Joint Modeling of Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data with Applications in R

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- Often in follow-up studies different types of outcomes are collected
- Explicit outcomes
 - ▷ multiple longitudinal responses (e.g., markers, blood values)
 - ▷ time-to-event(s) of particular interest (e.g., death, relapse)
- Implicit outcomes
 - \triangleright missing data
 - \triangleright random visit times



- Methods for the separate analysis of such outcomes are well established in the literature
- Survival data:
 - ▷ Cox model, accelerated failure time models, ...
- Longitudinal data
 - ▷ mixed effects models, GEE, marginal models, ...



Purpose of this course is to present the state of the art in

Joint Modeling Techniques for Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data



- Goals: After this course participants will be able to
 - > identify settings in which a joint modeling approach is required,
 - \triangleright construct and fit an appropriate joint model, and
 - ▷ correctly interpret the obtained results



- Part I: Introduction
 - \triangleright Data sets that we will use throughout the course
 - ▷ Research questions
- Part II: (brief) Review of Linear Mixed Models
 - \triangleright Features of repeated measurements data
 - ▷ Linear mixed models



- Part III: (brief) Review of Relative Risk Models
 - ▷ Features of survival data
 - \triangleright Relative risk models
 - ▷ Time-varying covariates
- Part IV: The Basic Joint Model
 - \triangleright Definition
 - \triangleright Estimation



- Part V: Extensions of the Basic Joint Model
 - \triangleright Functional forms
 - > Multivariate joint models
- Part VI: Dynamic Predictions
 - \triangleright Individualized predictions
 - \triangleright Effect of the functional forms



- Joint modeling sources*
 - ▷ Rizopoulos, D. (2012). Joint Models for Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data, with Applications in R. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC.
 - Fitzmaurice, G., Davidian, M., Verbeke, G. and Molenberghs, G. (2009).
 Longitudinal Data Analysis. Handbooks of Modern Statistical Methods. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC, Chapter 15.
 - ▷ Wu, L. (2009). Mixed Effects Models for Complex Data. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC, Chapter 8.
 - ▷ Ibrahim, J., Chen, M.-H. and Sinha, D. (2001). Bayesian Survival Analysis. New York: Springer-Verlag, Chapter 7.

* extra references of papers using joint modeling available at pp. 122–129.



- Useful material for package JMbayes2
 - > a website with several examples: https://drizopoulos.github.io/JMbayes2/
- Useful material for package JM can be found in the web sites:

 http://jmr.r-forge.r-project.org [R code used in the book]

 http://www.drizopoulos.com/ → Software [additional R script files]



- Other software packages capable of fitting joint models
 - in R: JMbayes (by Rizopoulos), joineR (by Philipson et al.), joineRML (by Hickey et al.), function stan_jm() in rstanarm (by Brilleman), jm_bamlss() in bamlss (Koehler et al.), lcmm (by Proust-Lima et al.)
 - b in SAS: %JM macro (by Garcia-Hernandez and Rizopoulos http://www.jm-macro.com/), %JMFit macro (by Zhang et al.)
 - ▷ in **STATA**: **stjm** and **merlin** (by Crowther)

Part I Introduction



- AIDS: 467 HIV infected patients who had failed or were intolerant to zidovudine therapy (AZT) (Abrams et al., NEJM, 1994)
- The aim of this study was to compare the efficacy and safety of two alternative antiretroviral drugs, didanosine (ddl) and zalcitabine (ddC)
- Outcomes of interest:
 - \triangleright time to death
 - \triangleright randomized treatment: 230 patients ddl and 237 ddC
 - \triangleright CD4 cell count measurements at baseline, 2, 6, 12 and 18 months







Kaplan-Meier Estimate





• Research Questions:

- ▷ How strong is the association between CD4 cell count and the risk of death?
- ▷ Is CD4 cell count a good biomarker?
 - * if treatment improves CD4 cell count, does it also improve survival?



- PBC: Primary Biliary Cirrhosis:
 - ▷ a chronic, fatal but rare liver disease
 - > characterized by inflammatory destruction of the small bile ducts within the liver
- Outcomes of interest:
 - \triangleright time to death or liver transplantation
 - ▷ randomized treatment: 158 patients received D-penicillamine and 154 placebo
 - > longitudinal bilirubin levels, cholesterol, prothrombin time (continuous)
 - > longitudinal ascites, hepatomegaly, edema (categorical)







Kaplan-Meier Estimate





• Research Questions:

- ▷ How strong is the association between bilirubin and the risk of death?
- b How the observed serum bilirubin levels could be utilized to provide predictions of survival probabilities?
- ▷ Can bilirubin discriminate between patients of low and high risk?



- Depending on the questions of interest, different types of statistical analysis are required
- We will distinguish between two general types of analysis
 - > separate analysis per outcome
 - ▷ joint analysis of outcomes
- Focus on each outcome separately
 - > does treatment affect survival?
 - ▷ are the average longitudinal evolutions different between males and females?

