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SISCER 2022 Mod 12

# Survival Analysis

## Lecture 4

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# In Lecture 3

- What we discussed
    - Log-rank test
    - Weighted log-rank tests
    - Power and sample size calculation
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# More than two-sample

- Two-sample (multiple-samples)
    - Only gives hypothesis testing results
    - Does not provide exact effect size
    - Does not provide confidence intervals
  - Covariates
    - Continuous factors
    - Multiple factors and interactions
    - Confounders
    - In particular to time-to-event outcomes: time-varying covariates
  - Regression modeling
    - Parametric
    - Nonparametric
    - Semiparametric
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# Parametric regression modeling

- General paradigm
    - Set up underlying parametric distributions
    - Establish a relationship between outcomes and covariates by some parametric form
    - Apply MLE to estimate regression parameters
    - Make inferences
      - Wald's test
      - Score test
      - Likelihood ratio test
-

# Parametric regression models

- Data (without censoring):

$$(T_i, Z_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Likelihood function

$$\prod_{i=1}^n f(T_i | Z_i),$$

- Examples

- A linear regression model:

$$-\log T_i = \beta_0 + \beta Z_i + \epsilon_i, \text{ where } \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

**Example.**  $T \sim \exp(\theta)$ . The density function is  
 $f(t; \theta) = \theta e^{-\theta t} I(t > 0)$ .

Regression extension: Let  $x_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})$  be a  $1 \times p$  vector of covariates and  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)^t$  a  $p \times 1$  vector of parameters for subject  $i$ . Assume the hazard function is  
 $\lambda(t; x_i, \theta) = x_i \theta = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \theta_j$ . Assume  $T$  has the pdf  
 $(x_i \theta) e^{-(x_i \theta) t_i}$ . Based on  $(x_1, t_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n)$ , the maximum likelihood techniques can still be applied to the likelihood function

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \underbrace{(x_i \theta) e^{-(x_i \theta) t_i}}_{\text{Exponential density}}$$

A constraint here is that the hazard  $\lambda(t; x_i) = x_i \theta$  must be positive. To guarantee this, we sometimes use a positive-valued link function  $\phi(\cdot)$  and assume the hazard  $\lambda(t; x_i) = \phi(x_i \theta)$ . For instance,  $\phi(u) = u^2$  or  $\phi(u) = e^u$ . For the latter case, the likelihood becomes function

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n e^{x_i \theta} e^{-(e^{x_i \theta}) t_i}$$

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# For censored time-to-event

- Recall

- Log-rank test is mostly powerful to test the alternative when hazard functions are proportional
  - This shall serve as an important motivation for the so-called Cox proportional hazards model
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# Cox proportional hazards model

- **Response Variable:**
  - ▷ Observed:  $(Y_i, \delta_i)$
  - ▷ Of Interest:  $T_i$ , or  $\lambda(t)$
- $T_i$  survival, with distribution given by:
  - ▷ Survival function:  $S(t)$
  - ▷ Hazard function:  $\lambda(t)$
- **Observed Covariates:**  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ 
  - ▷ For subject  $j$  we observe:  $(Y_j, \delta_j), X_{1j}, X_{2j}, \dots, X_{kj}$
- **IDEA:** same as with other regression models – Model relates the covariates  $X_1, \dots, X_k$  to the distribution (either  $S(t)$  or  $\lambda(t)$ ) of the response variable of interest,  $T$ .



# Model specification

- Model:

$$\lambda(t | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) = \lambda_0(t) \cdot \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)$$

- Model: alternatively expressed as

$$\log \lambda(t | X_1, \dots, X_k) = \log \lambda_0(t) + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

$$S(t | X_1, \dots, X_k) = [S_0(t)]^{\exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)}$$

- Note definitions:

- ▷  $\lambda_0(t) = \lambda(t | X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)$

- ▷  $S_0(t) = S(t | X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)$

# Model interpretation

- Proportional Hazards:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RR} &= \frac{\lambda(t \mid X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)}{\lambda(t \mid X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)} \\ &= \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k) \end{aligned}$$

- RR above is: “Relative risk, or hazard, of death comparing subjects with covariate values  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$  to subjects with covariate values  $(0, 0, \dots, 0)$ .”

- In General:

- ▷  $\beta_m$  is the log RR (or log hazard ratio, log HR) comparing subjects with  $X_m = (x + 1)$  to subjects with  $X_m = x$ , given that all other covariates are constant (ie. the same for the groups compared).

$$\frac{\lambda(t \mid X_1, \dots, \overbrace{X_m = (x + 1)}^{\text{here}}, \dots, X_k)}{\lambda(t \mid X_1, \dots, \underbrace{X_m = (x)}_{\text{here}}, \dots, X_k)} =$$
$$\frac{\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_m (x + 1) + \dots + \beta_k X_k)}{\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_m (x) + \dots + \beta_k X_k)} = \exp(\beta_m)$$

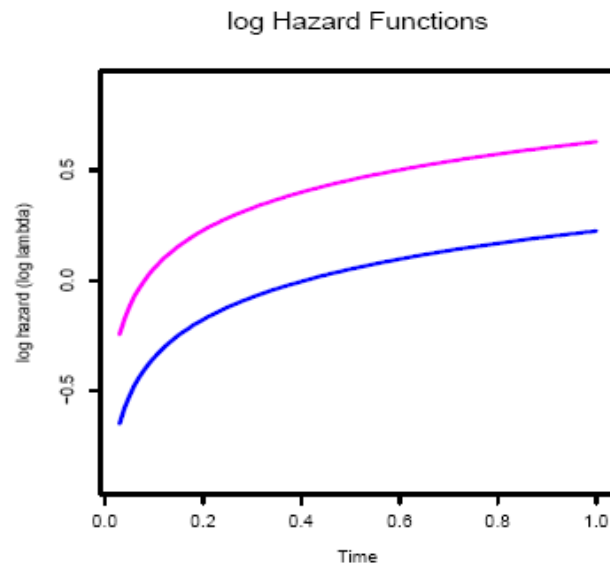
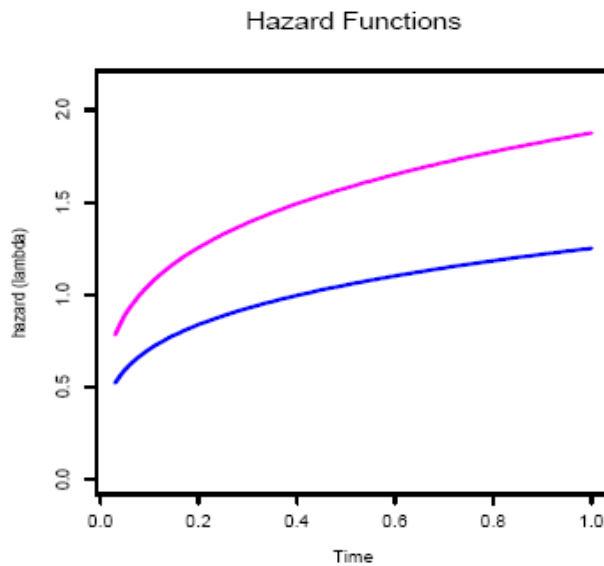
- The RR Comparing 2 Covariate Values (vectors):

- ▷ RR comparing  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$  to  $(X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_k)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RR}(X \text{ vs. } X') &= \frac{\lambda(t \mid X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)}{\lambda(t \mid X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_k)} \\ &= \exp [ \beta_1 \cdot (X_1 - X'_1) + \\ &\quad \beta_2 \cdot (X_2 - X'_2) + \\ &\quad \dots + \\ &\quad \beta_k \cdot (X_k - X'_k) ] \end{aligned}$$

