# STAT 6390: Analysis of Survival Data

Textbook coverage: Chapter 6

#### Steven Chiou

Department of Mathematical Sciences, University of Texas at Dallas

- One way to compare nested models is to use the partial likelihood ratio tests.
- One way to compare non-nested models is to use quantity like the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC):

$$AIC = -2 \cdot \ell(\hat{\beta}) + 2 \cdot p,$$

where  $\ell(\cdot)$  can be replaced with the log-partial likelihood obtained from the Cox model.

- The AIC has two components; a "good" model should
  - fits the data well  $\rightarrow$  small value of  $-2 \cdot \ell(\hat{\beta})$
  - has few parameters → small 2 · p

Steven Chiou (UTD) STAT 6390 2 / 18

Consider the model:

AIC can be called with AIC function:

```
> AIC(fit) [1] 402.6565
```

or extractAIC (3 degrees of freedom),

```
> extractAIC(fit)
[1] 3.0000 402.6565
```

osr be computed directly with loglik.

```
> -2 * fit$loglik[2] + 2 * 3
[1] 402.6565
```



An exhaust search can be carried out with step or stepAIC from MASS

```
> step(fit)
Start: ATC=402.66
Surv(lenfol, fstat) ~ age + gender + bmi
        Df ATC
- gender 1 400.87
<none> 402.66
- bmi 1 404.60
- age 1 410.25
Step: AIC=400.87
Surv(lenfol, fstat) ~ age + bmi
      Df ATC
<none> 400.87
- bmi 1 402.83
- age 1 411.78
Call:
coxph(formula = Surv(lenfol, fstat) ~ age + bmi, data = whas100)
      coef exp(coef) se(coef) z p
age 0.0393 1.0401 0.0119 3.31 0.00094
bmi -0.0712 0.9313 0.0361 -1.97 0.04895
Likelihood ratio test=21.32 on 2 df, p=2e-05
```

4 / 18

 An alternative to the AIC is the Bayesian Information Criterion, BIC, given by

$$\mathsf{BIC} = -2 \cdot \ell(\hat{\beta}) + p \log(n).$$

- The key difference is in the penalty term; BIC penalizes the number of parameters by log(n), where "n" corresponds to the number of events.
- The BIC can be computed with

The step function can be modified for stepwise selection with BIC:

```
> step(fit, k = log(fit$nevent))
```

 As a result, using the BIC in the model selection will tend to result in models with fewer parameters as compared to AIC.

### Schoenfeld residuals

- The use of residuals for modeling checking has been well-developed in linear regression theory.
- Recall the score function.

$$S_n(\beta) = \frac{\mathrm{d}\ell_p}{\mathrm{d}\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta_i \left[ X_i - \left\{ \frac{\sum_{j \in R(t_i)} X_j e^{X_j \beta}}{\sum_{j \in R(t_i)} e^{X_j \beta}} \right\} \right].$$

The estimator of the Schoenfeld residual for the ith subject is defined as

$$r_i = \Delta_i \left[ X_i - \left\{ \frac{\sum_{j \in R(t_i)} X_j e^{X_j \hat{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R(t_i)} e^{X_j \hat{\beta}}} \right\} \right].$$

- Since  $S_n(\hat{\beta}) = 0$ , the sum of the Schoenfeld residuals is zero.
- Note that r<sub>i</sub> is a p dimensional vector.

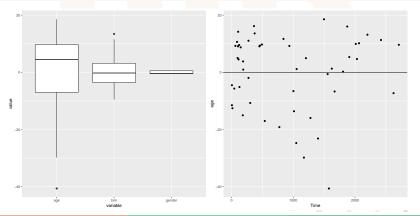
# Schoenfeld residuals

- The Schoenfeld residuals are equal to zero for all censored subjects and thus contain no information about the fit of the model.
- The Schoenfeld residuals can be computed as follows:

```
> res <- resid(fit, type = "schoenfeld")
> head (res)
         age
             gender
                               hmi
6 -11.495891 -0.4944845 6.90753182
6 -4.495891 -0.4944845 3.50526182
14 -12.564282 0.5007772 -0.01536823
44 -5.675718 -0.4947812 -1.37175453
62 9.261320 0.4997300 -9.52449179
89 10.644817 0.5204231 -6.06048648
> dim(res)
[11 51 3
> fit$nevent
[1] 51
> colSums (res)
                 gender
                                    hmi
         age
 2.738574e-10 3.922418e-12 -2.151168e-12
```

#### Schoenfeld residuals

 Plotting these residuals versus the covariate will yield a pattern of points centered around 0.



