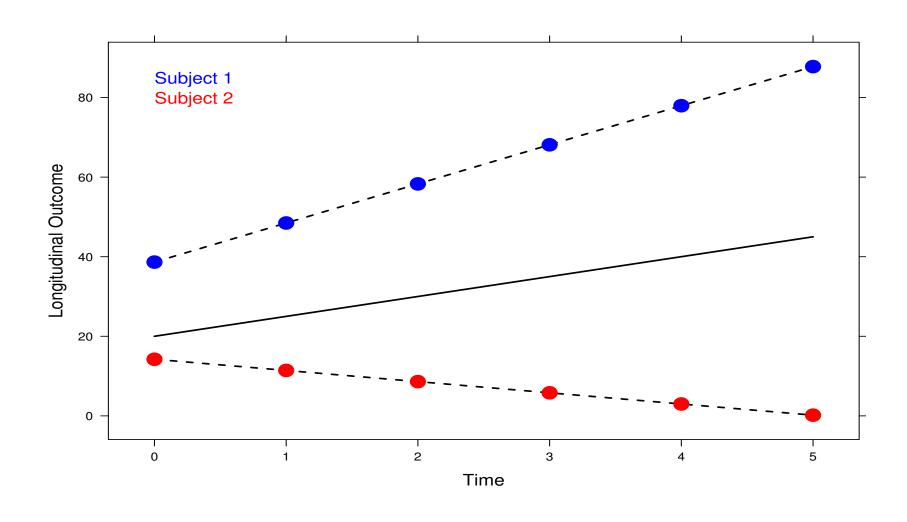
#### where

- $\triangleright y_i$  the vector of responses for the *i*th subject
- $\triangleright X_i$  design matrix describing structural component
- $\triangleright V_i$  covariance matrix describing the correlation structure
- There are several options for modeling  $V_i$ , e.g., compound symmetry, autoregressive process, exponential spatial correlation, Gaussian spatial correlation, . . .



• Alternative intuitive approach: Each subject in the population has her own subject-specific mean response profile over time







• The evolution of each subject over time can be described by a linear model

$$y_{ij} = \tilde{\beta}_{i0} + \tilde{\beta}_{i1}t_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}, \quad \varepsilon_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$$

#### where

 $\triangleright y_{ij}$  the jth response of the ith subject

 $hd \widetilde{eta}_{i0}$  is the intercept and  $\widetilde{eta}_{i1}$  the slope for subject i



• We can reformulate the model as

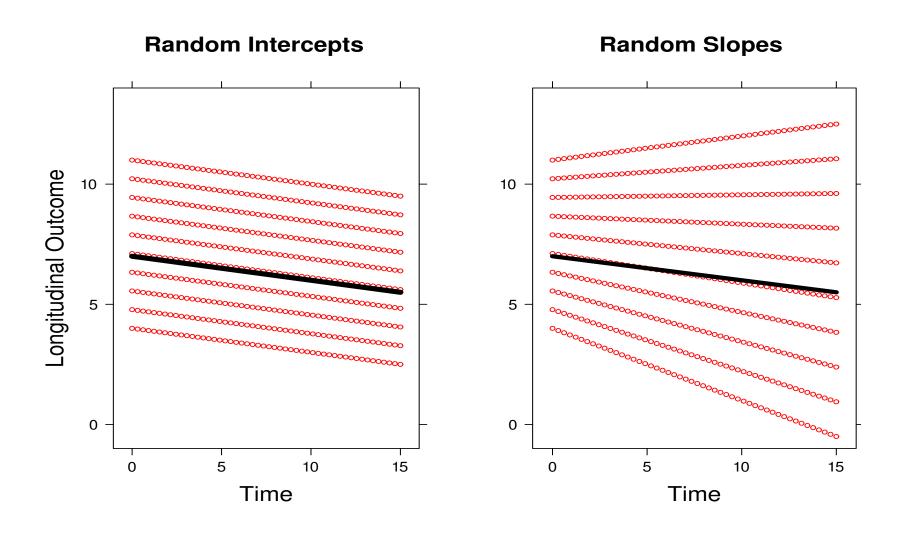
$$y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + b_{i0}) + (\beta_1 + b_{i1})t_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij},$$

#### where

- $\triangleright \beta$ s are known as the *fixed effects*
- $\triangleright b_i$ s are known as the *random effects*
- In accordance for the random effects we assume

$$b_i = \begin{bmatrix} b_{i0} \\ b_{i1} \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D)$$







• Put in a general form

$$\begin{cases} y_i = X_i \beta + Z_i b_i + \varepsilon_i, \\ \\ b_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D), \quad \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 |_{n_i}), \end{cases}$$

with

 $\triangleright X$  design matrix for the fixed effects  $\beta$ 

 $\triangleright Z$  design matrix for the random effects  $b_i$ 

$$\triangleright b_i \perp \!\!\! \perp \varepsilon_i$$



#### • Interpretation:

- $\triangleright \beta_i$  denotes the change in the average  $y_i$  when  $x_i$  is increased by one unit
- $\triangleright b_i$  are interpreted in terms of how a subset of the regression parameters for the ith subject deviates from those in the population
- Advantageous feature: population + subject-specific predictions
  - $\triangleright \beta$  describes mean response changes in the population
  - $\triangleright \beta + b_i$  describes individual response trajectories



Estimation → maximum likelihood (MLE)

• The log-likelihood of a linear mixed model takes the form

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \int p(y_i \mid b_i; \theta_y) p(b_i; \theta_b) db_i,$$

where p(.) the density function



- Example: We fit a linear mixed model for the AIDS dataset assuming
  - ▷ different average longitudinal evolutions per treatment group (fixed part)
  - > random intercepts & random slopes (random part)

$$\begin{cases} y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_{ij} + \beta_2 \{ \text{ddI}_i \times t_{ij} \} + b_{i0} + b_{i1} t_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}, \\ \\ b_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D), \quad \varepsilon_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \end{cases}$$

• Note: We did not include a main effect for treatment due to randomization





	Value	Std.Err.	t-value	p-value
$\beta_0$	7.189	0.222	32.359	< 0.001
$\beta_1$	-0.163	0.021	-7.855	< 0.001
$\beta_2$	0.028	0.030	0.952	0.342

 No evidence of differences in the average longitudinal evolutions between the two treatments

#### 2.3 Mixed-Effects Models in R



- R> There are two primary packages in R for mixed models analysis:
  - ▷ Package nlme
    - \* fits linear & nonlinear mixed effects models, and marginal models for normal data
    - \* allows for both random effects & correlated error terms
    - \* several options for covariances matrices and variance functions
  - ▷ Package Ime4
    - \* fits linear, nonlinear & generalized mixed effects models
    - \* uses only random effects
    - \* allows for nested and crossed random-effects designs



- R> We will only use package **nlme** because package **JMbayes** accepts as an argument a linear mixed model fitted by **nlme**
- R> The basic function to fit linear mixed models is lme() and has three basic arguments

  - > random: a formula specifying the random-effects structure





R> The data frame that contains all variables should be in the *long format* 

Subject	У	time	gender	age
1	5.1	0.0	male	45
1	6.3	1.1	male	45
2	5.9	0.1	female	38
2	6.9	0.9	female	38
2	7.1	1.2	female	38
2	7.3	1.5	female	38
E	•	:	:	:



R> Using formulas in R

$$ightharpoonup \mathsf{CD4} = \mathsf{Time} + \mathsf{Gender}$$
 $\Rightarrow \mathsf{cd4} \sim \mathsf{time} + \mathsf{gender}$ 

R> Note: the intercept term is included by default



R> The code used to fit the linear mixed model for the AIDS dataset (p. 28) is as follows

```
lmeFit <- lme(CD4 ~ obstime + obstime:drug, data = aids,
    random = ~ obstime | patient)</pre>
```

```
summary(lmeFit)
```



R> The same fixed-effects structure but only random intercepts

```
lme(CD4 ~ obstime + obstime:drug, data = aids,
    random = ~ 1 | patient)
```

