

Recent developments in the fitting and assessment of flexible parametric survival models

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Slides: pclambert.net/pdf/Stata2024_Germany_Paul_Lambert.pdf

This will be a broad talk across a range of areas. I will cover

- What are flexible parametric survival models?
- Extended functions (non-linearity)
- Predictions and Contrasts
- Standardization
- Assessing the fit of models
- Competing risks
- Log hazard models

Censored survival data

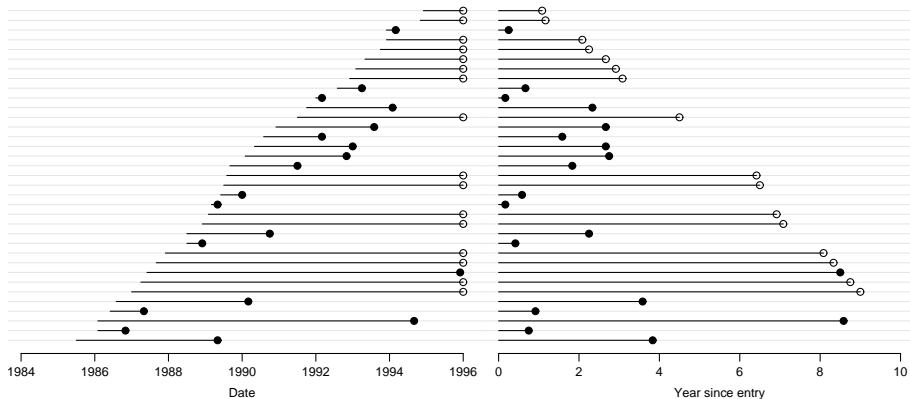


Figure 1: Calendar time (left) and time from entry in years (right)

What is a parametric survival model

- In a parametric survival model the survival function is expressed as a mathematical function of follow-up time and a set of parameters.
- There is a mathematical relationship between the hazard, survival and density functions, so there are also mathematical function for all these entities.
- There are also parameters for the effects of covariates.
- All these parameters are estimated when you fit a model.

Note that a Cox model is a *semi-parametric* model as a parametric function is not estimated for the hazard/survival/density functions. It only directly estimates the (relative) effect of covariates.

Flexible parametric models: basic idea

- Consider a Weibull survival curve.

$$S(t) = \exp(-\lambda t^\gamma)$$

- If we transform to the log cumulative hazard scale.

$$\ln[H(t)] = \ln[-\ln(S(t))]$$

$$\ln[H(t)] = \ln(\lambda) + \gamma \ln(t)$$

- This is a linear function of $\ln(t)$
- Rather than assuming linearity with $\ln(t)$ flexible parametric models use **natural splines** for $\ln(t)$.

Flexible parametric models: incorporating splines

- We thus model on the log cumulative hazard scale.

$$\ln[H(t|\mathbf{x}_i)] = \ln [H_0(t)] + \mathbf{x}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

- This is a proportional hazards model.

Flexible parametric models: incorporating splines

- We thus model on the log cumulative hazard scale.

$$\ln[H(t|\mathbf{x}_i)] = \ln [H_0(t)] + \mathbf{x}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

- This is a proportional hazards model.
- Natural cubic splines, $s(\ln(t)|\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{k}_0)$, with knots, \mathbf{k}_0 , are used to model the log baseline cumulative hazard.

$$\ln[H(t|\mathbf{x}_i)] = \eta_i(t) = s(\ln(t)|\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{k}_0) + \mathbf{x}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Flexible parametric models: incorporating splines

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$$\ln[H(t|\mathbf{x}_i)] = \eta_i(t) = s(\ln(t)|\gamma, \mathbf{k}_0) + \mathbf{x}_i\beta$$

- For example, with 4 knots we can write

$$\ln [H(t|\mathbf{x}_i)] = \eta_i(t) = \underbrace{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 z_{1i} + \gamma_2 z_{2i} + \gamma_3 z_{3i}}_{\substack{\text{log baseline} \\ \text{cumulative hazard}}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{x}_i\beta}_{\substack{\text{log hazard} \\ \text{ratios}}}$$

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Patrick Royston wrote the initial `stpm` command around 2000 [1]

The Stata Journal (2001)
1, Number 1, pp. 1–28

Flexible parametric alternatives to the Cox model, and more

Patrick Royston
UK Medical Research Council
patrick.royston@ctu.mrc.ac.uk

A history of software

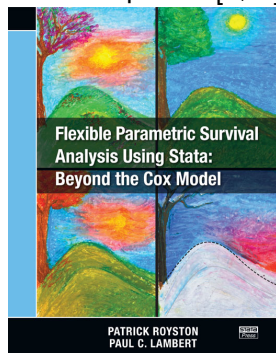
I developed `stpm2` with lots of input from Patrick Royston around 2008. `stpm2` allowed more flexibility for modelling time-dependent effects, relative survival models and more prediction options [2, 3]

The Stata Journal (2009)
9, Number 2, pp. 265-290

Further development of flexible parametric models for survival analysis

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A history of software

I (with lots and lots of suggestions from Mark Rutherford) wrote `stpm3` in 2022. It incorporated

- Factor variables (properly)
- Extended functions (non-linearity)
- Improved `predict` command
- Prediction to frames
- Better synergy with the `standsurv` postestimation command for obtaining marginal survival curves
- More in Mata (sometimes Python) for speed improvements

Breast Cancer: Fitting a simple model

```
// Cox Model (deprivation group - 5 levels)
```

```
. stcox i.dep
```

```
// Flexible parametric survival model
```

```
. stpm3 i.dep, scale(lncumhazard) df(5)
```

```
. stpm3 i.dep, scale(lncumhazard) df(5) eform nolog  
(output omitted)
```

		exp(b)	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
xb							
	dep						
	2	1.048989	.0354091	1.42	0.157	.9818344	1.120737
	3	1.105245	.0383089	2.89	0.004	1.032655	1.182939
	4	1.213022	.0437548	5.35	0.000	1.130226	1.301884
	mostdep	1.309804	.0513441	6.88	0.000	1.21294	1.414403
time							
	_ns1	-20.5192	.7302075	-28.10	0.000	-21.95038	-19.08802
	_ns2	3.829793	.3917803	9.78	0.000	3.061918	4.597668
	_ns3	-1.074997	.0182917	-58.77	0.000	-1.110849	-1.039146
	_ns4	-.601024	.0128829	-46.65	0.000	-.6262739	-.575774
	_ns5	-.3340791	.0109536	-30.50	0.000	-.3555478	-.3126103
	_cons	-1.14467	.023338	-49.05	0.000	-1.190412	-1.098928

Note: Estimates are transformed only in the first equation.

