

12. Selected topics

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Overview Chapter 12 - Selected topics

12.1 Joint models for longitudinal and event time data

12.2 Stochastic time-varying covariates

12.3 Sample size in longitudinal studies

Longitudinal and time-to-event data

Often, longitudinal and time-to-event data are collected together and the longitudinal data is only available until the event occurs. Examples:

- Longitudinal auto-antibodies after seroconversion and time to onset of type I diabetes
- CD4 cell counts after seroconversion and onset of HIV
- Longitudinal measurements of the prothrombin marker and time to death in liver cirrhosis patients

We then observe longitudinal measurements y_{i1}, \dots, y_{in_i} and the event time or censoring time T_i with $t_{in_i} \leq T_i$ and event indicator δ_i (1 if subject i experiences the event, 0 if it is censored).

Challenges in modeling this type of data

The longitudinal marker $y_i(t_{ij})$ for subject $i = 1, \dots, n$ is

- measured at varying time points t_{ij}
- measured with error
- subject to informative dropout (no measurements after event onset)

Aim: Estimating the relationship between marker and time to event T_i

Joint models

1. submodel for the true trajectories, e.g. a mixed model

$$\begin{aligned} y_{ij} = y_i(t_{ij}) &= m_i(t_{ij}) + \epsilon_i(t_{ij}) \\ &= \mathbf{x}_i(t_{ij})^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{z}_i(t_{ij})^\top \mathbf{b}_i + \epsilon_i(t_{ij}) \end{aligned}$$

2. submodel for time-to-event, e.g. proportional hazards model

$$\lambda_i(u) = \lambda_0(u) \exp \{ \alpha \cdot m_i(u) \}$$

3. combined in a *joint* likelihood to avoid biases in two-step estimation approach (first estimating 1., then plugging results into 2.)

$$f(T_i, y_i(t_{ij})) = \int f(T_i | b_i) f(y_i(t_{ij}) | b_i) f(b_i) db_i$$

Estimation

- Inference is based on the EM-algorithm or on Bayesian approaches.
- Joint models are a broad class of different models, e.g. different specifications of the link between longitudinal and survival.
- Joint models are implemented in different R-packages, e.g. JM, JMbayes, bam1ss, and lcmm (latent class model).

Further readings

- Article on the JM-package (Section 1 and 2 give a clear and short overview)
Rizopoulos, D.(2010). JM: An R package for the joint modelling of longitudinal and time-to-event data. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 35(9): 1-33.
- Standard review paper on the class of joint models
Tsiatis, A.A., and Davidian, M. (2004). Joint modeling of longitudinal and time-to-event data: an overview. *Statistica Sinica* 14: 809-834.
- Overview of latent class approaches
Proust-Lima, C., Sene, M., Taylor, J.M., and Jacqmin-Gadda, H. (2014). Joint latent class models for longitudinal and time-to-event data: A review. *Statistical Methods of Medical Research*, 23: 74-90.

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Stochastic time-varying covariates

Different types of covariates:

- **Time-invariant covariates** for each subject, e.g. gender, race, treatment group
- **Time-varying covariates:**
 - design-related, e.g.
 - * time since baseline and its transformations such as t^2
 - * treatment in a “crossover” study
 - **stochastic time-varying covariates**, e.g.
 - * dietary intake
 - * bloodmarker
 - * air pollution
 - * physical activity

Stochastic time-varying covariates

- In our models, we assumed a relationship for the mean

$$g(\mathbb{E}(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{X}_i)) = \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

- This implicitly assumes that $\mathbb{E}(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{X}_i)$ depends only on \mathbf{x}_{ij} :

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{X}_i) = \mathbb{E}(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{in_i}) = \mathbb{E}(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_{ij}). \quad (12.1)$$

This is true for time-invariant variables. For time-varying stochastic covariates, however, preceding or subsequent values of \mathbf{x}_{ij} can 'confound' the relationship between Y_{ij} and \mathbf{x}_{ij} and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ can then be biased.

External and Internal Covariates

A covariate is called **exogenous** or **external** when

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{i,j+1} | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{ij}, Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{ij}) = f(\mathbf{x}_{i,j+1} | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{ij}).$$

Otherwise, the covariate is called **internal** or **endogenous**.

Examples:

- air pollution measured at a central monitor is **external**, as it does not depend on health outcomes
- personal air pollution exposure is **internal** if subjects with poor health outcomes change their behavior to avoid high air pollution exposures.

For an external covariate (and automatically for design-related covariates),

$$E(Y_{ij} | \mathbf{X}_i) = E(Y_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{in_i}) = E(Y_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{ij}).$$

External Covariates

For **external** covariates, we can focus on specifying a model for $f(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{ij})$. Possible models include

- concurrent, model $E(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_{ij})$
- lagged, model $E(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_{i,j-k})$ for some k
- cumulative, model $E(Y_{ij}|\sum_{k=1}^j \mathbf{x}_{ik})$
- distributed lags, regression coefficients for $\mathbf{x}_{ij}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i,j-k}$ follow some pre-specified structure (e.g. polynomial).

Note that e.g. modeling $E(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_{ij})$ while Y_{ij} depends on both \mathbf{x}_{ij} **and** $\mathbf{x}_{i,j-1}$ can give misleading results.

Internal Covariates

When variables are **internal**, we have to think both about **meaningful targets of inference** and valid methods of inference. Methods include causal inference, and modeling of the joint process $\{Y_{ij}, \mathbf{x}_{ij}\}$.

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Sample size in longitudinal studies

As an example, assume that we have

- $N/2$ subjects **per group**
- $n_i = n$ measurements per subject (with equal time points t_j , but not necessarily equidistant)
- Two groups: placebo and therapy
- Model: LMM with linear group-specific trend, random intercept and slope per subject
- Null hypothesis: $\delta = 0$, where δ stands for the difference between the linear trends in groups A and B.

Sample size formula

For given type 1 error α and type 2 error β , the necessary sample size N to detect a difference δ then is obtained using

$$N/2 = \frac{(Z_{(1-\alpha/2)} + Z_{(1-\beta)})^2 2\tilde{\sigma}^2}{\delta^2},$$

where

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \sigma^2 \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n (t_j - \bar{t})^2 \right\}^{-1} + d_{22}$$

with $\bar{t} = \sum_{j=1}^n t_j/n$, error variance σ^2 and random slope variance d_{22} . Thus, one needs to make assumptions about δ , σ^2 and d_{22} to calculate N .

The t_j are often chosen equidistantly with the study duration limited by organizational reasons. Then, N needs to be greater the smaller n is.

Comments and extensions

- The formula can be “reversed” to e.g. derive the power as a function of N .
- The formula can easily be adapted for groups of different sizes.
- The formula can easily be adapted for comparing other coefficients.
- The extension to non-normal responses is also possible.

For further discussion, see e.g. [Diggle et al \(2002\)](#), [Fitzmaurice et al \(2004\)](#).