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2024 Summer Institute In Statistics for Clinical & Epidemiological Research

Module 3:

Design, Conduct, and Analysis of Randomized Clinical Trials with Time to Event Primary Endpoints

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Lecture 11:
Semi-Parametric Inference with Time to Event
Data

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Semiparametric Models

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- Exact form of within group distributions are unknown, but related to each other by some finite dimensional parameter vector
- Full inference only for comparing distributions
- One group's distn can be found from another group's and a finite dimensional parameter
- (Most often: Distributions equal under H_0)

(My definition of semiparametric models is a little stronger than some statisticians', but agrees with commonly used semiparametric survival models)

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General Analysis Models

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A Useful Analogy

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Urn Model

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- Balls in an urn of various colors and patterns

- Balls might represent people in a study
 - At any given time, the balls that are in the urn are therefore the risk set

- Colors and patterns represent risk factors

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Death Process



- Periodically, I come in and choose a ball from the urn and take it
- When a ball is chosen it fails
- My predilection for choosing certain colors or patterns identifies true risk factors
- Characteristics of the balls that I do not notice have no effect on survival probabilities

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Evidence for Risk Factors



- A certain color/pattern must be my favorite if
 - (Time based observations)
 - I come in more often when that color/pattern is in the urn
 - You need not consider what else is in the urn
 - (Risk set based observations)
 - I choose that color/pattern with a frequency disproportionate to its frequency in the urn
 - If I am blind to a characteristic, my choices should look like random sampling
 - You need not consider the times that I come in

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(Semi)parametric Models

- Two general (semi)parametric probability models used in survival analysis
- Accelerated failure time models
 - Consider time of failure
- Proportional hazards models
 - Consider relations among hazards
 - (Additive hazards models also used, but less frequently)

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Accelerated Failure Time Models

- Two groups that differ in some risk factor have survivor functions related by a parameter measuring acceleration or deceleration of time

$$S(t; \theta) = S_0(\theta t)$$

- E.g.,
 - A smoker ages twice as fast as a nonsmoker
 - Each human year is seven dog years

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Proportional Hazards Models

- Two groups that differ in some risk factor have survivor functions related by a parameter measuring increased hazard

$$\lambda_1(t) = \theta \lambda_0(t)$$

$$S_1(t) = [S_0(t)]^\theta$$

- E.g.,
 - At any given time, a smoker is ten times more likely to develop lung cancer as a nonsmoker

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Scientific Studies

- As a scientist you may
 - Observe
 - When I come into the room and take a ball,
 - The colors/patterns on all the balls in the urn, and
 - The color/patterns on the ball that I take
 - Experiment
 - Change the composition in the urn and see
 - Whether I come in the room more or less often, and
 - The lengths to which I might go to find balls with certain colors or patterns by restricting my choices

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Altering the Risk Set



- Censoring and time-varying covariates are analogous to changes in the composition of the urn
- Censoring = removing balls from the urn
- Time-varying covariates = repainting the balls or adding different balls

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Caveats: Informative Censoring



- Altering the risk set can be problematic
- Recall that in order for survival estimates to be consistent, the risk set in the sample must look like a random sample from the population
- You should not selectively remove or change balls that were (for their risk factors) particularly more likely or less likely to be chosen
- If you notice that I search the urn from top to bottom,
 - Don't just change the balls sitting at the top of the urn
 - Make sure you stir the urn after each change

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Caveats: Time-varying Covariates

- Time-varying covariates are far more easily implemented in the hazard based models
 - Risk set approach makes this easy
- However, scientifically we run the risk of overfitting our data using variables we are less interested in
 - A priest delivering last rites is highly predictive of death and that may obscure that it was a gunshot wound that led to the death

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Semiparametric Models: Notation

For group k : $F_k(t) = \Psi(t, \bar{\Phi}_k)$

where :

$\Psi(\cdot, \cdot)$ has unknown form (in t)

$\bar{\Phi}_0 = \bar{0}$ for identifiability of $\Psi(\cdot, \cdot)$

$\bar{\Phi}_k$ is finite dimensional and unknown
(estimable by comparing two or more groups)