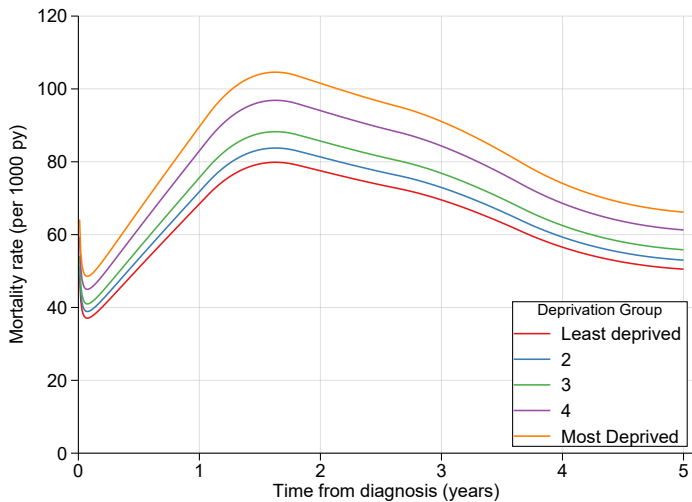
Comparison of log hazard ratios

```
. estimates table stcox stpm3, eq(1:1) b(%7.4f)
```

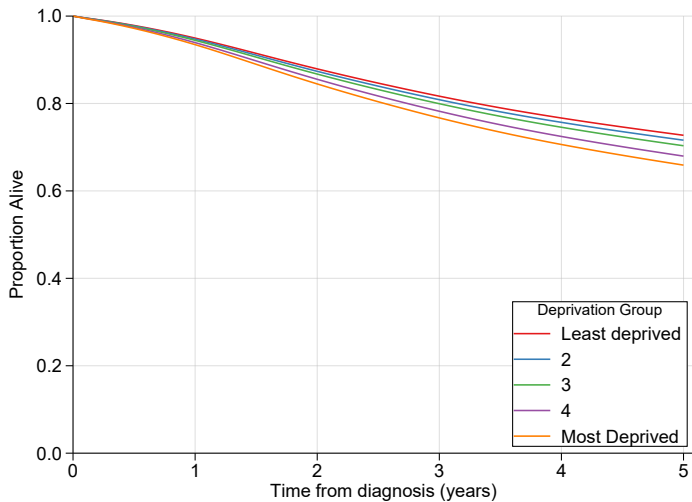
Variable	stcox	stpm3
#1		
dep		
2	0.0478	0.0478
3	0.1001	0.1001
4	0.1931	0.1931
mostdep	0.2699	0.2699
time		
_ns1		-20.5192
_ns2		3.8298
_ns3		-1.0750
_ns4		-0.6010
_ns5		-0.3341
_cons		-1.1447

- Estimation of the baseline (using splines) make postestimation predictions (and uncertainty) much, much easier.

Hazard and Survival functions



Hazard and Survival functions



Extended functions

- If we want to include a spline function for a covariate we usually do something like

```
. gensplines ageddiag, type(ns) df(3) gen(agens)
. stpm3 i.dep agens1 agens2 agens3, scale(lncumhazard) df(4) nolog
```

Number of obs = 6,242
Wald chi2(4) = 919.44
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Log likelihood = -8008.3369

	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
xb						
dep						
mostdep	.2530977	.038471	6.58	0.000	.177696	.3284994
agens1	-6.731391	.7054777	-9.54	0.000	-8.114101	-5.34868
agens2	-.6183224	.3543468	-1.74	0.081	-1.312829	.0761844
agens3	-2.902752	.2202527	-13.18	0.000	-3.33444	-2.471065
time						
_ns1	-15.49693	.4692123	-33.03	0.000	-16.41657	-14.57729
_ns2	3.966272	.2513638	15.78	0.000	3.473608	4.458936
_ns3	-1.092355	.0299249	-36.50	0.000	-1.151006	-1.033703
_ns4	-.5337899	.0237586	-22.47	0.000	-.580356	-.4872238
_cons	1.439092	.1061348	13.56	0.000	1.231072	1.647112

Extended functions

- Extended functions are included in the model command.

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(4) nolog
```

Number of obs = 6,242
Wald chi2(4) = 919.44
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Log likelihood = -8008.3369

	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
xb						
dep						
mostdep	.2530977	.038471	6.58	0.000	.177696	.3284994
_ns_f1_agediag1	-6.731391	.7054777	-9.54	0.000	-8.114101	-5.34868
_ns_f1_agediag2	-.6183224	.3543468	-1.74	0.081	-1.312829	.0761844
_ns_f1_agediag3	-2.902752	.2202527	-13.18	0.000	-3.33444	-2.471065
time						
_ns1	-15.49693	.4692123	-33.03	0.000	-16.41657	-14.57729
_ns2	3.966272	.2513638	15.78	0.000	3.473608	4.458936
_ns3	-1.092355	.0299249	-36.50	0.000	-1.151006	-1.033703
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_cons	1.439092	.1061348	13.56	0.000	1.231072	1.647112

Extended functions

(1) @ns(agediag, df(3))

Types of extended functions

`@bs()` B-splines

`@fp()` fractional polynomials

`@ns()` natural cubic splines

`@poly()` polynomials

`@rcs()` restricted cubic splines

`@fn()` general function

Extended functions

- Multiple extended functions.

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)) @poly(yeardiag, degree(2)), ///  
          scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

Extended functions

- Multiple extended functions.

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)) @poly(yeardiag, degree(2)), ///  
          scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

- Interactions with extended functions

```
. stpm3 i.dep##@ns(agediag, df(3)), ///  
          scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

Extended functions

- Multiple extended functions.

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)) @poly(yeardiag, degree(2)), ///  
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```

- Interactions with extended functions

```
. stpm3 i.dep##@ns(agediag, df(3)), ///  
          scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

- Interactions between extended functions

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3))##@ns(yeardiag, degree(2)), ///  
          scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

Extended functions

- Multiple extended functions.

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)) @poly(yeardiag, degree(2)), ///  
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- Interactions with extended functions

```
. stpm3 i.dep##@ns(agediag, df(3)), ///  
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```

- Interactions between extended functions

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3))##@ns(yeardiag, degree(2)), ///  
          scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

- Using extended functions makes many predictions much simpler.

