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Survival Analysis

Lecture 4

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For censored time-to-event

- Log-rank test
 - Usually good for two-sample hypothesis testing
 - Mostly powerful to test the alternative when hazard functions are proportional
 - motivating for the so-called Cox proportional hazards model

Cox proportional hazards model

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

Model specification

Model:

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

Model: alternatively expressed as

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

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

Note definitions:

$$\lambda_0(t) = \lambda(t \mid X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)$$

$$\triangleright S_0(t) = S(t \mid X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)$$

Model interpretation

Proportional Hazards:

RR =
$$\frac{\lambda(t \mid X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)}{\lambda(t \mid X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, \dots, X_k = 0)}$$

= $\exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)$

• RR above is: "Relative risk, or hazard, of death comparing subjects with covariate values (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k) to subjects with covariate values $(0, 0, \ldots, 0)$."

In General:

 eta_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).

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

• The RR Comparing 2 Covariate Values (vectors):

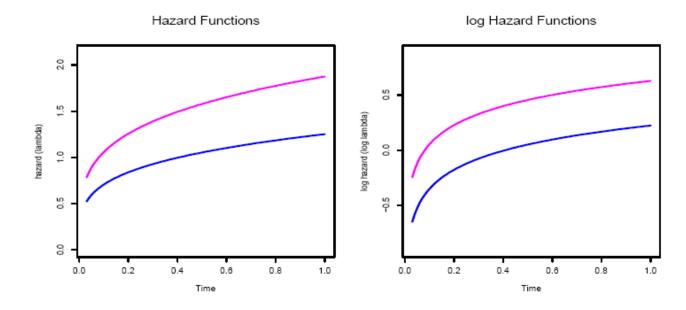
ho RR comparing (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) to $(X_1', X_2', \dots, X_k')$.

$$RR(X \text{ vs. } X') = \frac{\lambda(t \mid X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)}{\lambda(t \mid X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_k)}$$

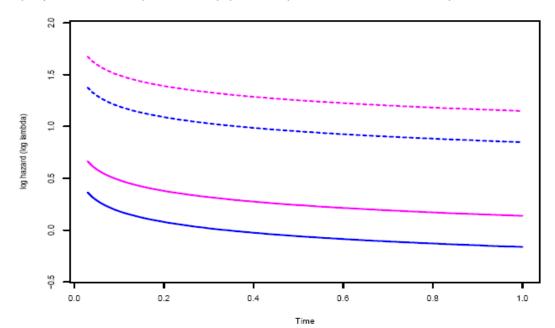
$$= \exp\left[\beta_1 \cdot (X_1 - X'_1) + \beta_2 \cdot (X_2 - X'_2) + \dots + \beta_k \cdot (X_k - X'_k) \right]$$

Examples: Cox proportional hazards model

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

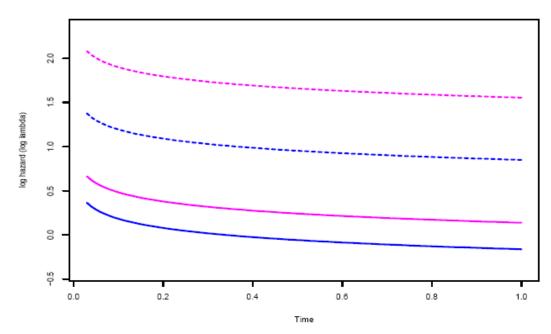


- 2: Dichotomous covariate; Dichotomous confounder
 - \triangleright $X_C = 1$ if level 2; $X_C = 0$ if level 1.
 - $\lambda(t \mid X_E, X_C) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E + \beta_2 X_C)$



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

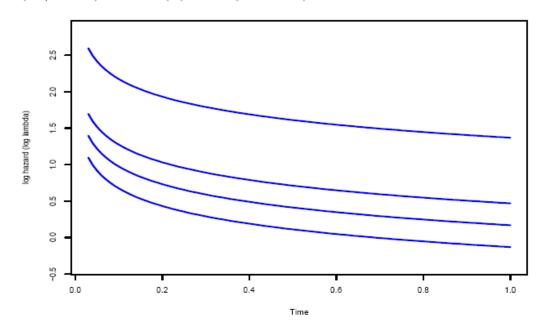
$$\lambda(t \mid X_E, X_C) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E + \beta_2 X_C + \beta_3 X_E X_C)$$



