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strcs: A command for fitting flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale

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Abstract. In this article, we describe **strcs**, a user-written command for fitting flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale. **strcs** is an extension of the user-written **stgenreg** command (Crowther and Lambert, 2013b, Journal of Statistical Software 53(12): 1–17), which fits general parametric models with user-defined hazard functions using numerical integration. **strcs** implements a two-step method that incorporates both analytical and numerical integration to estimate the cumulative hazard function required for the log-likelihood function. This method improves the accuracy of the fully numeric estimation implemented in **stgenreg**. Time-dependent effects can be incorporated, and excess mortality models can be fit by using the available options. We also describe some of the extensive postestimation commands that are easily implemented after fitting an **strcs** model.

 ${\sf Keywords:}$ st
0462, strcs, strcs postestimation, flexible parametric survival model, log-hazard scale

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1 Introduction

The Cox model is the most popular method implemented to model survival data because it requires no assumptions of the shape of the baseline hazard ($\cos 1972$). Although the Cox model is an extremely useful tool for estimating relative effects, parametric models remain popular to obtain estimates of both absolute and relative effects. Many parametric models can be used to model hazard functions, including Poisson models using splines (Carstensen 2007) or using fractional polynomials (Lambert et al. 2005) and using the generalized F distribution (Cox 2008). Here we focus on the flexible parametric survival models of Royston and Parmar (Royston and Parmar 2002; Royston and Lambert 2011). These models are becoming more popular because they can capture simple and complex hazard functions that standard parametric models may struggle to capture. These flexible models use restricted cubic splines (Durrleman and Simon 1989) to model some transformation of the survival function, usually the log cumulative-hazard function. Fitting flexible parametric survival models on the log cumulative-hazard scale is easily implemented in Stata using the stpm2 command (Lambert and Royston 2009). Flexible parametric survival models on the log cumulative-hazard scale have been shown to accurately capture a variety of complex hazard functions and to estimate almost identical hazard ratios as the Cox model provided that enough knots are specified for the spline function (Rutherford, Crowther, and Lambert 2015). They have also been shown to accurately capture time-dependent effects (Bower et al. 2015). Flexible parametric survival models have been extended in a variety of settings, including relative survival (Nelson et al. 2007), when modeling cure proportions (Andersson et al. 2011) and when incorporating random effects (Crowther, Look, and Riley 2014).

One can also implement flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale. However, modeling on this scale requires numerical integration when complex hazards, such as splines, are used to maximize the likelihood. General models on the loghazard scale can be implemented in Stata using the user-written stgenreg command (Crowther and Lambert 2013b), which fits parametric survival models for user-defined hazard functions. stgenreg implements a fully numeric approach to numerical integration. We present the strcs command, an extension of the stgenreg command that fits flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale using a combination of analytical integration and numerical integration techniques to increase the accuracy and to reduce the number of nodes required in numerical integration (Crowther and Lambert 2014). The strcs command is also more user friendly and has some additional prediction tools. Here we describe the strcs command and its extensive postestimation predictions and illustrate their use.

2 Flexible parametric survival models

A flexible parametric survival model with time-dependent effects of covariates ${\bf x}$ on the log-hazard scale can be written as

$$\ln\{h(t;\mathbf{x})\} = s\{f(x);\boldsymbol{\gamma}_0\} + \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{d=1}^{D} s\{f(x);\boldsymbol{\gamma}_d\}\mathbf{x}_d$$
(1)

where $s\{f(x); \gamma_0\}$ represents the restricted cubic spline function, D is the number of time-dependent effects, $s\{f(x); \gamma_d\}$ is the spline function for the dth time-dependent effect, and f(x) = t or $\ln(t)$.

Restricted cubic splines are used within flexible parametric models, usually to model the log cumulative hazard, although they can be used to model other transformations, such as the log cumulative odds (Royston and Parmar 2002; Royston and Lambert 2011). Restricted cubic splines are piecewise cubic functions joined at positions called knots. The overall function is forced to be smooth by forcing the first and second derivatives to be continuous at the knots and constraining the function to be linear before the first and after the last knot. The complexity of these functions is determined by the user-defined degrees of freedom, which is equal to the number of knots minus one. Knot positions can be user defined or chosen to be positioned at equally spaced percentiles of the observed event-time distribution.

A restricted cubic spline function, $s(a; \gamma_0)$, with a = t or $\ln(t)$ and knots k_1, \ldots, k_K is defined as

$$s(a;\gamma_0) = \gamma_{00} + \sum_{l=1}^{K-1} \gamma_{0l} v_l(a)$$

where the *l*th basis function $v_l(a)$ is defined as

$$v_l(a) = \begin{cases} a, & \text{for } l = 1\\ (a - k_l)_+^3 - \lambda_l (a - k_1)_+^3 - (1 - \lambda_l)(a - k_K)_+^3, & \text{for } l = 2, \dots, K - 1 \end{cases}$$

and where k_1 and k_K are the boundary knots, $\lambda_l = (k_K - k_l)/(k_K - k_1)$, and $u_+ = u$ if u > 0 and $u_+ = 0$ if $u \leq 0$. Splines can often be highly correlated; to avoid this and any computational problems that may occur because of this correlation, one can orthogonalize splines.