# Examples: Cox proportional hazards model

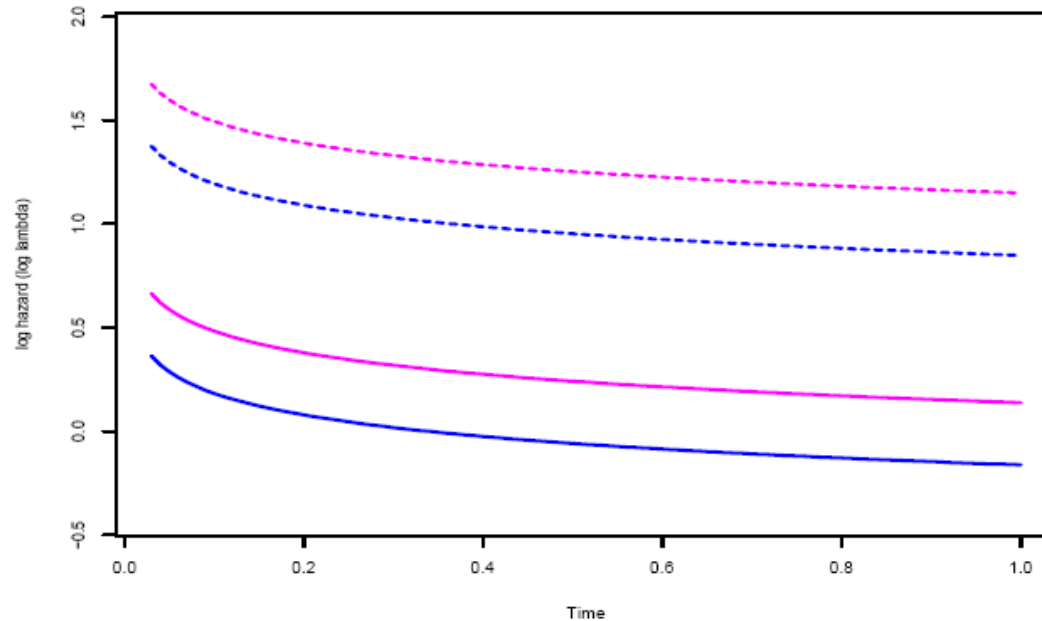
- **1:** One dichotomous covariate
  - ▷  $X_E = 1$  if exposed;  $X_E = 0$  if not exposed.
  - ▷  $\lambda(t | X_E) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta X_E)$



- **2:** Dichotomous covariate; Dichotomous confounder

- ▷  $X_C = 1$  if level 2;  $X_C = 0$  if level 1.

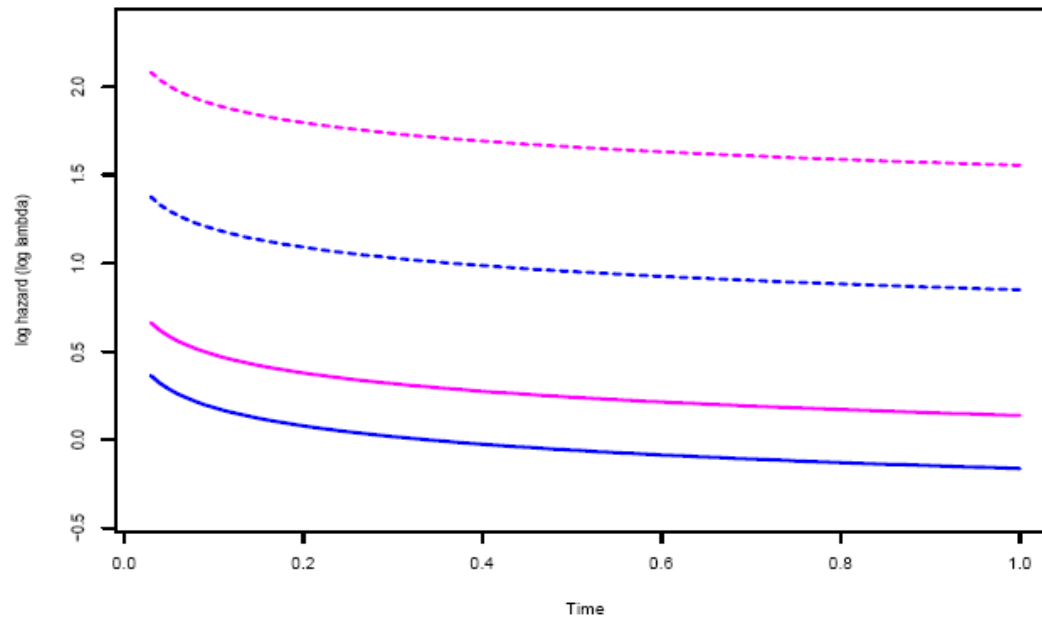
- ▷  $\lambda(t | X_E, X_C) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E + \beta_2 X_C)$



- **3:** Dichotomous covariate; confounder; (interaction)

- ▷ With interaction

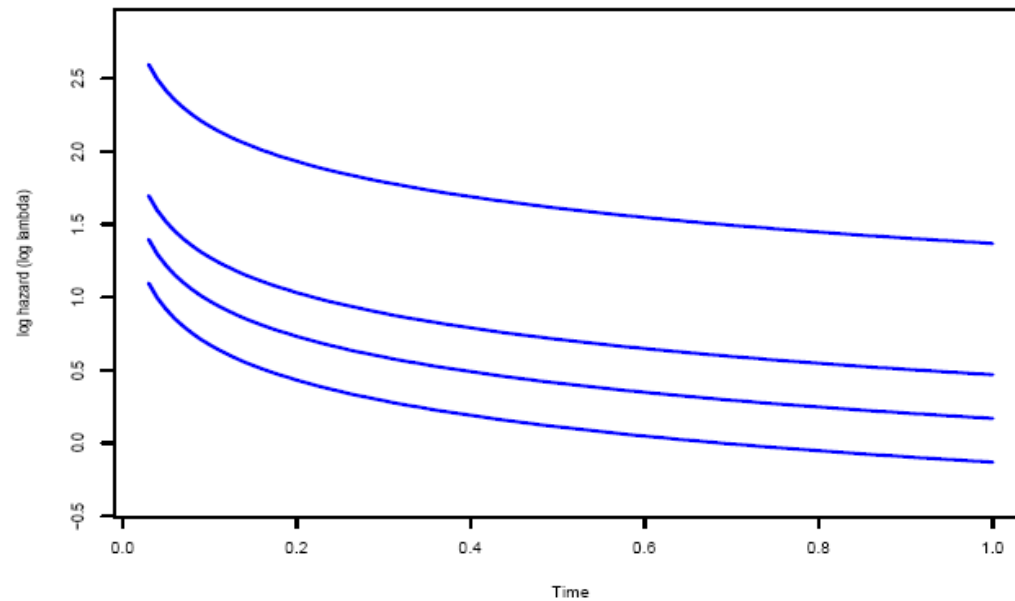
- ▷  $\lambda(t | X_E, X_C) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E + \beta_2 X_C + \beta_3 X_E X_C)$