Relaxing the proportional hazards assumption

- We often make the proportional hazards assumption in survival models.
- Sometimes reasonable, but needs to be assessed.
- Under proportional hazards the effect of a covariate is assumed the same at all time points.
- Non-proportional hazards means there is an interaction between a covariate and follow-up time.
- `stpm3` forms these interactions for you using the `tvc()` and `dftvc()` options.

```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(5) ///  
      tvc(i.dep) dftvc(3)
```


Model output

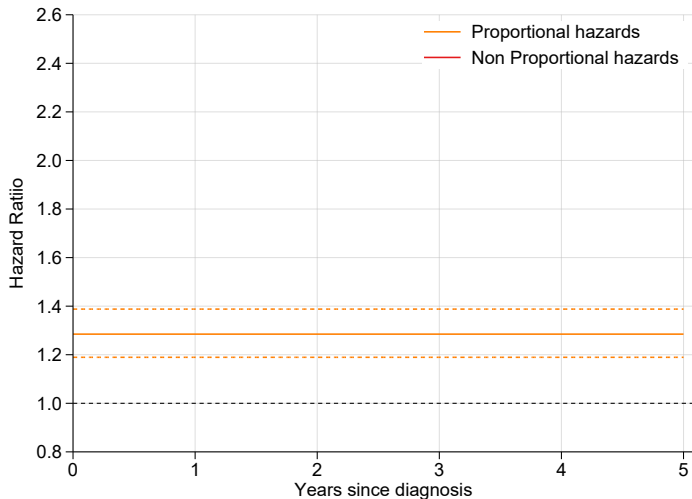
```
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(5) ///  
>      tvc(i.dep) dftvc(3) vsquish nolog  
(output omitted)
```

	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
xb						
dep						
mostdep	.2326102	.0396115	5.87	0.000	.1549731	.3102473
_ns_f1_agediag1	1.59671	.6642716	2.40	0.016	.2947616	2.898659
_ns_f1_agediag2	-.4834445	.4039909	-1.20	0.231	-1.275252	.3083631
_ns_f1_agediag3	-.1530129	.1288731	-1.19	0.235	-.4055995	.0995737
time						
_ns1	-20.8306	1.51351	-13.76	0.000	-23.79702	-17.86417
_ns2	3.82159	.7859048	4.86	0.000	2.281245	5.361935
_ns3	-1.159027	.0349635	-33.15	0.000	-1.227555	-1.0905
_ns4	-.6253963	.0245694	-25.45	0.000	-.6735514	-.5772411
_ns5	-.3741499	.020979	-17.83	0.000	-.415268	-.3330317
dep#c._ns_tvc1						
mostdep	1.900655	2.089832	0.91	0.363	-2.195339	5.99665
dep#c._ns_tvc2						
mostdep	-.1922529	1.108999	-0.17	0.862	-2.365851	1.981346
dep#c._ns_tvc3						
mostdep	.1395927	.0482234	2.89	0.004	.0450767	.2341087
_cons	-1.155454	.0628256	-18.39	0.000	-1.27859	-1.032318

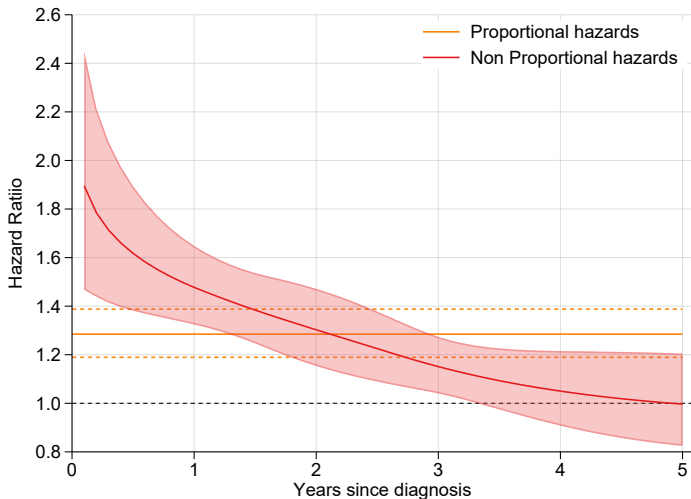
Extended functions

(1) @ns(agediag, df(3))

Hazard Ratio: Most vs Least Deprived



Hazard Ratio: Most vs Least Deprived



Different types of predictions

- We want to predict different types of functions.
 - hazard functions, survival functions etc.
- There are 3 main types of predictions we may be interested in.
 - Predict at **observed** values of covariates.
 - Predict at **user-specified** values of covariates.
 - Take **average** of predictions (marginal estimates).

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- We may also be interested in **contrasts** in the above, e.g. when comparing unexposed vs exposed.
- Different choices for time.
 - Predict at observed event/censoring times ($_t$).
 - Predict at single time point for all subjects (e.g. 5 years).
 - Predict at user-specified time values (e.g. 100 values between 0 and 10).

Commands for conditional and marginal predictions

- After fitting an `stpm3` model
 - For conditional predictions, use `predict`
 - For marginal predictions, use `standsurv`
- By conditional I mean given values of all covariates specified in the model.

Standard predictions

- Similar to what would be expected in `streg`
- Predicts at observed covariate values and at `_t`

Model

```
. stset survtime, failure(dead=1) exit(time 5)  
. stpm3 i.dep @ns(agediag, df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

Predictions

```
. predict xb, xb ci // linear predictor  
. predict S, survival ci // survival function  
. predict h, hazard ci // hazard function
```

By default this type of prediction will be saved in the current frame

predict with multiple at() options

```
. predict S60_d1 S70_d1 S80_d1,    /// new variables
>     survival ci                /// predict survival and CI
>     at1(agediag 60 dep 1)      /// 1st prediction
>     at2(agediag 70 dep 1)      /// 2nd prediction
>     at3(agediag 80 dep 1)      /// 3rd prediction
>     timevar(0 10, step(0.1))  /// times to predict at
>     frame(surv, replace)      // save in frame
Predictions are stored in frame - surv
```

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>     timevar(0 10, step(0.1))     /// times to predict at
>     frame(surv, replace)          // save in frame
Predictions are stored in frame - surv
```

```
. frame surv: format %5.4f S*
. frame surv: list tt S60_d1 S70_d1 S80_d1 if inlist(tt,1,5,10), noobs
```

tt	S60_d1	S70_d1	S80_d1
1	0.8985	0.8623	0.7684
5	0.6785	0.5846	0.3850
10	0.5188	0.4032	0.1989