Restricted cubic splines within flexible parametric survival models allow both simple and complex hazard functions to be captured in situations where standard parametric models may struggle to do so (Rutherford, Crowther, and Lambert 2015). Because they model the baseline function, various postestimation predictions can be calculated, such as time-dependent hazard ratios and differences in hazards. Time-dependent effects, or nonproportional hazards, can also be incorporated easily via introducing an interaction between the covariate and a spline function. The complexity of the deviation from the baseline hazard in the time-dependent effect can also be chosen by the user by specifying separate degrees of freedom for this effect.

3 Maximum likelihood estimation

Flexible parametric survival models are fit using maximum likelihood estimation; the ml command is used in Stata. Consider a sample of n individuals where t_i is the exit time and d_i is the event indicator for the *i*th individual. Then, the log-likelihood contribution for the *i*th individual is

$$\log l_i = d_i \log\{h(t_i)\} + \log\{S(t_i)\}$$
(2)

where $h(t_i)$ is the hazard function and $S(t_i)$ is the survival function evaluated at the time of death or censoring t_i .

Thus, when one fits a flexible parametric survival model, the hazard $h(t_i)$ and the survival $S(t_i)$ are required. The survival can be written as a function of the cumulative hazard function, $H(t_i)$,

$$S(t_i) = \exp[-\{H(t_i)\}]$$

and the cumulative hazard function is the integral of the hazard function:

$$H(t_i) = \int_0^{t_i} h(u_i) du$$

Consider the flexible parametric survival model in (1), and let $\phi(t)$ equal the righthand side of the equation. Then, we have that the hazard function

$$h(t) = \exp\{\phi(t)\}\$$

The survival function can be written in the following way:

$$S(t) = \exp\left[-\int_0^{t_i} \exp\{\phi(t)\}du\right]$$

Thus, to obtain the survival function, which is part of the likelihood function, one must integrate the hazard function. In the context of flexible parametric survival models, the hazard function is a complex spline function that cannot be integrated analytically. Thus, numerical integration techniques are required.

4 Numerical integration in strcs

As described in the previous section, numerical integration techniques are required when fitting flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale to maximize the likelihood function. However, numerical integration over the whole function is not necessary. The restricted cubic spline function is analytically integrable before the first knot and after the last knot because of the constraints imposed on the function at these two intervals. Even though there is often little time before the first knot, this is where numerical integration is the most inaccurate when modeling log transformed time. In

comparison to modeling flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale using the **stgenreg** command, performing the integration in two steps rather than over the whole function benefits from increased computational efficiency and more accurate integration.

4.1 The two-step integration approach

strcs uses a two-step integration approach that combines both analytical and numerical integration of the hazard function.

The cumulative hazard function can be written as the sum of three components,

$$H(t_i) = H_1 + H_2 + H_3$$

where

- H_1 is the cumulative hazard function before the first knot, k_1 ;
- H_2 is the cumulative hazard function between k_1 and the last knot k_K ; and
- H_3 is the cumulative hazard function after k_K .

Because of the constraints imposed on restricted cubic splines, H_1 and H_3 can be calculated analytically from the corresponding hazard function; thus only numerical integration needs to be applied to obtain H_2 . The number of components included in the cumulative hazard function for a particular observation depends on the value of the observed survival time. For example, if the observed survival time t_i is after the first knot but before the last knot, then the cumulative hazard function will contain only H_1 and H_2 , where H_2 will correspond to integration between the time at the first knot and t_i ; thus integration of the hazard function corresponding to H_3 is not required. See Crowther and Lambert (2014) for further information.

4.2 Gaussian quadrature

Gaussian quadrature is a method of numerical integration that converts an integral into a weighted summation over a set of predefined points known as nodes,

$$\int g(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^m w_j g(x_j)$$

where m is the number of nodes and g(x) can be approximated by a polynomial function. The integral can instead be estimated between a and b by the following formula:

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(x)dx \approx \frac{b-a}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j g\left(\frac{b-a}{2}x_j + \frac{a+b}{2}\right)$$

We are interested in numerically integrating the hazard function h(x) between the time at the first knot t_{k_1} and at the last knot t_{k_K} ; that is, we wish to obtain part H_2 of the cumulative hazard function. The above equation then becomes

$$\begin{split} \int_{t_{k_1}}^{\min(t_i, t_{k_K})} h(x) dx &\approx \frac{\min(t_i, t_{k_K}) - t_{k_1}}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m w_j h \\ &\left\{ \frac{\min(t_i, t_{k_K}) - t_{k_1}}{2} x_j + \frac{t_{k_1} + \min(t_i, t_{k_K})}{2} \right\} \end{split}$$

strcs implements Gauss-Legendre quadrature. The accuracy of the numerical integration depends on the number of nodes m specified; previous research has shown that 30 nodes are sufficient in most circumstances (Crowther and Lambert 2013a).