• 4: One continuous covariate

$$X_D = 1.0, 2.0, \dots$$

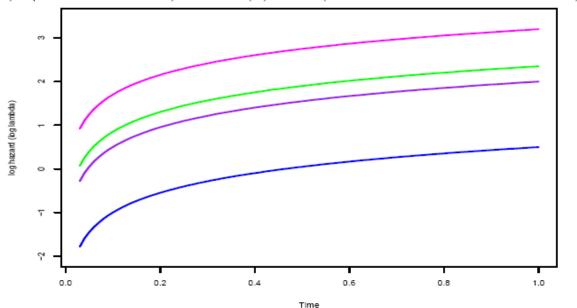
$$\lambda(t \mid X_D) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_D)$$



• **5**: K-sample Heterogeneity (K=4)

$$X_j = \begin{cases} 1 : \text{ group } j \\ 0 : \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

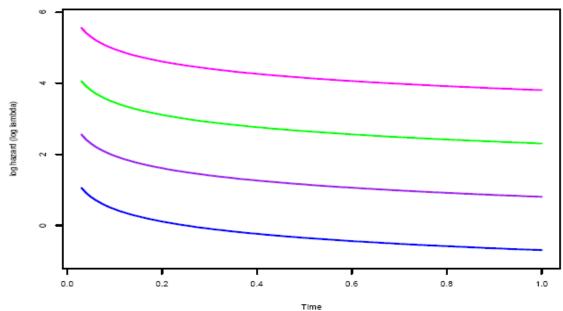
 $\lambda(t \mid X_2, X_3, X_4) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4)$



• 6: K-sample Trend (K=4)

$$> X_D = \left\{ \ j : {\rm group} \ j \right.$$

 $\lambda(t \mid X_D) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta X_D)$



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: $\lambda(t \mid X) = \lambda_0(t) \cdot \exp(X\beta)$
- "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

How to estimate the Cox model

• Obtain estimates of $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ by maximizing the "partial likelihood" function:

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

- $\triangleright \ \widehat{\beta}_1, \widehat{\beta}_2, \dots, \widehat{\beta}_k$ are MPLE's
- \triangleright Cl's for β_j using:

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

Cl's for hazard ratio (HR) using:

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

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

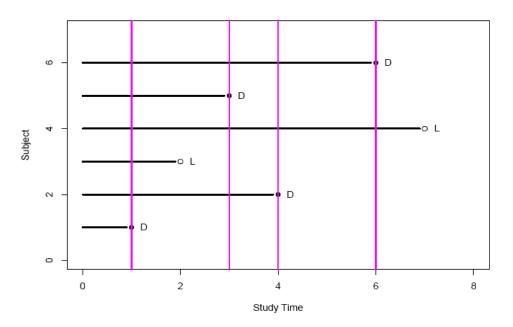
Partial likelihood

- Model: $\lambda(t \mid X_1, \dots, X_k) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k)$
- Order Data:
 - \triangleright $t_{(i)}$ 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 $Y_i \ge t_{(i)}$.
- 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



- $\bullet \quad \text{Failure times:} \ t_{(1)} = 1, t_{(2)} = 3, t_{(3)} = 4, t_{(4)} = 6.$
- Risk sets:

$$\triangleright$$
 $\mathcal{R}_1 = \{$

$$\triangleright \ \mathcal{R}_2 = \{$$

$$\triangleright$$
 $\mathcal{R}_3 = \{$

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

$$\triangleright \mathcal{R}_4 = \{$$

• 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?

Note :
$$P[T \in (t, t + \Delta t] \mid T \ge t] \approx \lambda(t) \cdot \Delta t$$

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

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

• Probability One Death, Was (i):

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

Probability of One Death:

P(One Death) = P(1 died, others lived) +
$$P(2 \text{ died, others lived }) + \\ \dots + \\ P(k \text{ died, others lived })$$
 P(j died, others lived) =
$$P_j \times \prod_{k \neq j} (1 - P_k)$$

• Note: $(1-P_j) \approx 1$ for small Δt .

Now calculate the desired quantity:

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

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

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

- Cox (1972) "No information can be contributed about β 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. Notice that our model is equivalent to

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

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, β_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!

