

“Survival” and event history analysis

Censoring, Kaplan-Meier, Cox regression, Interactions

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EVENT HISTORY ANALYSIS: WHAT AND WHY?

Application of statistics to medicine

“Sir David Cox’s 1972 paper on proportional-hazards regression ignited the fields of survival analysis and semiparametric inference (using partial specification of the probability distribution of the outcomes under investigation). Rapid improvements in computer support were essential to the growing role of empirical investigation and statistical inference.”

EVENT HISTORY ANALYSIS: WHAT AND WHY?

New England Journal of Medicine

Editorial, Jan. 6, 2000, p. 42-49

The eleven most important developments in medicine over the past millennium

- Elucidation of human anatomy and physiology
- Discovery of cells and their substructures
- Elucidation of the chemistry of life
- *Application of statistics to medicine*
- Development of anesthesia
- Discovery of the relation of microbes to disease
- Elucidation of inheritance and genetics
- Knowledge of the immune system
- Development of body imaging
- Discovery of antimicrobial agents
- Development of molecular pharmacotherapy

TOTALLY INDECENT SELF-PROMOTION

Statistics for Biology and Health

Aalen • Borgan • Gjessing

Statistics for Biology and Health

Odd O. Aalen
Ørnulf Borgan
Håkon K. Gjessing

Survival and Event History Analysis

A Point Process View

Springer

Time-to-event data are ubiquitous in fields such as medicine, biology, demography, sociology, economics and reliability theory. Recently a need to analyze more complex event histories has emerged. Examples are individuals that move among several states, family data that come over several time intervals, interval time-dependent covariates, and the estimation of causal effects from observational data. The aim of this book is to bridge the gap between standard statistical models and a range of models where the dynamic structure of the data comes to the full light. The common denominator of such models is stochastic processes. The authors treat the stochastic processes, semiparametric and stochastic integrals in very easily understood data. Beginning with standard analyses such as Kaplan-Meier plots and GEE processes, the presentation progresses to the authors' hazard model and counting event data. Stochastic processes are also used as latent models for individual failure; they allow sensible interpretations of a number of surprising analyses seen in population data. The stochastic process framework is naturally connected to causality. The authors show how dynamic point processes can incorporate many modern causality ideas in a framework that takes the time aspect into account. To make the material accessible to the reader, a large number of practical examples, mostly from medicine, are developed in detail. Stochastic processes are introduced in an intuitive and non-technical manner. The book is intended as a companion to the authors' previous books on survival analysis and modelling of the stochastic process. The reader is assumed to have a background in probability, statistics and calculus.

Odd O. Aalen is professor of medical statistics at the University of Oslo, Norway. His PhD from the University of California, Berkeley in 1975 introduced counting processes and martingales in event history analysis. He has also contributed to numerous other areas of event history analysis, such as additive hazards regression, frailty, and causality through dynamic modelling.

Ørnulf Borgan is professor of statistics at the University of Oslo, Norway. Since his PhD in 1984 he has been considered internationally in event history analysis. He is co-author of the monograph Statistical Models Based on Counting Processes, and editor of Scandinavian Journal of Statistics.

Håkon K. Gjessing is professor of medical statistics at the Norwegian Institute of Public Health and the University of Bergen, Norway. His PhD in probability in 1995, at the medical school, covered a range of theoretical and applied problems in biostatistics.

A SAMPLE OF BOOKS



An Introduction to Stata for Health Researchers, Fourth Edition
Svend Juul and Morten Frydenberg
Stata Press, 2014

Analysing Survival Data from Clinical Trials and Observational Studies
Ettore Marubini, Maria Grazia Valsecchi
Wiley, 2004

Survival Analysis and Epidemiological Tables Reference Manual
Stata Press, 2013

An Introduction to Survival Analysis Using Stata, Third Edition
Mario Cleves, William Gould, Roberto G. Gutierrez, and Yulia V. Marchenko
Stata Press, 2010

EVENT HISTORY ANALYSIS: CHOICE OF TIME SCALE

Three most common time scales:

1 Time from inclusion to event (study time)

Example: Time from cancer diagnosis to death

Zero: Date of inclusion (individual)

2 Calendar time

Example: Time from a fixed date (e.g. 01 Jan 2009) to infection with swine flu

Zero: Start date (common)

3 Age

Example: Age at death

Zero: Date of birth (individual)

EVENT HISTORY ANALYSIS: WHAT AND WHY?

