

Table 1.2 Summary of survival and event history models

Class and type of model	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Non-parametric (Chapter 4)			
Life table estimates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes no assumption about: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> shape of hazard function how covariates affect shape of hazard function 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Good method to understand basics and produce descriptive results 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can only compare limited number of groups
Kaplan-Meier (Product-Limit) estimator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effects of covariates shown by stratifying data into groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Life table: good for large data and crude measurement of event times KM: good for smaller data and precisely measured event times 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does not allow inclusion of multiple covariates and multivariate controls
Semi-parametric (Chapter 5)			
Cox model (most prominent)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes no assumption about shape of hazard function 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Flexible model, often initial exploratory choice in analyses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Less appropriate for testing hypotheses about time-dependence (i.e. how hazard varies over time)
Piecewise constant exponential model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes strong assumption about how covariates affect shape of hazard function by assuming proportional hazard between groups over time Partial-likelihood estimation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows inclusion of multiple covariates, multivariate analysis Results often similar to parametric models, but without (often) restrictive assumptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Less precise than parametric models Sometimes called 'overfitted'
Parametric (Chapter 6)			
Exponential, Weibull, logistic, Gamma, Gaussian, complementary log-log, log-logistic, log-normal, Gompertz, Makeham, extreme value, Rayleigh and others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Researcher needs to decide in advance shape of the hazard function and how covariates impact the hazard function Maximum likelihood estimation Preferred when researcher wants to study the nature of time dependence and when time is meaningful in an independent variable Continuous and discrete-time models 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More precise parameter estimates (if correct model assumptions) Allows multivariate analysis Allows analysis of discrete and continuous explanatory variables Specifies the shape of the hazard function, allowing for predictive modelling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If the hazard-function shape is incorrectly specified, parameter estimates can be seriously biased Needs preliminary work to first define shape of hazard function and understand how covariates affect the hazard function Very sensitive to included or omitted covariates
Discrete time and count (Chapter 9)			
Logit, probit, logistic, negative binomial regression (NBR models)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyzes the number of events since a defined starting time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Useful for analysis of rare events (Poisson, NBR) when number of zeros (i.e. number of trials without any events) is large 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does not examine duration, but rather event-counts
Poisson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Often for analysis of rare events (Poisson) 		

Compete, Moken extreme value, Royleigh and others

- Preferred when researcher wants to study the nature of time dependence and when time is meaningful in an independent variable
- Continuous and discrete-time models

continuous explanatory variables
Specifies the shape of the hazard function, allowing for predictive modelling

define shape of hazard function and understand how covariates affect the hazard function
Very sensitive to included or omitted covariates

Discrete time and count

(Chapter 9)

- Logit, probit, logistic, negative binomial regression (NBR models)
- Analyzes the number of events since a defined starting time
- Often for analysis of rare events (Poisson)

Useful for analysis of rare events (Poisson, NBR) when number of zeros (i.e. number of trials without any events) is large

Does not examine duration, but rather event-counts

Multilevel, frailty or recurrent event models

(Chapter 8)

- Recurrent event or multiple episode models
- Frailty models, conditional frailty models (sometimes also referred to as multilevel models, random effect models)
- Some subjects more likely to experience repeated event due to unmeasured cause (unobserved heterogeneity)
- Understanding how covariate effects change across episodes
- Frailty: model as random effect
- Conditional frailty: modifies frailty model to adjust for event dependence, stratifies cases by event number

Goes beyond single-episode models that only compare effects between covariates to examine how covariate effects change across episodes
By estimating frailty as cause of unobserved heterogeneity as a random effect, coefficients for measured variables are less biased

Frailty models may be badly biased if frailty is correlated with the covariates or the wrong distribution is assumed

Competing risk models

(Chapter 10)

- Competing risk and multiple destination models: use one of the models described above (e.g. Cox) and make adjustments to risk group depending on whether risks are independent of one another
- Episode can end in two or more different outcomes
- Central assumption is often conditional independence of the risks under analysis

Considers more complex destination states
Treats different reasons as different events, allowing comparison of hazard functions across competing risks

Problem if competing risks are not properly identified
Hard to cope with assumption of conditional independence of the risks under analysis

Multistate models

(Chapter 10)

- Multistate models (also overlaps with competing risk, recurrent event and alternating state models)
- Model for a stochastic process, which at any time point occupies one set of discrete states
- Specify state structure and form of hazard function for each transition

Appropriate for event-related dependence

Considers states, not events (problem for recurrent events);
All data considered longitudinal; less useful for repeated measurements

Sequence analysis

(Chapter 11)

- Discrete Markov models and optimal-matching-based clustering
- Obtain a matrix of proximities between sequences via optimal matching (or other metric) and cluster sequences via multidimensional scaling methods

Provides a holistic view of entire event history
Derives prominent characteristics of complete trajectories

Remains highly descriptive if clusters not used as predictors in regression model