Merge predictions with existing frame

```
. predict S60_d5 S70_d5 S80_d5,      /// new variables
>     survival ci                    /// predict survival and CI
>     at1(agediag 60 dep 5)         /// 1st prediction
>     at2(agediag 70 dep 5)         /// 2nd prediction
>     at3(agediag 80 dep 5)         /// 3rd prediction
>     frame(surv, merge)            // merge to frame surv
Predictions are stored in frame - surv
```

Merge predictions with existing frame

```
. predict S60_d5 S70_d5 S80_d5,      /// new variables
>     survival ci                    /// predict survival and CI
>     at1(agediag 60 dep 5)         /// 1st prediction
>     at2(agediag 70 dep 5)         /// 2nd prediction
>     at3(agediag 80 dep 5)         /// 3rd prediction
>     frame(surv, merge)            // merge to frame surv
Predictions are stored in frame - surv
```

```
. frame surv: format %5.4f S*
. frame surv: list tt S60_d1 S70_d1 S80_d1 S60_d5 S70_d5 S80_d5 ///
>     if inlist(tt,1,5,10), noobs
```

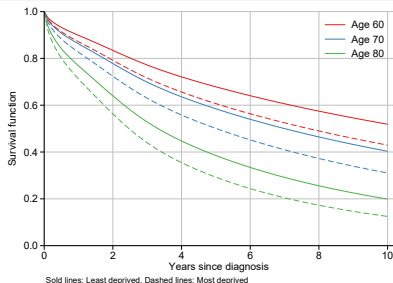
tt	S60_d1	S70_d1	S80_d1	S60_d5	S70_d5	S80_d5
1	0.8985	0.8623	0.7684	0.8712	0.8262	0.7123
5	0.6785	0.5846	0.3850	0.6068	0.5008	0.2925
10	0.5188	0.4032	0.1989	0.4295	0.3104	0.1250

Plot predictions

```
. frame surv {  
.   twoway (line S60_d1 S70_d1 S80_d1 tt)          ///  
>         (line S60_d5 S70_d5 S80_d5 tt, lpattern(dash..)) ///  
>         pstyle(p1line p2line p3line)),        ///  
>         ytitle("Survival function")           ///  
>         xtitle("Years since diagnosis")        ///  
>         ylabel(0(0.2)1, format(%3.1f))        ///  
>         legend(order(1 "Age 60" 2 "Age 70" 3 "Age 80") ///  
>                 ring(0) pos(1) cols(1))        ///  
>         note("Solid lines: Least deprived, Dashed lines: Most deprived")  
. }
```

Plot predictions

```
. frame surv {  
  . twoway (line S60_d1 S70_d1 S80_d1 tt)          ///  
>          (line S60_d5 S70_d5 S80_d5 tt, lpattern(dash..)) ///  
>          pstyle(p1line p2line p3line)),        ///  
>          ytitle("Survival function")           ///  
>          xtitle("Years since diagnosis")        ///  
>          ylabel(0(0.2)1, format(%3.1f))        ///  
>          legend(order(1 "Age 60" 2 "Age 70" 3 "Age 80") ///  
>                ring(0) pos(1) cols(1))         ///  
>          note("Sold lines: Least deprived, Dashed lines: Most deprived") ///  
  . }
```



The predict command with complex models

- Consider the following two models

Main effects and proportional hazards

```
stpm3 i.dep ageddiag, scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

The predict command with complex models

- Consider the following two models

Main effects and proportional hazards

```
stpm3 i.dep ageddiag, scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

Non-linearity, interactions and non-proportional hazards

```
stpm3 i.dep##@ns(ageddiag, df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(4) ///  
      tvc(i.dep @ns(ageddiag, df(2))) dftvc(3)
```

The predict command with complex models

- Consider the following two models

Main effects and proportional hazards

```
stpm3 i.dep ageddiag, scale(lncumhazard) df(4)
```

Non-linearity, interactions and non-proportional hazards

```
stpm3 i.dep##@ns(ageddiag, df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(4) ///  
      tvc(i.dep @ns(ageddiag, df(2))) dftvc(3)
```

- The predict command remains the same

```
predict S60_d1 S70_d1 S80_d1,      /// new variables  
       survival ci                /// predict survival and CI  
       at1(ageddiag 60 dep 1)     /// 1st prediction  
       at2(ageddiag 70 dep 1)     /// 2nd prediction  
       at3(ageddiag 80 dep 1)     /// 3rd prediction  
       timevar(0 10, step(0.1))   /// times to predict at  
       frame(surv, replace)       // save in frame
```

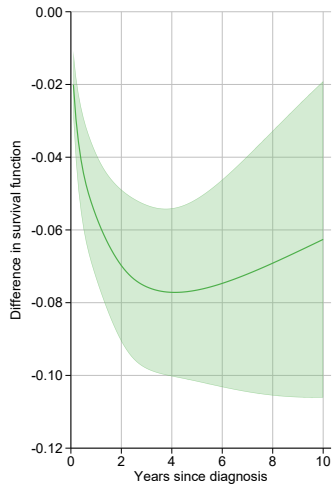
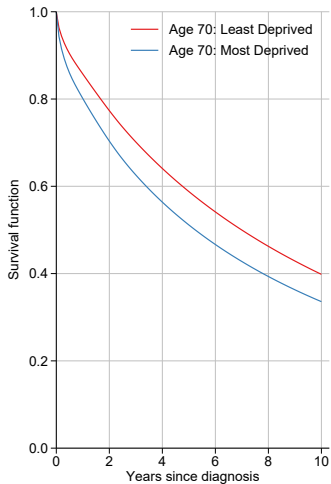
Contrasts

- We want to obtain contrasts between different covariate patterns.
- Just add `contrast()` and `contrastvar()` options.

```
. predict S70_d1 S70_d5,          /// new variables
> survival ci                    /// predict survival and CI
> at1(agediag 70 dep 1)         /// 1st prediction
> at2(agediag 70 dep 5)         /// 2nd prediction
> timevar(0 10, step(0.1))     /// times to predict at
> contrast(difference)          /// contrast type
> contrastvar(Sdiff)           /// contrast variable name
> frame(survdiff, replace)     // save in frame
Predictions are stored in frame - survdiff
```

Use `atreference()` to set reference at() option.

Plot contrasts



Marginal predictions (standardization).

- For marginal predictions we are interested in the average (survival) in a (study) population.
- For example, we could estimate the average (marginal) survival in our population.

$$\widehat{S}_m(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \widehat{S}(t|\mathbf{x}_i, \widehat{\beta})$$

- This is averaged over all study subjects.
- If calculated for all individuals in the study, this should be similar to the corresponding Kaplan-Meier estimate.
- `standsurv` will take averages of predicted survival curves.
- Like `margins`, but for survival models.