 $\triangleright \dots$



- Focus on multiple outcomes
 - Complex effect estimation: how strong is the association between the longitudinal evolution of CD4 cell counts and the hazard of death?
 - Handling implicit outcomes: focus on longitudinal outcomes but with dropout or random visit times

Part II

Linear Mixed-Effects Models



- Repeated evaluations of the same outcome in each subject over time
 - \triangleright CD4 cell count in HIV-infected patients
 - ▷ serum bilirubin in PBC patients

Measurements on the same subject are expected to be (positively) correlated

• This implies that standard statistical tools, such as the *t*-test and simple linear regression that assume independent observations, are not optimal for longitudinal data analysis.



• The direct approach to model correlated data \Rightarrow *multivariate regression*

$$y_i = X_i \beta + \varepsilon_i, \quad \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, V_i),$$

where

 $\triangleright y_i$ the vector of responses for the *i*th subject

- $\triangleright X_i$ design matrix describing structural component
- $\triangleright V_i$ covariance matrix describing the correlation structure
- There are several options for modeling V_i , e.g., compound symmetry, autoregressive process, exponential spatial correlation, Gaussian spatial correlation, ...



• Alternative intuitive approach: Each subject in the population has her own subject-specific mean response profile over time







• The profile of each subject over time can be described by a linear model

$$y_{ij} = \tilde{\beta}_{i0} + \tilde{\beta}_{i1}t_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}, \quad \varepsilon_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$$

where

 $\triangleright y_{ij}$ the *j*th response of the *i*th subject $\triangleright \tilde{\beta}_{i0}$ is the intercept and $\tilde{\beta}_{i1}$ the slope for subject *i*

 Assumption: Subjects are randomly sampled from a population ⇒ subject-specific regression coefficients are also sampled from a population of regression coefficients

$$\tilde{\beta}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta, D)$$



• We can reformulate the model as

$$y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + b_{i0}) + (\beta_1 + b_{i1})t_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij},$$

where

 $\triangleright \beta s$ are known as the *fixed effects*

 \triangleright b_i s are known as the *random effects*

• In accordance for the random effects we assume

$$b_i = \begin{bmatrix} b_{i0} \\ b_{i1} \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D)$$



• Put in a general form

$$\begin{cases} y_i = X_i \beta + Z_i b_i + \varepsilon_i, \\\\ b_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D), \quad \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}), \end{cases}$$

with

- $\triangleright X$ design matrix for the fixed effects β
- $\triangleright Z \text{ design matrix for the random effects } b_i$ $\triangleright b_i \perp \perp \varepsilon_i$



- Interpretation:
 - $\triangleright \beta_j$ denotes the change in the average y_i when x_j is increased by one unit
 - $> b_i$ are interpreted in terms of how a subset of the regression parameters for the *i*th subject deviates from those in the population
- Advantageous feature: population + subject-specific predictions
 - $\rhd\beta$ describes mean response changes in the population
 - $\triangleright \beta + b_i$ describes individual response trajectories

Part III Relative Risk Models



- The characteristic that distinguishes the analysis of time-to-event outcomes from other areas in statistics is **Censoring**
 - ▷ the event time of interest is not fully observed for all subjects under study
- Implications of censoring:
 - ▷ standard tools, such as the sample average, the *t*-test, and linear regression cannot be used
 - b inferences may be sensitive to misspecification of the distribution of the event times


- Several types of censoring:
 - ▷ Location of the true event time wrt the censoring time: *right*, *left* & *interval*
 - Probabilistic relation between the true event time & the censoring time: informative & non-informative

Here we focus on non-informative right censoring



- Notation (*i* denotes the subject)
 - $\triangleright T_i^*$ 'true' time-to-event
 - $\triangleright C_i$ the censoring time (e.g., the end of the study or a random censoring time)
- Available data for each subject
 - \triangleright observed event time: $T_i = \min(T_i^*, C_i)$
 - \triangleright event indicator: $\delta_i = 1$ if event; $\delta_i = 0$ if censored

Our aim is to make valid inferences for T_i^* but using only $\{T_i, \delta_i\}$



• **Relative Risk Models** assume a multiplicative effect of covariates on the hazard scale, i.e.,

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp(\gamma_1 w_{i1} + \gamma_2 w_{i2} + \ldots + \gamma_p w_{ip}) \Rightarrow$$

$$\log h_{i}(t) = \log h_{0}(t) + \gamma_{1}w_{i1} + \gamma_{2}w_{i2} + \ldots + \gamma_{p}w_{ip},$$

where

 $\triangleright h_i(t)$ denotes the hazard of an event for patient i at time t $\triangleright h_0(t)$ denotes the baseline hazard $\triangleright w_{i1}, \ldots, w_{ip}$ a set of covariates