R> The same fixed-effects structure, random intercepts & random slopes, with a diagonal covariance matrix (using the pdDiag() function)

```
lme(CD4 ~ obstime + obstime:drug, data = aids,
    random = list(patient = pdDiag(form = ~ obstime)))
```

# Chapter 3 Relative Risk Models

#### 3.1 Features of Survival Data



- The most important characteristic that distinguishes the analysis of time-to-event outcomes from other areas in statistics is **Censoring** 
  - > the event time of interest is not fully observed for all subjects under study
- Implications of censoring:
  - $\triangleright$  standard tools, such as the sample average, the t-test, and linear regression cannot be used
  - > inferences may be sensitive to misspecification of the distribution of the event times

# 3.1 Features of Survival Data (cont'd)



- Several types of censoring:
  - ▷ Location of the true event time wrt the censoring time: right, left & interval
  - ▷ Probabilistic relation between the true event time & the censoring time:
     informative & non-informative

Here we focus on non-informative right censoring

• <u>Note:</u> Survival times may often be truncated; analysis of truncated samples requires similar calculations as censoring

# 3.1 Features of Survival Data (cont'd)



- Notation (i denotes the subject)
  - $\triangleright T_i^*$  'true' time-to-event
  - $\triangleright C_i$  the censoring time (e.g., the end of the study or a random censoring time)
- Available data for each subject
  - $\triangleright$  observed event time:  $T_i = \min(T_i^*, C_i)$
  - $\triangleright$  event indicator:  $\delta_i = 1$  if event;  $\delta_i = 0$  if censored

Our aim is to make valid inferences for  $T_i^*$  but using only  $\{T_i, \delta_i\}$ 

#### 3.2 Relative Risk Models



• Relative Risk Models assume a multiplicative effect of covariates on the hazard scale, i.e.,

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp(\gamma_1 w_{i1} + \gamma_2 w_{i2} + \ldots + \gamma_p w_{ip}) \Rightarrow$$

$$\log h_i(t) = \log h_0(t) + \gamma_1 w_{i1} + \gamma_2 w_{i2} + \ldots + \gamma_p w_{ip},$$

#### where

- $\triangleright h_i(t)$  denotes the hazard of an event for patient i at time t
- $\triangleright h_0(t)$  denotes the baseline hazard
- $\triangleright w_{i1}, \ldots, w_{ip}$  a set of covariates

# 3.2 Relative Risk Models (cont'd)



• Standard MLE can be applied based on the log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \log p(T_i; \theta) + (1 - \delta_i) \log S_i(T_i; \theta),$$

which also can be re-expressed in terms of the hazard function

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \log h_i(T_i; \theta) - \int_0^{T_i} h_i(s; \theta) ds$$

where p(.) density function; S(.) survival function

Sensitivity to distributional assumptions due to censoring

# 3.2 Relative Risk Models (cont'd)



- Cox Model: We make no assumptions for the baseline hazard function
- Parameter estimates and standard errors are based on the log partial likelihood function

$$p\ell(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \Big[ \gamma^{\top} w_i - \log \Big\{ \sum_{j: T_j \ge T_i} \exp(\gamma^{\top} w_j) \Big\} \Big],$$

where only patients who had an event contribute

# 3.2 Relative Risk Models (cont'd)



• Example: For the PBC dataset we are interested in the treatment effect while correcting for sex and age effects

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp(\gamma_1 D - penic_i + \gamma_2 Female_i + \gamma_3 Age_i)$$

	Value	HR	Std.Err.	z-value	p-value
$\gamma_1$	-0.138	0.871	0.156	-0.882	0.378
$\gamma_2$	-0.493	0.611	0.207	-2.379	0.017
$\gamma_3$	0.021	1.022	0.008	2.784	0.005

#### 3.3 Relative Risk Models in R



- R> The primary package in R for the analysis of survival data is the **survival** package
- R> A key function in this package that is used to specify the available event time information in a sample at hand is Surv()
- R> For right censored failure times (i.e., what we will see in this course) we need to provide the observed event times time, and the event indicator status, which equals 1 for true failure times and 0 for right censored times

Surv(time, status)

# 3.3 Relative Risk Models in R (cont'd)



R> Cox models are fitted using function coxph(). For instance, for the PBC data the following code fits the Cox model that contains the main effects of 'drug', 'sex' and 'age':

R> The two main arguments are a formula specifying the design matrix of the model and a data frame containing all the variables

#### 3.4 Time Dependent Covariates



- Often interest in the association between a time-dependent covariate and the risk of an event
  - ▷ treatment changes with time (e.g., dose)

  - > markers of disease or patient condition (e.g., blood pressure, PSA levels)

▷ . . .

• Example: In the PBC study, are the longitudinal bilirubin measurements associated with the hazard of death?



- To answer our questions of interest we need to postulate a model that relates
  - be the serum bilirubin with
  - the time-to-death

- The association between **baseline** marker levels and the risk of death can be estimated with standard statistical tools (e.g., Cox regression)
- When we move to the time-dependent setting, a more **careful consideration** is required



- There are two types of time-dependent covariates (Kalbfleisch and Prentice, 2002, Section 6.3)
  - $\triangleright$  Exogenous (aka external): the future path of the covariate up to any time t>s is not affected by the occurrence of an event at time point s, i.e.,

$$\Pr\{\mathcal{Y}_i(t) \mid \mathcal{Y}_i(s), T_i^* \ge s\} = \Pr\{\mathcal{Y}_i(t) \mid \mathcal{Y}_i(s), T_i^* = s\},$$

where 
$$0 < s \le t$$
 and  $\mathcal{Y}_i(t) = \{y_i(s), 0 \le s < t\}$ 

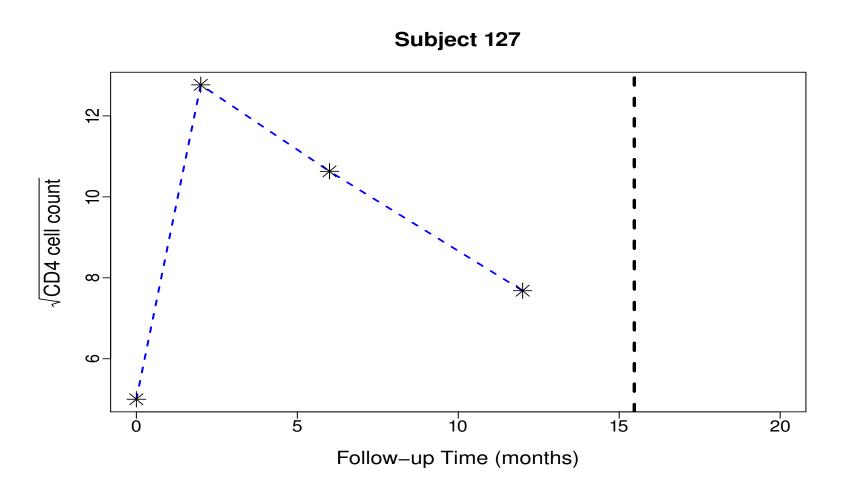
▷ Endogenous (aka internal): not Exogenous



- It is **very important** to distinguish between these two types of time-dependent covariates, because the type of covariate dictates the appropriate type of analysis
- In our motivating examples all time-varying covariates are Biomarkers ⇒ These are always endogenous covariates

  - b the complete history is not available
  - > existence directly related to failure status





#### 3.5 Extended Cox Model



• The Cox model presented earlier can be extended to handle time-dependent covariates using the counting process formulation

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{Y}_i(t), w_i) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \alpha y_i(t)\},\$$

where

 $\triangleright y_i(t)$  denotes the value of the time-varying covariate at t



• Interpretation:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{Y}_i(t), w_i) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha y_i(t)\}$$

 $\exp(\alpha)$  denotes the relative increase in the risk of an event at time t that results from one unit increase in  $y_i(t)$  at the same time point