Counterfactual marginal survival probabilities

- Let $X = 1$ correspond to exposed and $X = 0$ to unexposed.
- Let $S^x(t)$ denote the marginal survival probability had all individuals in the population, possibly contrary to fact, been assigned $X = x$.
- We can also form contrasts between different levels of exposure

$$S^1(t) - S^0(t)$$

- Difference in survival probabilities “*had all patients been exposed*” and “*had all patients been unexposed*”.
- Different to simply comparing the observed probabilities of exposed and unexposed.

Assumptions for identifiability

- These hypothetical quantities are estimated using observed data under various assumptions [4].
- Assuming that covariates \mathbf{Z} are sufficient to control for confounding control,

$$S^x(t) = E[S(t|X = x, \mathbf{Z})]$$

with the expectation taken over the marginal distribution of \mathbf{Z} .

- The difference between exposed and unexposed is,

$$E[S(t|X = 1, \mathbf{Z})] - E[S(t|X = 0, \mathbf{Z})]$$

- Under further assumptions (consistency, positivity, well-defined interventions) the marginal survival probability under $X = x$ can be estimated by the standardised survival probability using regression standardisation (G-formula) [5].

Standardised survival probabilities

The average (causal) difference in marginal survival probabilities can be estimated as

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{S}(t|X = 1, Z = z_i) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{S}(t|X = 0, Z = z_i)$$

- 1 Fit a statistical model that contains exposure, X , and potential confounders, Z .
- 2 Predict outcome for all individuals assuming they are all exposed ($X = 1$).
- 3 Take mean to give marginal estimate of outcome under $X = 1$.
- 4 Repeat for unexposed ($X = 0$).
- 5 Take the difference in means to form contrasts.

Distribution of confounders, Z , is the same for both groups.

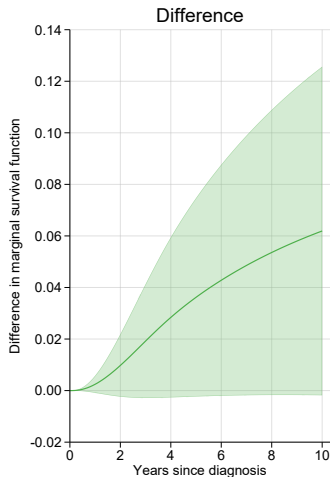
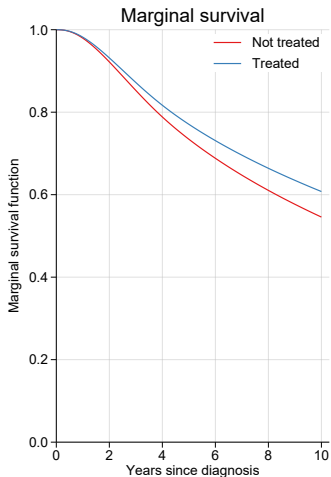
Example: Rotterdam Breast Cancer Data

- Exposure is hormonal treatment (**hormon**)

```
stpm3 i.hormon##(@fn(exp(-0.12 * nodes), stub(enodes)) ///  
               @ns(age, df(3))                        ///  
               i.size i.grade c.pr_1),                ///  
               scale(lncumhazard) df(4))  
  
range tt 0 10 101  
standsurv S0 S1, surv ci timevar(tt) frame(mar_surv) ///  
           at1(hormon 0) at2(hormon 1)                ///  
           contrast(difference)                       ///  
           contrastvar(Sdiff)
```

- Difference between average of
 - 2982 survival curves where everyone treated (**hormon=1**) and
 - 2982 survival curves where everyone untreated (**hormon=0**)

Counterfactual marginal survival probabilities



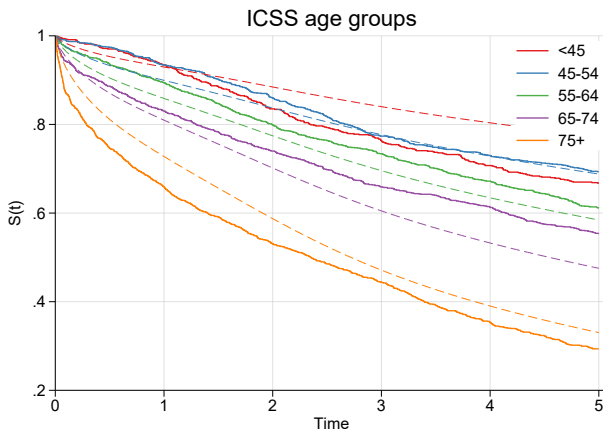
Assessing the fit of models

- If our model is a good fit to the data then obtaining the average survival of the model predictions in a subgroup should be similar to the corresponding non-parametric Kaplan-Meier curve.
- Subgroups can be based on a prognostic index or a covariates in, or not in, the model.
- The `stpm3km` commands makes this easy.
- `stpm3km` calls `standsurv` with the `over` option.

Breast Cancer: Assessing the fit of models

Linear age and proportional hazards

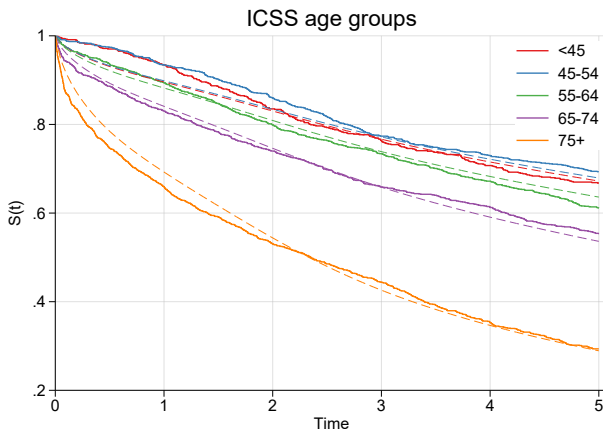
```
. stpm3 ageddiag i.dep, scale(lncumhazard) df(4)  
. stpm3km i.agegrp, name(linear, replace)
```