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Semiparametric Survival Models

Accel failure: $F_k(t) = F_0(t\theta_k)$

Prop hzd: $S_k(t) = [S_0(t)]^{\theta_k}$

where in a regression problem

$$g(\theta_k) = \bar{X}_k^T \bar{\beta}$$

for some link function $g(\cdot)$

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Semiparametric Inference

- Semiparametric inference generally proceeds through estimating equations
- Estimates found by iterative search
- Asymptotic distributions from special theory

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PH Partial Likelihood

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- Proportional hazards regression based on hazard of observed failure relative to sum of hazards in the risk set
- Often referred to as “rank based method” because no information is used about observation time except its order in the sample

$$S_i(t) = [S_0(t)]^{\theta_i}; \lambda_i(t) = \theta_i \lambda_0(t) \quad \text{where } \log(\theta_i) = \vec{X}_i^T \vec{\beta}$$

$$\text{Partial likelihood: } L(\vec{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\lambda_i(T_i)}{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \lambda_j(T_i)} \right]^{D_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\theta_i}{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \theta_j} \right]^{D_i}$$

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Partial Likelihood

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- Covariate vector for the i -th subject: \vec{X}_i

$$\lambda_i(t) = \lambda_0(t) \exp\{\vec{X}_i \vec{\beta}\}$$

$$L(\vec{\beta}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^n \left\{ \frac{\exp\{\vec{X}_i \vec{\beta}\}}{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\}} \right\}^{D_i}$$

$$\log L(\vec{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i \left\{ \vec{X}_i \vec{\beta} - \log \sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\} \right\}$$

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Partial Likelihood Based Score

- Appears as
 - The covariate value **observed** for the individual that had an event
 - Minus value **expected** among risk set as weighted by relative hazard

$$U_k(\beta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \log L(\vec{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i \left\{ X_{ik} - \frac{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} X_{jk} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\}}{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\}} \right\}$$

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Partial Likelihood Based Score: Two Samples

- For a two sample problem, $X_i = 0, 1$
 - For group x , let d_{ix} be events and n_{ix} be number at risk at time t_i

$$U_k(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ d_{i1} - \frac{n_{i1} e^{\beta}}{n_{i0} + n_{i1} e^{\beta}} (d_{i0} + d_{i1}) \right\}$$

$$U_k(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \frac{n_{i0} n_{i1}}{n_{i0} + n_{i1} e^{\beta}} (\hat{\lambda}_{i1} - e^{\beta} \hat{\lambda}_{i0}) \right\}$$

- Under the null hypothesis $e^{\beta} = 1$, and with equal censoring distributions, number at risk will tend to reflect the randomization ratio
 - Relative weighting of observed differences in hazard over time by size of risk group

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Partial Likelihood Based Information

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_{k\ell}(\beta) &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_k \partial \beta_\ell} \log L(\vec{\beta}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} U_\ell(\beta) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n D_i \left\{ \frac{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} X_{jk} X_{j\ell} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\}}{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\}} - \frac{\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} X_{jk} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\} \sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} X_{j\ell} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\}}{\left[\sum_{j:T_j \geq T_i} \exp\{\vec{X}_j \vec{\beta}\} \right]^2} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

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Semiparametric Summary Measures

- Estimation of summary measures is generally limited to the parameter fundamental to the semiparametric model
 - Proportional hazards
 - Only make inference about hazard ratio
 - Accelerated failure time
 - Only make inference about ratio of quantiles
- Methods do exist for estimating the “baseline” survival curve using the estimated parameters from the semiparametric model
 - Such are primarily used descriptively
 - Some have used such estimates for prediction models

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General Analysis Models



Time-varying Covariates

- The proportional hazards model is widely used, even when we cannot be sure the hazard function is proportional over all time
- Because it relies so heavily on estimation through the hazards, it does allow us to consider time-varying covariates

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Fixed Covariates



- In a typical study, we compare the distribution of some outcome across groups defined at the start of the study
- Example: Risk of hang gliding
 - Identify two groups
 - Hang gliders
 - Cowards
 - Follow survival experience over time