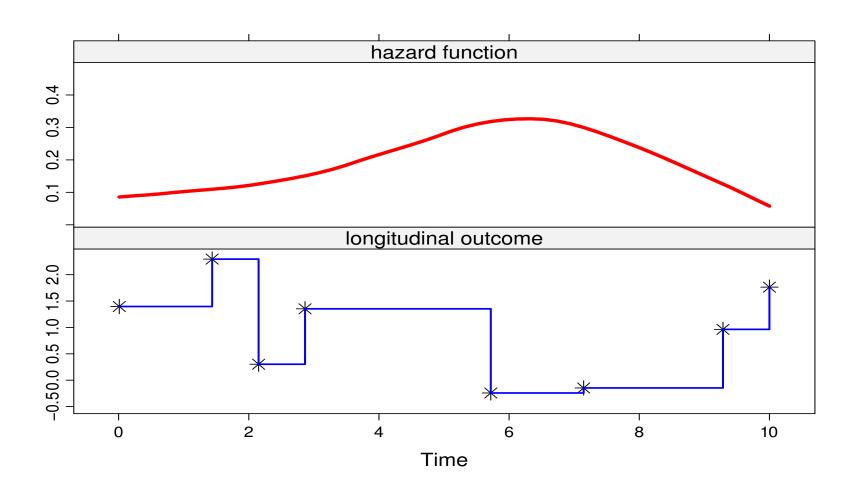
• Typically, data must be organized in the long format

Patient	Start	Stop	Event	$y_i(t)$	Age
1	0	135	1	5.5	45
2	0	65	0	2.2	38
2	65	120	0	3.1	38
2	120	155	1	4.1	38
3	0	115	0	2.5	29
3	115	202	0	2.9	29
<u>:</u>	÷	:	i	i	:



- How does the extended Cox model handle time-varying covariates?
  - > assumes no measurement error
  - ▷ step-function path
  - > existence of the covariate is not related to failure status





### 3.5 Extended Cox Model (cont'd)



• Therefore, the extended Cox model is only valid for exogenous time-dependent covariates

Treating endogenous covariates as exogenous may produce spurious results!

#### 3.5 Extended Cox Model (cont'd)



Quiz 1: Is treatment an endogenous or an exogenous time-dependent variable?

# Chapter 4 The Basic Joint Model

#### 4.1 Joint Modeling Framework

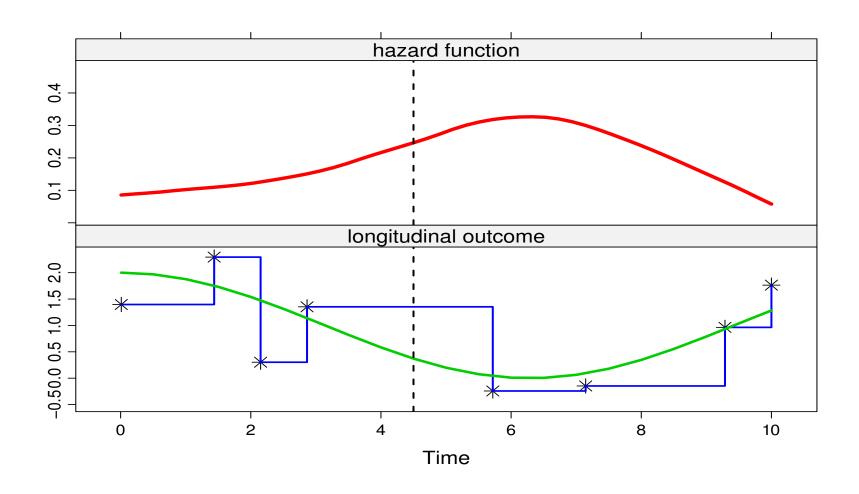


 To account for the special features of endogenous covariates a new class of models has been developed

Joint Models for Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data

- Intuitive idea behind these models
  - 1. use an appropriate model to describe the evolution of the marker over time for each patient
  - 2. the estimated evolutions are then used in a Cox model
- Feature: Marker levels are **not** assumed constant between visits







Some notation

 $\triangleright T_i^*$ : True event time for patient i

 $\triangleright T_i$ : Observed event time for patient i

 $\triangleright \delta_i$ : Event indicator, i.e., equals 1 for true events

 $\triangleright y_i$ : Longitudinal responses

• We will formulate the joint model in 3 steps — in particular, ...



- Step 1: From the observed longitudinal response  $y_i(t)$  reconstruct the covariate history for each subject
- Then, we can define a mixed effects model (we focus, for now, on continuous markers)

$$y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t)$$
  
=  $x_i^{\top}(t)\beta + z_i^{\top}(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \quad \varepsilon_i(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$ 

#### where

 $\triangleright x_i(t)$  and  $\beta$ : Fixed-effects part

 $\triangleright z_i(t)$  and  $b_i$ : Random-effects part,  $b_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,D)$ 



• Step 2: Let's assume that we know  $m_i(t)$ , i.e., the *true* & *unobserved* value of the marker at time t

• Then, we can define a standard relative risk model

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\},$$

where

- $\triangleright \mathcal{M}_i(t) = \{m_i(s), 0 \le s < t\}$  longitudinal history
- hd lpha quantifies the strength of the association between the marker and the risk of an event
- $\triangleright w_i$  baseline covariates



- Step 3: The two processes are associated ⇒ define a model for their joint distribution
- Joint Models (JM) for such joint distributions are of the following form (Tsiatis & Davidian, Stat. Sinica, 2004)

$$p(y_i, T_i, \delta_i) = \int p(y_i \mid b_i) \{h(T_i \mid b_i)^{\delta_i} S(T_i \mid b_i)\} p(b_i) db_i,$$

#### where

- $\triangleright b_i$  a vector of random effects that explains the interdependencies
- $\triangleright p(\cdot)$  density function;  $S(\cdot)$  survival function



- Key assumption: Full Conditional Independence ⇒ random effects explain all interdependencies
  - > the longitudinal outcome is independent of the time-to-event outcome
  - by the repeated measurements in the longitudinal outcome are independent of each other

$$p(y_i, T_i, \delta_i \mid \mathbf{b_i}) = p(y_i \mid \mathbf{b_i}) \ p(T_i, \delta_i \mid \mathbf{b_i})$$
$$p(y_i \mid \mathbf{b_i}) = \prod_j p(y_{ij} \mid \mathbf{b_i})$$



• The survival function, which is a part of the likelihood of the model, depends on the whole longitudinal history

$$S_i(t \mid b_i) = \exp\left(-\int_0^t h_0(s) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(s)\} ds\right)$$

- Therefore, care in the definition of the design matrices of the mixed model
  - $\triangleright$  when subjects have nonlinear profiles  $\Rightarrow$
  - > use splines or polynomials to model them flexibly



- ullet Assumptions for the baseline hazard function  $h_0(t)$ 
  - $\triangleright$  parametric  $\Rightarrow$  possibly restrictive
  - □ unspecified ⇒ within JM framework underestimates standard errors
- It is advisable to use parametric but flexible models for  $h_0(t)$ 
  - ▷ splines

$$\log h_0(t) = \gamma_{h_0,0} + \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \gamma_{h_0,q} B_q(t,v),$$

where

- \*  $B_q(t,v)$  denotes the q-th basis function of a B-spline with knots  $v_1,\ldots,v_Q$
- \*  $\gamma_{h_0}$  a vector of spline coefficients



- The censoring and visiting\* processes are assumed non-informative:
- Decision to withdraw from the study or appear for the next visit

  - ▶ no additional dependence on underlying, latent subject characteristics associated with prognosis

<sup>\*</sup>The visiting process is defined as the mechanism (stochastic or deterministic) that generates the time points at which longitudinal measurements are collected.