Breast Cancer: Assessing the fit of models

Natural splines for age and proportional hazards

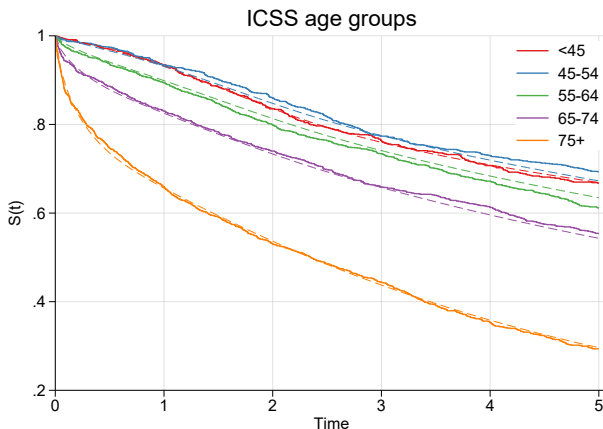
```
. stpm3 @ns(agediag,df(3)) i.dep, scale(lncumhazard) df(4)  
. stpm3km i.agegrp, name(ns, replace)
```



Breast Cancer: Assessing the fit of models

Natural splines for age and non-proportional hazards

```
. stpm3 @ns(agediag,df(3)) i.dep, scale(lncumhazard) df(4) ///  
      tvc(@ns(agediag,df(3))) dftvc(3)  
. stpm3km i.agegrp, name(ns, replace)
```



Calibration

- A prognostic model is a regression model intended to enable prediction of future outcomes given values of several covariates measures at or before the time origin.
- Used to make health care decisions, e.g. treatment, timings of follow-up etc.
- We are interested in both calibration and discrimination of the model.
- A common way to assess calibration is a **calibration plot**.

Calibration the agreement between observed and predicted probabilities.

Discrimination the ability of the prognostic model to distinguish between patients at different levels of risk

Calibration plots

- A visual tool to assess agreement between predicted and observed probabilities.
- With survival data (due to censoring) often define groups based on predicted probabilities and compare marginal predictions with non-parametric estimates.
- More recently use pseudo observations to enable visualization over the complete range of predictions[6].
- Useful to add other summaries of model performance to plot.
- `stpm3calplot` does some of this work for you.
- It will be added in a future release.

Rotterdam data

```
. stpm3 age @fn(exp(-0.12 * nodes), stub(enodes)) i.size i.hormon i.grade pr_1, ///  
> scale(lnodds) df(4) neq(1) nolog
```

```
Number of obs = 2,982  
Wald chi2(7) = 604.36  
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

```
Log likelihood = -2607.772
```

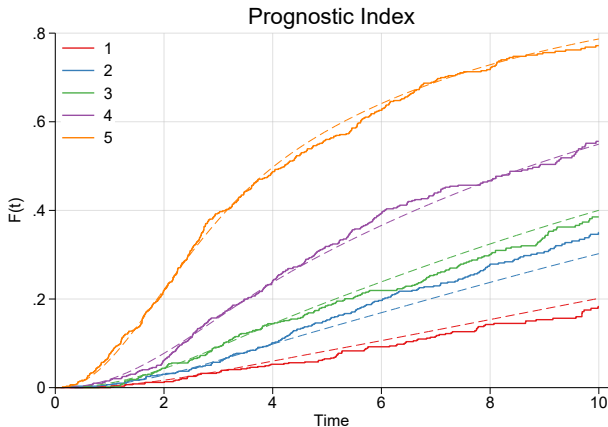
	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
xb						
age	.0148001	.0029896	4.95	0.000	.0089405	.0206596
_fn_enodes	-2.664496	.1550357	-17.19	0.000	-2.96836	-2.360631
size						
>20-50mm	.4698654	.0854911	5.50	0.000	.3023059	.6374249
>50 mm	.8191977	.1311011	6.25	0.000	.5622443	1.076151
hormon						
yes	-.4521206	.1220432	-3.70	0.000	-.6913209	-.2129203
3.grade	.3962003	.0933199	4.25	0.000	.2132966	.579104
pr_1	-.138221	.0176075	-7.85	0.000	-.172731	-.103711

```
(1) @fn(exp(-0.12 * nodes), stub(enodes))
```

Calibration

```
stpm3km with failure option
```

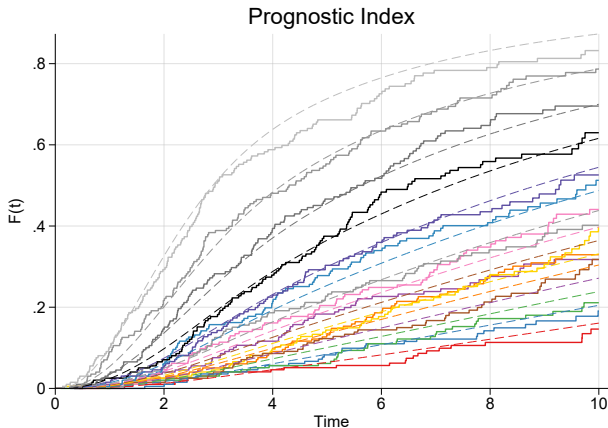
```
. stpm3km, failure
```



Calibration

stpm3km with lots of groups

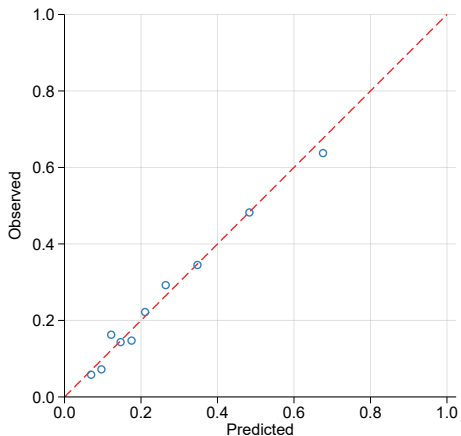
```
. stpm3km, groups(15) legend(off)
```



Calibration