- **4:** One continuous covariate

- ▷  $X_D = 1.0, 2.0, \dots$

- ▷  $\lambda(t | X_D) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_D)$

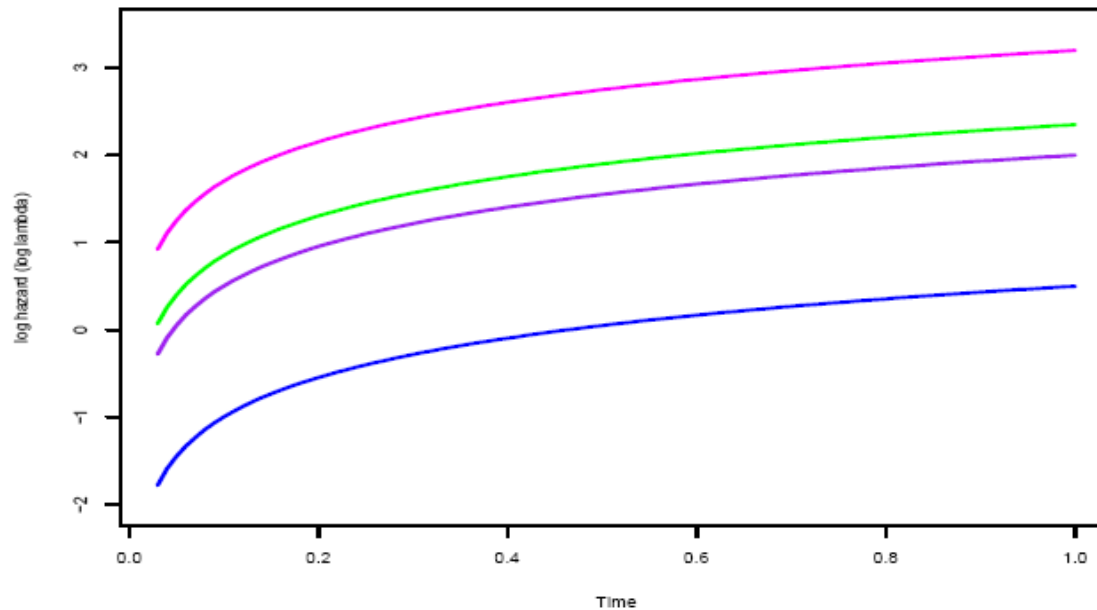




- **5:** K-sample Heterogeneity (K=4)

- ▷  $X_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{group } j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

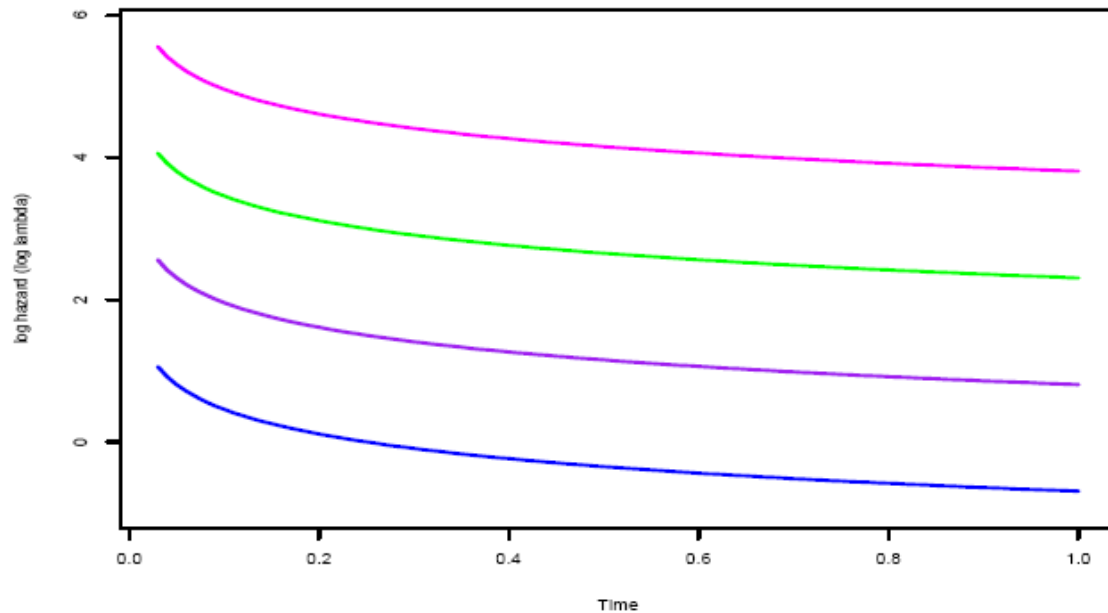
- ▷  $\lambda(t | X_2, X_3, X_4) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4)$



- **6:** K-sample Trend (K=4)

- ▷  $X_D = \{ j : \text{group } j \}$

- ▷  $\lambda(t | X_D) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta X_D)$



# About the Cox model

- In each example the hazard functions are “parallel” – that is, the change in hazard over time was the same for each covariate value.
- For regression models there are different possible tests for a hypothesis about coefficients: likelihood ratio; score; Wald. (more later!)
- The score test for example (1) with  $H_0 : \beta = 0$  is the LogRank Test.
- The score test for example (5) with  $H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0$  is the same as the K-sample Heterogeneity test (generalization of LogRank).
- The score test for example (6) with  $H_0 : \beta = 0$  is the same as Tarone's trend test.

# Some history

- D.R. Cox (1972) “Regression Models and Life-Tables” (with discussion) *JRSS-B*, 74: 187-220.
- “The present paper is largely concerned with the extension of the results of Kaplan and Meier to the comparison of life tables and more generally to the incorporation of regression-like arguments into life-table analysis.” (p. 187)
- Model proposed:  $\lambda(t | X) = \lambda_0(t) \cdot \exp(X\beta)$
- “In the present paper we shall, however, concentrate on exploring the consequence of allowing  $\lambda_0(t)$  to be arbitrary, main interest being in the regression parameters.” (p. 190)
- “A Conditional Likelihood” – later called Partial Likelihood.
- Score Test = LogRank Test

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- Discussion:
    - ▷ “Mr. Richard Peto (Oxford University): I have greatly enjoyed Professor Cox’s paper. It seems to me to formulate and to solve the problem of regression of prognosis on other factors perfectly, and it is very pretty.”

- Impact:
    - ▷ Science Citation Index: 19,502 citations (17 Jan 2005)
    - ▷ David R. Cox is knighted in 1985 in recognition of his scientific contributions.
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# How to estimate the Cox model

- Obtain estimates of  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$  by maximizing the “partial likelihood” function:

$$P\mathcal{L}(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k).$$

▷  $\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2, \dots, \hat{\beta}_k$  are MPLE's

▷ CI's for  $\beta_j$  using:

$$\hat{\beta}_j \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j).$$

▷ CI's for hazard ratio (HR) using:

$$\exp[\hat{\beta}_j - Z_{1-\alpha/2} \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j)], \exp[\hat{\beta}_j + Z_{1-\alpha/2} \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j)]$$

▷ Wald test, score test, and likelihood ratio test similar to logistic regression. Now using the partial likelihood.