- Outcome: Time to "event"
- Additional problem: Censoring (and truncation)
- For example:
 - 1 Time from cancer diagnosis to death
Censoring: Cancer patients get transferred to another hospital (loss-to-followup)
 - 2 Time from started malaria treatment to cured
Censoring: Patients end the treatment when most severe symptoms end
 - 3 Time from inserting a dental filling to when it fails
Censoring: Study ends after 5 years
 - 4 Time from first birth to the second (for the same mother)
Censoring: Mother too high age, or decides not to have more children
 - 5 Time from hip prosthesis operation to failure/re-operation
Censoring: The prosthesis lasts for the rest of the patients's life
 - 6 Time from entering marriage to divorce
Censoring: The couple moves abroad (loss-to-followup), or never get divorced!

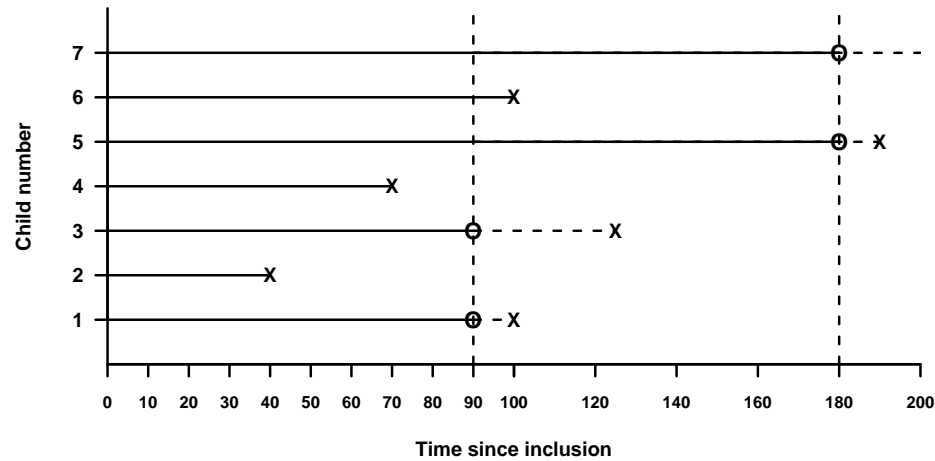
NOTE: Is censoring *independent*?
(not necessarily the case in all the examples above)

NEPAL STUDY: TIME FROM FIRST PNEUMONIA ADMISSION TO NEXT

- **Outcome:**
Time from first admission with pneumonia until *next admission*
- Age range: 2 months to 3 years
- **Dates:** November 2003 to December 2007
- **Main exposure:** sink versus placebo
- A total of $719 + 350 = 1069$ children
- 719 children have two admissions
- 350 children have only the first admission (during follow-up period):
Censoring! Forget these (for the time being!!)

(Data from Tor Strand, Maria Mathisen, and others,
Centre for International Health, UiB)

TIMELINE FOR EVENTS AND CENSORING



X = event O = censoring

DATA, SELECTED VARIABLES

	id	date	age	sex	treat.orig	time	event	time.14	treat
1	1	2004-01-25	10	1	1	69	1	56	1
2	2	2004-03-22	13	2	1	123	1	110	0
3	6	2003-11-30	7	1	1	190	0	177	1
4	8	2003-12-02	5	2	0	185	0	172	1
5	9	2003-12-03	4	1	0	93	0	80	1
6	13	2003-12-24	6	2	0	183	0	170	1
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

date: date of inclusion

age: age (at inclusion) in months

sex: boys = 1, girls = 2

time: time since inclusion to event or censoring

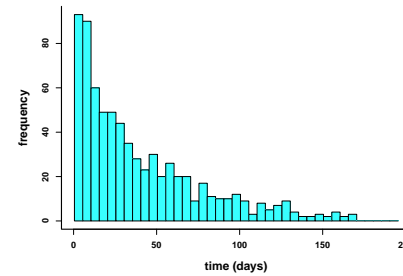
event: new episode = 1, censored = 0

time.14 = time - 13: Starts counting after 14 days

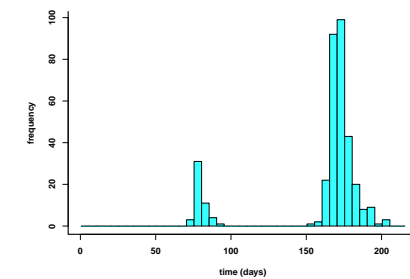
treat: zink = 1, placebo = 0

TIME DISTRIBUTIONS

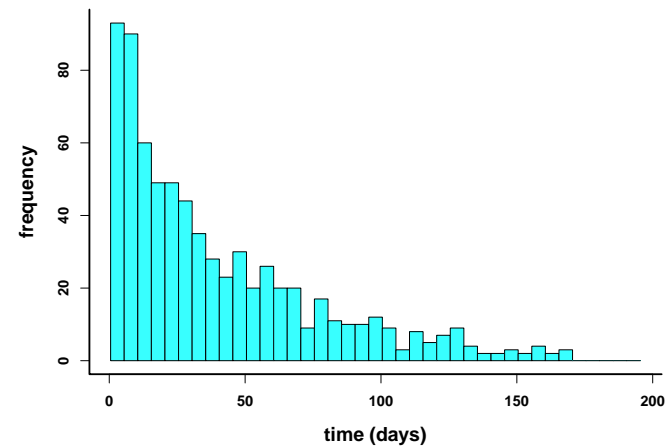
Distribution of 719 new infections



Follow-up time of the 350 censored



DAYS TO NEXT OCCURRENCE OF PNEUMONIA: HISTOGRAM



(Categories of 5 days, with 14 days "latency")

NOTE!