- **Cox Model:** We make no assumptions for the baseline hazard function
- Parameter estimates and standard errors are based on the log partial likelihood function

$$p\ell(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \Big[\gamma^\top w_i - \log \Big\{ \sum_{j: T_j \ge T_i} \exp(\gamma^\top w_j) \Big\} \Big],$$

where only patients who had an event contribute



- Often interest in the association between a time-varying covariate and the risk of an event
 - ▷ treatment changes with time (e.g., dose)
 - ▷ time-dependent exposure (e.g., smoking, diet)
 - ▷ markers of disease or patient condition (e.g., blood pressure, PSA levels)
 - $\triangleright \dots$
- Example: In the PBC study, are the longitudinal bilirubin measurements associated with the hazard of death?



- To answer our questions of interest we need to postulate a model that relates
 - \triangleright the serum bilirubin with
 - \triangleright the time-to-death
- The association between **baseline** marker levels and the risk of death can be estimated with standard statistical tools (e.g., Cox regression)
- When we want to study time-varying covariates, a more **careful consideration** is required



• There are two types of time-varying covariates

(Kalbfleisch & Prentice, The Stat. Anal. of Failure Time Data, 2002)

 \triangleright External (aka exogenous): the value of the covariate at time point t is not affected by the occurrence of an event at time point u, with t > u

▷ Internal (aka endogenous): not External

• This is a difficult concept and we will try to explain it with an example...



- Example: Consider a study on asthma, in particular on the time until an asthma attack for a group of patients
- We have two time-varying covariates: Pollution levels & a biomarker for asthma
- \bullet Say a patient had an asthma attack at a particular time point u
 - \triangleright Pollution levels
 - * will the pollution levels at time t > u be affected by the fact that the patient had an attack at $u? \Rightarrow No$
 - \triangleright Biomarker
 - * will the biomarker level at time t > u be affected by the fact that the patient had an attack at $u? \Rightarrow Yes$



- It is **important** to distinguish between these two types of time-varying covariates, because the type of covariate dictates the appropriate type of analysis
- In our motivating examples all time-varying covariates are Biomarkers ⇒ These are always endogenous covariates
 - ▷ measured with error (i.e., biological variation)
 - ▷ the complete history is not available
 - ▷ existence directly related to failure status







• The Cox model presented earlier can be extended to handle time-varying covariates using the counting process formulation

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{Y}_i(t), w_i) = h_0(t) R_i(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha y_i(t)\},\$$

where

- $\triangleright N_i(t)$ is a counting process which counts the number of events for subject i by time t,
- $\triangleright h_i(t)$ denotes the intensity process for $N_i(t)$,
- $\triangleright R_i(t)$ denotes the at risk process ('1' if subject *i* still at risk at *t*), and
- $> y_i(t)$ denotes the value of the time-varying covariate at t



• Interpretation:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{Y}_i(t), w_i) = h_0(t) R_i(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha y_i(t)\}$$

 $exp(\alpha)$ denotes the relative increase in the risk of an event at time t that results from one unit increase in $y_i(t)$ at the same time point

• Parameters are estimated based on the log-partial likelihood function

$$p\ell(\gamma,\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{\infty} \left\{ R_{i}(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_{i} + \alpha y_{i}(t)\} - \log\left[\sum_{j} R_{j}(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_{j} + \alpha y_{j}(t)\}\right] \right\} dN_{i}(t)$$



- How does the extended Cox model handle time-varying covariates?
 - ▷ assumes no measurement error
 - ▷ step-function path
 - \triangleright existence of the covariate is not related to failure status







• Therefore, the extended Cox model is only valid for exogenous time-varying covariates

Treating endogenous covariates as exogenous may produce spurious results!

Part IV The Basic Joint Model



• To account for the special features of endogenous covariates a new class of models has been developed

Joint Models for Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data

- Intuitive idea behind these models
 - 1. use an appropriate model to describe the evolution of the covariate/marker over time for each patient
 - 2. the estimated evolutions are then used in a Cox model
- Feature: covariate level's are **not** assumed constant between visits







• Some notation

- $\triangleright T_i^*$: True event time for patient *i*
- $\triangleright T_i$: Observed event time for patient *i*
- $\triangleright \delta_i$: Event indicator, i.e., equals 1 for true events
- $\triangleright y_i$: Longitudinal covariate
- We will formulate the joint model in 3 steps in particular, ...



