

## ✓ Survival Analysis

Survival Analysis is a collection of statistical procedures for better data analysis for which the outcome variable of interest is time until an event occurs. By time we mean years, months, weeks or days from the beginning of follow up of an individual until and event occurs, alternatively time can refer to the age of an individual, when and event occurs. By event we mean death, disease incidence, relapse from remission, recovery or any designated experience of interest that may happen to an individual.

### Censoring

Most survival analysis must consider a key analytical problem called censoring. Censoring occurs when we have some information about individual survival time, but we do not know the survival time exactly.

Example:- As a simple example consider leukemia patient followed until they go out of remission. If for a given patient the study ends while the patient still in remission (i.e. doesn't get the event) that patient survival time is considered censored. For this person time is at least as long as the period that the person has been followed, but if the person goes out of remission after the study ends, we don't know the complete survival time.

(doesn't get the event  $\rightarrow$  remission)

• There are generally three reasons for censoring. They are —

- ① A person doesn't experience the event before the study ends.
- ② A person is lost to follow up during the study period.
- ③ A person withdraws from the study.



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Types of censoring:-

There are three types of censoring:

① Right censored:

True survival time is equal to or greater than observed survival time.

② Left censored:

True survival time is less than or equal to the observed survival time.

③ Interval censored:

True survival time is within a known time survival.

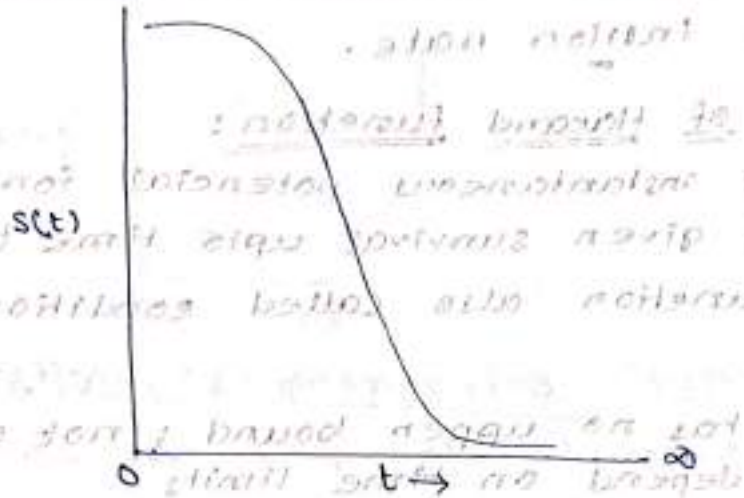
## Survival function :

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The survival function,  $S(t)$  this is the probability that a person survive longer than some specified time  $t$  i.e.  $S(t)$  gives the probability that the random variable  $T$  exists the specified time  $t$ .

Theoretically as  $t$  ranges from 0 to infinite the survival function can be made as a smooth curve. As illustrated by the graph where  $t$  identifies the  $x$  axis all survival function have the following characteristic :-

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- ① They are non-increasing, i.e. they head down ward as  $t$  increases.
- ② At time  $t=0$ ,  $s(t) = S(0) = 1$ , i.e. at the start of the study since know one can gotten have even the probability of surviving past time 0 is one
- ③ At time  $t=\infty$ ,  $s(t) = s(\infty) = 0$ , i.e. theoretically if the study period increase without limit eventually nobody would survive, so the survival past fall to 0.

## Hazard function :-

The Hazard function denoted by  $h(t)$

$$h(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t}$$

The hazard function  $h(t)$  gives the instantaneous potential per unit time for the event to occur, given that the individual has survive upto time  $t$ . In contrast to the survival function which



Focus on not failing on hazard function focus (P) on failing, i.e. on the event occurring. These in some sense, can be considered as given the opposite time of the information, survival function.