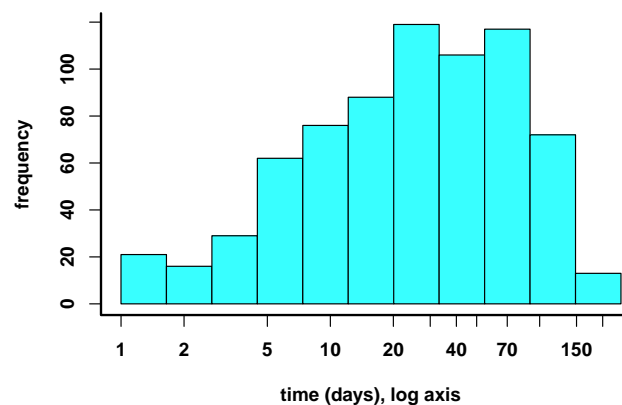
- Always positive values
- NOT a normal distribution, i.e. no t-test nor ordinary regression
- Often skewed distribution, with a tail to the right
- What to do with the 350 that never got a new infection?
- How to compare zink group with placebo group?

DID IT HELP??

- Much closer to a normal distribution.
Can use ordinary t-test to compare zink and placebo
- No, not really,... we have still not dealt with the 350 censored
- Ordinary regression/t-test do NOT deal with censoring
- ... we need something better...

TRICK?? TRY A LOG TRANSFORM

Histogram with log scale:

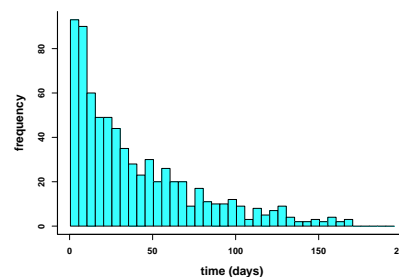


THE SECRET WEAPON OF SURVIVAL ANALYSIS

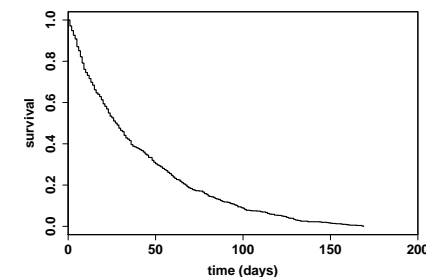
Survival curve

- T is time to event. Survival curve: $S(t) = P(T > t)$.
- I.e., the probability of “surviving” more than t days.

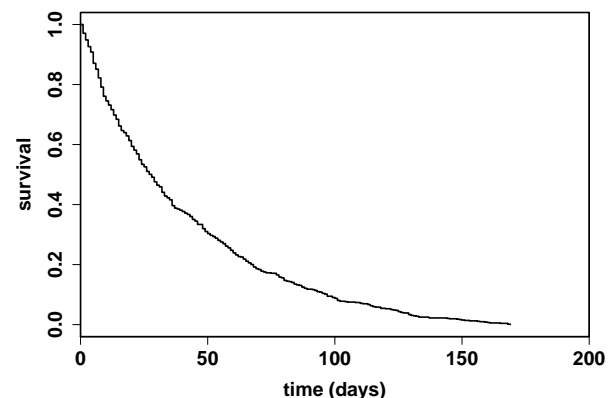
Distribution



Survival curve



KAPLAN-MEIER ESTIMATE OF THE SURVIVAL CURVE



Shows the proportion that still have *not* had a new infection

E.g.: After 50 days there are about 30% that still haven't had a new infection

KAPLAN-MEIER: COMPUTATION WITH CENSORING

Compute $S(t)$ *with* censoring:

As an illustration: Assume 100 children were censored at day 3:

Survival day-to-day:

time	n.risk	n.event	n.censored	survival	
1	719	21	0	0.97079	
2	698	16	0	0.94854	
3	682	16	100	0.92629	new
4	566	13	0	0.90821	--> 0.90501
5	553	27	0	0.87065	--> 0.86083

Survival first 4 days:

$$\text{survival first 3 days} \times \frac{566 - 13}{566} = 0.92629 \times 0.9770318 = 0.90501$$

Survival first 5 days:

$$0.9050148 \times 0.9511754 = 0.86083$$

Effect of censoring accumulates!