- Step 1: Let's assume that we know $m_i(t)$, i.e., the *true* & *unobserved* value of the covariate at time t
- Then, we can define a standard relative risk model

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\},\$$

- $\triangleright \mathcal{M}_i(t) = \{ \underline{m_i(s)}, 0 \le s < t \}$ longitudinal history
- $\triangleright \alpha$ quantifies the association between the time-varying covariate and the risk of an event
- $\triangleright w_i$ baseline covariates



- Step 2: From the observed longitudinal data $y_i(t)$ reconstruct the covariate history for each subject
- Mixed effects model (we focus, for now, on continuous covariates)

$$y_i(t) = \mathbf{m}_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t)$$

= $x_i^{\top}(t)\beta + z_i^{\top}(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \quad \varepsilon_i(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$

$$\triangleright x_i(t)$$
 and β : Fixed-effects part
 $\triangleright z_i(t)$ and b_i : Random-effects part, $b_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, D)$



- Step 3: The two processes are associated \Rightarrow define a model for their joint distribution
- Joint Models for such joint distributions are of the following form (Tsiatis & Davidian, Stat. Sinica, 2004)

$$p(y_i, T_i, \delta_i) = \int p(y_i \mid b_i) \{ h(T_i \mid b_i)^{\delta_i} S(T_i \mid b_i) \} p(b_i) db_i,$$

 $\triangleright b_i$ a vector of random effects that explains the interdependencies $\triangleright p(\cdot)$ density function; $S(\cdot)$ survival function



- Key assumption: Full Conditional Independence ⇒ random effects explain all interdependencies
 - ▷ the longitudinal outcome is independent of the time-to-event outcome
 - b the repeated measurements in the longitudinal outcome are independent of each other

$$p(y_i, T_i, \delta_i \mid b_i) = p(y_i \mid b_i) p(T_i, \delta_i \mid b_i)$$
$$p(y_i \mid b_i) = \prod_j p(y_{ij} \mid b_i)$$

Caveat: CI is difficult to test



- The censoring and visiting^{*} processes are assumed non-informative:
- Decision to withdraw from the study or appear for the next visit
 - may depend on observed past history (baseline covariates + observed longitudinal responses)
 - no additional dependence on underlying, latent subject characteristics associated with prognosis

*The visiting process is defined as the mechanism (stochastic or deterministic) that generates the time points at which longitudinal measurements are collected.



- Joint models require a full specification of the joint distribution
 - ▷ we need an assumption for the baseline hazard
- General Advice: Use a parametric but flexible model for $h_0(t)$:

$$\log h_0(t) = \gamma_{h_0,0} + \sum_{q=1}^Q \gamma_{h_0,q} B_q(t,v),$$

 $\triangleright B_q(t, v)$ denotes the q-th basis function of a B-spline with knots v_1, \ldots, v_Q $\triangleright \gamma_{h_0}$ a vector of spline coefficients



• Penalize spline coefficients for smoothness

$$p(\gamma_{h_0} \mid \tau_h) \propto \tau_h^{\rho/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\tau_h}{2}\gamma_{h_0}^{\top}\Delta_r^{\top}\Delta_r\gamma_{h_0}\right),$$

where

- $\triangleright \tau_h$ smoothing parameter
- $\triangleright \Delta_r$ denotes *r*-th differences penalty matrix

 $\triangleright \rho \text{ rank of } \Delta_r^\top \Delta_r$



- Under the Bayesian paradigm both θ and $\{b_i, i = 1, \ldots, n\}$ are regarded as parameters
- Inference is based on the full posterior distribution

$$p(\theta, b \mid T, \delta, y) = \frac{\prod_{i} p(T_{i}, \delta_{i} \mid b_{i}; \theta) \ p(y_{i} \mid b_{i}; \theta) \ p(b_{i}; \theta) \ p(\theta)}{\prod_{i} p(T_{i}, \delta_{i}, y_{i})}$$

$$\propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ p(T_i, \delta_i \mid b_i; \theta) \ p(y_i \mid b_i; \theta) \ p(b_i; \theta) \right\} \ p(\theta)$$



- No closed-form solutions for the integrals in the normalizing constant \Rightarrow MCMC or Hamiltonian Monte Carlo
- For MCMC estimation, combination of Gibbs and Metropolis-Hastings algorithm
 Probbins-Monro adaptive optimal scaling
- To gain in efficiency, we can do block-updating for many of the parameters, i.e.,
 ▷ fixed effects β
 - \triangleright random effects b_i
 - \triangleright baseline covariates in the survival submodel γ



• Inference then proceeds in the usual manner from the MCMC output, e.g.,

 \triangleright posterior means, variances, and standard errors

 \triangleright credible intervals

▷...