#### 4.2 Estimation



- Mainly maximum likelihood but also Bayesian approaches
- The log-likelihood contribution for subject *i*:

$$\ell_i(\theta) = \log \int \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} p(y_{ij} \mid b_i; \theta) \right\} \left\{ h(T_i \mid b_i; \theta)^{\delta_i} S_i(T_i \mid b_i; \theta) \right\} p(b_i; \theta) db_i,$$

where

$$S_i(t \mid b_i; \theta) = \exp\left(-\int_0^t h_0(s; \theta) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(s)\} ds\right)$$

#### 4.3 Introduction to Bayesian\*



• Bayes theorem

$$p(\mathsf{B} \mid \mathsf{A}) = \frac{p(\mathsf{A} \mid \mathsf{B}) * p(\mathsf{B})}{p(\mathsf{A})}$$

### 4.3 Introduction to Bayesian\* (cont'd)



• Bayes theorem

$$p(\text{hypothesis} \mid \text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data} \mid \text{hypothesis}) * p(\text{hypothesis})}{p(\text{data})}$$

where hypothesis is typically something unobserved or unknown. It's what you want to learn about using the data.

For regression models, the "hypothesis" is a parameter (intercept, slopes or error terms).

Bayes theorem tells you the probability of the hypothesis given the data.

### 4.3 Introduction to Bayesian\* (cont'd)



• How plausible is some hypothesis given the data?

$$p(\text{hypothesis} \mid \text{data}) \ = \ \frac{p(\text{data} \mid \text{hypothesis}) * p(\text{hypothesis})}{p(\text{data})} \\ \propto \ p(\text{data} \mid \text{hypothesis}) * p(\text{hypothesis})$$

• Renaming...

posterior 
$$\propto$$
 data  $*$  prior

Bayes' theorem provides a systematic way to update our knowledge as we encounter new data.

### 4.3 Introduction to Bayesian\* (cont'd)



# Quiz 2: What do you see in the following picture? Are you a Bayesian or not?



#### 4.4 Bayesian Estimation



- Bayesian estimation
  - $\triangleright$  under the Bayesian paradigm both  $\theta$  and  $b_i$   $\{i=1,\ldots,n\}$  are regarded as parameters
- Inference is based on the full posterior distribution

$$p(\theta, b \mid T, \delta, y) = \frac{\prod_{i} p(T_{i}, \delta_{i} \mid b_{i}; \theta) p(y_{i} \mid b_{i}; \theta) p(b_{i}; \theta) p(\theta)}{\prod_{i} p(T_{i}, \delta_{i}, y_{i})}$$

$$\propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ p(T_i, \delta_i \mid b_i; \theta) \; p(y_i \mid b_i; \theta) \; p(b_i; \theta) \right\} \; p(\theta)$$

### 4.4 Bayesian Estimation (cont'd)



- For the standard joint model we have define thus far, the majority of the parameters can be updated using Gibbs sampling (or slice sampling)  $\Rightarrow$  MCMC
  - > when no close-form posterior conditionals are available, we can use the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm
- Good proposal distributions can be obtained from the separate fits of the two submodels

#### 4.4 Bayesian Estimation (cont'd)



- Inference then proceeds in the usual manner from the MCMC output, e.g.,
  - > posterior means, variances, and standard errors
  - > credible intervals

  - ⊳ DIC, CPO

▷ . . .

#### 4.5 Comparison with the TD Cox



• Example: To illustrate the virtues of joint modeling, we compare it with the standard time-dependent Cox model for the AIDS data

$$\begin{cases} y_i(t) &= m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 \{t \times \text{ddI}_i\} + b_{i0} + b_{i1} t + \varepsilon_i(t), \qquad \varepsilon_i(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2), \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} h_i(t) &= h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma \text{ddI}_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \end{cases}$$

where

 $\triangleright h_0(t)$  is assumed P-splines







	JMbayes	Cox
	log HR (std.err)	log HR (std.err)
Treat	0.342 (0.008)	0.309 (0.147)
$CD4^{1/2}$	-0.297 (0.002)	-0.193 (0.024)

• Clearly, there is a considerable effect of ignoring the measurement error, especially for the CD4 cell counts

### 4.5 Comparison with the TD Cox (cont'd)





- A unit decrease in CD4 $^{1/2}$ , results in a

  - ► Time-Dependent Cox: 1.2-fold increase in risk (95% CI: 1.16; 1.27)

#### Which one to believe?

> a lot of theoretical and simulation work has shown that the Cox model underestimates the true association size of markers

#### 4.6 Joint Models in R



R> Joint models are fitted using function jointModelBayes() from package
JMbayes. This function accepts as main arguments a linear mixed model and a Cox
PH model based on which it fits the corresponding joint model

```
lmeFit <- lme(CD4 ~ obstime + obstime:drug,
    random = ~ obstime | patient, data = aids)

coxFit <- coxph(Surv(Time, death) ~ drug, data = aids.id, x = TRUE)

jointFit <- jointModelBayes(lmeFit, coxFit, timeVar = "obstime",
    baseHaz = c("P-splines"))

summary(jointFit)</pre>
```



- R> As before, the data frame given in lme() should be in the long format, while the data frame given to coxph() should have one line per subject\*
  - > the ordering of the subjects needs to be the same
- R> In the call to coxph() you need to set x = TRUE (or model = TRUE) such that the design matrix used in the Cox model is returned in the object fit
- R> Argument timeVar specifies the time variable in the linear mixed model

\* Unless you want to include exogenous time-varying covariates or handle competing risks



R> Argument baseHaz specifies the type of relative risk model

#### Available options are:

- ▷ "regression-splines": B-spline basis function
- ▷ "P-splines": B-spline basis function with penatlies (P-splines)



- R> details about **JMbayes**:

  - > allows for categorical longitudinal data as well
  - > allows for general transformation functions
  - > penalized B-splines for the baseline hazard function

 $\triangleright$  . . .



R> In both packages methods are available for the majority of the standard generic functions + extras

```
> summary(), anova(), vcov(), logLik()
> coef(), fixef(), ranef()
> fitted(), residuals()
> plot()
> xtable() (you need to load package xtable first)
```

# Chapter 5 Extensions of Joint Models

#### 5.1 Parameterizations

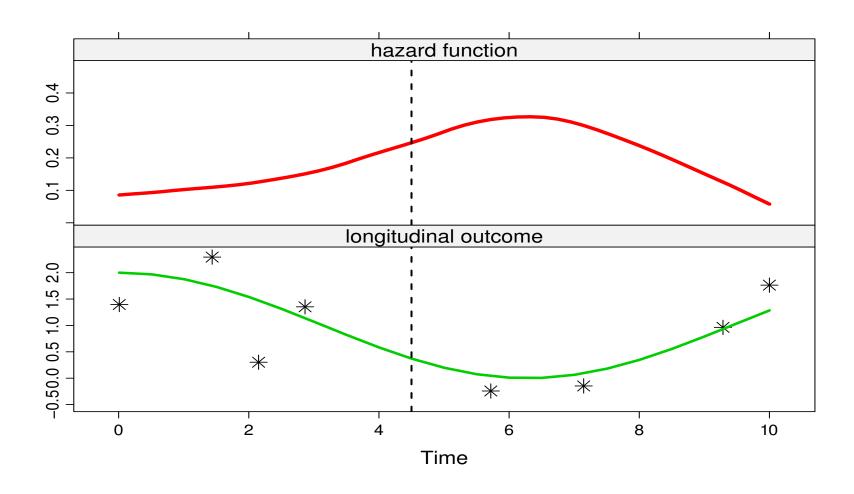


The standard joint model

$$\begin{cases} h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \\ y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ = x_i^\top(t)\beta + z_i^\top(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \end{cases}$$

where 
$$\mathcal{M}_{i}(t) = \{m_{i}(s), 0 \leq s < t\}$$







The standard joint model

$$\begin{cases} h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \\ y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ = x_i^\top(t)\beta + z_i^\top(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \end{cases}$$

where  $\mathcal{M}_{i}(t) = \{m_{i}(s), 0 \leq s < t\}$ 

Is this the only option? Is this the most optimal choice?