KAPLAN-MEIER: COMPUTATION WITHOUT CENSORING

Compute $S(t)$ *without* censoring:

$$S(t) = \frac{\text{the number of children without new infection at time } t}{\text{total number included}}$$

Survival day-to-day (from software):

time	n.risk	n.event	survival
1	719	21	0.97079
2	698	16	0.94854
3	682	16	0.92629
4	666	13	0.90821
5	653	27	0.87065

Survival first day:

$$\frac{719 - 21}{719} = 0.97079$$

Survival first two days:

$$\text{survival first day} \times \text{survival second day} = 0.97079 \times \frac{698 - 16}{698} = 0.94854$$

etc., same result as the simple rule (above).

KAPLAN-MEIER: NUMBERS "AT RISK"

- The important issue is:

THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN "AT RISK" FOR A NEW INFECTION
AT A GIVEN DAY

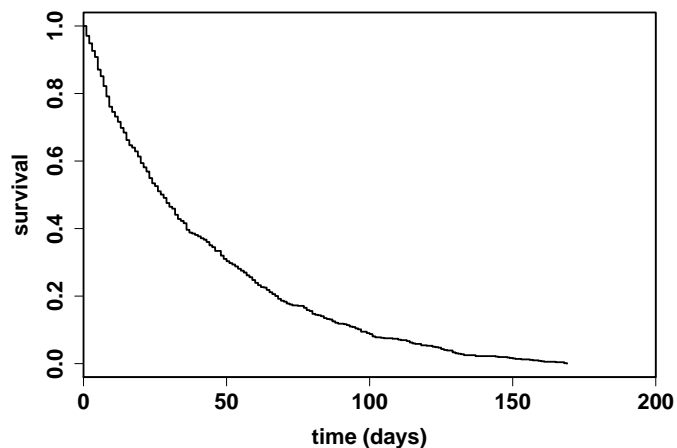
- That is, the number of children who – at a given day – are

WITHOUT A NEW INFECTION AND ALSO NOT CENSORED

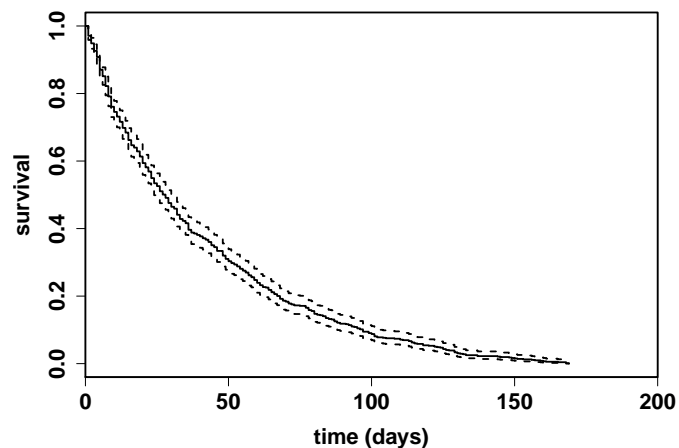
- In other words, the number of children who still *can* experience an event

- Kaplan-Meier uses children *as long as they are at risk*, then removes them from the computation

KAPLAN-MEIER ESTIMATE OF THE SURVIVAL CURVE



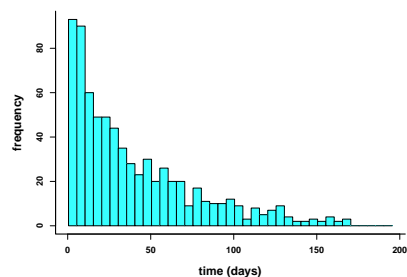
KAPLAN-MEIER ESTIMATE OF THE SURVIVAL CURVE



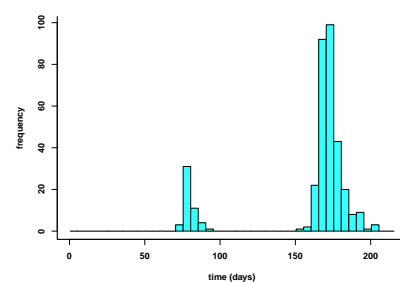
(With 95% “pointwise” confidence intervals)

NOW, HOW ABOUT THE 350 CENSORED CHILDREN?