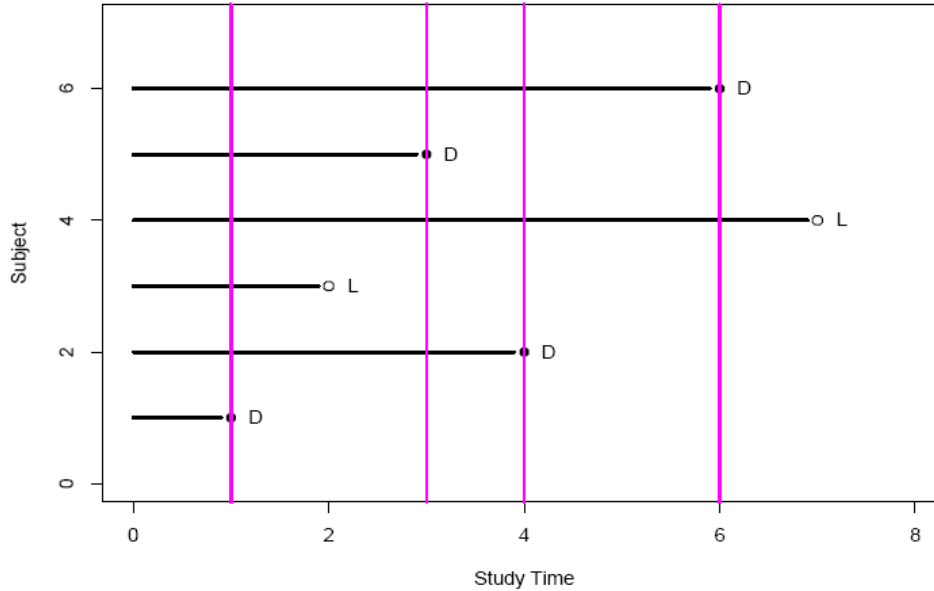
# Partial likelihood

- Model:  $\lambda(t | X_1, \dots, X_k) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)$
- Order Data:
  - ▷  $t_{(i)}$  is the  $i$ th ordered failure time.
  - ▷ Assume no **ties**, and let  $X_{(i)} = (X_{1(i)}, X_{2(i)}, \dots, X_{k(i)})$  be the covariates for the subject who dies at time  $t_{(i)}$ .
  - ▷ Let  $\mathcal{R}_i$  denote the “risk set” at time  $t_{(i)}$ , which denotes all subjects with  $Y_j \geq t_{(i)}$ .
- Partial Likelihood: (no ties)

$$P\mathcal{L}(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k) = \prod_{i=1}^J \frac{\exp(\beta_1 X_{1(i)} + \beta_2 X_{2(i)} + \dots + \beta_k X_{k(i)})}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\beta_1 X_{1j} + \beta_2 X_{2j} + \dots + \beta_k X_{kj})}$$

# Risk set

D=death, L=lost, A=alive



• Failure times:  $t_{(1)} = 1, t_{(2)} = 3, t_{(3)} = 4, t_{(4)} = 6$ .

• Risk sets:

▷  $\mathcal{R}_1 = \{ \quad \quad \quad \}$

▷  $\mathcal{R}_2 = \{ \quad \quad \quad \}$

▷  $\mathcal{R}_3 = \{ \quad \quad \quad \}$

▷  $\mathcal{R}_4 = \{ \quad \quad \quad \}$



- 
- **Q:** What is the probability of the observed data at time  $t_{(i)}$  given that one person was observed to die among the risk set?

$$\text{Note : } P[T \in (t, t + \Delta t] \mid T \geq t] \approx \lambda(t) \cdot \Delta t$$

$$\text{Person who died : } \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_{1(i)} + \dots + \beta_k X_{k(i)}) \Delta t = P_{(i)}$$

$$\text{Generic } j \text{ in } \mathcal{R}_i : \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_{1j} + \dots + \beta_k X_{kj}) \Delta t = P_j$$

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- Probability One Death, Was  $(i)$  :

$$P_{(i)} \times (1 - P_1) \times (1 - P_2) \dots \times \text{skip}(\mathbf{i}) \times (1 - P_k)$$

- Probability of One Death:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{ One Death } ) &= P( 1 \text{ died, others lived } ) + \\ &P( 2 \text{ died, others lived } ) + \\ &\dots + \\ &P( k \text{ died, others lived } ) \end{aligned}$$

$$P( j \text{ died, others lived } ) = P_j \times \prod_{k \neq j} (1 - P_k)$$

- Note:  $(1 - P_j) \approx 1$  for small  $\Delta t$ .

- Now calculate the desired quantity:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{ Observed Data } \mid 1 \text{ death } ) &= \frac{P(\text{ Only } (i) \text{ Dies } )}{P(\text{ One Death } )} \\
 &= \frac{P_{(i)} \prod_{k \neq (i)} (1 - P_k)}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} P_j \prod_{k \neq j} (1 - P_k)} \\
 &\approx \frac{P_{(i)}}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} P_j}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{P_{(i)}}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} P_j} &= \frac{\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_{1(i)} + \beta_2 X_{2(i)} + \dots + \beta_k X_{k(i)}) \cdot \Delta t}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_{1j} + \beta_2 X_{2j} + \dots + \beta_k X_{kj}) \cdot \Delta t} \\
 &= \frac{\exp(\beta_1 X_{1(i)} + \beta_2 X_{2(i)} + \dots + \beta_k X_{k(i)})}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\beta_1 X_{1j} + \beta_2 X_{2j} + \dots + \beta_k X_{kj})}
 \end{aligned}$$

- 
- Cox (1972) – “No information can be contributed about  $\beta$  by time intervals in which no failures occur because the component  $\lambda_0(t)$  might conceivably be identically zero in such intervals.”
  - Cox (1972) – “We therefore argue conditionally on the set  $\{t_{(i)}\}$  of instants at which failure occur.”
  - Cox (1972) – “For the particular failure at time  $t_{(i)}$  conditional on the risk set,  $\mathcal{R}_i$ , the probability that the failure is on the individual as observed is:

$$\frac{\exp(\beta_1 X_{1(i)} + \beta_2 X_{2(i)} + \dots + \beta_k X_{k(i)})}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\beta_1 X_{1j} + \beta_2 X_{2j} + \dots + \beta_k X_{kj})}$$

- Note: This likelihood contribution has the exact same form as a (matched) logistic regression conditional likelihood.
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- Notice that our model is equivalent to

$$\log \lambda(t | X_1 \dots X_k) = \alpha(t) + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots \beta_k X_k$$

where  $\alpha(t) = \log \lambda_0(t)$ , but the PL does not depend on  $\alpha(t)$ .

- Using the partial likelihood (PL) to estimate parameters provides estimates of the regression coefficients,  $\beta_j$ , only.
  - The model is called “semi-parametric” since we only need to parameterize the effect of covariates, and do not say anything about the baseline hazard.
  - **Q:** Why not just use standard maximum likelihood, as outlined in the notes on pages 86-87?
  - **A:** To do so would require choosing a model for the baseline hazard, but we actually don't need to do that!
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# Handle ties

- If there is more than one death at time  $t_{(i)}$  then the denominator for the partial likelihood contribution will involve a large number of terms. For example if there are 20 people at risk at time  $t_{(i)}$  and 3 die then there are “20 choose 3” = 1140 terms.
- Approximation (Breslow, Peto) default in STATA
  - ▷ The numerator can be calculated and represented using:
    - \* Sum  $X_1$  for deaths:  $s_{1i} = \sum_{j:Y_j=t_{(i)},\delta_j=1} X_{1j}$
    - \* Sum  $X_2$  for deaths:  $s_{2i} = \sum_{j:Y_j=t_{(i)},\delta_j=1} X_{2j}$  etc.
  - ▷ The approximation with  $D_i$  deaths at time  $t_{(i)}$  is:

$$P\mathcal{L}_A = \prod_{i=1}^J \frac{\exp(\beta_1 s_{1i} + \beta_2 s_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k s_{ki})}{\left[ \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\beta_1 X_{1j} + \beta_2 X_{2j} + \dots + \beta_k X_{kj}) \right]^{D_i}}$$

- 
- If **continuous** times,  $T_i$ , then ties should not be an issue.
    - ▷ Time recorded in (days,minutes).
    - ▷ Modest sample size.
  - If **discrete** times,  $T_i \in [t_k, t_{k+1})$ , recorded then consider methods appropriate for discrete-time data (e.g. variants on logistic regression)
    - ▷ See Singer & Willett (2003) chpts 10–12; H& L pp. 268-9.
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- However, there is plenty of room between continuous and discrete.