5 Excess mortality models

Excess mortality models, or relative survival models, can also be implemented in strcs by modeling the log excess-hazard function. Excess mortality, or relative survival, is a popular method used in population-based cancer studies. Using cause of death data can be problematic because these often ignore treatment-related deaths, and the recording of deaths can be unreliable. To avoid these problems, one can implement excess mortality models. These aim to capture the disease-related mortality by modeling the difference between the all-cause mortality in the diseased population and the all-cause mortality in the nondiseased population. Thus the total mortality rate $h_i(t)$ can be written as a function of the expected mortality rate $h_i^*(t)$ and the excess mortality rate associated with disease, $\lambda_i(t)$,

$$h_i(t) = h_i^*(t) + \lambda_i(t)$$

The expected mortality rate is usually obtained from national or regional life tables matched on age, sex, and year. The survival analogue to the excess mortality is relative survival $R_i(t)$. Relative survival is related to the expected survival $S_i^*(t)$ and the allcause survival in the diseased population $S_i(t)$ in the following way:

$$S_i(t) = S_i^*(t)R_i(t)$$

The log likelihood described in (2) can be extended when considering a relative survival model:

$$\log l_i = d_i \log\{h^*(t_i) + \lambda(t_i)\} + \log\{R(t_i)\}$$

We have discarded $\log\{S^*(t_i)\}\$ from the log likelihood because the maximum likelihood does not depend on this value.

6 The strcs command

strcs fits flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale. Restricted cubic splines smooth the log hazard with user-specified degrees of freedom. Covariates can be included within the model and are allowed to be time dependent by specifying degrees of freedom to model the time-dependent effect. Excess hazard models can be implemented by specifying the expected hazard rate. Numerical integration of the hazard function is undertaken as a two-step process by combining analytical integration with Gauss-Legendre quadrature. Both the rcsgen (Lambert 2008) and stpm2 commands are called in strcs to create splines and get initial values, respectively; the user must install these prior to using the strcs command. The log likelihood is maximized using the Newton-Raphson algorithm, via the m1 command in Stata. The likelihood is evaluated using Mata to increase computational speed.

6.1 Syntax

strcs varlist [if] [in], {df(#) | knots(numlist) } [bknots(knots_list)
bknotstvc(knots_list) dftvc(df_list) knotstvc(knots_list) knscale(scale)
tvc(varlist) bhazard(varname) bhtime noconstant nodes(#) noorthog
offset(varname) reverse level(#) nohr verbose from(matrix)
inith(varlist) maximize_options]

6.2 Options

Knot selection options

df(#) specifies the degrees of freedom for the restricted cubic spline function used for the baseline hazard function; the number of degrees of freedom does not include the constant term. # must be between 1 and 10. With 1 degree of freedom, a linear effect is fit. The knots() option is not applicable if the df() option is specified. The knots are placed at equally spaced centiles of the uncensored survival times or log survival-times, depending on the bhtime option. For example, for df(5) with no bhtime option, knots are placed at the 20th, 40th, 60th, and 80th centiles of the distribution of the uncensored log survival-times. Note that these are interior knots and that there are also boundary knots placed at the minimum and maximum of the distribution of uncensored survival times or log survival-times. df() or knots() is required.

- knots(numlist) specifies the knot locations for the baseline hazard function, as opposed to the locations set by the df() option. Note that the locations of the knots are placed on the scale defined by knscale(). However, the scale used by the restricted cubic splines function is always log time unless the bhtime option is specified. Default knot locations are determined by the df() option. df() or knots() is required.
- bknots(knots_list) specifies the boundary knots. By default, these are located at the minimum and maximum of the uncensored survival times, or log survival-times depending on the use of the bhtime option. They are specified on the scale defined by knscale().
- bknotstvc(knots_list) specifies the boundary knots for any time-dependent effects. By
 default, these are the same as for the bknots option. They are specified on the scale
 defined by knscale(). For example, bknotstvc(x1 0.01 10 x2 0.01 8) specifies
 the boundary knots for covariate x1 are 0.01 and 10 and for covariate x2 are 0.01
 and 8.
- dftvc(df_list) specifies the degrees of freedom for time-dependent effects in df_list. If there is more than one time-dependent effect and different degrees of freedom are requested for each time-dependent effect, then use the syntax dftvc(x1:3 x2:2 1). This will use 3 degrees of freedom for covariate x1, 2 degrees of freedom for covariate x2, and 1 degree of freedom for all remaining time-dependent effects.
- knotstvc(knots_list) defines the location of the interior knots for time-dependent effects. If different knots are required for different time-dependent effects, the option is specified as, for example, knotstvc(x1 1 2 3 x2 1.5 3.5).
- knscale(scale) sets the scale on which user-defined knots are specified. knscale(time)
 denotes the original time scale, knscale(log) denotes the log time scale, and
 knscale(centile) specifies that the knots are taken to be centile positions in the
 distribution of uncensored log survival-times if the bhtime option is not specified.
 The default is knscale(time).
- tvc(varlist) gives the name of the variables that are time dependent. Time-dependent
 effects are fit using restricted cubic splines. The degrees of freedom are specified
 using the dftvc() option.

Estimation options

- **bhazard**(*varname*) invokes a relative survival model where *varname* holds the expected mortality rate (hazard) at the time of death or censoring.
- bhtime smooths the estimated log-hazard function over time using restricted cubic splines. By default, smoothing is over log time.

noconstant suppresses the constant term (intercept) in the model.

nodes(#) specifies the number of nodes to be used in Gauss-Legendre quadrature numerical integration when calculating the estimated cumulative hazard function from the estimated hazard function. The default is nodes(30). Changing the nodes may be useful if there are convergence problems. Too few nodes may result in a poor approximation involved in the numerical integration sensitivity. Analyses should be performed to ensure the results are not sensitive to the number of nodes.

noorthog suppresses orthogonal transformation of spline variables.

- offset (varname) specifies a variable whose coefficient is constrained to be 1.
- reverse specifies that the splines be calculated backward. See Andersson et al. (2011) for details of the approach.