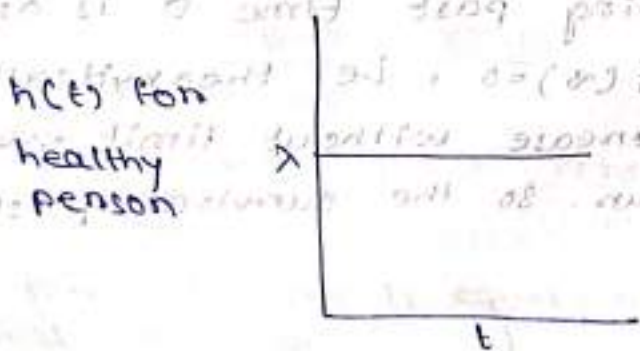
In the hazard formula, the conditional probability gives the probability that a person survival time  $T \geq t$  interval between  $t$  and  $t + \Delta t$ , given that survival time is greater than or equal to  $t$ . Because of the 'given' sign here the hazard function is sometimes conditional failure rate.

Property of Hazard function:

- ①  $h(t)$  gives instantaneous potential for event to occur to given survival upto time  $t$ .
- ② Hazard function also called conditional failure rate.
- ③  $h(t) \geq 0$ ; has no upper bound; not a prob; depend on time limits.

Types of Hazard function:

① Hazard function is constant: The following graph given shows constant hazard for study a healthy person.



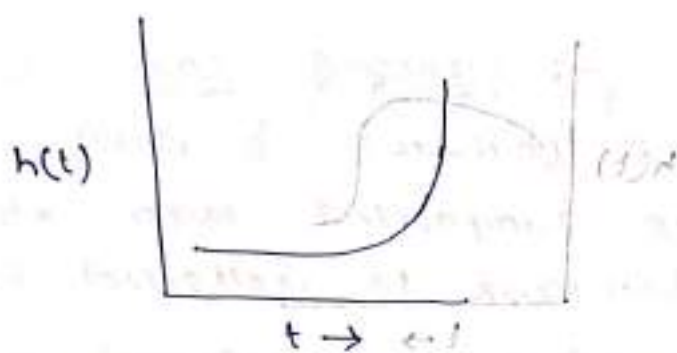
In this graph no matter what value of  $t$  specified  $h(t) = \lambda$  the same value, Hence  $h(t) = \lambda$ . When the hazard function is constant we say the survival model is exponential.

② Hazard function in increasing overtime:

The following graph shows a hazard function

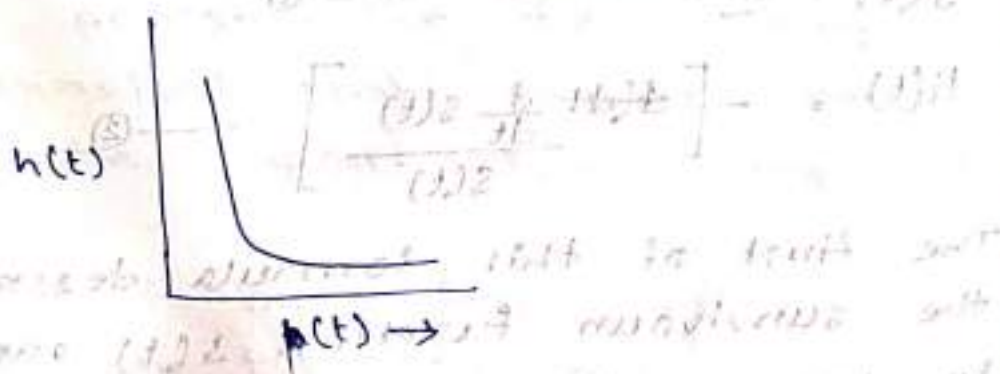


ie. increasing overtime. And example of this kind of graph is called an increasing Weibull model. Such a graph might be expected for leukemia patients not responding to treatment where the event of interest is death. As survival time increases for such a patient and as the prognosis accordingly worsens, the patient's potential for dying of the disease also increases.