- ▷ Example: **USRDS Data** = 200,000 subjects.

**US Renal Data System**

- \* 25% annual mortality = 50,000 deaths/year.
    - \* 50,000 deaths/365 days = 137 deaths/day.

- Kalbfleisch & Prentice (2002), section 4.2.3 summarize options and relative pros/cons.

- ▷ “Breslow method” – simple to implement/justify; some bias if discrete.
    - ▷ “Efron method” – also simple comp; performs well.
    - ▷ “exact method” – justified; comp challenge.
    - ▷ Should be minor issue in general, and if not then perhaps a discrete-time approach should be considered.
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# Partial likelihood ratio test

- Full Model:

$$\lambda(t|X) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p + \underbrace{\beta_{p+1} X_{p+1} + \dots + \beta_k X_k}_{\text{extra}})$$

- Reduced Model:

$$\lambda(t|X) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p)$$

- In order to test:

- ▷  $H_0$  : Reduced model  $\Leftrightarrow H_0 : \beta_{p+1} = \dots = \beta_k = 0$
- ▷  $H_1$  : Full model  $\Leftrightarrow H_1$  : extra coeff  $\neq 0$  somewhere

- Use the partial likelihood ratio statistic

$$X_{PLR}^2 = [2 \log PL(\text{FullModel}) - 2 \log PL(\text{ReducedModel})]$$

- 
- Under  $H_0$  (reduced is correct) then  $X_{PLR}^2 \sim \chi^2(\text{df} = (k - p))$
  - Degrees of freedom,  $\text{df} = (k - p)$ , equals the number of parameters set to 0 by the null hypothesis.
  - Application is for situations where the models are “nested” – the reduced model is a special case of the full model.
  - Also can use Wald tests, and/or score tests. The PLR (Partial Likelihood Ratio) test is particularly useful when  $\text{df} > 1$ .
  - The PLR statistic is equivalent (using a “double negative”) to:

$$X_{PLR}^2 = \{[-2 \log P\mathcal{L}(\text{ReducedModel})] - [-2 \log P\mathcal{L}(\text{FullModel})]\}$$

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# STATA codes for Cox models

```
*****
```

```
*   evaluate TX           *
```

```
*****
```

```
stcox tx, nohr  
est store LRmod1
```

```
xi: stcox i.group, nohr  
est store LRmod2
```

```
xi: stcox tx i.group, nohr  
est store LRmod3
```

```
lrtest LRmod3 LRmod2, stats
```

---

```
. xi: stcox i.group, nohr
```

```
Cox regression -- Breslow method for ties
```

```
No. of subjects =          456          Number of obs   =          456  
No. of failures =          374  
Time at risk    =          46363  
  
LR chi2(2)      =          67.41  
Log likelihood  = -1986.2945      Prob > chi2      =          0.0000
```

```
-----  
      _t |   Coef.   Std. Err.   z   P>|z|   [95% Conf. Interval]  
-----+-----  
_Igroup_2 | 1.14690   .1786005   6.42  0.000   .7968584   1.496959  
_Igroup_3 | 1.51643   .2168077   6.99  0.000   1.091494   1.941365  
-----
```

```
. xi: stcox tx i.group, nohr
```

```
Cox regression -- Breslow method for ties
```

```
No. of subjects =          456          Number of obs   =          456
```

```
No. of failures =          374
```

```
Time at risk    =          46363
```

```
LR chi2(3)      =          68.49
```

```
Log likelihood  = -1985.7542      Prob > chi2      =          0.0000
```

```
-----+-----
```

_t	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
tx	.111602	.1069722	1.04	0.297	-.0980588 .3212645
_Igroup_2	1.171318	.1801767	6.50	0.000	.8181779 1.524457
_Igroup_3	1.525078	.2170109	7.03	0.000	1.099745 1.950411

```
-----+-----
```

```
. lrtest LRmod3 LRmod2, stats
```

```
likelihood-ratio test                LR chi2(1) =      1.08  
(Assumption: LRmod2 nested in LRmod3)  Prob > chi2 =    0.2986
```

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Model	nobs	ll(null)	ll(model)	df	AIC	BIC
LRmod2	456	-2019.999	-1986.294	2	3976.589	3984.834
LRmod3	456	-2019.999	-1985.754	3	3977.508	3989.876

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# Estimate baseline hazard function

- Recall: (math fact)

$$S(t) = \exp\left[-\int_0^t \lambda(s)ds\right] = \exp[-\Lambda(t)]$$

- Cox model:

$$\lambda(t | X_1 \dots X_k) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)$$

$$\Lambda(t | X_1 \dots X_k) = \Lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)$$

$$S(t | X_1 \dots X_k) = [S_0(t)]^{\exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)}$$

- Therefore, in order to estimate the survival function, or the hazard for specific values of the covariates,  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$  we need to estimate  $\lambda_0(t)$ ,  $\Lambda_0(t)$ , and/or  $S_0(t)$ .

- Method 1: Breslow Method (used in STATA)

$$\hat{\Lambda}_0(t) = \sum_{i:t(i) \leq t} \frac{D_i}{\left[ \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\hat{\beta}_1 X_{1j} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k X_{kj}) \right]}$$

- Special Cases

- ▶ **1** One group, no covariates

Nelson-Aalen Estimator

This is like  $(\hat{\beta}_1 X_{1j} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k X_{kj}) = 0$

$$\hat{\Lambda}_0(t) = \sum_{i:t(i) \leq t} \frac{D_i}{\left[ \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(0) \right]} = \sum_{i:t(i) \leq t} \frac{D_i}{N_i}$$



- Special Cases

- ▶ **2** Two groups: one dichotomous covariate

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{group 1} \\ 1 & \text{group 2} \end{cases}, \quad \lambda(t | X) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta X).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\Lambda}_0(t) &= \sum_{i:t(i) \leq t} \frac{D_i}{\left[ \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\hat{\beta} X_j) \right]} \\ &= \sum_{i:t(i) \leq t} \frac{D_i}{\left[ \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i, \text{ group 1}} \exp(\hat{\beta} X_j) + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i, \text{ group 2}} \exp(\hat{\beta} X_j) \right]} \\ &= \sum_{i:t(i) \leq t} \frac{D_i}{\left[ N_{1i} + \exp(\hat{\beta}) \cdot N_{2i} \right]} \end{aligned}$$

- 
- In this example we can consider  $N_{1i} + \exp(\hat{\beta})N_{2i}$  as the “effective risk set” at time  $t_{(i)}$ .
  - The numerator,  $D_i$ , counts deaths equally from both group 1 and group 2.
  - However, in order to represent cumulative hazard (risk) for group 1 some adjustment of the group 2 contributions is warranted.
  - **Idea:** reweight the denominator
    - ▷  $\hat{\beta} > 0$  more deaths in group 2, so effective risk set needs to be increased to estimate risk in group 1.
    - ▷  $\hat{\beta} < 0$  fewer deaths in group 2, so effective risk set needs to be decreased to estimate risk in group 1.
-

- 3 In general, the denominator

$$\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\hat{\beta}_1 X_{1j} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k X_{kj})$$

- ▶ Is bigger than  $N_i$  when the average risk for a subject in  $\mathcal{R}_i$  is greater than the risk for a subject with the reference value  $(X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)$ .
- ▶ Is smaller than  $N_i$  when the average risk for a subject in  $\mathcal{R}_i$  is less than the risk for a subject with the reference value  $(X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)$ .