Reporting options

level(#) specifies the confidence level, as a percentage, for the confidence intervals
 (CIs). The default is level(95) or as set by set level.

nohr reports the coefficients instead of hazard ratios.

verbose details the process of the strcs program in its output.

Maximization options

- from(matrix) defines the parameter matrix of initial values to be used in maximum
 likelihood estimation. By default, strcs estimates initial hazard estimates by fitting
 a model on the log cumulative-hazard scale using the stpm2 command.
- inith(varlist) defines initial hazard estimates to be used in maximum likelihood estimation. By default, strcs estimates initial hazard estimates by fitting a model on the log cumulative-hazard scale using the stpm2 command.

maximize_options: difficult, technique(algorithm_spec), iterate(#), [no]log, trace, gradient, showstep, hessian, shownrtolerance, tolerance(#), ltolerance(#), gtolerance(#), nrtolerance(#), and nonrtolerance; see [R] maximize. These options are seldom used, but the difficult option may be useful if there are convergence problems.

7 The strcs postestimation command

7.1 Syntax

predict newvar [if] [in], {survival | hazard | xb | xbnobaseline | cumhazard |
 sdiff1(varname # [varname # ...])
 sdiff2(varname # [varname # ...])
 hdiff1(varname # [varname # ...])
 hdiff2(varname # [varname # ...])
 hrift2(varname # [varname # ...])
 hrdenominator(varname # [varname # ...])
 [at(varname # [varname # ...]) [ci|stdp] nodes(#) per(#)
 timevar(varname) zeros level(#)]

7.2 Options

- survival predicts the survival function. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- hazard predicts the hazard function. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- xb predicts the linear predictor, including the spline function. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- xbnobaseline predicts the linear predictor, excluding the spline function, that is, only the time-fixed part of the model. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- cumhazard predicts the cumulative hazard function using Gauss-Legendre quadrature
 numerical integration. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1()
 (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or
 hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.

sdiff1(varname # [varname # ...]) and

sdiff2(varname # [varname # ...]) predict the difference in survival curves with the first survival curve defined by the covariate values listed for sdiff1() and the second by those listed for sdiff2(). By default, covariates not specified using either option are set to zero. Note that setting the remaining values of covariates to zero may not always be sensible. If # is set to ., then *varname* takes its

observed values in the dataset. For example, sdiff1(hormon 1) (without specifying sdiff2()) computes the difference in predicted survival curves at hormon = 1 compared with hormon = 0. sdiff1(hormon 0) sdiff2(hormon 1) computes the difference in predicted survival curves at hormon = 0 compared with hormon = 1. sdiff1(hormon 0 age 50) sdiff2(hormon 1 age 30) computes the difference in predicted survival curves at hormon = 0 and age = 50 compared with hormon = 1 and age = 30. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.

- hdiff1(varname # [varname # ...]) and hdiff2(varname # [varname # ...]) predict the difference in hazard functions with the first hazard function defined by the covariate values listed for hdiff1() and the second by those listed for hdiff2(). By default, covariates not specified using either option are set to zero. Note that setting the remaining values of the covariates to zero may not always be sensible. If # is set to ., then varname takes its observed values in the dataset. For example, hdiff1(hormon 1) (without specifying hdiff2()) computes the difference in predicted hazard functions at hormon = 1 compared with hormon = 0. hdiff1(hormon 0) hdiff2(hormon 1) computes the difference in predicted hazard functions at hormon = 1. hdiff1(hormon 0 age 50) hdiff2(hormon 1 age 30) computes the difference in predicted hazard functions at hormon = 1 and age = 30. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- hrnumerator(varname # [varname # ...]) predicts the (time-dependent) hazard ratio with the numerator of the hazard ratio. By default, all covariates other than varname and any other variables mentioned are set to zero. Note that setting the remaining values of covariates to zero may not always be sensible. If # is set to ., then varname takes its observed values in the dataset. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- hrdenominator(varname # [varname # ...]) specifies the denominator of the hazard ratio. By default, all covariates other than varname and any other variables mentioned are set to zero. If # is set to ., then varname takes its observed values in the dataset. survival, hazard, xb, xbnobaseline, cumhazard, sdiff1() (and sdiff2() if applicable), hdiff1() (and hdiff2() if applicable), or hrnumerator() (and hrdenominator()) is required.
- at (varname # [varname # ...]) requests that the covariates specified by the listed varname be set to the listed # values. For example, at (x1 1 x3 50) would evaluate predictions at x1 = 1 and x3 = 50. This is a useful way to obtain out-of-sample predictions. Note that if at() is used together with zeros, all covariates not listed in at() are set to zero. If at() is used without zeros, then all covariates not listed in at() are set to their sample values; see also zeros.

- ci calculates a CI for the requested statistics and stores the confidence limits in *new-var_lci* and *newvar_uci*. ci cannot be used with the stdp option.
- stdp calculates the standard error of the prediction and stores it in newvar_se. stdp
 is available only for the xb and xbnobaseline options and cannot be used with the
 ci option.
- nodes(#) specifies the number of nodes to be used when numerically integrating the estimated hazard function using Gauss-Legendre quadrature. Numerical integration is required when predicting the cumulative hazard and survival functions. The default is nodes(30).
- per(#) expresses hazard rates and differences in hazard rates per # person years.
- timevar(varname) defines the variable used as time in the predictions. The default is timevar(_t). This is useful for large datasets where, for plotting purposes, predictions are needed, for example, only for 200 observations. Note that some caution should be taken when using this option because predictions may be made at whatever covariate values are in the first 200 rows of data. This can be avoided by using the at() option or the zeros option, or both, to define the covariate patterns for which you require the predictions.
- zeros sets all covariates to zero (baseline prediction). For example, predict s0, survival zeros calculates the baseline survival function. See also at().
- level(#) specifies the confidence level as a percentage. The default is level(95) or as set by set level.