③ Hazard function is decreasing overtime :

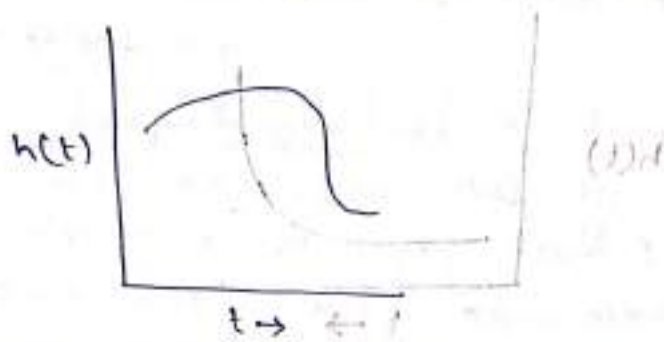
In the following graph the hazard function is decreasing overtime. An example of this kind of graph is called a decreasing Weibull. Such a graph might be expected when the event is death in persons who are recovering from surgery, because the potential for dying after surgery usually decreases as the time after surgery increases.





③ Hazard Function i.e. first increasing and then decreasing! (24)

The following graph shows a hazard function i.e. first increasing and then decreasing. An example of this type of graph is the log normal survival model. We can expect such a graph for Tuberculosis patients, since there potential for dying increases early in the disease and decreases later.



Relationship of ~~S(t)~~ S(t) and H(t): -

There is a clearly defined relationship between the survival function (S(t)) and Hazard Function (H(t)). In fact if one knows the form of S(t), one can derive the corresponding H(t) and the vice versa. The relationship between S(t) and H(t) can be expressed equivalently in either of two calculus formula shown in following:

$$S(t) = e^{-\int_0^t h(u) du} \quad \text{--- ①}$$

$$H(t) = - \left[ \frac{\frac{d}{dt} S(t)}{S(t)} \right] \quad \text{--- ②}$$

The first of this formula describes how the survival function S(t) can be written in terms of an integral involving the Hazard Function. The formula



says that  $s(t)$  equals the exponential of the negative integral of the Hazard Function between integration limits of 0 and  $t$ .

The second formula describes how the Hazard Function  $H(t)$  can be written in terms of derivative involving the survival function. These formula says that  $H(t)$  equals - the derivative of  $s(t)$  with respect to  $t$  divided by  $s(t)$ .

### Goals of Survival Analysis :-

The basic goals of survival analysis are -

- ① To estimate and interpret survival and / or hazard function of survival data.
- ② To compare survival and / or hazard function
- ③ To assess the relationship of explanatory variables to survival time.

### Kaplan-Meier Survival Curves :-

To estimate the survival probability at a given time we make use of the risk set at that time to include the information we have on a censored person upto the time censorship, rather than simply through a away all the information on a censored person. The actual calculation of such survival prob. can be carried out using the Kaplan-Meier method (KM method).

The general formula for a KM survival prob. at failure time  $t_{(j)}$  is given by

$$\hat{S}(t_{(j)}) = \hat{S}(t_{(j-1)}) \times \hat{P}_n(T > t_{(j)} / T \geq t_{(j)})$$



This formula gives the prob. of surviving past the previous failure time  $t_{(i-1)}$ , multiplied by the conditional probability of surviving past time  $t_{(i)}$ , given survival to at least time  $t_{(i)}$ . The above KM formula can also be expressed as a product limit if we substitute for the survival probability  $\hat{S}(t_{(i-1)})$ , the product of all fraction that estimate the conditional prob. for failure times  $t_{(i-1)}$  and earlier. i.e.  $\hat{S}(t_{(i-1)}) = \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} \left[ \frac{\hat{P}_n(\bar{T} > t_{(j)} / \bar{T} \geq t_{(j)}) \right]$

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① The remission times (weeks) for two groups of leukemia patients:

Group 1 (N=21)	Group 2 (N=21)
Treatment	Placebo
6, 6, 6, 6, 7, 10, 13,	1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 4, 4,
16, 22, 23, 6+, 9+,	5, 5, 8, 8, 8, 8,
10+, 11+, 17+, 19+,	11, 11, 12, 12, 15,
20+, 25+, 32+, 32+,	17, 22, 23
34+, 35+	

$t_{(i)}$	$n_i$	$m_i$	$r_i$	$\hat{S}(t_i)$
0	21	0	0	
6	21	3	1	$1 - 3/21 = 0.8571$
7	17	1	1	$0.8571 \times 16/17 = 0.8067$
10	15	1	2	$0.8067 \times 14/15 = 0.7529$
13	12	1	0	$0.7529 \times 11/12 = 0.6901$
16	11	1	3	$0.6901 \times 10/11 = 0.6274$
22	7	1	0	$0.6274 \times 6/7 = 0.5371$
23	6	1	5	$0.5371 \times 5/6 = 0.4482$
>23				

$t_e$	$n_e$	$m_e$	$q_e$	$\hat{S}(t_e)$
0	21	0	0	$\rightarrow 1$
1	21	2	0	$\rightarrow 1 \times 19/21 =$
2	19	2	0	$\rightarrow 19/21 \times 17/19 = \frac{17}{21}$
3	17	1	0	$\rightarrow 17/21 \times 16/17 = \frac{16}{21}$
4	16	2	0	$\rightarrow 16/21 \times 14/16 = \frac{14}{21}$
5	14	2	0	$\rightarrow 14/21 \times 12/14 = \frac{12}{21}$
8	12	4	0	$\rightarrow 12/21 \times 8/12 = \frac{8}{21}$
11	8	2	0	$\rightarrow 8/21 \times 6/8 = \frac{6}{21}$
12	6	2	0	$\rightarrow 6/21 \times 4/6 = \frac{4}{21}$
15	4	1	0	$\rightarrow 4/21 \times 3/4 = \frac{3}{21}$
17	3	1	0	$\rightarrow 3/21 \times 2/3 = \frac{2}{21}$
22	2	1	0	$\rightarrow 2/21 \times 1/2 = \frac{1}{21}$
23	1	0	0	$\rightarrow \text{[blacked out]} = 0$



## Unit-4

### Log-Rank Test :-

(The Log-Rank test is a large sample  $\chi^2$ -test that uses as its test criterion a statistic that provides an overall comparison of the k-m curves being compared.) This statistic like many other statistic used in other kinds of  $\chi^2$ -test, makes use of observed v/s expected cell counts over categories of outcomes. The categories for the Log-Rank statistics are defined by each of the ordered failure times for the entire set of data being analysed. (Here, for each ordered failure time  $t_{(i)}$ , in the entire set of data, we need the no. of subjects ( $m_{i1}$ ) failing at that time separately by group (i), followed by the no. of subjects ( $m_{i2}$ ) in the risk set at that time, also separately by group. Now, ~~expected cell counts for each group is calculated by each~~

$t_{(i)}$	$m_{1f}$	$m_{2f}$	$n_{1f}$	$n_{2f}$	$q_{1f}$	$q_{2f}$
1	0	2	21	21	0	10
2	0	2	21	19	0	10
3	0	1	21	17	0	10
4	0	2	21	16	0	10
5	0	2	21	16	0	10
6	3	0	21	14	0	0
7	1	10	17	12	1	0
8	0	4	16	12	1	0
10	1	0	15	8	1	0
11	0	2	13	8	1	0
12	0	2	12	6	0	0
13	1	0	12	4	1	0
15	0	1	11	4	0	0
16	0	0	11	3	0	0
17	0	1	10	3	0	0
22	1	1	7	2	0	0
23	1	1	6	0	0	0

Now, expected cell counts for each groups is calculated by following formula:-

$$E_{1f} = \left( \frac{n_{1f}}{n_{1f} + n_{2f}} \right) \times (m_{1f} + m_{2f})$$

$$E_{2f} = \left( \frac{n_{2f}}{n_{1f} + n_{2f}} \right) \times (m_{1f} + m_{2f})$$