- Model comparison: Information Criteria for Predictive Accuracy
 - ▷ Deviance information criterion (DIC)
 - ▷ Watanabe-Akaike information criterion (WAIC)
 - ▷ log pseudo-marginal likelihood (LPML)
- Two versions available
 - \triangleright conditional on the random effects
 - ▷ marginalized over the random effects

Preferable is to work with the marginalized versions



• Example: To illustrate the virtues of joint modeling, we compare it with the standard time-dependent Cox model for the AIDS data

$$\begin{cases} y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 \{t \times dd I_i\} + b_{i0} + b_{i1} t + \varepsilon_i(t), \qquad \varepsilon_i(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2), \end{cases}$$
$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma dd I_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \end{cases}$$



	JM	Cox
	\log HR (std.err)	\log HR (std.err)
Treat	0.35(0.21)	$0.31 \ (0.15)$
$CD4^{1/2}$	-0.28(0.04)	-0.19(0.02)

• Clearly, there is a considerable effect of ignoring the measurement error, especially for the CD4 cell counts



• A unit decrease in CD4 $^{1/2}$, results in a

▷ Joint Model: 1.32-fold increase in risk (95% CI: 1.23; 1.43)

- ▷ **Time-Dependent Cox**: 1.21-fold increase in risk (95% CI: 1.16; 1.27)
- Which one to believe?
 - b a lot of theoretical and simulation work has shown that the Cox model underestimates the true association size of endogenous time-varying covariates



R> Joint models are fitted using function jm() from package JMbayes2, e.g.,

CoxFit <- coxph(Surv(Time, death) ~ drug, data = aids.id)</pre>

jointFit <- jm(CoxFit, lmeFit, time_var = "obstime")</pre>

summary(jointFit)



R> The data frame given in lme() should be in the long format, while the data frame given to coxph() should have one line per subject*

▷ the ordering of the subjects needs to be the same

- R> The scale of the time variables in the mixed and Cox models need to be the sameb i.e., both in months, or both in years, etc.
- **R>** Argument time_var specifies the time variable in the linear mixed model

* Unless you want to include exogenous time-varying covariates or handle competing risks



R> Useful functions

- > summary(): summarizes the fitted model
- > compare_jm(): compares fitted models using DIC and WAIC
- > coef(), fixef(), ranef(): extract estimated coefficients and random effects
- > traceplot() & ggtraceplot: produces traceplots
- > densplot() & ggdensityplot(): produces density plots
- > predict(): calculates predictions
$\mathbf{Part}~\mathbf{V}$

Extensions of Joint Models



• The standard joint model

$$\begin{cases} h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \\ y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ = x_i^\top(t)\beta + z_i^\top(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \end{cases}$$

where $\mathcal{M}_i(t) = \{m_i(s), 0 \le s < t\}$







• The standard joint model

$$\begin{cases} h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \\ y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ = x_i^\top(t)\beta + z_i^\top(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \end{cases}$$

where $\mathcal{M}_i(t) = \{m_i(s), 0 \le s < t\}$

Is this the only option? Is this the most optimal choice?



- <u>Note</u>: Inappropriate modeling of time-varying covariates may result in surprising results
- Example: Cavender et al. (1992, J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.) conducted an analysis to test the effect of cigarette smoking on survival of patients who underwent coronary artery surgery
 - b the estimated effect of current cigarette smoking was positive on survival although not significant (i.e., patient who smoked had higher probability of survival)
 - b most of those who had died were smokers but many stopped smoking at the last follow-up before their death



We need to carefully consider the functional form of time-varying covariates

• Let's see some possibilities...



• Lagged Effects: The hazard of an event at t is associated with the level of the marker at a previous time point:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t_+^c)\},\$$

where

$$t_+^c = \max(t - c, 0)$$







• *Time-dependent Slopes:* The hazard of an event at t is associated with both the current value and the slope of the trajectory at t (Ye et al., 2008, Biometrics):

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^{\top} w_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t) + \alpha_2 m'_i(t)\},\$$

where

$$m_i'(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \{ x_i^\top(t)\beta + z_i^\top(t)b_i \}$$







• The definition of the slope is

$$m'_i(t) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{m_i(t+\epsilon) - m_i(t)}{\epsilon}$$

the change in the longitudinal profile as ϵ approaches zero

- It can be challenging to interpret
 - \triangleright it is the 'current' slope



• *Time-dependent Slopes 2:* The hazard of an event at t is associated with the change of the trajectory the last year:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha \Delta m_i(t)\},\$$

where

$$\Delta m_i(t) = m_i(t) - m_i(t-1)$$



• *Cumulative Effects:* The hazard of an event at t is associated with the whole area under the trajectory up to t:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha \int_0^t m_i(s) \ ds\right\}$$

• Area under the longitudinal trajectory taken as a summary of $\mathcal{M}_i(t)$







• *Cumulative Effects 2:* The hazard of an event at t is associated with the whole area under the trajectory up to t:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha \frac{\int_0^t m_i(s) \, ds}{t}\right\}$$

• We account for the observation period



• Weighted Cumulative Effects (convolution): The hazard of an event at t is associated with the area under the weighted trajectory up to t:

$$h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha \int_0^t \varpi(t-s) m_i(s) \, ds\right\},$$

where $\varpi(\cdot)$ an appropriately chosen weight function, e.g.,

- ▷ Gaussian density
- \triangleright Student's-*t* density
- ▷...