8 Examples

We illustrate strcs through an application to 14,423 female patients diagnosed with breast cancer in England and Wales between 1986 and 1990 (Coleman et al. 1999) and consider the variables old and deprived. We use the binary variable old to consider the effect of age at diagnosis on survival (old = 1 for the oldest patients, age ≥ 80 years; old = 0 for the youngest patients, age < 50 years). We use the binary variable deprived to consider the effect of deprivation on survival (deprived = 1 for the most deprived patients; deprived = 0 for the least deprived patients). Observations other than those in these variable groups were removed to demonstrate the specific issue of modeling multiple time-dependent effects. The data must be declared as survival-time data using stset to fit an strcs model. We follow patients up to 5-years postdiagnosis; 6,426 events were observed during this follow-up time.

. use ew_breast (Ch28 Adult Breast 174, 175) . keep if agegroup==1 | agegroup==5 (76,332 observations deleted) . tabulate dep, generate(dep) (output omitted)

```
. keep if dep1==1 | dep5==1
(24,576 observations deleted)
. count
  14,423
. generate deprived=1 if dep==5
(9,460 missing values generated)
. replace deprived=0 if dep==1
(9,460 real changes made)
  generate old=1 if agegroup==5
(9,721 missing values generated)
. replace old=0 if agegroup==1
(9,721 real changes made)
. stset survtime, failure(dead==1) exit(time 5)
     failure event: dead == 1
obs. time interval: (0, survtime]
exit on or before: time 5
      14423 total observations
          0 exclusions
      14423 observations remaining, representing
       6426 failures in single-record/single-failure data
  52269.807 total analysis time at risk and under observation
                                                 at risk from t =
                                                                            0
                                      earliest observed entry t =
                                                                            0
                                                                            5
                                           last observed exit t =
```

8.1 **Proportional hazards model**

A flexible parametric proportional hazards model on the log-hazard scale adjusting for deprivation and age at diagnosis is fit and shown here using the strcs command:

. strcs depriv	ved old, df(5)) nolog				
Log likelihoo	d = −17583.118	3		Number	of obs =	14,423
	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
xb						
deprived	1.188827	.0305327	6.73	0.000	1.130466	1.250202
old	4.242514	.1081975	56.67	0.000	4.035664	4.459967
rcs						
s1	2452037	.0183438	-13.37	0.000	2811569	2092505
s2	1028519	.0146591	-7.02	0.000	1315833	0741205
s3	0095586	.0130162	-0.73	0.463	0350699	.0159526
s4	.0464819	.0117706	3.95	0.000	.023412	.0695518
s5	0374921	.010923	-3.43	0.001	0589007	0160834
_cons	-2.753924	.0344452	-79.95	0.000	-2.821436	-2.686413

Quadrature method: Gauss-Legendre with 30 nodes

These results indicate that the mortality rate for those who are deprived is 19%higher than that of the affluent, and the mortality rate for the oldest patients is 4.24

times that of the youngest. The estimates for $_s1, _s2, ..., _s5$, and $_cons$ are not interpretable individually but together form the log baseline hazard function. Here we specify five degrees of freedom to model the log baseline hazard function through the df(5) option, which is reflected in the output having five restricted cubic spline variables, $_s1, _s2, ..., _s5$. Fitting a Cox model using stcox gives very similar estimates to those seen when fitting flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale using strcs:

. stcox depri	ved old, nolog	g					
fail	ure _d: dead	== 1					
	ime _t: survt						
exit on or 1	before: time	5					
Cox regression	n Breslow n	nethod for t	ies				
No. of subjec	ts = 14,	423		Number o	of obs	=	14,423
No. of failur							
Time at risk	= 52269.80	0699					
				LR chi2	(2)	=	3285.67
Log likelihoo		Prob > d	hi2	=	0.0000		
t	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95%	Conf.	Interval]
deprived	1.188597	.0305272	6.73	0.000	1.130	0245	1.24996
old	4.240279	.1081452	56.64	0.000	4.033	3529	4.457627

Similarly, fitting a flexible parametric survival model on the log cumulative-hazard scale gives very similar estimates:

Log	likelihood	1 = -17565.021	1		Number o	of obs =	14,423
		exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
xb							
(deprived	1.188864	.0305337	6.74	0.000	1.1305	1.250241
	old	4.243773	.1082262	56.68	0.000	4.036868	4.461284
	_rcs1	2.601464	.0314216	79.16	0.000	2.540602	2.663784
	_rcs2	.9448331	.0075656	-7.09	0.000	.9301205	.9597785
	_rcs3	.9538918	.0042863	-10.51	0.000	.9455277	.9623299
	_rcs4	1.01948	.0028672	6.86	0.000	1.013876	1.025116
	_rcs5	.9978683	.0015792	-1.35	0.178	.994778	1.000968
	_cons	.1862209	.0039616	-79.01	0.000	.178616	.1941496

. stpm2 deprived old, df(5) scale(hazard) eform nolog

The knot positions and various other stored results can be found by using the ereturn list command after fitting a model using strcs. It is also simple to predict the hazard function after fitting a model by using the predict postestimation command. We illustrate this by predicting the hazard from the previously described proportional hazards strcs model and creating a new variable called pred_hazard.