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: $s_{1i} = \sum_{j:Y_i=t_{(i)},\delta_i=1} X_{1j}$
 - * Sum X_2 for deaths: $s_{2i} = \sum_{j:Y_i = t_{(i)}, \delta_i = 1} X_{2j}$ etc.
 - $hd \ \$ 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.

- 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.

 - Should be minor issue in general, and if not then perhaps a discrete-time approach should be considered.

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:

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

• In order to test:

 \triangleright $H_0: \text{Reduced model} \Leftrightarrow H_0: \beta_{p+1} = \ldots = \beta_k = 0$

ho $H_1:$ Full model \Leftrightarrow $H_1:$ extra coeff eq 0 somewhere

Use the partial likelihood ratio statistic

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

- Under H_0 (reduced is correct) then $X_{PLR}^2 \sim \chi^2(d\mathbf{f} = (\mathbf{k} \mathbf{p}))$
- Degrees of freedom, 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 df> 1.
- The PLR statistic is equivalent (using a "double negative") to:

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

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
1rtest 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 = 46363LR chi2(2) = 67.41Prob > chi2 = 0.0000Log likelihood = -1986.2945_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 = 46363LR chi2(3) = 68.49Log likelihood = -1985.7542Prob > 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

Model | nobs 11(null) 11(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

Estimate baseline hazard function

Recall: (math fact)

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

Cox model:

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

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

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

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

• Method 1: Breslow Method (used in STATA)

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

- Special Cases
 - ▶ 1 One group, no covariates

Nelson-Aalen Estimator

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

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

- Special Cases

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

$$\widehat{\Lambda}_{0}(t) = \sum_{i:t_{(i)} \leq t} \frac{D_{i}}{\left[\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_{i}} \exp(\widehat{\beta}X_{j})\right]}$$

$$= \sum_{i:t_{(i)} \leq t} \frac{D_{i}}{\left[\sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_{i}, \text{ group } 1} \exp(\widehat{\beta}X_{j}) + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}_{i} \text{ group } 2} \exp(\widehat{\beta}X_{j})\right]}$$

$$= \sum_{i:t_{(i)} \leq t} \frac{D_{i}}{\left[N_{1i} + \exp(\widehat{\beta}) \cdot N_{2i}\right]}$$

- In this example we can consider $N_{1i} + \exp(\widehat{\beta})N_{2i}$ as the "effective risk set" at time $t_{(i)}$.
- The <u>numerator</u>, 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
 - $\widehat{\beta} > 0$ more deaths in group 2, so effective risk set needs to be increased to estimate risk in group 1.
 - $\widehat{\beta} < 0$ fewer deaths in group 2, so effective risk set needs to be decreased to estimate risk in group 1.

• 3 In general, the denominator

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

- Is <u>bigger</u> 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 <u>smaller</u> 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:

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

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

- K&P (1973) show that using such a discrete time approximation leads to a method to estimate these α_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

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

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

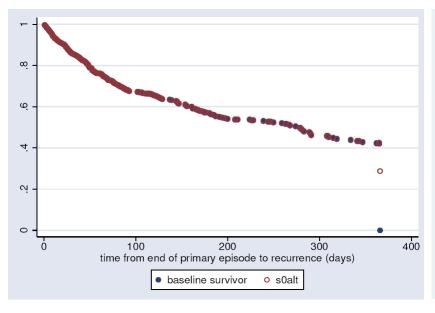
 This provides an estimate for the baseline survival function given as the default in STATA:

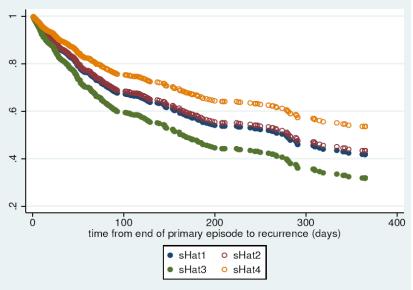
$$\widehat{S}_0(t) = \prod_{i:t_{(i)} \le t} \widehat{\alpha}_i$$