- <u>Note:</u> Inappropriate modeling of time-dependent covariates may result in surprising results
- Example: Cavender et al. (1992, J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.) conducted an analysis to test the effect of cigarette smoking on survival of patients who underwent coronary artery surgery
  - by the estimated effect of current cigarette smoking was positive on survival although not significant (i.e., patients who smoked had higher probability of survival)
  - > most of those who had died were smokers but many stopped smoking at the last follow-up before their death



We need to carefully consider the functional form of time-dependent covariates

• Let's see some possibilities. . .



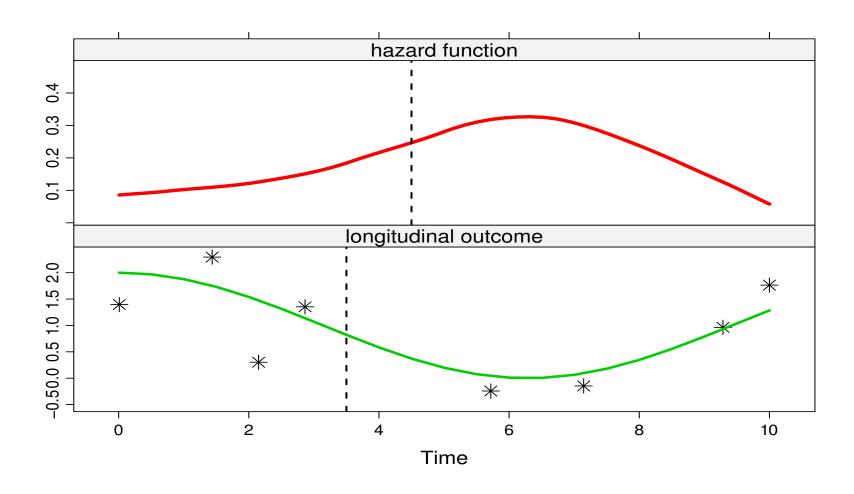
• Lagged Effects: The hazard of an event at t is associated with the level of the marker at a previous time point:

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \alpha m_i(t_+^c)\},$$

where

$$t_+^c = \max(t - c, 0)$$







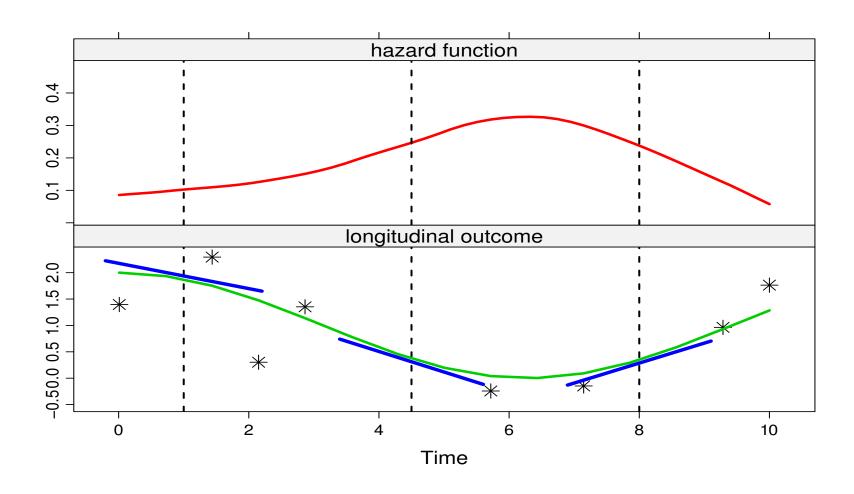
• Time-dependent Slopes: The hazard of an event at t is associated with both the current value and the slope of the trajectory at t (Ye et al., 2008, Biometrics):

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t) + \alpha_2 m_i'(t)\},$$

where

$$m_i'(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \{ x_i^{\top}(t)\beta + z_i^{\top}(t)b_i \}$$





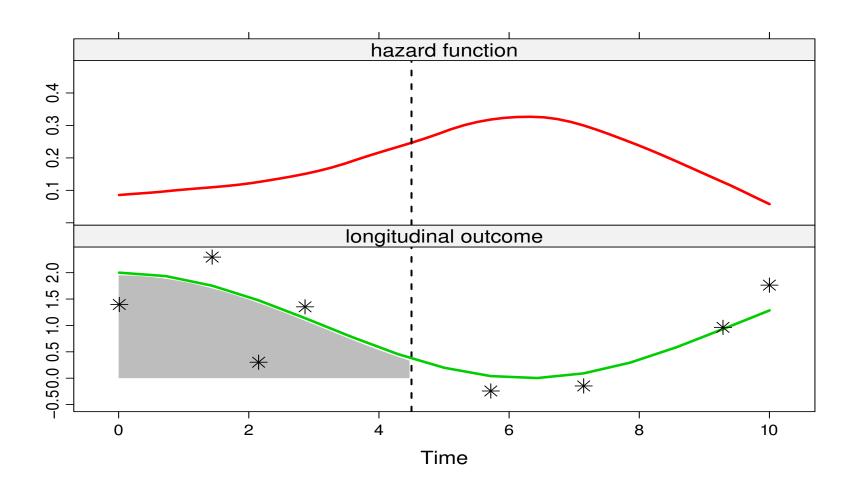


• *Cumulative Effects:* The hazard of an event at t is associated with the whole area under the trajectory up to t:

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha \int_0^t m_i(s) ds\right\}$$

ullet Area under the longitudinal trajectory taken as a summary of  $\mathcal{M}_i(t)$ 







• Weighted Cumulative Effects (convolution): The hazard of an event at t is associated with the area under the weighted trajectory up to t:

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha \int_0^t \overline{w}(t-s) m_i(s) ds\right\},$$

where  $\varpi(\cdot)$  an appropriately chosen weight function, e.g.,

- ▷ Student's-t density

▷ ...



• Random Effects: The hazard of an event at t is associated only with the random effects of the longitudinal model:

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp(\gamma^{\top} w_i + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\top} \boldsymbol{b_i})$$

- Features:
  - > avoids numerical integration for the survival function
  - $\triangleright$  interpretation of  $\alpha$  more difficult, especially in high-dimensional random-effects settings



- Example: Sensitivity of inferences for the longitudinal process to the choice of the parameterization for the AIDS data
- We use the same mixed model as before, i.e.,

$$y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t)$$

$$= \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 \{t \times ddI_i\} + b_{i0} + b_{i1}t + \varepsilon_i(t)$$

and the following four survival submodels



Model I (current value)

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma ddI_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t)\}$$

Model II (current value + current slope)

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma \operatorname{dd} \mathbf{I}_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t) + \alpha_2 m_i'(t)\},\$$

where

$$\triangleright m_i'(t) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{ddI}_i + b_{i1}$$



Model III (random slope)

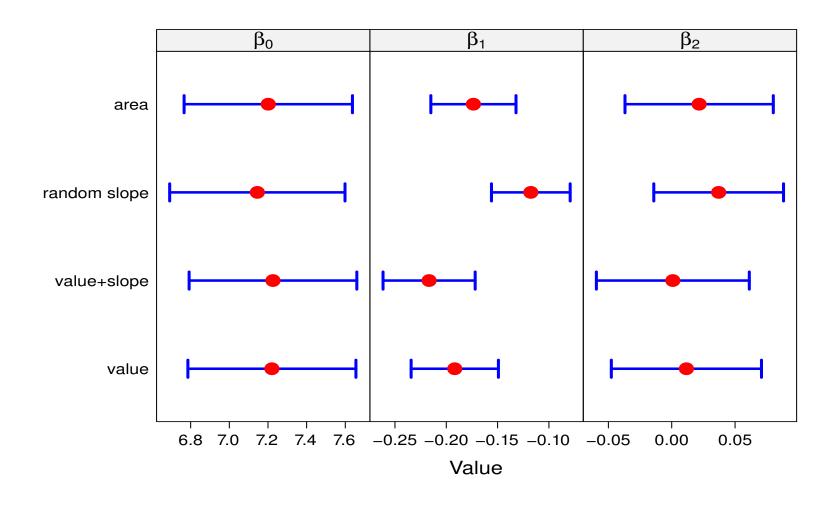
$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp{\gamma \operatorname{dd} \mathbf{I}_i + \alpha_3 b_{i1}}$$