R> In JMbayes2 the specification of functional forms is done via the functional_forms argument

▷ e.g., the following code includes the area and slope in the linear predictor, and the interaction of the former with sex

```
jm(CoxFit, lmeFit, time_var = "time",
   functional_forms = ~ area(y) + value(y) + area(y):sex)
```



- R> The area() function calculates the *Cumulative Effects 2* functional form, where the integral is divide by the length of the period
- R> The slope() function can be used for the *Time-dependent Slopes 2* functional form via

slope(..., eps = 1, direction = "back")



- Often multiple failure times are recorded
 - ▷ competing risks
 - b transitions to multiple states
 - ▷ recurrent events
- Example: In the PBC dataset \Rightarrow competing risks
 - ▷ Some patients received a liver transplantation
 - So far we have used the composite event, i.e. death or transplantation whatever comes first
 - When interest only is on one type of event, the other should be considered as a competing risk



- Competing risks:
 - ▷ Death precludes the occurrence of transplantation
 - \triangleright Transplantation modifies the risk of death





• Joint models with competing risks:

$$\begin{cases} y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) = x_i^{\top}(t)\beta + z_i^{\top}(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \\ h_i^d(t) = h_0^d(t)\exp\{\gamma_d^{\top}w_i + \alpha_d m_i(t)\}, \\ h_i^{tr}(t) = h_0^{tr}(t)\exp\{\gamma_{tr}^{\top}w_i + \alpha_{tr} m_i(t)\}, \end{cases}$$

where

▷ $h_i^d(t)$ hazard function for death ▷ $h_i^{tr}(t)$ hazard function for transplantation



• In the estimation, the only difference is in the construction of the likelihood part for the event process

$$p(T_i, \delta_i \mid b_i; \theta) = \prod_{k=1}^K \left[h_{0k}(T_i) \exp\{\gamma_k^\top w_i + \alpha_k m_i(T_i)\} \right]^{I(\delta_i = k)}$$
$$\times \exp\left(-\sum_{k=1}^K \int_0^{T_i} h_{0k}(s) \exp\{\gamma_k^\top w_i + \alpha_k m_i(s)\} \ ds\right),$$

with

 $\triangleright T_i = \min(T_{i1}^*, \ldots, T_{iK}^*, C_i)$, with C_i denoting the censoring time $\triangleright \delta_i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, K\}$, with 0 corresponding to censoring



- This is different than in standard Cox models
 - ▷ i.e., we cannot fit a cause-specific hazard joint model by treating events from other causes as censored



- Example: Competing risks analysis for the PBC dataset
 - ⊳ log(ser Bilir): linear mixed-effects model
 - * fixed effects: intercept, drug, linear time, interaction drug with time
 - * random effects: intercept and linear time
 - ▷ time to death or transplantation: relative risk model
 - * competing risks: transplantation and death
 - * baseline covariates: drug *different* per competing risk
 - * time-varying: current value log ser Bilir *different* per competing risk



	Value	Std.Dev.	2.5%	97.5%
D-penicil	-0.424	0.542	-1.430	0.644
D-penicil:dead	0.516	0.530	-0.515	1.522
value(logSB)	1.134	0.219	0.727	1.552
value(logSB):dead	0.107	0.228	-0.300	0.567



R> Function jm() can fit joint models with competing risks and multi-state processes; an example with competing risks

b first, the survival data have to be prepared in the competing risks long format using function crisk_setup(), e.g.,

pbc2.id[pbc2.id\$id %in% c(1,2,5), c("id", "years", "status")]

	id	years	status
1	1	1.095170	dead
2	2	14.152338	alive
5	5	4.120578	transplanted



	id	years	status	CR	status2
1	1	1.095170	dead	dead	1
1.1	1	1.095170	dead	transplanted	0
2	2	14.152338	alive	dead	0
2.1	2	14.152338	alive	transplanted	0
5	5	4.120578	transplanted	dead	0
5.1	5	4.120578	transplanted	transplanted	1



R> To fit the joint model, we first fit the linear mixed and relative risk models as before
 ▷ for the latter we use the data in the competing risks long and put the event-type variable as strata



R> Then the joint model is fitted with the code

```
jm(CoxFit_CR, lmeFit_CR, time_var = "year",
    functional_forms = ~ value(log(serBilir)) * CR)
```

For more info see https://drizopoulos.github.io/JMbayes2/ \rightarrow Articles \rightarrow Competing Risks



- Multi-state models:
 - > Transition between transplantation and death is of interest
 - Effect of covariates and/or biomarkers can be different for each transition