- Survival

$$\widehat{S}_0(t) = \exp[-\widehat{\Lambda}_0(t)]$$

▷ Not the default in STATA, but can be created.

- Hazard (similar to before)

$$\widehat{\lambda}_0(t) = \frac{1}{b} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^J K \left( \frac{t - t_{(j)}}{b} \right) \cdot \left\{ \frac{D_i}{\left[ \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_i} \exp(\widehat{\beta} X_j) \right]} \right\}$$

▷ Also not the default in STATA.

# Alternative approach to estimate baseline survival function

- Kalbfleisch and Prentice (1973) discuss use of a discrete time model and use this to estimate the baseline survival.
- The PH model implies:

$$p_j(X_1, \dots, X_k) = P[T \in [t_{j-1}, t_j) \mid T \geq t_{j-1}, X_1, \dots, X_k]$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - p_j(X_1, \dots, X_k) &= \left[ \frac{S_0(t_j)}{S_0(t_{j-1})} \right]^{\exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)} \\ &= [\alpha_j]^{\exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)} \end{aligned}$$

- K&P (1973) show that using such a discrete time approximation leads to a method to estimate these  $\alpha_j$ . (see STATA manual p. 150 for further details)
- K&P (1973) are using maximum likelihood for the discrete model.

- Notice that once these estimates are obtained

$$S_0(t) = \left[ \frac{S_0(t_1)}{1} \right] \times \left[ \frac{S_0(t_2)}{S_0(t_1)} \right] \times \dots \times \left[ \frac{S_0(t_j)}{S_0(t_{j-1})} \right]$$

$$S_0(t) = \prod_{i:t_{(i)} \leq t} \alpha_i$$

- This provides an estimate for the baseline survival function given as the default in STATA:

$$\hat{S}_0(t) = \prod_{i:t_{(i)} \leq t} \hat{\alpha}_i$$

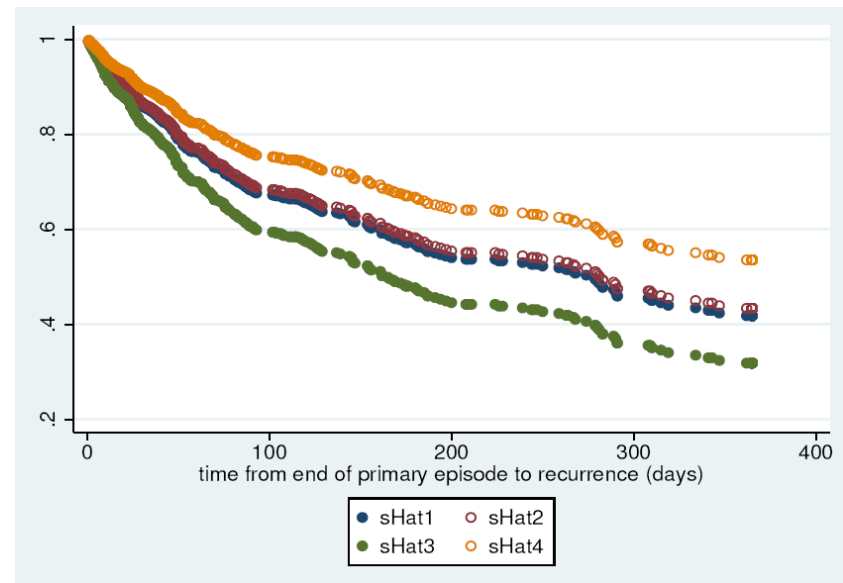
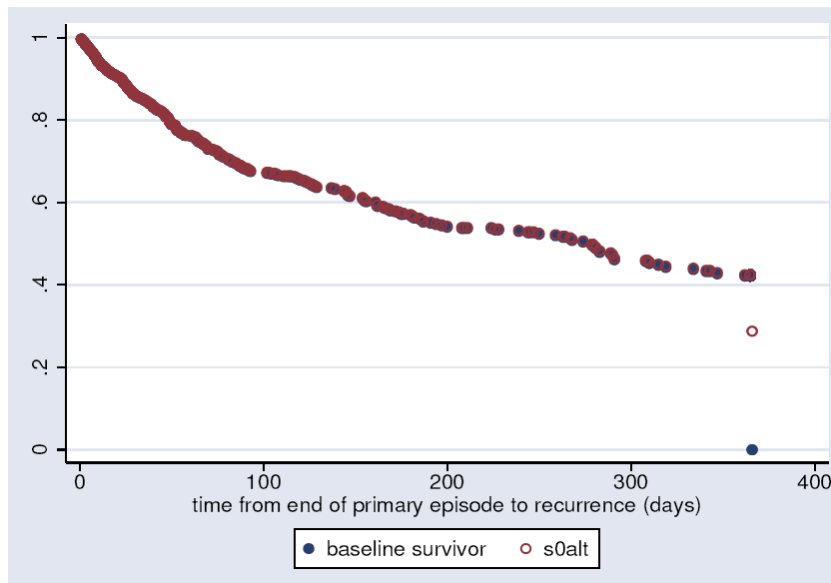
- **Q:** How does this estimate compare to that obtained using the cumulative hazard?

# STATA codes for baseline estimates

```
xi: stcox i.treat i.group age25 i.gender, basesurv( s0 ) basechazard( H0 )
```

```
gen s0alt = exp( -1 * H0 )
```

```
graph twoway (scatter s0 s0alt rectime )
```



# Smoothed baseline hazard functions

- Note: – with the estimates  $\hat{\alpha}_j$  we can also obtain estimates of the baseline hazard function:

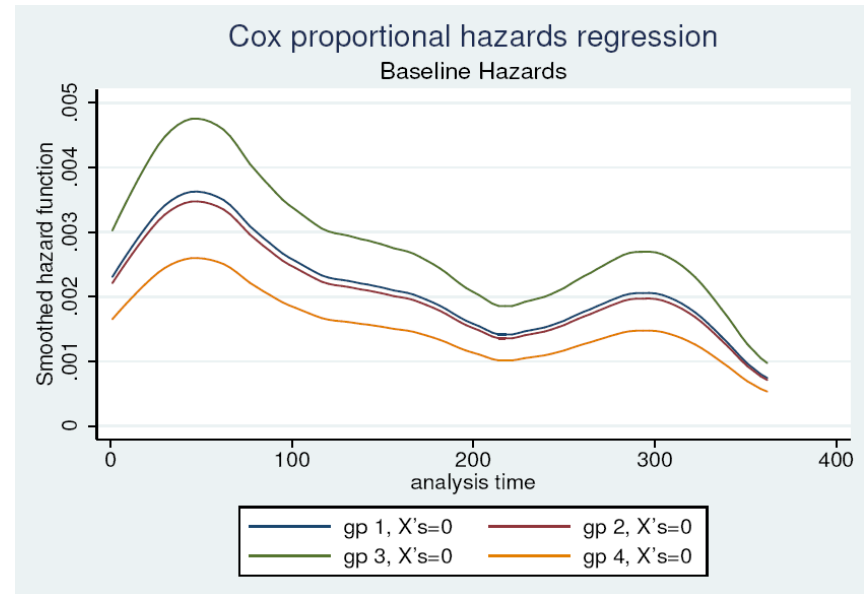
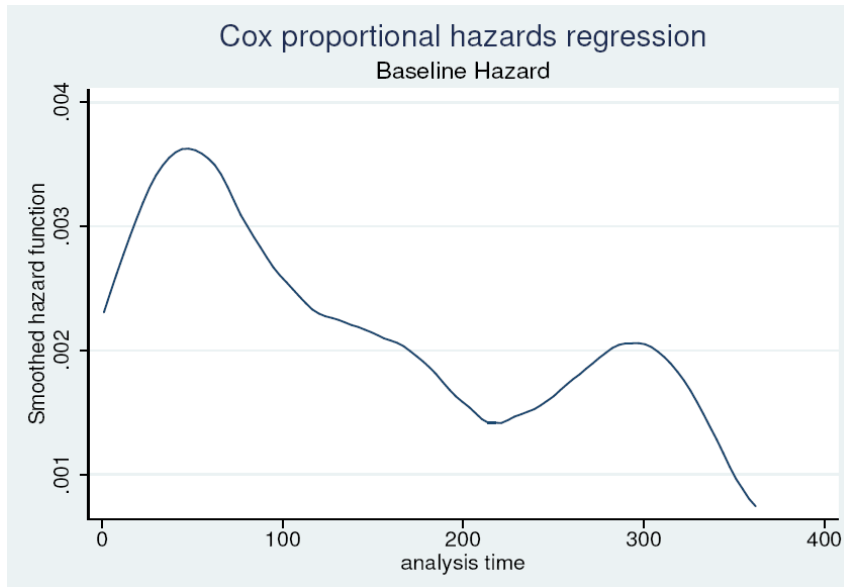
$$\hat{\lambda}_0(t) = \frac{1}{b} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^J K\left(\frac{t - t^{(j)}}{b}\right) \cdot [(1 - \hat{\alpha}_j)]$$

- STATA uses this method.

```
stcurve, hazard    at( _Itreat_1=0,  
                      _Itreat_2=0,  
                      _Itreat_3=0,  
                      _Igroup_2=0,  
                      _Igroup_3=0,  
                      age25=0,  
                      _Igender_2=0 ) subtitle("Baseline Hazard");
```



# Examples: smoothed baseline hazard functions



---

# Use of baseline estimates

- Uses:
    - ▷ Estimate survival or risk for specific sub-populations defined by a vector of covariate values.
    - ▷ Evaluate the shape of the estimated hazard as provided by the model. The model imposes constraints (e.g. PH).
    - ▷ To check the fit of the model, for example, by comparing the fitted survival curves for subsets to the survival curve estimated under the model.
    - ▷ Can be used to see whether different strata appear to satisfy PH after adjustment for key covariates (next!)
-

# Stratification: use of dummy variables

- Suppose a confounder  $X_C$  has 3 levels on which we would like to stratify when comparing  $X_E = 1$  to  $X_E = 0$ .

- ▷  $\lambda(t | X_E, X_C)$

- ▷  $\begin{cases} X_E = 1 & : \text{exposure} \\ X_E = 0 & : \text{no exposure} \end{cases}$

- **1** “Dummy variables”

- ▷  $\begin{cases} X_j = 1 & : X_C = j \\ X_j = 0 & : X_C \neq j \end{cases}$

- ▷ **Model**

$$\lambda(t | X_E, X_2, X_3) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3)$$

- Level 1 of  $X_C$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{exposed} : \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1) \\ \text{unexposed} : \lambda_0(t) \end{array} \right\} \text{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

- Level 2 of  $X_C$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{exposed} : \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 + \beta_2) \\ \text{unexposed} : \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_2) \end{array} \right\} \text{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

- Level 3 of  $X_C$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{exposed} : \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 + \beta_3) \\ \text{unexposed} : \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_3) \end{array} \right\} \text{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

# Stratified Cox models

- In the previous approach each of the six groups has a log hazard that is “parallel” to any other group (e.g. one common curve characterizes time,  $\log \lambda_0(t)$ ).
- More generally:
  - ▷ **Model:**  $\lambda(t | X_E, X_C = j) = \lambda_{0,j}(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E)$
  - ▷  $\lambda_{0,j}(t)$  represents an arbitrary function of time for the unexposed in strata  $\{X_C = j\}$ .
  - ▷ However, the comparison between exposed and unexposed within each strata is assumed to be constant [HR=  $\exp(\beta_1)$ ].
- This approach is implicit in the stratified version of the LogRank test.
- “Stratified Cox Model”

- Level 1 of  $X_C$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{exposed} : \lambda_{0,1}(t) \exp(\beta_1) \\ \text{unexposed} : \lambda_{0,1}(t) \end{array} \right\} \text{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

- Level 2 of  $X_C$

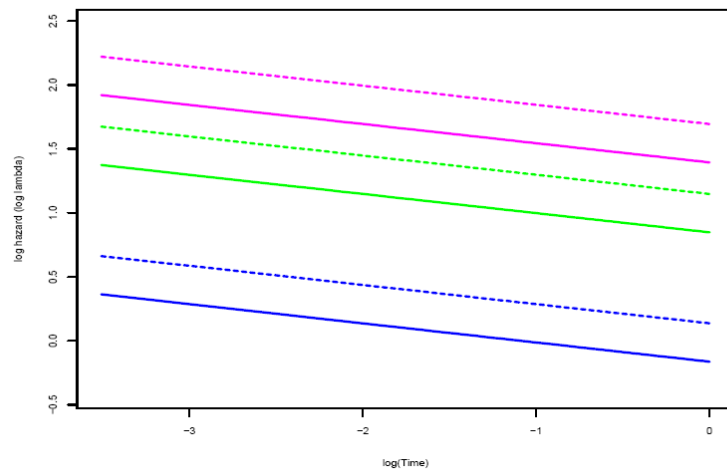
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{exposed} : \lambda_{0,2}(t) \exp(\beta_1) \\ \text{unexposed} : \lambda_{0,2}(t) \end{array} \right\} \text{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

- Level 3 of  $X_C$

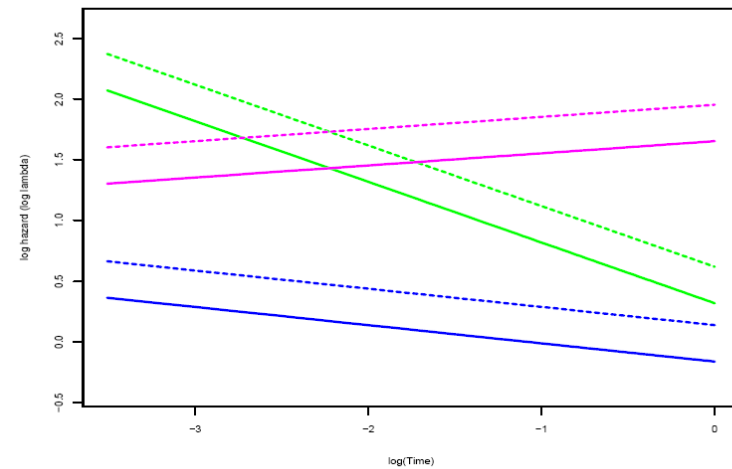
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{exposed} : \lambda_{0,3}(t) \exp(\beta_1) \\ \text{unexposed} : \lambda_{0,3}(t) \end{array} \right\} \text{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