When, two groups are being compared the Log-Rank test statistics is formed using the sum of the observed - expected counts over all failure times for one of the two groups. For the two groups case the log rank test statistic is defined by

Log-rank test statistic,

$$= \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{\sqrt{(O_i - E_i)}} \quad ; \quad i = 1 \text{ or } 2$$



where  $v(O_i - E_i)$

$$= \sum_f \frac{n_{1f} n_{2f} (m_{1f} + m_{2f}) (n_{1f} + n_{2f} - m_{1f} - m_{2f})}{(n_{1f} + n_{2f})^2 (n_{1f} + n_{2f} - 1)} ; i = 1 \text{ or } 2$$

The null hypothesis being tested is that there is no overall difference between the 2 survival curves. Under these null hypothesis the log-rank test statistics is approximately  $\chi^2$  with one degree of freedom. i.e.  $\chi^2 \approx \sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} = \frac{(O_1 - E_1)^2}{E_1} + \frac{(O_2 - E_2)^2}{E_2}$

now, if the calculated  $\chi^2 > \chi^2_{\alpha}$ , we reject the null hypothesis otherwise we accept it.

Formula for the Log-Rank Statistics for several groups :-

The Log-Rank test can also be used to compare three or more survival curves. The null hypothesis for these more general situation is that all survival curves are the same. Here we need to calculate the variances and covariances of  $O_i - E_i$ . For  $i = 1, 2, \dots, g$ ,  $g =$  no. of groups and  $f = 1, 2, \dots, k$  where  $k =$  no. of failure times,  $N_{if} =$  no. at risk in the  $i$ th group and the  $f$ th ordered no. of failures of  $i$ th group and  $f$ th ordered no. to failure time and in  $i$ th group at  $f$ th ordered failure time  $= \frac{N_{if}}{N_{1f} + N_{2f}}$

$$\Rightarrow n_{if} = \sum_{i=1}^g n_{if}$$

$$m_{if} = \sum_{i=1}^g m_{if}$$





$$V(O_i - E_i) = \sum_{f=1}^k \left( \frac{n_{if}(n_f - n_{if}) m_{if}(n_f - m_{if})}{n^2(n_f - 1)} \right)$$

$$\text{Cov}(O_i - E_i, O_l - E_l) = \sum_{f=1}^k \left( \frac{-n_{if}(n_{lf} \cdot m_f (n_f - m_f))}{n^2(n_f - 1)} \right)$$

$$d = \left( O_1 - E_1, O_2 - E_2, \dots, O_{g-1} - E_{g-1} \right)^T$$

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} (V_{il}) \end{pmatrix} \text{ where, } V_{ii} = V(O_i - E_i) \text{ and } V_{il} = \text{cov}(O_i - E_i, O_l - E_l)$$

i = 1, 2, ..., g-1  
l = 1, 2, ..., g-1

Then, the log-Rank Statistic is given by the matrix product formula:

Log-Rank statistic =  $d'V^{-1}d$  which has approximately a  $\chi^2$ -distribution with  $g-1$  degrees of freedom under the null hypothesis that all  $g$  groups have common survival curve.

Alternatives to the Log-Rank Test :-

There are several alternatives to the Log-Rank Test. The Log-Rank uses  $O_i - E_i = \sum m_{if} - e_{if}$   
*i* = no. of groups  
*f* = *f*<sup>th</sup> failure time

This simple some gives the same weight namely unity to each failure time when combining observed - expected failure in each group. ~~waiting the~~

Hence the test statistic is,

$$\frac{\left( \sum w(t_{if}) (m_{if} - e_{if}) \right)^2}{V \left( \sum w(t_{if}) (m_{if} - e_{if}) \right)}$$

where, *i* = 1 to 2  
*f* = *f*<sup>th</sup> failure time  
*w*(*t<sub>if</sub>*) = weight at *f*<sup>th</sup> failure time