```
stpm3calplot at 5 years
```

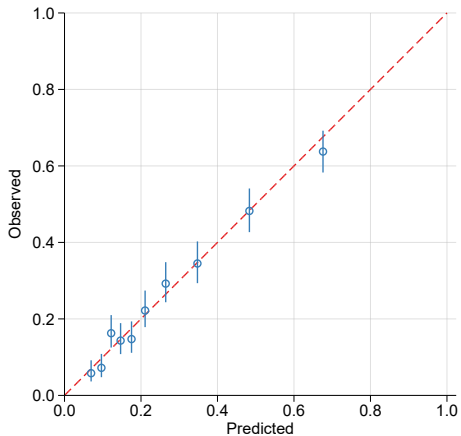
```
. stpm3calplot, time(5)
```



Calibration

stpm3calplot with Observed CIs

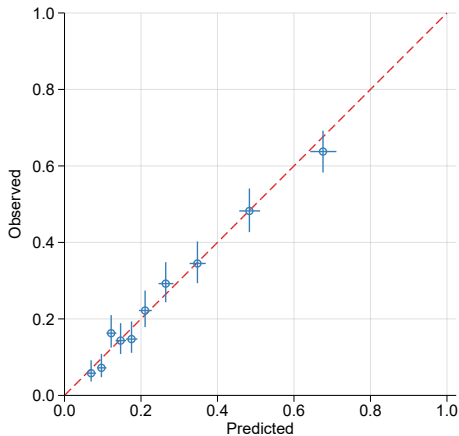
```
. stpm3calplot, time(5) ciobs
```



Calibration

stpm3calplot with Expected CIs

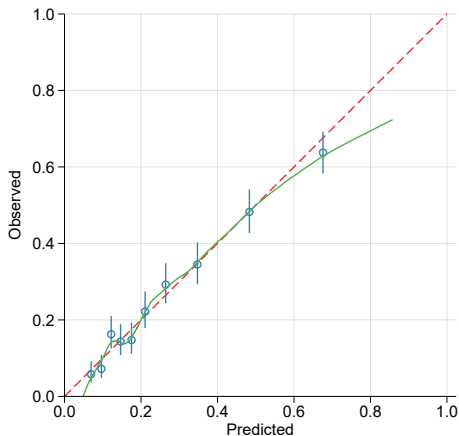
```
. stpm3calplot, time(5) cipred
```



Calibration

stpm3calplot with pseudo observations smoother

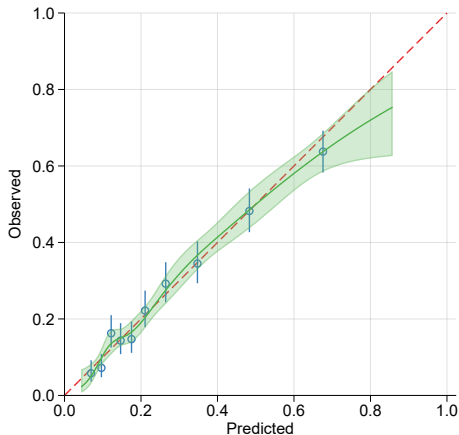
```
. stpm3calplot, time(5) ciobs pseudo
```



Calibration

`stpm3calplot` with pseudo observations smoother (splines)

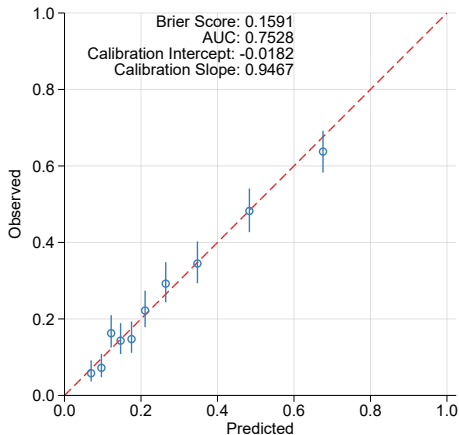
```
. stpm3calplot, time(5) pseudo smoother(ns) smootherci
```



Calibration

stpm3calplot at 5 years with performance statistics

```
. stpm3calplot, time(5) ciobs pseudo smoother(glm) smootherci ///  
stats(brier auc calint calslope)
```

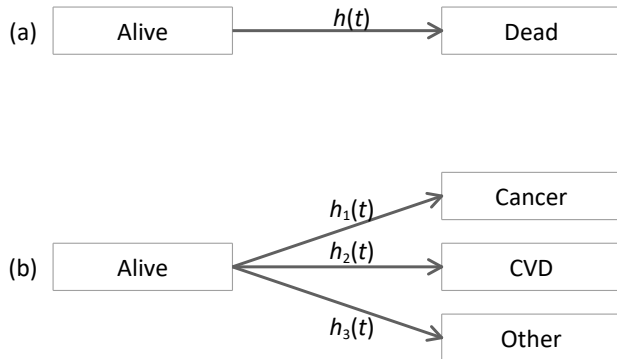


Competing risks

- We are at risk of more than one event.
- For example, people diagnosed with cancer are at risk of dying from their cancer, but also at risk of dying from other causes.
- A competing event is an event that prevent the occurrence of the event of interest may be present.
 - Dying from a cardiovascular event means that the (potential) time-to-death for cancer never observed.
- Flexible parametric survival models also useful for competing risks models (and more general multistate models).

Predictions are based on estimates from > 1 model.

Competing risks



Use a separate model for each hazard function, $h_k(t)$

Cause-specific Cumulative Incidence Function (CIF)

$$F_k(t) = \int_0^t S(u)h_k(u)du$$

Probability of dying due to cause k

Partitioning all-cause probability of death

$$F(t) = \sum_{k=1}^K F_k(t)$$

- CIFs estimated using numerical integration - using ODEs.

Different causes

```
. table cause, statistic(frequency) statistic(percent)
```

	Frequency	Percent
cause		
Censored	1,710	57.34
Cancer	996	33.40
Other causes	276	9.26
Total	2,982	100.00

A model for each cause

Death due to breast cancer

```
. stset os, failure(cause=1) exit(time 120) scale(12)
. stpm3 @ns(age, df(5)) i.size i.grade pr_1, ///
      scale(lnodds) df(3)
. estimates store cancer
```

Death due to other causes

