Proportional Hazards Regression¹ STA312 Fall 2023

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Chapter 5 in Applied Survival Analysis Using R by Dirk Moore







Proportional Hazards

- Suppose two individuals have different \mathbf{x} vectors of explanatory variable values.
- They will have different hazard functions.
- But suppose the hazard ratio $\frac{h_1(t)}{h_2(t)}$ does not depend on time t.
- Exponential regression and Weibull regression fit this pattern.
- Proportional hazards regression is a generalization.

Proportional Hazards Regression Also called Cox regression after Sir David Cox

Write the hazard function

$$\begin{aligned} h_i(t|\boldsymbol{\beta}) &= h_0(t) \,\psi_i(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ &= h_0(t) \,e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}, \text{ or sometimes} \\ &= h_0(t) \,e^{\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}} \end{aligned}$$

- $h_0(t)$ is called the baseline hazard function.
- Baseline because it's the hazard function when $\psi_i(\beta) = 1$.
- Maybe the patient is in the reference category, and the quantitative explanatory variables are centered.
- In theory $\psi_i(\boldsymbol{\beta})$ could be almost anything as long as the resulting hazard function is positive.
- But in practice it's almost always $e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}$, Cox's original suggestion.

Exponential and Weibull Regression $h_i(t|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = h_0(t) \psi_i(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = h_0(t) e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}$

- Exponential regression: $h_i(t|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \lambda = e^{-\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}$
 - $h_0(t) = 1$
 - $\psi_i(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = e^{-\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}$
- Weibull regression: $h_i(t|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \exp\{-\frac{1}{\sigma} \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}\} t^{\frac{1}{\sigma}-1}$
 - $h_0(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma} t^{\frac{1}{\sigma}-1}$
 - $\psi_i(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \exp\{-\frac{1}{\sigma}\mathbf{x}_i^\top\boldsymbol{\beta}\}$
- Are these really special cases of the proportional hazards model, with $\psi_i(\beta) = e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\top \beta}$?
- Yes, by a re-parameterization.
- β_j of proportional hazards = $-\beta_j$ of exponential regression.
- β_j of proportional hazards = $-\beta_j/\sigma$ of Weibull regression.
- The main implication is that in proportional hazards regression, the coefficients mean the *opposite* of what you are used to.
- Anything that makes $\mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ bigger will increase the hazard, and make the chances of survival *smaller*.

The Hazard Ratio

Form a ratio of hazard functions. In the numerator, increase $x_{i,k}$ by one unit while holding all other $x_{i,j}$ values constant.

$$\frac{h_1(t)}{h_2(t)} = \frac{h_0(t) \exp\{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_k (x_{i,k} + 1) + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{i,p-1}\}}{h_0(t) \exp\{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_k x_{i,k} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{i,p-1}\}} = e^{\beta_k}$$

- Holding the other $x_{i,j}$ values constant is the meaning of "controlling" for explanatory variables.
- If $\beta_k > 0$, increasing $x_{i,k}$ increases the hazard.
- If $\beta_k < 0$, increasing $x_{i,k}$ decreases the hazard.

"Semi-parametric" $h_i(t|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = h_0(t) e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}$

- The unknown quantities in the model are the vector of regression parameters β , and the unknown baseline hazard function $h_0(t)$.
- We can avoid making any assumptions about $h_0(t)$.
- But because of β , it's partly parametric.

Estimation: Using Ideas From Kaplan-Meier

- As in the Kaplan-Meier estimate, we focus on the uncensored observations, for which the failure time is known.
- The censored observations will have their influence by disappearing from the set of individuals at risk.
- There are $D = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i$ uncensored observations.
- Denote the ordered times at which failures occur by $t_1, \ldots t_D$.
- This notation can be confusing, because the entire set of times, including censoring times, is usually denoted $t_1, \ldots t_n$.
- Some books (for example Chapter 3 in Applied Survival Analysis by Hosmer and Lemeshow) use the notation $t_{(1)}, \ldots t_{(D)}$.
- The index set of individuals at risk at failure time t_j is R_j .
- One of them fails.

Hazard

- The hazard function $h(t_j) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{P(t_j \le T \le t_j + \Delta | T \ge t_j)}{\Delta}$ is roughly proportional to the probability of failure at time t_j , conditionally on survival to that point.
- Make the hazard at a failure time into an actual probability. Normalize it, dividing by the total hazards of all the individuals at risk:

$$q_{(i)} = 1 - p_{(i)} = \frac{h_0(t)e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_0(t)e^{\mathbf{x}_j^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}} = \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} e^{\mathbf{x}_j^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}}$$

- First, notice that the baseline hazard cancels, including e^{β_0} .
- These really are like the p_i and q_i in Kaplan-Meier estimation.
- Except, instead of dividing by the *number* of individuals at risk, they are weighted by their hazards.
- And those hazards depend on the explanatory variable values through β .

Estimating β

Now we have failure probabilities $q_{(i)} = \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} e^{\mathbf{x}_j^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}}.$

How can these be used to estimate β ? Cox suggested ...

- Multiply them together and treat them as a likelihood.
- Take the minus log, and minimize over β .
- He suggested that all the usual likelihood theory should hold.
- Fisher information, asymptotic normality, likelihood ratio tests: everything.
- He called it *partial* likelihood.
- Why?!

Partial Likelihood

Using
$$h(t) = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)} \iff f(t) = h(t)S(t),$$

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i|\theta)^{\delta_i} S(t_i|\theta)^{1-\delta_i}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} (h(t_i|\theta)S(t_i|\theta))^{\delta_i} S(t_i|\theta)^{1-\delta_i}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} h(t_i|\theta)^{\delta_i} S(t_i|\theta)^{\delta_i+1-\delta_i}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} h(t_i|\theta)^{\delta_i} S(t_i|\theta)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{D} h(t_i|\theta) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_i|\theta)$$

Continuing the likelihood calculation

$$\begin{split} L(\theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^{D} h(t_{(i)}|\theta) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_{i}|\theta) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{D} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0}) \\ &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{D} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{D} \frac{h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{D} \frac{h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{D} \frac{h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{D} \frac{h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{h_{0}(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{0}(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0})} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{D} \frac{h_{0}(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0}) e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_{0}(t_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_{0})}$$

Partial Likelihood

$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, h_0) = \prod_{i=1}^{D} \left(\frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_{(i)}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} e^{\mathbf{x}_j^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}}} \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{D} \sum_{j \in R_{(i)}} h_0(t_{(i)}) e^{\mathbf{x}_j^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} S(t_i | \boldsymbol{\beta}, h_0)$$

- The red product is Cox's partial likelihood.
- Properties similar to ordinary likelihood were proved years later.
- There are fairly convincing arguments that the black product is negligible for large samples.
- Lack of dependence on the baseline hazard is a good feature.
- This is the state of the art.

Hypothesis Tests

As Cox hypothesized, all the usual likelihood theory applies to partial likelihood.

- Consistency (i.e., large-sample accuracy)
- Asymptotic normality.
- Fisher information
- Z-tests
- Wald tests
- Score tests
- Likelihood ratio tests
- Call them *partial* likelihood ratio tests.
- Estimation of the survival function will be described later.

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