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Problem



- What if a coward obtains courage?
- Misclassification will attenuate the true effect of hang gliding on survival
 - Biased estimates
 - Less precision

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A Wrong Approach



- We cannot divide the sample into groups according to lifetime habits
- Suppose we consider
 - Ever hang glided (hung glide?) vs Constant coward
- We might detect spurious associations due to “survivorship”
 - If we started study at birth, we might find hang gliding is beneficial
 - Most people don’t start hang gliding until teenaged
 - We would detect the fact that hang gliders survived at least that long

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A Correct Approach

- Let each subject contribute observation time to the appropriate group according to covariate at the relevant time
 - And this is the best way to consider changes in treatment regimens
- Proportional hazards model
 - Easily done, if noninformative censoring results
- Accelerated failure time model
 - Difficult due to need to integrate hazards over disjoint intervals

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Issues

- Issues related to the use of time-varying covariates are analogous to those when deciding to adjust for any variable
- Can regard measurements made at different times as different covariates
- Need to consider
 - Causal pathway of interest
 - Confounding (bias)
 - Precision
- Time aspect does increase the dimensionality

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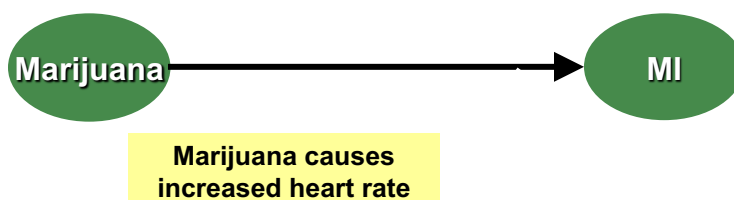
Issues: Informative Censoring

- Possibility that impending event causes informative censoring (confounding?)
- Types of variables
 - Extrinsic: Unaffected by individual decisions
 - As a rule, time-varying extrinsic variables will not cause informative censoring
 - E.g., Air pollution on a given day in an asthma study
 - (providing it does not affect relocation)
 - Intrinsic: Potentially affected by impending event
 - E.g., Marijuana use

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Causation versus Association

- Example: Scientific interest in causal pathways between marijuana use and heart attacks (MI)
 - Pictorial representation of hypothetical causal effect of marijuana on MI that might be of scientific interest



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Causation versus Association

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- In an observational study, we cannot thus be sure which causative mechanism an association might represent
 - Either of these mechanisms will result in an association between marijuana use and MI

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graph LR; M1((Marijuana)) -- "Marijuana causes increased heart rate" --> M2((MI)); M3((MI)) -- "Anxiety preceding MI causes use of marijuana" --> M4((Marijuana))
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Issues: Obscuring Effect of Interest

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- With time-varying covariates, we have increased opportunity to measure short term effects
- This is good if that is our interest
 - Immediate effects of blood pressure on hemorrhagic stroke
- This is bad if we wanted to assess long acting risk factors
 - Chronic effect of asbestos on lung cancer
 - A former asbestos worker is still at high risk
- Capability for modeling time-varying covariates also increases chances for modeling a variable in the causal pathway of interest

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Issues: Summary Measure

- As illustrated previously, the interpretation of some of the statistics commonly used in survival analysis is heavily dependent upon the censoring distribution
- It is very difficult to explore how the changing size of risk sets might be altering the interpretation of the time-averaged hazard ratio in a proportional hazards model
- Nonetheless, the Cox PH model has seen wide application, and we have gotten used to it
 - We can most easily justify its use based on a Weibull approximation
 - But that might be less valid when there is a chance of nonmonotonic hazard functions

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Issues: Final Comments

- Time-varying covariates are definitely of scientific interest
 - Frequently of interest in the setting of non-adherence or changes in treatment regimen
 - Time varying covariates is the best way to address such questions, as opposed to censoring subjects or subsetting as if changes occurred at baseline
- However, they should not be used casually
- Usually, my first choice is to try to address scientific questions with fixed covariates
 - I will put up with some misclassification, to avoid making mistakes that are due to incorrect, untestable assumptions

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Semiparametric Models: Issues