. predict pred_hazard, hazard

We then plot over time since diagnosis; see figure 1. The predicted estimates shown here are from a proportional hazards model, so the rates shown in figure 1 are perfectly proportional.

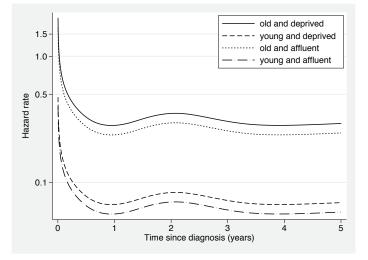


Figure 1. Predicted hazards from a proportional hazards flexible parametric model on the log-hazard scale using the **strcs** command

8.2 Nonproportional hazards model

We can fit a nonproportional hazards flexible parametric model on the log-hazard scale with time-dependent effects of deprivation and age at diagnosis using the **strcs** command:

Log likelihood	= -17374.818			Number o	f obs =	14,423
	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
xb						
deprived	1.078623	.0522633	1.56	0.118	.9809022	1.186079
old	5.124901	.2416034	34.66	0.000	4.672585	5.621001
rcs						
s1	.00354	.0330689	0.11	0.915	0612739	.0683539
s2	.0433423	.0273338	1.59	0.113	010231	.0969155
s3	.1234013	.0211381	5.84	0.000	.0819714	.1648312
s4	.0770874	.012494	6.17	0.000	.0525996	.1015752
s5	0353503	.0109504	-3.23	0.001	0568126	013888
<pre>s_deprived1</pre>	0881581	.0295574	-2.98	0.003	1460894	0302267
<pre>s_deprived2</pre>	.0435977	.0258279	1.69	0.091	0070241	.0942195
s_deprived3	.0237286	.0236893	1.00	0.317	0227014	.0701587
s_old1	233187	.0359835	-6.48	0.000	3037133	1626607
s_old2	2568875	.0300956	-8.54	0.000	3158738	1979012
s_old3	2564321	.0261969	-9.79	0.000	3077772	2050871
_cons	-2.838495	.0412506	-68.81	0.000	-2.919344	-2.757645

. strcs deprived old, df(5) tvc(deprived old) dftvc(3) nolog
Log likelihood = -17374.818 Number of obs

Quadrature method: Gauss-Legendre with 30 nodes

The hazard ratios for the effect of deprivation and age at diagnosis are now allowed to vary over time through the use of the tvc() option. The dftvc(3) option specifies that three degrees of freedom, or two internal knots, should be used to model the deviations in the time-dependent effects. One can also select different degrees of freedom for each time-dependent effect using the dftvc() option, as illustrated here:

rog likelinood	17375.202			Number	01 005 -	14,423
	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
xb						
deprived	1.112886	.0393846	3.02	0.003	1.03831	1.192819
old	5.107861	.2401446	34.69	0.000	4.658221	5.600903
rcs						
s1	0010421	.0327606	-0.03	0.975	0652517	.0631675
s2	.0477148	.0269529	1.77	0.077	0051118	.1005414
s3	.1304704	.0198034	6.59	0.000	.0916566	.1692843
s4	.0794761	.0122591	6.48	0.000	.0554488	.1035034
s5	0354069	.0109494	-3.23	0.001	0568673	0139464
<pre>s_deprived1</pre>	0720214	.0241037	-2.99	0.003	1192637	0247791
s_deprived2	.0270911	.0189817	1.43	0.154	0101124	.0642945
s_old1	2349027	.0359378	-6.54	0.000	3053396	1644659
s_old2	2551347	.0300374	-8.49	0.000	3140069	1962625
s_old3	2539953	.0260704	-9.74	0.000	3050923	2028983
_cons	-2.847685	.0402228	-70.80	0.000	-2.926521	-2.76885

. strcs deprived old, df(5) tvc(deprived old) dftvc(deprived:2 old:3) nolog Log likelihood = -17375.262 Number of obs = 14.423

Quadrature method: Gauss-Legendre with 30 nodes

This specifies that the effect of deprivation is allowed to vary with time with two degrees of freedom, while the effect of age is allowed to vary with three degrees of

freedom. The hazard ratios for the effects of deprivation and age at diagnosis can be predicted as follows:

. predict hr_deprived, hrnumerator(deprived 1) hrdenominator(deprived 0) ci

. predict hr_old, hrnumerator(old 1) hrdenominator(old 0) ci

The hrnumerator() and hrdenominator() options are used to define which covariate patterns are included in the numerator and the denominator of the hazard ratio, respectively. The ci option calculates CIs for the specified predictions and saves the lower and upper confidence limits as *varname_lci* and *varname_uci*, respectively. These predicted hazard ratios are displayed in figure 2.

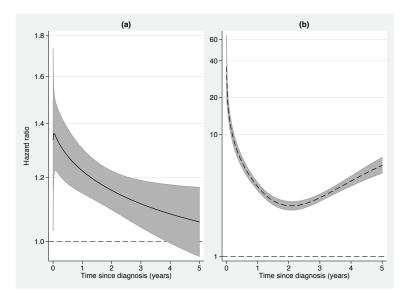


Figure 2. Predicted hazard ratios from nonproportional hazards model. (a) Hazard ratio for deprivation effect (deprived versus affluent). (b) Hazard ratio for age effect (old versus young).