(93)

The Wilcoxon, Tarone-Ware, Peto, Flamington-Hanington test statistics are variation of the log-rank test statistics, are derived by applying different weights at the  $i$ th failure time. The Wilcoxon Test weights the observed - expected score at time  $t(i)$  by the no. at risk  $n_i$ , overall groups at time  $t(i)$ . Thus the Wilcoxon test places more emphasise on the information at the beginning of the survival curve at the no. at risk at large allowing early failure to receive more weight than later failure. This type of weighting may be used to assess whether the effect of a treatment on survival strongest in earlier phases of administration and tend to be less effective over time.

The Tarone-Ware test statistics also applies more weight to the early failure times by weighting the observed - expected score at time  $t(i)$  by the square root of the no. at risk  $\sqrt{n_i}$ .

The Peto Test weights the effect failure time the survival estimate  $\hat{S}(t(i))$  calculated overall groups combine.

The Flamington-Hanington Test uses Kaplan-Meier survival estimate  $\hat{S}(t)$  overall groups to calculate its weights for the  $i$ th failure time  $\hat{S}(t(i-1))^p [1 - \hat{S}(t(i-1))]^q$ .

The Flamington-Hanington Test allows the most flexibility in terms of the choice of ways beta weights because the user provides the values of  $p$  and  $q$ . For example  $p=1$  and  $q=0$  and  $w_p = \hat{S}(t(i-1))$ .



which gives more weights for the earlier survival times when  $\hat{S}(t_{(i-1)})$  is closer to 1. However, if  $p=0$  and  $q=1$  then  $w_i = 1 - \hat{S}(t_{(i-1)})$  in which case the later survival time receives more weight. If  $p=0$  and  $q=0$  then  $w_i = 1$  and the Fleming-Daleny-Harrington test reduces to Log-Rank Test.

Date - 19/07/22

Cox - Proportional Hazard Model

The Cox-Proportional Hazard Model is defined by  $h(t, X) = h_0(t) \cdot e^{\sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i X_i}$ . This model gives an expression for the hazard at time  $t$  for an individual with a given specification of a set of explanatory variables denoted by the  $X$ , i.e. the  $X$  represents a collection of predicted variables i.e. being model to predict an individual's hazard. The Cox-model formula says that the hazard at time  $t$  is the product of two quantities. The 1st of these  $h_0(t)$  is called the baseline hazard function. The 2nd quantity is the exponential expression to the linear sum of  $\beta_i X_i$  where the sum is over the  $p$  explanatory  $X$  variables. An important feature of these formula, which concerns the proportional hazards assumption, is that the baseline hazard is a function of  $t$  but doesn't involve the  $X$ 's. In contrast the exponential expression above here involves  $X$  but doesn't involve  $t$ .



The  $X$ 's are called time dependent  $X$ 's. The cox-model formula has the property that if all the  $X$ 's are equal to zero. The formula reduces to the baseline hazard function. i.e. the exponential part of the formula become  $e^0$ , which is 1. This property of the cox-model is the reason  $h_0(t)$  is called the baseline function or from a slightly different perspective the cox-model reduces to the baseline hazard when no  $X$ 's are in the model. Thus  $h_0(t)$  may be considered as a starting or baseline version of a hazard function prior to considering any of the exes. Another important property of the cox-model is that the baseline hazard  $h_0(t)$  is an unspecified function. It is this property that makes the cox-model is semi-parametric model.

### Why Cox-Proportional Hazard model is popular?

A key reason for the popularity of the cox-model is that even though the baseline hazard is not specified, reasonable good estimate, regression coefficient and hazard ratios of interest and adjusted survival curve can be obtained for a wide variety of data situations. Another way of saying this is that the cox-PH model is a "Robust model", so that the results from using the cox model will closely approximate the



results for the correct parametric model. We would prefer to use a parametric model if we were sure of the correct model. Thus when in doubt the cox-model will give reliable enough results so that it is a 'safe' choice of model, and the user doesn't need to worry about whether the wrong parametric model is chosen.