Model IV (area)

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp \left\{ \gamma dd \mathbf{I}_i + \alpha_4 \int_0^t m_i(s) ds \right\},$$

where







- There are noticeable differences between the parameterizations
  - ▷ especially in the slope parameters
- Therefore, a sensitivity analysis should not stop at the standard joint model parameterization but also consider alternative association structures

#### 5.2 Parameterizations in R



- R> Lagged effects can be fitted using the lag argument of jointModelBayes(). For example, the following code fits a joint model for the PBC dataset with
  - > random intercepts and random slopes for log serum bilirubin, and
  - > a relative risk model with P-splines baseline hazard and the *true* effect at the previous year

## 5.2 Parameterizations in R (cont'd)



- R> For the time-dependent slopes and cumulative effects parameterizations, arguments param and extraForm of jointModelBayes() should be used
  - ▷ Options are

```
* param = "td-value"
* param = "td-extra"
* param = "td-both"
* param = "shared-betasRE"
* param = "shared-RE"
```

#### 5.2 Parameterizations in R (cont'd)



R> Include also the slope of the longitudinal biomarker

```
dform = list(fixed = ~ 1, random = ~ 1,
    indFixed = 2, indRandom = 2)

jointFit2 <- jointModelBayes(lmeFit, coxFit, timeVar = "year",
    param = "td-both", extraForm = dform, baseHaz = "P-splines")

summary(jointFit2)</pre>
```

#### 5.3 Multiple Biomarkers



- So far we have concentrated on a single continuous marker
- But very often we may have several markers we wish to study, some of which could be categorical
- Example: In the PBC dataset we have used serum bilirubin as the most important marker, but during follow-up several other markers have been recorded
  - > serum cholesterol (continuous)

  - ▷ ascites (2 categories)

 $\triangleright$  . . .

## 5.3 Multiple Biomarkers (cont'd)



#### We need to extend the basic joint model!

- To handle multiple longitudinal markers of different types we use Generalized Linear Mixed Models
  - $\triangleright$  We assume  $Y_{i1}, \ldots, Y_{iJ}$  for each subject, each one having a distribution in the exponential family, with expected value

$$m_{ij}(t) = E(y_{ij}(t) \mid b_{ij}) = g_j^{-1} \{ x_{ij}^{\top}(t) \beta_j + z_{ij}^{\top}(t) b_{ij} \},$$

with  $g(\cdot)$  denoting a link function

## 5.3 Multiple Biomarkers (cont'd)



▷ Correlation between the outcomes is built by assuming a multivariate normal distribution for the random effects

$$b_i = (b_{i1}^\top, \dots, b_{iJ}^\top)^\top \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D)$$

 The expected value of each longitudinal marker is incorporated in the linear predictor of the survival submodel

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_j m_{ij}(t)\},$$

where 
$$\mathcal{M}_{i}(t) = \{m_{ij}(s), 0 \le s < t, 1 \le j \le J\}$$

#### 5.4 Multiple Biomarkers in R



- R> Joint models for multiple longitudinal outcomes can be fitted with function
  mvJointModelBayes() from package JMbayes
  - The use of this function mimics the one of jointModelBayes() but with some small differences, namely
    - b we fit a multivariate mixed model using mvglmer(),
    - b following we fit a Cox model using coxph(), and
    - □ and we give the resulting objects as input in mvJointModelBayes()

#### 5.4 Multiple Biomarkers in R (cont'd)



R> An example for the PBC dataset using serum bilirubin (continuous) and spiders (binary)

#### 5.4 Multiple Biomarkers in R (cont'd)



- R> Function mvJointModelBayes() also allows for
  - ▷ right, left, interval censored data
  - ▷ left truncated data

#### 5.5 Variable Selection



- Note: In the previous extension of joint models,

we used the default parameterization that includes the current value term  $m_i(t)$  in the linear predictor of the survival submodel(s)

Nonetheless, all the other parameterizations we have seen earlier are also applicable

#### 5.5 Variable Selection (cont'd)



• For example in the case of multiple longitudinal outcomes

$$g_j[E\{y_{ij}(t) \mid b_{ij}\}] = m_{ij}(t) = x_{ij}^{\top}(t)\beta_j + z_{ij}^{\top}(t)b_{ij}$$

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{l=1}^L f_{jl}(m_{ij}(t), \boldsymbol{\alpha_{jl}})\right\}$$

where 
$$\mathcal{M}_{i}(t) = \{m_{ij}(s), 0 \le s < t, 1 \le j \le J\}$$

## 5.5 Variable Selection (cont'd)



- In this case we face a challenging model selection problem
- Different possible solutions
  - ▷ lasso
  - ⊳ ridge
  - ▷ horseshoe
  - ▷ . . .

#### 5.6 Variable Selection in R



- R> Function mvJointModelBayes() also allows to consider multiple parameterization per outcome in a similar manned as jointModelBayes() does
- R> It also implements a global-local ridge-type prior for the association parameters

$$\alpha_{il} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau \psi_{il})$$

$$\tau^{-1} \sim Gamma(0.1, 0.1)$$

$$\psi_{jl}^{-1} \sim Gamma(1, 0.01)$$

#### 5.6 Variable Selection in R (cont'd)



R> An example for the PBC dataset using serum bilirubin (continuous) and spiders (binary)

```
Forms <- list("log(serBilir)" = "value",
               "log(serBilir)" = list(fixed = ~ 1, random = ~ 1,
                                  indFixed = 2, indRandom = 2, name = "slope"),
               "spiders" = list(fixed = ^{\sim} 0 + year + I(year^{\sim}2/2), random = ^{\sim} 0 + year,
                            indFixed = 1:2, indRandom = 1, name = "area"))
multJMFit2 <- update(multJMFit, Formulas = Forms)</pre>
summary(multJMFit2)
Ints <- list("log(serBilir)" = ~ drug, "log(serBilir)_slope" = ~ drug,</pre>
              "spiders_area" = ~ drug)
multJMFit3 <- update(multJMFit2, Interactions = Ints,</pre>
               priors = list(shrink_alphas = TRUE))
summary(multJMFit3)
```

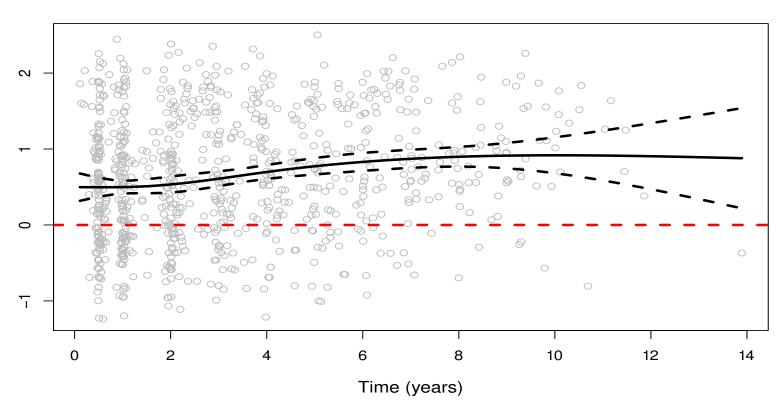
## 5.7 Time-Varying Association



- Standard joint models assume a constant regression coefficient for the effect of the covariates.
  - by when treatment is initiated, the strength of the association between the longitudinal and survival outcomes may also change



#### Time-varying coefficient for log Serum Bilirubin





A time-varying coefficient joint model



Specifically,

$$h_i\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)\} = h_0(t) \exp[\gamma^{\top} w_i + \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{l=1}^L f_{j\ell}\{m_{ij}(t), \frac{\lambda_{j\ell}(t)}{\lambda_{j\ell}(t)}\}],$$

#### where

- $w_i$  is a vector of baseline covariates with a corresponding vector of regression coefficients  $\pmb{\gamma}$
- $f_{j\ell}\{m_{ij}(t), \frac{\lambda_{j\ell}(t)}{\lambda_{j\ell}(t)}\}$  is the outcome (j = 1, ..., J) and the form of association ( $\ell = 1, \ldots, L$ ) between the longitudinal and the survival outcomes



• We consider estimation of the function  $\lambda_{j\ell}(t)$  using the regression P-spline method, where

$$\lambda_{j\ell}(t) = \sum_{u=1}^{U} \alpha_u B_u(t, \nu),$$

#### where

- $\alpha_u$  is a set of parameters that capture the strength of association between the longitudinal and survival outcomes
- $B_u(t,
  u)$  denotes the q-th basis function of a B-spline with knots  $u_1,\dots,
  u_Q$
- The idea behind the P-spline method is to assume a high number of knots and penalize the coefficients to tackle the problem of the large number or parameters.