Out-of-sample predictions and predictions for certain covariate patterns can be implemented using the timevar() and at() options, respectively. These are illustrated for a prediction of the survival function in addition to predictions for survival differences, the cumulative hazard function, and hazard-rate differences:

. range temptime 0 10 200

- (14,223 missing values generated)
- . predict pred_surv, surv timevar(temptime) at(deprived 1 old 1) ci
- . predict pred_sdiff_age, sdiff1(old 1) sdiff2(old 0) ci
- . predict pred_chazard, cumhazard
- . predict pred_hdiff_age, hdiff(old 1) hdiff2(old 0) ci

The range command creates a variable named temptime that contains 200 observations with equally spaced values from 0 to 10. This variable is used to predict survival up to 10 years postdiagnosis, even though the analysis was based upon follow-up to 5 years. Figure 3 displays the results from the above predictions.

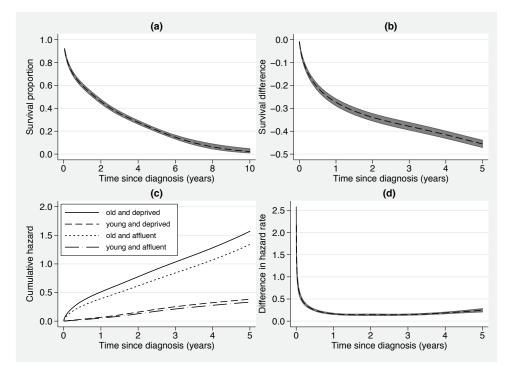


Figure 3. Predictions from flexible parametric nonproportional hazards model using **strcs**. (a) Survival function with 95% CI for the oldest patients at diagnosis who were the most deprived, up to 10 years postdiagnosis. (b) Survival difference with 95% CI between the oldest patients and the youngest patients. (c) Cumulative hazards of each deprivation group and age group. (d) Difference in hazard rates with 95% CI over time between the oldest patients and the youngest patients.

8.3 Time versus log time

It is common to model log time when fitting flexible parametric survival models. Transforming to the log time scale has been shown to generally fit better than on the untransformed time scale when using the same degrees of freedom (Royston 2000; Royston and Lambert 2011). In strcs, one can also model on the time scale by specifying the bhtime option. There are situations where one may prefer to model untransformed time, for example, when modeling with age as the time scale. Also, when modeling the log hazard with log time, one must be cautious when considering the hazard rate close to zero because at this point, the hazard rate is zero or infinity. Fig-

ure 4 shows the differences when modeling on the log-transformed time scale and the untransformed time scale. In this example, modeling on the log time scale is more stable to changes in the baseline degrees of freedom. The Akaike information criterion and Bayesian information criterion also suggest that the log-transformed time scale generally provides a better fit than the untransformed time scale when using the same degrees of freedom.

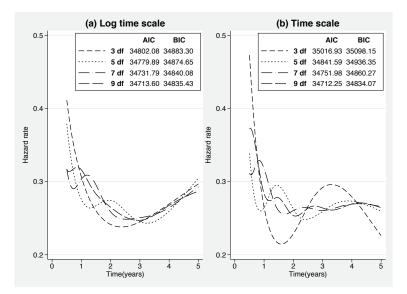


Figure 4. Predictions of the hazard rate of deprived patients from a flexible parametric nonproportional hazards model using **strcs** with different baseline degrees of freedom. (a) Displays predictions from models on the log time scale. (b) Displays predictions from models on the time scale. Results are presented from six months.

8.4 Number of nodes and degrees of freedom

Increasing the degrees of freedom or altering the knot positions can make the fit model more complicated. In some complex scenarios, models may not converge with the default number of nodes; if this is the case, the number of nodes can be altered by using the nodes() option. Also, to ensure that the number of nodes specified is enough to provide a good approximation in the numerical integration estimation, one should perform sensitivity analyses. The following output illustrates how altering the number of nodes can be implemented. Figure 5 displays the predicted baseline hazard rate from the strcs models with differing nodes.

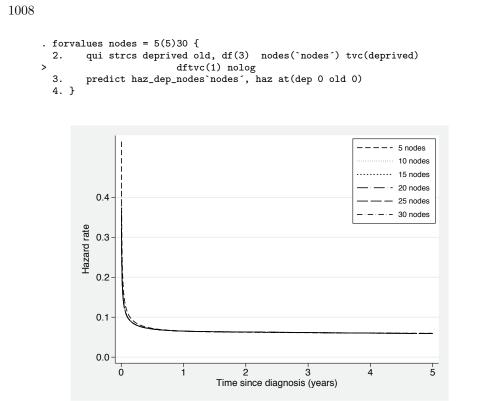


Figure 5. Baseline hazard rate (old, affluent patients) predicted from flexible parametric survival models on the log-hazard scale using **strcs** with varying nodes

The predicted hazard rates are very similar in figure 5, except for when 5 nodes are specified. This suggests that in this example, provided the number of nodes is at least 15, the approximation involved in the Gauss-Legendre numerical integration is accurate.