Distribution of new infections

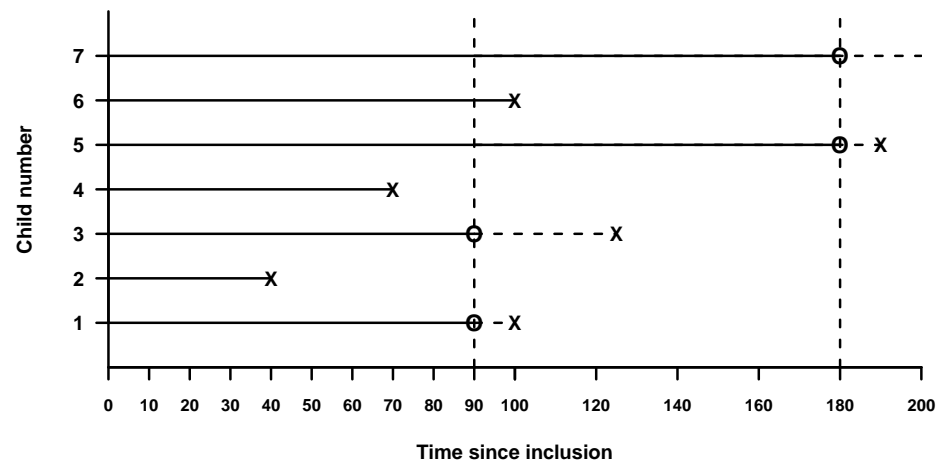


Follow-up time of the 350 censored



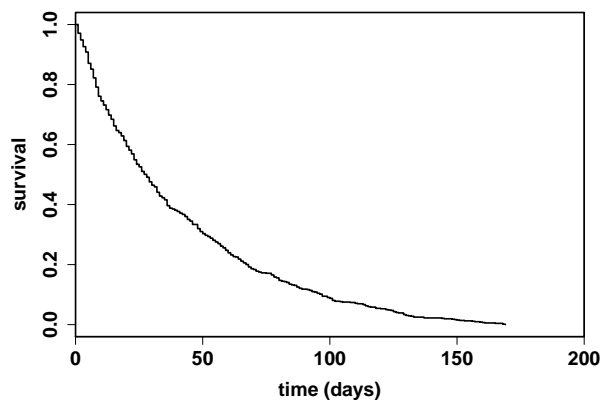
- Censoring has been ignored so far, but NOW we can deal with it...

TIMELINE FOR EVENTS AND CENSORING



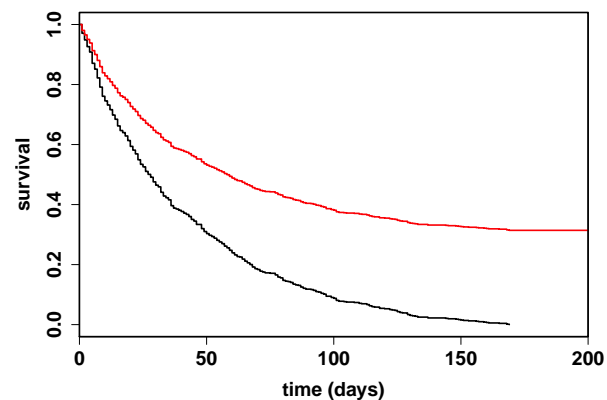
X = event O = censoring

KAPLAN-MEIER, *without* THE CENSORED



(Ignores censoring)

KAPLAN-MEIER, *with* THE CENSORED!



Red line: Kaplan-Meier with censoring

MEAN VERSUS MEDIAN: “THE FINAL SHOWDOWN”

Compute:

- Mean time to next infection
- Median time to next infection

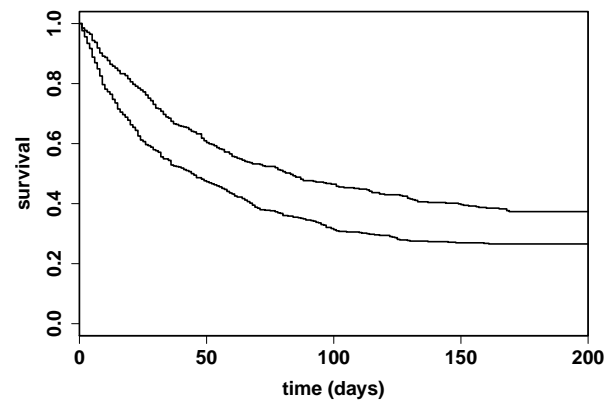
Results without censoring (*Wrong!*)

n	events	median	0.95LCL	0.95UCL
719	719	28	24	31
		mean		
		40.1	37.3	43.1

Results with censoring (*Correct!*)

n	events	median	0.95LCL	0.95UCL
1069	719	58	51	66
		mean		
		???	???	???