• Joint models with multi-state processes:

$$\begin{cases} y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) = x_i^{\top}(t)\beta + z_i^{\top}(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \\ h_i^d(t) = h_0^d(t) \exp\left[w_i^{d^{\top}}\gamma_d + \alpha^d m_i(t)\right], \\ h_i^t(t) = h_0^t(t) \exp\left[w_i^{t^{\top}}\gamma_t + \alpha^t m_i(t)\right], \\ h_i^{td}(t) = h_0^{td}(t) \exp\left[w_i^{td^{\top}}\gamma_{td} + \alpha^{td} m_i(t)\right], \end{cases}$$

where

 $\triangleright h_i^d(t) \text{ transition intensity from disease to death}$ $\triangleright h_i^t(t) \text{ transition intensity from disease to transplantation}$ $\triangleright h_i^{td}(t) \text{ transition intensity from transplantation to death}$



Multi-state long-format **different** than the long format in Competing Risks

- General rule: 1 row per **possible** transition.
 - competing risks: always 2 rows per subject because **both transitions always possible** from starting state.
 - > multi-state: unequal number of rows per subject because not all transitions
 possible from starting state)



For more info see https://drizopoulos.github.io/JMbayes2/ \rightarrow Articles \rightarrow Multi-State Processes



- Multiple Failure Times: recurrent events
- Example: In the PBC dataset \Rightarrow recurrent events
 - ▷ Patients showed irregular visiting patterns
 - ▷ So far, when we fitted the joint model we assumed that the visiting process is non-informative
 - If this assumption is violated, we should also model this process in order to obtain valid inferences



• Joint model with recurrent (visiting process) & terminal events

$$\begin{cases} y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) = x_i^{\top}(t)\beta + z_i^{\top}(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \\ r_i(t) = r_0(t)\exp\{\gamma_r^{\top}w_{ri} + \alpha_r m_i(t) + \mathbf{v}_i\}, \\ h_i(t) = h_0(t)\exp\{\gamma_h^{\top}w_{hi} + \alpha_h m_i(t) + \zeta\mathbf{v}_i\}, \end{cases}$$

with

 $ightarrow r_i(t)$ hazard function for the recurrent events $ightarrow h_i(t)$ hazard function for the terminal event $ightarrow \mathbf{v}_i$ frailty term accounting for the correlation in the recurrent events



- Conditional independence assumptions augmented
 - \triangleright recurrent events are independent given v_i
 - \triangleright longitudinal measurements are independent giver b_i
 - \triangleright all three processes, namely
 - * longitudinal process,
 - $\ensuremath{^*}$ recurrent events process, and
 - * terminating event process are independent given $\{b_i, \mathbf{v}_i\}$
- We need to postulate a distribution for the frailty terms
 - \triangleright typical choices are log-Gamma or Gaussian


For more info see https://drizopoulos.github.io/JMbayes2/ \rightarrow Articles \rightarrow Recurrent Events

Part VI Dynamic Predictions



- Nowadays there is great interest for prognostic models and their application to personalized medicine
- Examples are numerous
 - ▷ cancer research, cardiovascular diseases, HIV research, ...

Physicians are interested in accurate prognostic tools that will inform them about the future prospect of a patient in order to adjust medical care



- \bullet We are interested in predicting survival probabilities for a new patient j with serum bilirubin measurements up to time t
- Example: Patients 2 and 25 from the PBC dataset have 9 and 12 serum bilirubin measurements, respectively
 - Dynamic Prediction survival probabilities are dynamically updated as additional longitudinal information is recorded
- We need to account for the endogenous nature of the covariate
 - \triangleright providing measurements up to time point $t \Rightarrow$ the patient was still alive at time t







 \bullet More formally, for a new subject j we have available measurements up to time point t

$$\mathcal{Y}_j(t) = \{y_j(s), 0 \le s \le t\}$$

and we are interested in

$$\pi_j(u \mid t) = \mathsf{Pr}\big\{T_j^* \ge u \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t), \mathcal{D}_n\big\},\$$

where

 \triangleright where u > t, and

 $\triangleright \mathcal{D}_n$ denotes the sample on which the joint model was fitted



- We assume that the joint model has been fitted to the data at hand
- Based on the fitted model, we can estimate the conditional survival probabilities (Rizopoulos, 2011, Biometrics)



- It is convenient to proceed using a Bayesian formulation of the problem $\Rightarrow \pi_j(u \mid t)$ can be written as

$$\mathsf{Pr}\big\{T_j^* \ge u \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t), \mathcal{D}_n\big\} = \int \mathsf{Pr}\big\{T_j^* \ge u \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t); \theta\big\} \ p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}_n) \ d\theta$$

• The first part of the integrand takes the form

$$\Pr\{T_j^* \ge u \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t); \theta\} =$$
$$= \int \frac{S_j\{u \mid \mathcal{M}_j(u, \boldsymbol{b}_j, \theta); \theta\}}{S_j\{t \mid \mathcal{M}_j(t, \boldsymbol{b}_j, \theta); \theta\}} p(\boldsymbol{b}_j \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t); \theta) \ d\boldsymbol{b}_j$$



• A Monte Carlo estimate of $\pi_j(u \mid t)$ can be obtained using the following simulation scheme:

Step 1. draw $\theta^{(\ell)} \sim [\theta \mid \mathcal{D}_n]$

Step 2. draw $b_j^{(\ell)} \sim [b_j \mid T_j^* > t, \mathcal{Y}_j(t), \theta^{(\ell)}]$

Step 3. compute $\pi_j^{(\ell)}(u \mid t) = S_j \{ u \mid \mathcal{M}_j(u, \mathbf{b}_j^{(\ell)}, \theta^{(\ell)}); \theta^{(\ell)} \} / S_j \{ t \mid \mathcal{M}_j(t, \mathbf{b}_j^{(\ell)}, \theta^{(\ell)}); \theta^{(\ell)} \}$

• Repeat Steps 1–3, $\ell = 1, \ldots, L$ times, where L denotes the number of Monte Carlo samples



- Example: Dynamic predictions of survival probabilities for Patients 2 & 25 from the PBC dataset: We fit the joint model
- Longitudinal submodel
 - ▷ fixed effects: intercept & natural cubic splines of time with 3 d.f., sex, and interaction of the time effect with sex
 - ▷ random effects: intercept, natural cubic splines of time with 3 d.f.
- Survival submodel
 - \triangleright sex effect + *underlying* serum bilirubin level



- Based on the fitted joint model we estimate $\pi_j(u \mid t)$ for Patients 2 and 25
- We use 500 Monte Carlo samples, and we took as estimate

$$\hat{\pi}_j(u \mid t) = \text{mean}\{\pi_j^{(\ell)}(u \mid t), \ell = 1, \dots, L\}$$

and calculated a corresponding 95% pointwise CIs































R> Individualized predictions of survival probabilities are computed by function predict() – for example, for Patient 2 from the PBC dataset we have

sfit

plot(sfit)



• All previous predictions were based on the standard joint model

$$\begin{cases} h_i(t \mid \mathcal{M}_i(t)) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma^\top w_i + \alpha m_i(t)\}, \\ y_i(t) = m_i(t) + \varepsilon_i(t) \\ = x_i^\top(t)\beta + z_i^\top(t)b_i + \varepsilon_i(t), \end{cases}$$

where $\mathcal{M}_i(t) = \{m_i(s), 0 \le s < t\}$



- We have seen earlier that there are several alternative functional forms (see Section 5.1)
- Relevant questions:
 - ▷ Does the assumed functional form affect predictions?
 - ▷ Which functional form is the most optimal?
- Example: We compare predictions for the longitudinal and survival outcomes under different parameterizations for Patient 51 from the PBC study







- Predictions based on five joint models for the PBC dataset
 - \triangleright the same longitudinal submodel as before, and
 - \triangleright relative risk submodels:

 $h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{pnc}_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t)\},\$

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{pnc}_i + \alpha_2 m'_i(t)\},\$$

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\{\gamma \mathtt{D-pnc}_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t) + \alpha_2 m'_i(t)\}$$



$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma \mathsf{D-pnc}_i + \alpha_3 \frac{\int_0^t m_i(s) ds}{t}\right\},\$$

$$h_i(t) = h_0(t) \exp\left\{\gamma \mathsf{D-pnc}_i + \alpha_1 m_i(t) + \alpha_3 \frac{\int_0^t m_i(s) ds}{t}\right\},\$$





1yr-window Predictions

Survival Probability



The chosen functional form can influence the derived predictions

Joint Models for Longitudinal and Time-to-Event Data: March 24, 2022, ASA LiDS (online)



• We compare the models using the information criteria

	DIC	WAIC	LPML
value $+$ slope	5322.683	22104.998	-5535.420
area	5346.029	23268.436	-5560.009
slope	5645.578	29600.396	-7353.621
value + area	5388.139	29840.361	-9110.958
value	5439.294	30513.206	-7230.238

• The value + slope model seems to be the 'best'

Part VII Closing



• When we need joint models for longitudinal and survival outcomes?

to handle endogenous time-varying covariates in a survival analysis context
to account for nonrandom dropout in a longitudinal data analysis context

• How joint models work?

- \triangleright a mixed model for the longitudinal outcome
- \triangleright a relative risk model for the event process
- \triangleright explain interrelationships with shared random effects



• Where to pay attention when defining joint models?

- > model flexibly the subject-specific evolutions for the longitudinal outcome
- \triangleright consider how to model the association structure between the two processes \Rightarrow Functional Forms

• Extensions

- b under the full conditional independence assumption we can easily extend the basic joint model
- ▷ multiple longitudinal outcomes and/or multiple failure times
- b though more computationally intensive



• Individualized predictions

- b joint models can provide subject-specific predictions for the longitudinal and survival outcomes
- ▷ these are dynamically updated as extra information is recorded for the subjects
- ▷ joint models constitute an excellent tool for personalized medicine

The End!



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