 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 )
```





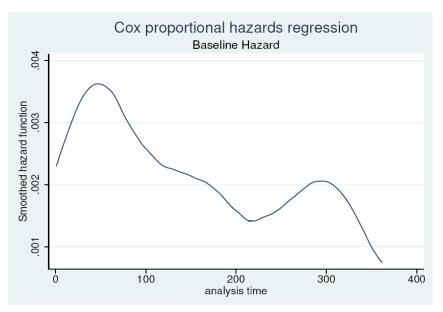
Smoothed baseline hazard functions

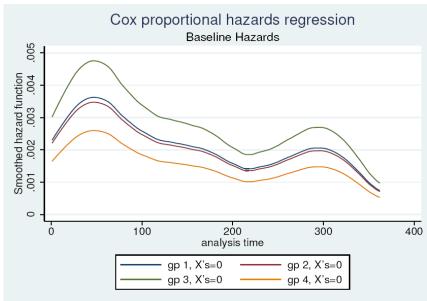
• Note: – with the estimates $\widehat{\alpha}_j$ we can also obtain estimates of the baseline hazard function:

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

STATA uses this method.

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 $X_E = 0$.

$$\lambda(t \mid X_E, X_C)$$

$$X_E = 1 : exposure$$

$$X_E = 0 : no exposure$$

• 1 "Dummy variables"

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

▶ Model

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

• Level 1 of X_C

exposed :
$$\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1)$$
 unexposed : $\lambda_0(t)$ $\mathbb{RR} = \exp(\beta_1)$

• Level 2 of X_C

exposed :
$$\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 + \beta_2)$$

unexposed : $\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_2)$ $\Re R = \exp(\beta_1)$

• Level 3 of X_C

exposed :
$$\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 + \beta_3)$$

unexposed : $\lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta_3)$ $\Re R = \exp(\beta_1)$

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:
 - $ightharpoonup Model: \lambda(t \mid X_E, X_C = j) = \lambda_{0,j}(t) \exp(\beta_1 X_E)$
 - $\lambda_{0,j}(t)$ represents an arbitrary function of time for the unexposed in strata $\{X_C=j\}$.
 - \triangleright However, the <u>comparison</u> 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

exposed :
$$\lambda_{0,1}(t) \exp(\beta_1)$$

unexposed : $\lambda_{0,1}(t)$
 $\Re R = \exp(\beta_1)$

• Level 2 of X_C

• Level 3 of X_C

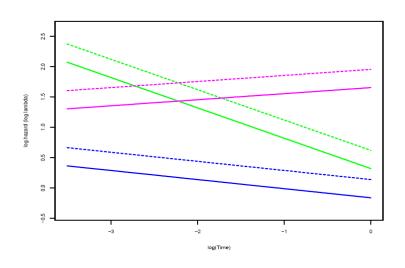
exposed :
$$\lambda_{0,3}(t) \exp(\beta_1)$$

 unexposed : $\lambda_{0,3}(t)$

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

Log likelihood = -1976.7301			LR chi2(7) Prob > chi2			86.54 0.0000
_t H	az. 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

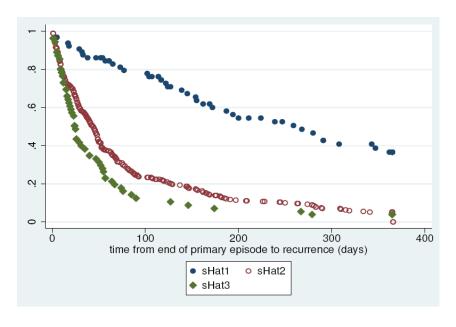
```
xi: stcox i.treat age25 i.gender, strata( group ) basesurv( s0 ) ///
    basehc( haz0 )
Stratified Cox regr. -- Breslow method for ties
                                    LR chi2(5) = 16.94
Log likelihood = -1723.7986
                          Prob > chi2 = 0.0046
      _t | Haz. Ratio Std. Err. 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
```

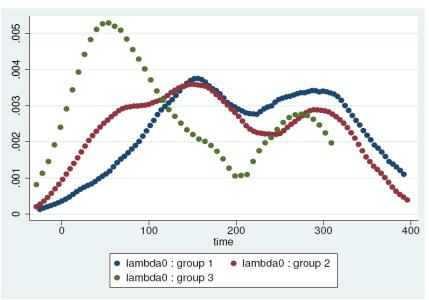
Stratified by group

Baseline functions

Separate S0 by Group

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





Summary

- Cox Model parameters β_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:

$$\lambda(t \mid X) \Longleftrightarrow \Lambda(t \mid X) \Longleftrightarrow S(t \mid X)$$

- 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.