Table 1 shows the estimated parameters and standard errors from a proportional hazards model fit using the two-step approach implemented in strcs and the fully numeric approach implemented in stgenreg. Comparing the two integration methods indicates that the two-step approach obtains more consistent estimates with a lower number of nodes than the fully numeric approach. For example, the estimates of _cons are the same to 5 decimal points after 40 nodes is specified when implementing the two-step approach in strcs, whereas the estimates of _cons are more different when implementing the fully numeric approach in stgenreg.

strcs

					Number of nodes			
	$\operatorname{Parameter}$	ю	10	20	30	40	50	100
Two-step	deprived	1.18672	1.18804	1.18856	1.18867	1.18869	1.18870	1.18871
approach		(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)
(strcs)	old	4.19165	4.22481	4.23820	4.24098	4.24178	4.24203	4.24216
		(0.02554)	(0.02551)	(0.02550)	(0.02550)	(0.02550)	(0.02550)	(0.02550)
	s1	0.75738	0.77458	0.78323	0.78524	0.78582	0.78600	0.78609
		(0.01399)	(0.01407)	(0.01409)	(0.01409)	(0.01409)	(0.01409)	(0.01409)
	s2	0.75738	0.90985	0.91782	0.91965	0.92017	0.92034	0.92042
		(0.01222)	(0.01222)	(0.01224)	(0.01224)	(0.01224)	(0.01224)	(0.01224)
	s3	1.00613	1.01603	1.01252	1.01068	1.01004	1.00983	1.00972
		(0.01105)	(0.01114)	(0.01133)	(0.01137)	(0.01137)	(0.01138)	(0.01138)
	-cons	0.06420	0.06299	0.06282	0.06283	0.06284	0.06284	0.06284
		(0.02725)	(0.02725)	(0.02727)	(0.02727)	(0.02727)	(0.02727)	(0.02727)
Fully	deprived	1.17739	1.18440	1.18750	1.18812	1.18834	1.18845	1.18861
numeric		(0.02570)	(0.02569)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)	(0.02568)
approach	old	4.01305	4.14870	4.21467	4.22872	4.23377	4.23620	4.23988
(stgenreg)		(0.02584)	(0.02564)	(0.02553)	(0.02552)	(0.02551)	(0.02551)	(0.02550)
	s1	0.66201	0.72011	0.75783	0.76949	0.77460	0.77737	0.78221
		(0.01444)	(0.01448)	(0.01438)	(0.01429)	(0.01424)	(0.01421)	(0.01415)
	s2	0.66201	0.85692	0.89306	0.90429	0.90921	0.91189	0.91661
		(0.01250)	(0.01255)	(0.01247)	(0.01240)	(0.01236)	(0.01234)	(0.01229)
	s3	1.10138	1.08763	1.05100	1.03544	1.02806	1.02393	1.01641
		(0.01146)	(0.01170)	(0.01193)	(0.01185)	(0.01177)	(0.01171)	(0.01157)
	_cons	0.06411	0.06187	0.06193	0.06221	0.06237	0.06246	0.06265

One can specify the degrees of freedom using the df() option as described previously. One can also specify the degrees of freedom, or the position of the knots, by using the knots() and the knotstvc() options, alongside the knscale() option, for the baseline hazard and the time-dependent effects, respectively. It is useful to investigate how different specified degrees of freedom affect the model estimates. This has previously been investigated on the log cumulative-hazard scale; see Lambert and Royston (2009) for further information because the same issues apply here.

8.5 Excess mortality models

Excess mortality models can be easily implemented using the bhazard() option. This option specifies the variable that contains the expected hazard rate. A proportional excess-hazards model can be fit as follows:

```
. generate _year=min(year(datediag+_t),2010)
```

```
. generate _age=floor(min(agediag+_t,99))
```

```
. merge m:1 _year sex _age using popmort2011, nolabel keepusing(rate)
```

- > assert(2 3) keep(3) noreport nogenerate
- . strcs deprived old, df(5) bhazard(rate) nolog

Log likeliho	od = -16232.41	1		Number	of obs =	14,423
	Haz. Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
xb						
deprived	1.276213	.0408588	7.62	0.000	1.198592	1.35886
old	2.640435	.0877225	29.23	0.000	2.47398	2.818089
rcs						
s1	3002251	.0231134	-12.99	0.000	3455265	2549237
s2	0938537	.0184632	-5.08	0.000	130041	0576664
s3	.0113959	.0162236	0.70	0.482	0204018	.0431937
s4	.0711007	.0147399	4.82	0.000	.0422111	.0999903
s5	0503612	.0135819	-3.71	0.000	0769813	0237411
_cons	-2.856882	.0418619	-68.25	0.000	-2.93893	-2.774834

Quadrature method: Gauss-Legendre with 30 nodes

Here we create variables for attained year and age to merge in the correct expected rates from a population mortality file. We then use these rates to fit the model on the log excess-hazard scale. This model provides estimates of excess hazard ratios; timedependent excess-hazard ratios can be estimated similarly to the methods for including time-dependent effects described previously. Predictions from this model estimate excess hazard rates and relative survival proportions.

9 Conclusion

strcs is an extension to the general tool stgenreg that fits flexible parametric models on the log-hazard scale in a more efficient, user-friendly way with extended postestimation prediction tools. strcs implements a two-step integration process to increase

the accuracy of integration. Modeling using strcs avoids problems with multiple timedependent effects that may be present when fitting flexible parametric survival models on the log cumulative-hazard scale using stpm2.

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