#### 5.8 Time-Varying Association in R



R> An example for the PBC dataset using serum bilirubin (continuous) and spiders (binary)

# Chapter 6 Dynamic Predictions

#### 6.1 Survival Probabilities



 Nowadays there is great interest for prognostic models and their application to personalized medicine

• Examples are numerous

> cancer research, cardiovascular diseases, HIV research, . . .

Physicians are interested in accurate prognostic tools that will inform them about the future prospect of a patient in order to adjust medical care

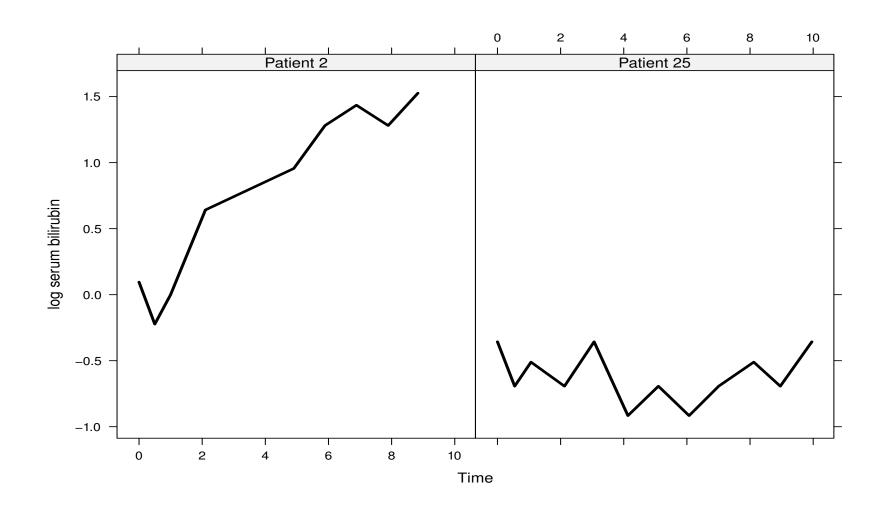
## 6.1 Survival Probabilities (cont'd)



- ullet We are interested in predicting survival probabilities for a new patient j that has provided a set of serum bilirubin measurements up to a specific time point t
- Example: We consider Patients 2 and 25 from the PBC dataset that have provided us with 9 and 12 serum bilirubin measurements, respectively
  - Dynamic Prediction survival probabilities are dynamically updated as additional longitudinal information is recorded
- We need to account for the endogenous nature of the marker
  - $\triangleright$  providing measurements up to time point  $t\Rightarrow$  the patient was still alive at time t

## 6.1 Survival Probabilities (cont'd)





# 6.1 Survival Probabilities (cont'd)



ullet More formally, for a new subject j we have available measurements up to time point t

$$\mathcal{Y}_j(t) = \{y_j(s), 0 \le s \le t\}$$

and we are interested in

$$\pi_j(u \mid t) = \Pr\{T_j^* \ge u \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t), \mathcal{D}_n\},\$$

where

 $\triangleright$  where u > t, and

 $riangleright \mathcal{D}_n$  denotes the sample on which the joint model was fitted

# 6.1 Survival Probabilities (cont'd)



- We assume that the joint model has been fitted to the data at hand
- Based on the fitted model we can estimate the conditional survival probabilities (Rizopoulos, 2011, Biometrics)

## 6.2 Dynamic Predictions in R



• Example: Dynamic predictions of survival probabilities for Patients 2 and 25 from the PBC dataset: We fit the joint model