# Comparison of two stratification methods

## Adjustment Using Dummy Variables



## Stratified Cox Model



- 
- **Q:** When to choose separate baselines?
    - ▷ Dummy variables assume common time change across confounder groups. If not correct then  $X_C$  may be inadequately controlled, and may confound exposure evaluation.
    - ▷ PH can be checked using graphical methods of time-dependent covariates (later!).
    - ▷ True stratification is a more thorough adjustment when observations within each stratum are homogeneous. If  $X_C$  is measured as a continuous variable, and strata are formed by grouping its values then better control might be achieved with the original continuous variable (possibly with time-dependent) covariate adjustment.
-



- 
- ▶ If  $X_C$  is controlled using true stratification then there is no single HR to report comparing the different levels of  $X_C$ . However, we can estimate baseline survival (hazard) within each level and can compare these curves.
  - ▶ True stratification generally requires more data to obtain the same precision in coefficient estimates (a bias-variance trade-off).
-

---

# STATA codes for stratification

\*\*\*

\*\*\* using dummy variables

\*\*\*

```
xi: stcox i.treat i.group age25 i.gender
```

\*\*\*

\*\*\* using stratified model

\*\*\*

```
xi: stcox i.treat age25 i.gender, strata( group ) ///  
    basesurv( s0 ) basehc( haz0 )
```

---

```
xi: stcox i.treat i.group age25 i.gender
Cox regression -- Breslow method for ties
```

```
LR chi2(7) = 86.54
```

```
Log likelihood = -1976.7301 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

---

_t	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
---+---					
_Itreat_1	.98055	.1953991	-0.10	0.922	.663517 1.44909
_Itreat_2	1.33508	.1593493	2.42	0.015	1.056606 1.68695
_Itreat_3	.73497	.2392546	-0.95	0.344	.388313 1.39111
_Igroup_2	3.55011	.6491291	6.93	0.000	2.480856 5.08021
_Igroup_3	4.78591	1.050507	7.13	0.000	3.112625 7.35874
age25	.97799	.0082657	-2.63	0.008	.961923 .99432
_Igender_2	.74549	.0849773	-2.58	0.010	.596231 .93211

---

```
xi: stcox i.treat age25 i.gender, strata( group ) basesurv( s0 ) ///
    basehc( haz0 )
```

Stratified Cox regr. -- Breslow method for ties

```
LR chi2(5) = 16.94
Log likelihood = -1723.7986 Prob > chi2 = 0.0046
```

---

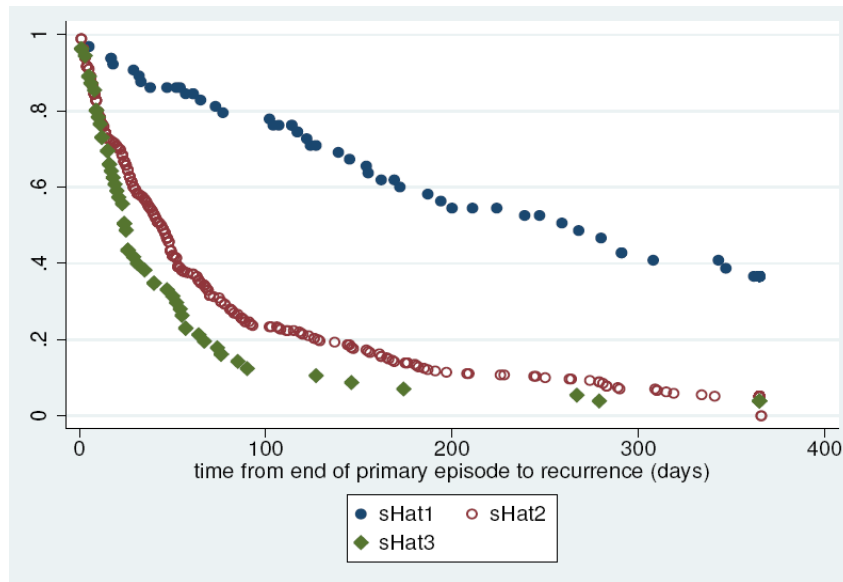
_t	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
_Itreat_1	.958117	.1911902	-0.21	0.830	.647982	1.416688
_Itreat_2	1.304738	.1562943	2.22	0.026	1.031712	1.650018
_Itreat_3	.724621	.2358843	-0.99	0.322	.382843	1.371516
age25	.980098	.0083365	-2.36	0.018	.963894	.996574
_Igender_2	.755070	.0862966	-2.46	0.014	.603537	.944649

---

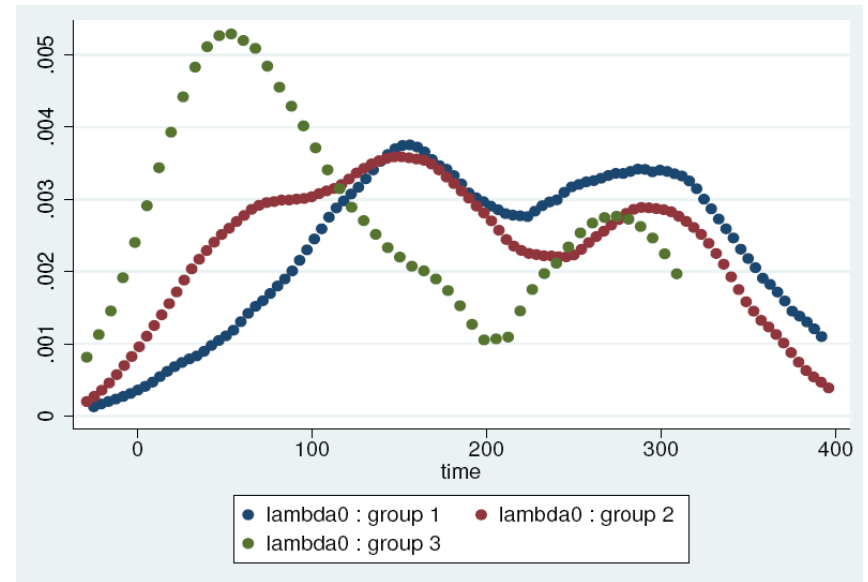
Stratified by group

# Baseline functions

## Separate $S_0$ by Group



## Separate $\lambda_{0,j}(t)$ by Group



# Summary

- Cox Model parameters  $\beta_m$  are estimated using the partial likelihood. This focuses on the hazard ratios, HR or RR, and does not (directly) provide an estimate of the baseline hazard.
- Baseline hazard can be estimated using either the Breslow estimator of the cumulative hazard, or via a method introduced by Kalbfleisch & Prentice (default in STATA).
- The relationship among hazard, cumulative hazard, and survival functions allows estimation of one function to allow estimation of each of the other two functions:

$$\lambda(t | X) \iff \Lambda(t | X) \iff S(t | X)$$

- 
- Stratified Cox models allow a more flexible adjustment for a stratifying variable. This is effectively allowing a separate baseline hazard for each level of the stratifying variable.
  - No simple summary represents strata comparisons.
  - Can be used to evaluate PH assumption relating strata after controlling for other covariates.
-