KAPLAN-MEIER: COMPARE GROUPS



- Compare effect of zink treatment with placebo
- Top curve is treatment, bottom curve is placebo

DATA, SELECTED VARIABLES

```
id      date age sex treat.orig time event time.14  treat
1 1 2004-01-25 10 1      1 69      1      56      1
2 2 2004-03-22 13 2      1 123     1      110     0
3 6 2003-11-30 7 1      1 190     0      177     1
4 8 2003-12-02 5 2      0 185     0      172     1
5 9 2003-12-03 4 1      0 93      0      80      1
6 13 2003-12-24 6 2      0 183     0      170     1
:      :      :      :      :      :
:      :      :      :      :      :
```

date: date of inclusion

age: age (at inclusion) in months

sex: boys = 1, girls = 2

time: time since inclusion to event or censoring

event: new episode = 1, censored = 0

time.14 = time - 13: Starts counting after 14 days

treat: zink = 1, placebo = 0

TESTING THE DIFFERENCE

Wilcoxon-type test

- Preferred when hazards are non-proportional

```
> survdiff(Surv(time.14, event) ~ treat, data = .data0, rho = 1)
```

	N	Observed	Expected	(O-E) ² /E	(O-E) ² /V
treat=0	590	296	245	10.7	30.6
treat=1	479	184	235	11.1	30.6

Chisq= 30.6 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 3.11e-08

TESTING THE DIFFERENCE

(We don't really need to test.... difference is obvious here!)

(But still... a p-value might be useful)

Log-rank test

- Preferred when hazards are (roughly) proportional

```
> survdiff(Surv(time.14, event) ~ treat, data = .data0, rho = 0)
```

	N	Observed	Expected	(O-E) ² /E	(O-E) ² /V
treat=0	590	427	361	12.2	24.8
treat=1	479	292	358	12.2	24.8

Chisq= 24.8 on 1 degrees of freedom, p= 6.53e-07

time.14 = time - 13

event = 0 (censoring) or 1 (new episode)

treat = 0 (placebo) or 1 (zink)

COX REGRESSION

The group difference should be measured, not only tested!

Cox-regresjon:

- Can *test* difference (more or less like log-rank)
- Can *measure* difference (as "Hazard Ratio", HR)
- Can produce confidence intervals for difference
- Can adjust for other variables/confounders (multiple regression)

... one of the most frequently used methods in medical statistics....

But assumes:

- "Independent" censoring
- Proportional hazards

HAZARD RATE

Hazard rate α

- “Instantaneous” probability of new event
- Same as incidence rate, but used in different settings:

INCIDENCE: - Estimated directly from data
 - Over a time interval of some length
 - Often with an “open population”

HAZARD RATE: - A mathematical concept, estimated from the model
 - Instantaneous, i.e. over a “very short” time interval
 - Often with a “closed population” or at the individual level

- In our data:

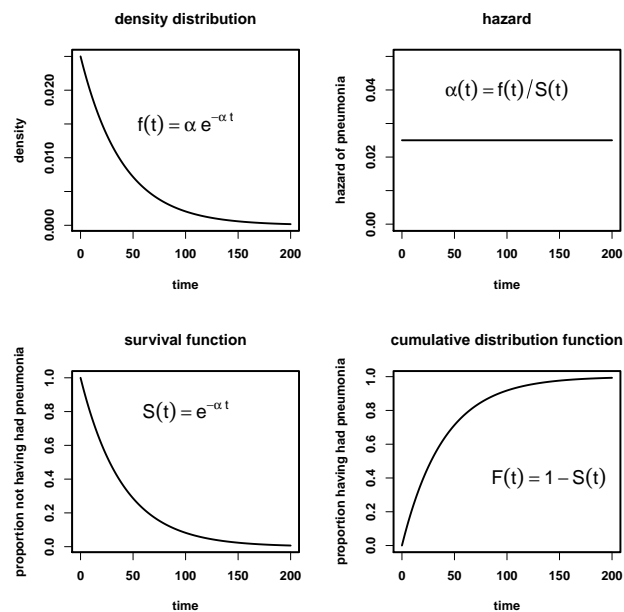
Events first 5 days: $21 + 16 + 16 + 13 + 27 = 93$

Total (to begin with): 1069

Very roughly, $\alpha(0) = \frac{93}{1069 \times 5} = 0.017$

Thus, the hazard rate is about 1.7% new events per day to begin with

FOUR WAYS TO DESCRIBE SURVIVAL



FOUR WAYS TO DESCRIBE SURVIVAL

Survival time $T \geq 0$ (no censoring at the moment...)