```
. stset os, failure(cause=2) exit(time 120) scale(12)
. stpm3 @ns(age,df(3)), scale(lncumhazard) df(3)
. estimates store other
```

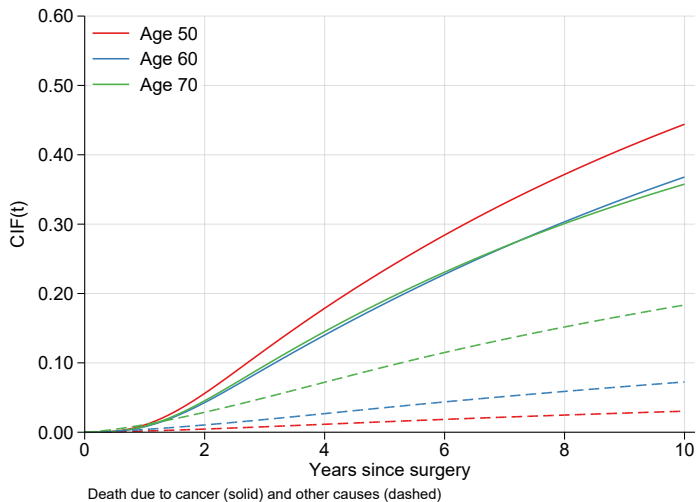
Store model estimates so can pass to predict command.

Predictions

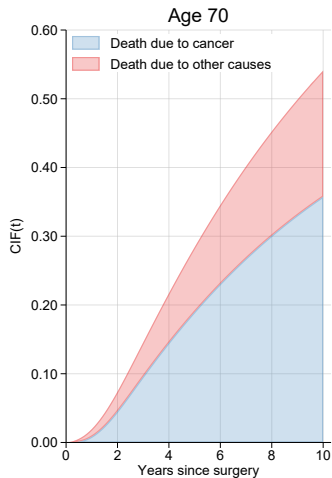
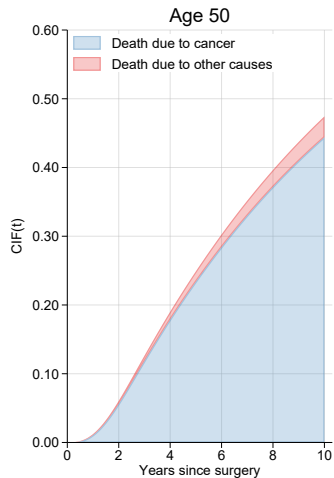
```
. // Conditional predictions
. predict cif50 cif60 cif70, cif crmodels(cancer other) ci          ///
> timevar(0 10, step(0.1))                                       ///
> at1(age 50 size 1 grade 2 nodes 3 pr_1 0) ///
> at2(age 60 size 1 grade 2 nodes 3 pr_1 0) ///
> at3(age 70 size 1 grade 2 nodes 3 pr_1 0) ///
> frame(cifs, replace)
Predictions are stored in frame - cifs

.
. // Marginal predictions
. standsurv CIF_size1 CIF_size3, cif crmodels(cancer other) ci    ///
> timevar(tt)                                                      ///
> at1(size 1)                                                       ///
> at2(size 3)                                                       ///
> contrast(difference) contrastvar(cifdiff) ///
> frame(cifstand, replace)
```

Competing Risks: Predictions



Competing Risks: Predictions



Competing Risks Extensions

- Causal Inference and competing risks using `standsurv` [7].
- Competing risks and prognostic models [8].
- Parametric version of Fine and Gray model [9, 10].

Log hazard models

- Most models I have presented on log cumulative hazard scale

$$\ln(H(t)) = s(\ln(t)|\gamma) + \mathbf{x}\beta$$

- Sometimes useful to change to log hazard scale.

$$\ln(h(t)) = s(\ln(t)|\gamma) + \mathbf{x}\beta$$

- log hazard models useful for
 - Multiple time scales.
 - Multiple time-dependent effects (sometimes).
 - Standardized incidence/mortality rate ratios.
 - Extrapolation (sometimes).

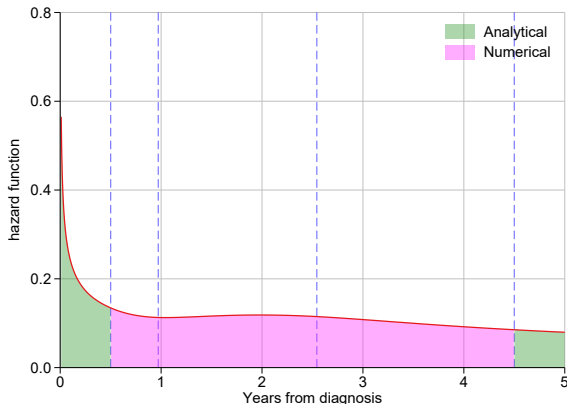
- Likelihood contribution of i^{th} individual is,

$$l_i = d_i \ln(h(t_i)) + \int_{t_{0i}}^{t_i} h(u) du$$

- The integral needs to be calculated *numerically*.
 - For all individuals and for each call to likelihood/gradient/Hessian functions.
 - Computationally intensive in large datasets.
 - Usually use Gauss-Legendre quadrature, but some precision issues as can have singularity in hazard function at $t = 0$.

Solutions to precision issue

- **(3-part integration:)** Use **analytic integral** before and after last knots[11].



- **tanh-sinh** quadrature when hazard has singularity[12].

Faster models with large data sets

- For large datasets can send heavy computations to Python.
- Just add `python` option.
- The `mlad` program is used to maximize the likelihood.
- Calls `mlad`
 - Maximum Likelihood using Automatic Differentiation.
 - Calls Python Jax module.
 - Scores and Hessian automatically created
 - Just-In-Time (JIT) compilation
 - Efficient use of multiple processors.

```
. stpm3 i.dep, scale(lnhazard) df(5)  
. stpm3 i.dep, scale(lnhazard) df(5) python
```

See `mlad` talk at Stata Conference

https://www.stata.com/meeting/us21/slides/US21_Lambert.pdf

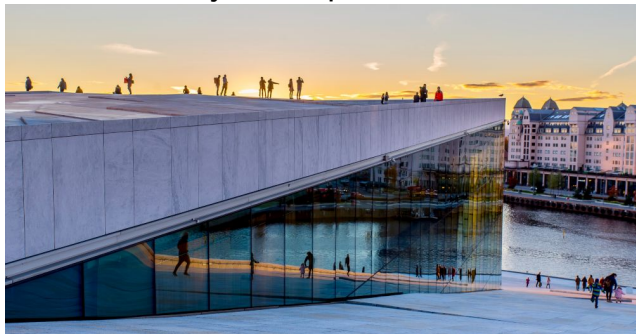
Times in seconds

		Sample Size			
		500,000		1,000,000	
<i>3 part integration</i>					
	strcs	2930		4807	
	stpm3	493	(83.1%)	981	(79.6%)
	stpm3 (python option)	46	(98.4%)	83	(98.3%)
<i>All numerical integration</i>					
	stmerlin	1950		3996	
	stpm3	464	(76.2%)	917	(77.0%)
	stpm3 (python option)	34	(98.3%)	69	(98.3%)

- Will get very similar estimates (and standard errors) to a Cox proportional hazards model.
- Including the baseline in the model makes (complex) predictions much easier.
- Many alternative ways to present data than hazard ratios.
- Lots of extensions
 - Relative survival [13, 14]
 - Extrapolation [15, 16]
 - Multistate models [17]
 - Loss in life expectancy [18, 19]
 - Multiple timescales [20]

Want to find out more?

2024 Northern European Stata Conference Oslo, Norway,
Tuesday 10 September 2024



Pre-conference course Monday 9 September 2024
*Modelling survival data using flexible parametric models
in Stata using stpm3: concepts and modelling choices.*

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