- Advantages
 - Can handle sparse data
 - More robust than any single parametric model
- Disadvantages
 - Not as easily interpreted when semiparametric model does not hold
 - But the Cox PH estimated hazard ratio can be interpreted as directly standardized hazard rates
 - The weights used, however, can be a little obscure
 - Little reason to suggest a given risk factor would affect distribution in only one way

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Inflammatory Assertion

- (Semi)parametric models are not typically in keeping with the state of knowledge as an experiment is being conducted
- The assumptions are more detailed than the hypothesis being tested, e.g.,
 - Question: How does the intervention affect the first moment of the probability distribution?
 - Assumption: We know how the intervention affects the 2nd, 3rd, ..., ∞ central moments of the probability distribution.

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The Problem

- Incorrect parametric assumptions can lead to incorrect statistical inference
- Precision of estimators can be over- or understated
 - Hypothesis tests do not attain the nominal size
- Hypothesis tests can be inconsistent
 - Even an infinite sample size may not detect the alternative
- Interpretation of estimators can be wrong

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(Semi)parametric Example

- Survival cure model (Ibrahim, 1999, 2000)
- Probability model
 - Proportion π_i is cured (survival probability 1 at ∞) in the i -th treatment group
 - Noncured group has survival distribution modeled parametrically (e.g., Weibull) or semiparametrically (e.g., proportional hazards)
 - Treatment effect is measured by $\theta = \pi_1 - \pi_0$
- The problem as I see it: Incorrect assumptions about the nuisance parameter can bias the estimation of the treatment effect

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Foundational Issues: Null



- Which null hypothesis should we test?
 - Strong Null: The intervention has no effect whatsoever

$$H_0 : F(t) = G(t), \forall t$$

- Weak Null: The intervention has no effect on some summary measure of the distribution

$$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$$

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Foundational Issues: Alternative



- What should the distribution of the data under the alternative represent?
- Counterfactual
 - An imagined form for $F(t)$, $G(t)$ if something else were true
- Empirical
 - The most likely distribution of the data if the alternative hypothesis about θ were true

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My Views



- The null hypothesis of greatest interest is rarely that a treatment has no effect
 - Bone marrow transplantation
 - Women’s Health Initiative
 - National Lung Screening Trial
- The empirical alternative is most in keeping with inference about a summary measure

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An Aside



- The above views have important ramifications regarding the computation of standard errors for statistics under the null
- Permutation tests (or any test which presumes $F=G$ under the null) will generally be inconsistent

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Glass Half Empty: Problem with (Semi)parametrics



- Many mechanisms would seem to make it likely that the problems in which a fully parametric model or even a semiparametric model is correct constitute a set of measure zero
- Treatments are often directed to outliers
- Treatments are often only effective in subsets
- Factors affect rates; outcomes measure cumulative effects

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Glass Half Full: Value of (Semi)parametrics



- The most commonly used regression models have estimating equations that lend themselves to well understood properties
- Of course, some semiparametric models similarly lead to interpretable estimating equations
- In particular, over the past 50 years, we have gained a wealth of experience with the Cox proportional hazards model in particular
 - We can learn where it give us good insight
 - We can learn what to watch out for

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A Non-Solution: Model Checking

- Model checking is apparently used by many to allow them to believe that their models are correct.
- From a recent referee's report:
 - "I know of no sensible statistician (frequentist or Bayesian) who does not do model checking."
- Apparently the referee believes the following unproven proposition:
 - If we cannot tell the model is wrong, then statistical inference under the model will be correct

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A Non-Solution: Model Checking

- Counter example: Exponential vs Lognormal medians
- Pretest with Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (n=40)
 - Power to detect wrong model
 - 20% (exp); 12% (lnorm)
 - Coverage of 95% CI under wrong model
 - 85% (exp); 88% (lnorm)

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A Non-Solution: Model Checking



- Model checking particularly makes little sense in a regulatory setting
- Commonly used null hypotheses presume the model fits in the absence of a treatment effect
 - Frequentists would be testing for a treatment effect as they do model checking
- Bayesians should model any uncertainty in the distribution
 - Interestingly, if one does this, the estimate indicating parametric family will in general vary with the estimate of treatment effect