Date - 26/07

Maximum likelihood estimation of the cox-proportional hazard model :-

The maximum likelihood estimates of the cox-model parameters are derived by maximising a likelihood function, usually denoted by  $L$ . The maximum likelihood function is a mathematical expression which describes the joint prob. of obtaining the data actually observed on the subjects in the study as a function of unknown parameters (the  $\beta$ 's) in the model being considered.  $L$  is sometimes written notationally as  $L(\beta)$  or  $L(\beta)$  where  $\beta$  denotes the collection of unknown parameters.

The formula for the cox-model likelihood function is actually called a partial likelihood function rather than a complete likelihood function. The term partial likelihood is used because the likelihood formula considers prob. only for those subjects who fail and doesn't explicitly consider prob. for those subjects who are censored, thus the likelihood for the cox-model doesn't consider prob. for all subjects and so it is called a partial



likelihood. In particular the partial likelihood can be written as the product of several " (97) one for each of say  $k$  failure times. Thus at the  $i^{\text{th}}$  failure time  $L_i$  denotes the likelihood at failing at this time given survival upto this time. Thus  $L = L_1 \times L_2 \times L_3 \times \dots \times L_k$

$$= \prod_{j=1}^k L_j$$

Thus although the partial likelihood focuses on subjects who failed the survival time information prior to censorship to use those subject who are censored. i.e. a person who is censored after the  $i^{\text{th}}$  failure time is part of the risk set used to compute  $L_i$  even though this person is censored later. Once the likelihood function for a given model the maximization process is carried out by taking partial derivatives of  $\log(L)$  with respect to each parameter in the model and then solving a system of eqn<sup>n</sup>.

$$\frac{\partial \log(L)}{\partial \beta_i} = 0 \quad , \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, p$$

This solution is carried out using iteration. i.e. the solution is based on a stepwise manner which starts a guessed value for the solution and then successively modifies the guessed value until a solution is finally obtained.

### Hazard Ratio :-

In general a hazard ratio is define as the hazard for one individual divided by the hazard for a different " . The two individual being compared can be distinguish by the values of the set of predictors, i.e.



the  $x$ 's. We can write the hazard ratio (9) as the estimate of  $\frac{h(t, x^*)}{h(t, x)}$  divided by the estimate of  $h(t, x)$ . Where  $x^*$  denotes the set of predictors for one individual and  $x$  denotes the set of predictors for other individuals. Thus  $\hat{HR} = \frac{\hat{h}(t, x^*)}{\hat{h}(t, x)}$

The meaning of the PH assumption :- ✓

The PH assumption requires that the HR is constant overtime, or equivalently that the hazard for one individual is proportional to the hazard for any other individual, where the proportionality const is independent of time. We know that to understand the PH assumption we consider the formula for the HR that compares two different specifications  $x^*$  and  $x$  for the explanatory variable use in the cox-model. The HR

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{HR} &= \frac{\hat{h}(t, x^*)}{\hat{h}(t, x)} \\ &= \frac{\hat{b}_0(t) \times e^{\sum \hat{\beta}_i \cdot x_i^*}}{\hat{b}_0(t) \times e^{\sum \hat{\beta}_i \cdot x_i}} \\ &= e^{\sum \hat{\beta}_i (x_i^* - x_i)} \quad \text{doesn't involve } t \\ &= \hat{\theta} \quad (\text{say}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus once the model is fitted and the value of  $x^*$  and  $x$  are specified the value of the exponential expression for the estimated hazard ratio is a const. which doesn't depend time. If we denote this const by  $\hat{\theta}$  then we can write the hazard ratio as shown above. This is a



a mathematical expression which states the proportional hazard assumption. (99)