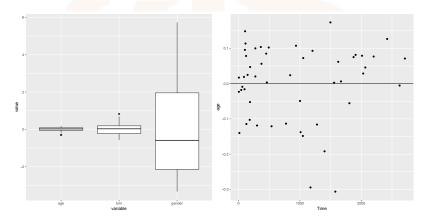
- Grambsch and Therneau (1994) proposed scaling each residual by an estimate of its variance.
- The scaled residual can be approximated as follows:

$$r_i^* = r_i \left[ \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(r_i) \right]^{-1} \approx r_i \cdot \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) \cdot n,$$

#### where n is the number of death.

```
> stdres <- as.tibble(resid(fit, type = "schoenfeld") %*% fit$var * fit$nevent)
> names(stdres) <- c("age", "bmi", "gender")</pre>
> stdres$Time <- res$Time
> stdres %>% print(n = 7)
# A tibble: 51 \times 4
      age bmi gender Time
    <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1 -0.0233 -1.46 0.394
2 0.0169 -2.00 0.205 6
3 -0.140 3.30 -0.0614 14
4 -0.0181 -1.97 -0.125 44
5 -0.00910 1.63 -0.579 62
6 0.0188 1.66 -0.342
                         89
7 -0.0161 2.17 -0.205
                          98
# ... with 44 more rows
```

The scaled Schoenfeld residuals can be plotted with



Recall that the proportional hazard assumption implies

$$\widehat{\mathsf{HR}} = e^{(X_i - X_j)\hat{\beta}},\tag{1}$$

that is free of time.

- There are number of ways to yield non-proportional hazard ratios.
- Grambsch and Therneau (1994) considered an alternative to allow covariate effect to change over time by

$$\beta(t) = \beta + \rho g(t) \approx \beta + E(r^*),$$

where g(t) is a function of time.

• This suggests that plotting  $\beta(t)$  against time gives a visual assessment of the proportional hazard assumption.

• The  $\beta(t)$  in (1) can be conveniently computed with the cox. zph function.

#### This can be confirmed with

```
> head(stdres$age + coef(fit)["age"])
[1] 0.01383649 0.05399122 -0.10294092 0.01899822 0.02803035 0.05590471
```

• Several functions of g(t) have been suggested:

```
> args(cox.zph)
function (fit, transform = "km", global = TRUE)
NULL
```

#### Usage

```
cox.zph(fit, transform="km", global=TRUE)
```

#### **Arguments**

fit the result of fitting a Cox regression model, using the coxph function.

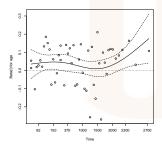
transform a character string specifying how the survival times should be transformed before the test is performed. Possible values are "km", "rank", "identity" or a function of one argument.

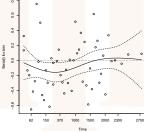
global should a global chi-square test be done, in addition to the per-variable tests.

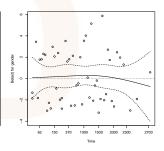
• The hypothesis of  $H_o$ :  $\rho = 0$  can be tested via the partial likelihood ratio test, score test, or Wald test.

We can plot the residual with plot;

> plot(zph[1]); plot(zph[2]); plot(zph[3])







- The plots also include a 95% confidence band for the smooth curve.
- For our dataset, there is no warning signs of violation of the proportional assumption.

```
> zph

rho chisq p
age 0.0536 0.1986 0.656
gender -0.0325 0.0671 0.796
bmi 0.1420 1.5793 0.209
GLOBAL NA 1.6627 0.645
```

# Martingale residuals

- The next collection of residuals comes from the counting process formulation of a time-to-event regression model.
- The basic formation is

$$M_i(t) = N_i(t) - \Lambda_i(t)$$
.

Under our setting, we have the martingale residuals

$$m_i = \Delta_i - \hat{H}_0(t_i)e^{X_i'\hat{\beta}}.$$

- The residual is the difference between the observed value  $(\Delta_i)$  of the censoring indicator and its expected value.
- Also called the Cox-Snell or modified Cox-Snell residual.

# Martingale residuals

- The martingale residuals sum to 0, but range from  $-\infty$  to 1.
- The sum of squares of martingale residuals can not be used as a measure of goodness of fit.
- Transformations to achieve a more symmetric distribution are helpful.
- One such transformation is the deviance residuals:

$$d_i = \operatorname{sign}(m_i) \sqrt{-2 \cdot [m_i + \Delta_i \log(\Delta - m_i)]}.$$

- These deviances are symmetrically distributed with expected value 0 (if the fitted model is correct).
- The sum of squares of these residuals is the value of the likelihood ratio test in generalized linear model theory.

#### Reference

Grambsch, P. M. and Therneau, T. M. (1994). Proportional hazards tests and diagnostics based on weighted residuals. Biometrika 81, 515–526.