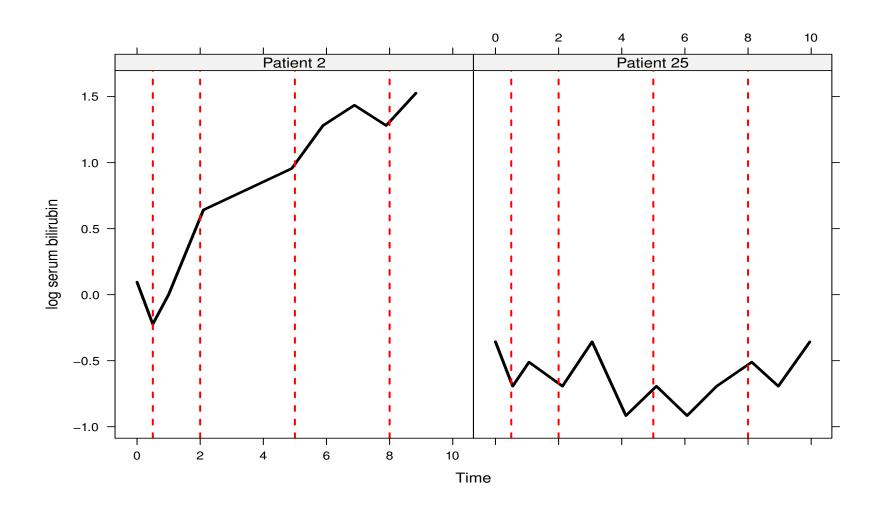
### Longitudinal submodel

- > random effects: Intercept, linear & quadratic time effects

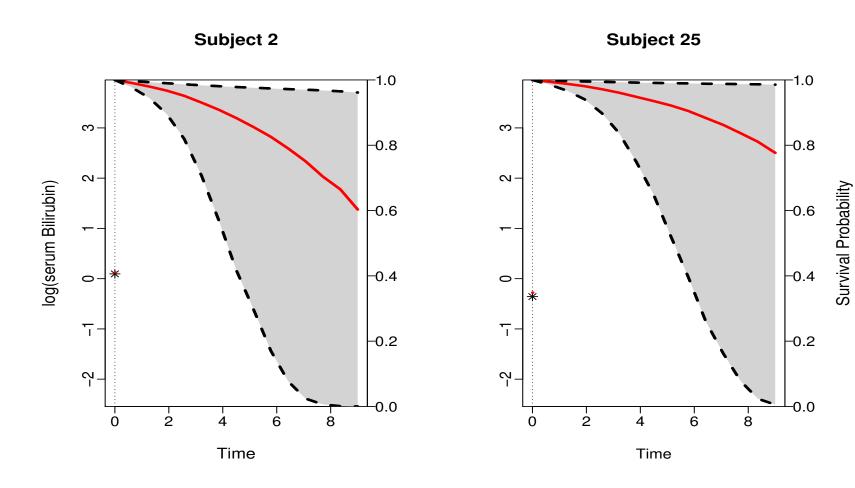
#### Survival submodel

- ▷ treatment effect + underlying serum bilirubin level
- ⊳ P-splines

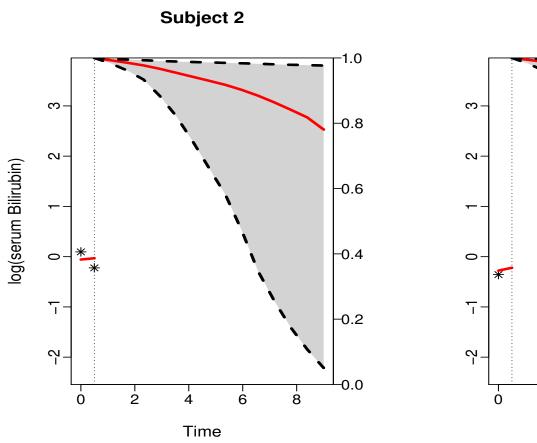


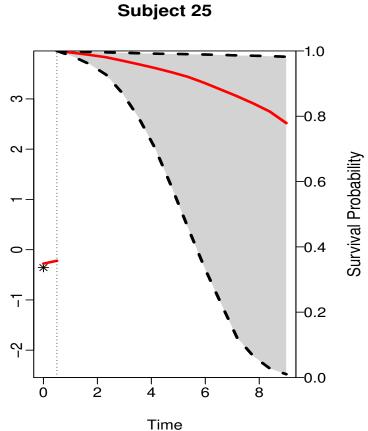




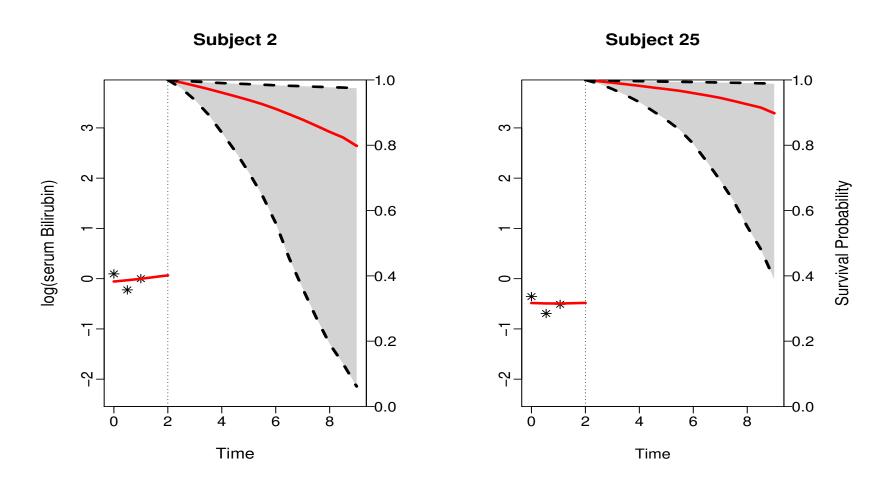




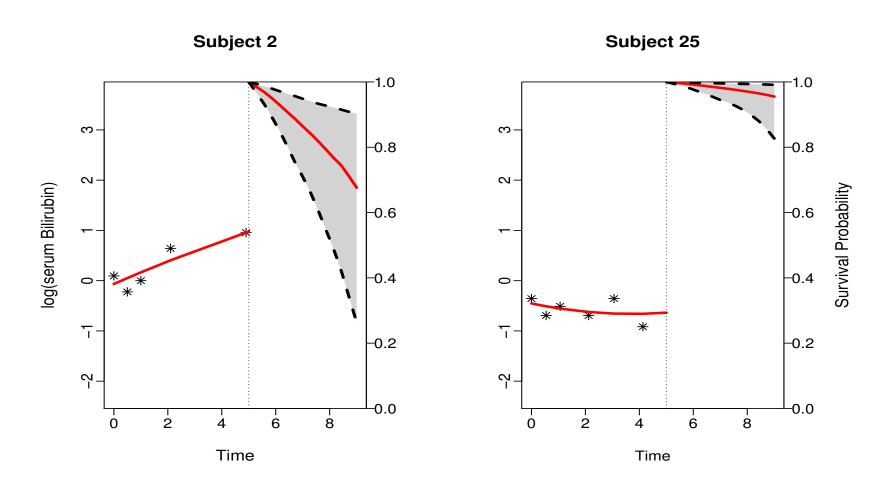




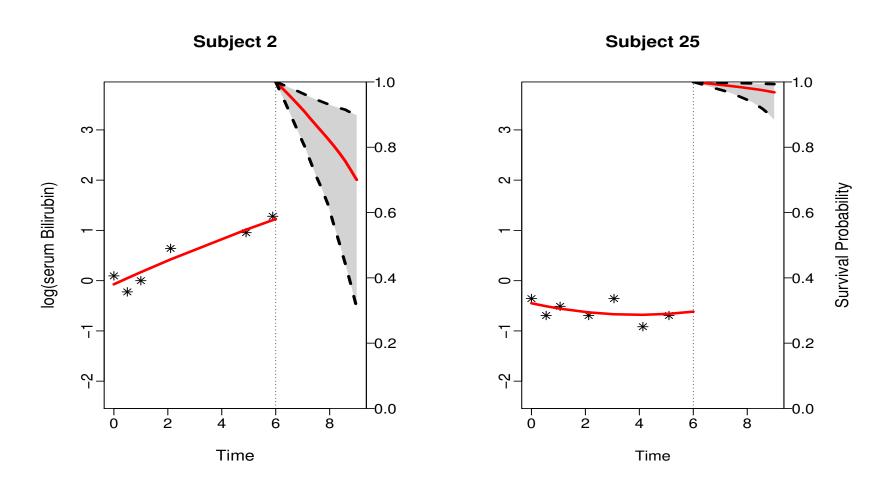




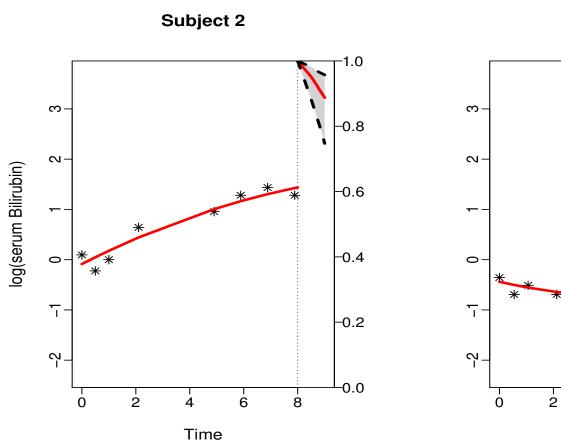


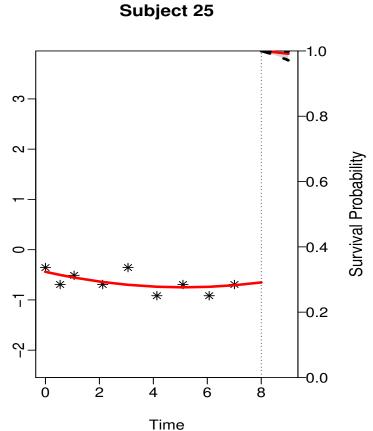














R> Individualized predictions of survival probabilities are computed by function survfitJM() - for example, for Patient 2 from the PBC dataset we have

# Chapter 7 Closing

## 7.1 Concluding Remarks



## When we need joint models for longitudinal and survival outcomes?

- > to investigate the association between the longitudinal and the survival outcome
- > to handle endogenous time-varying covariates in a survival analysis context
- > to account for nonrandom dropout in a longitudinal data analysis context

## How joint models work?

- > a mixed model for the longitudinal outcome
- > a relative risk model for the event process
- > explain interrelationships with shared random effects

# 7.1 Concluding Remarks (cont'd)



## Where to pay attention when defining joint models?

- > model flexibly the subject-specific evolutions for the longitudinal outcome
- > use parametric but flexible models for the baseline hazard function
- > consider how to model the association structure between the two processes
  - $\Rightarrow$  Parameterization

#### Extensions

- > under the full conditional independence assumption we can easily extend the basic joint model
- > multiple longitudinal outcomes / different association parameters / time-varying effects
- b though more computationally intensive

## 7.1 Concluding Remarks (cont'd)



## Individualized predictions

- > these are dynamically updated as extra information is recorded for the subjects
- $hd \Rightarrow$  joint models constitute an excellent tool for personalized medicine

#### What we did not cover

- > assessment of predictive performance
- ▷ diagnostics for joint models using residuals

▷ . . .

# The End!

## 7.2 Additional References



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