Cumulative distribution function:

$$F(t) = P(T \leq t)$$

Survival function:

$$S(t) = P(T > t) = 1 - F(t)$$

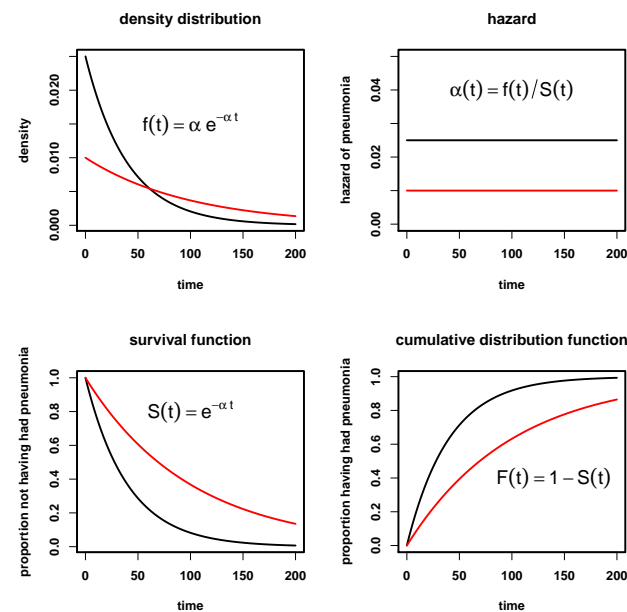
Density (if it exists):

$$f(t) = F'(t)$$

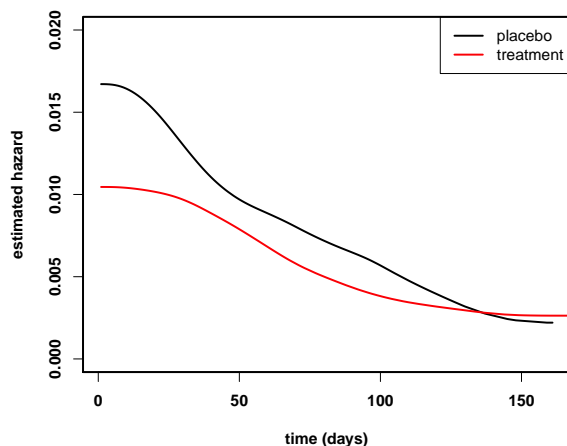
Hazard (if it exists):

$$\alpha(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} P(t \leq T < t + \Delta t | T \geq t)$$

FOUR WAYS TO DESCRIBE SURVIVAL



WHAT DO THE HAZARDS ACTUALLY LOOK LIKE?



Note: Hazards are notoriously difficult to estimate!
... but almost never needed

COX (PROPORTIONAL HAZARDS) REGRESSION

FOR EXAMPLE:

$$\alpha(t) = \alpha_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 x_1)$$

$x_1 = 0$ (placebo) and $x_1 = 1$ (treatment)

$$\alpha_{\text{placebo}}(t) = \alpha_0(t)$$

$$\alpha_{\text{treatment}}(t) = \alpha_0(t) \exp(\beta_1)$$

Hazard (rate) ratio

$$\text{HRR} = \frac{\alpha_{\text{treatment}}(t)}{\alpha_{\text{placebo}}(t)} = \frac{\alpha_0(t) \exp(\beta_1)}{\alpha_0(t)} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

- $\alpha_0(t)$ is the hazard in the placebo group
- β_1 is the actual parameter estimate for `treat` (from software)

COX (PROPORTIONAL HAZARDS) REGRESSION

HAZARD:

$$\alpha(t) = \alpha_0(t) \exp(\beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots)$$

- $\alpha_0(t)$ is the *baseline hazard*
- x_1, x_2, \dots are the covariates
- β_1, β_2, \dots are the corresponding parameters

Covariates:

x_1, x_2, \dots are covariates as in any other regression, continuous or categorical (using dummy variables)

Baseline hazard:

β_0 not needed, α_0 takes its role

$\alpha_0(t)$ is thus the hazard (at time t) when all $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = 0$

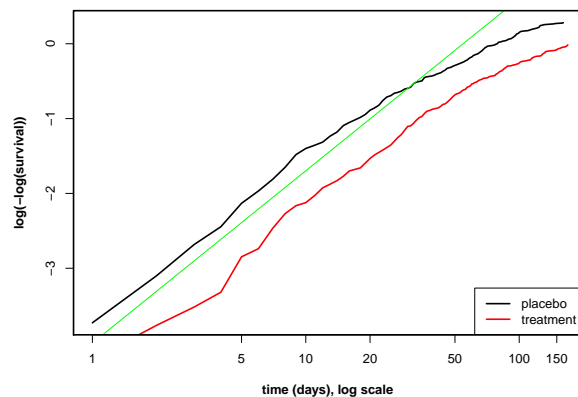
COX REGRESSION (OUR DATA)

```
> coxph(Surv(time.14, event) ~ treat, data = .data0)
```

	coef	exp(coef)	se(coef)	z	p
treat	-0.377	0.686	0.076	-4.95	7.3e-07
	exp(coef)	exp(-coef)	lower .95	upper .95	
treat	0.686	1.46	0.591	0.796	

Hazard is reduced to about 69% relative to no treatment

ARE HAZARDS PROPORTIONAL? "LOG-MINUS-LOG" PLOT



- **x-axis:** log(time)
- **y-axis:** log(-log S(t))

Rationale:

- Constant vertical distance → proportional hazards
- Lines with slope 1 → constant hazard (compare with green line)

COX REGRESSION, STRATIFIED

```
> coxph(Surv(time.14, event) ~ treat + strata(sex), data = .data0)
```

	coef	exp(coef)	se(coef)	z	p
treat	-0.374	0.688	0.0761	-4.92	8.7e-07
	exp(coef)	exp(-coef)	lower .95	upper .95	
treat	0.688	1.45	0.592	0.798	

- Treatment effect is assumed equal in both strata of sex
- But separate baselines are allowed for boys and girls

(Note: This is just as an illustration; not really necessary)

COX REGRESSION, MULTIVARIATE

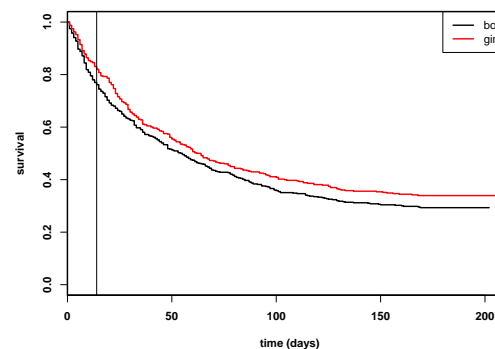
```
> coxph(Surv(time.14, event) ~ treat + sex, data = .data0)
```

	coef	exp(coef)	se(coef)	z	p
treat	-0.375	0.687	0.0761	-4.93	8.1e-07
sex	-0.132	0.876	0.0753	-1.75	8.0e-02
	exp(coef)	exp(-coef)	lower .95	upper .95	
treat	0.687	1.46	0.592	0.798	
sex	0.876	1.14	0.756	1.016	

- Adjustment for sex has little effect on treat
- sex is in itself not significant

(Note: In a randomized study you would not necessarily adjust for covariates)

SURVIVAL FOR BOYS AND GIRLS



Somewhat peculiar. Does something happen the first two weeks?

COX REGRESSION, INTERACTION

Is the effect of treatment *different* for boys and girls?

Warning: When dealing with interactions, the exact coding of variables is very important.

- Dummy variables make interpretations much easier.
- `treat` is already a dummy.
- R can (could!) do this more simply than Stata, but the following works for both.

Create dummy:

```
sex01 = sex - 1
```

that is, `sex01` is a dummy variable for girl, with `boys = 0, girls = 1`

Create interaction term:

```
treat.sex = treat × sex01
```

COX REGRESSION, INTERACTION, ALTERNATIVE CODING

Create two interaction terms (and leave out `treat` from equation):

```
treat.sex.0 = treat × (1 - sex01) (Effect among boys)
```

```
treat.sex.1 = treat × sex01 (Effect among girls)
```

```
> coxph(Surv(time.14, event) ~ sex01 + treat.sex.0 + treat.sex.1  
data = .data0)
```

COX REGRESSION, STANDARD INTERACTION

```
> coxph(Surv(time.14, event) ~ treat + sex01 + treat.sex,  
data = .data0)
```

	coef	exp(coef)	se(coef)	z	p
treat	-0.507	0.603	0.103	-4.93	8.1e-07
sex01	-0.255	0.775	0.099	-2.57	1.0e-02
treat.sex	0.297	1.346	0.153	1.94	5.3e-02

	exp(coef)	exp(-coef)	lower .95	upper .95
treat	0.603	1.660	0.493	0.737
sex01	0.775	1.290	0.639	0.941
treat.sex	1.346	0.743	0.997	1.818

(Interaction is borderline significant, should probably just be dumped)

Interpretation:

Treatment HRR for girls = $1.346 \times$ treatment HRR for boys

COX REGRESSION, INTERACTION, ALTERNATIVE CODING

	coef	exp(coef)	se(coef)	z	p
sex01	-0.255	0.775	0.099	-2.57	1.0e-02
treat.sex.0	-0.507	0.603	0.103	-4.93	8.1e-07
treat.sex.1	-0.209	0.811	0.114	-1.84	6.6e-02

	exp(coef)	exp(-coef)	lower .95	upper .95
sex01	0.775	1.29	0.639	0.941
treat.sex.0	0.603	1.66	0.493	0.737
treat.sex.1	0.811	1.23	0.649	1.014

- Risk of new pneumonia in boys is reduced to 60.3% with treatment
- Risk of new pneumonia in girls is reduced to 81.1% with treatment