

London, 7 October 2019

Excess hazard models in case of insufficiently stratified life tables

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MEDICINE



Excess mortality hazard regression models

Individual observed hazard, $h_o(.; .)$, decomposed as:

$$h_o(t; \mathbf{x}) = h_P(A + t; \mathbf{z}) + h_E(t; \mathbf{x})$$

where:

- $h_P(A + t; \mathbf{z})$ is the population hazard at age (at diagnosis) A ,
 - obtained from the lifetables ($\mathbf{z} \subset \mathbf{x}, age, sex, deprivation, \dots$),
- $h_E(t; \mathbf{x})$ is the excess hazard

Assumptions

- The general population hazard correctly reflects the other-causes hazard in our population of interest
- The excess hazard is interpreted as the hazard due to the cancer under study

Inufficiently stratified life tables

- Official life tables are usually stratified by age, sex, and year
- This implies that patients sharing age, year of diagnosis, and sex, are assigned the same background mortality
 - Most-deprived and least-deprived patients
 - Smokers and non-Smokers
 - ...
- The corresponding population hazard is either underestimated or overestimated

Sensitivity analyses using modified life tables

- Life tables adjusted for smoking using external information
 - Impact on net survival estimates for lung and laryngeal cancers
 - Small impact on deprivation gap
 - Likely stronger impact on crude probabilities of death, avoidable deaths...
- Life tables adjusted for deprivation using external information
 - Little impact on net survival estimates
 - Impact on deprivation gap in net survival

Single-parameter correction

- Chevart and Ryan [1991] proposed a single-parameter correction

$$h_o(t; \mathbf{x}|\eta) = \eta h_p(A + t; y + t; \mathbf{z}) + h_E(t; \mathbf{x})$$

where $\eta \geq 0$ is an unknown parameter

Limitations:

- Proportional excess hazard model
- Correction constant for all the patients,
 - rather unrealistic in population studies

Including covariates in the single-parameter correction

In order to alleviate this assumption, Touraine et al. [2019] proposed modelling η in terms of available covariates

- This allows for a different individual correction

However:

- It imposes a specific model for the inclusion of these variables

$$\eta_i = \exp(x_i^T \theta)$$

- Not all relevant variables may be available

Correlated Frailty Model

Zahl [1997] proposed a correlated frailty model, by using frailties on both the population hazard and the excess hazard

$$h_O^Z(t; \mathbf{x} | \gamma_1, \gamma_2) = h_P(A + t; y + t; \mathbf{z}) \gamma_1 + h_E(t; \mathbf{x}) \gamma_2$$

where $(\gamma_1, \gamma_2) \sim G_2$, a bivariate gamma distribution

However, identifiability issues with this model – no maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters

Rubio et al. [2019a] proposed a solution to that, adding a random correction (frailty)

$$h_o(t; \mathbf{x}|\eta) = \eta h_p(A + t; y + t; \mathbf{z}) + h_E(t; \mathbf{x})$$
$$\eta \sim \text{Gamma}(\mu, b)$$

➤ This correction

- Is at individual level
- Is non-specific
- Only applies to the population hazard

We can estimate the parameters using likelihood methods

- Closed-form of the marginal survival, therefore known full likelihood
- The information about the frailty parameters comes from the differences in population cumulative hazards
- Key step – model the excess hazard parametrically

- An extensive simulation study suggests that at least 5,000 observations are needed (fortunately, not an onerous condition in cancer epidemiology), and less than 50% censoring rate
- Using simulations, we have explored situations where:
 - Life tables were mismatched
 - No correction was necessary
 - These situations were identified using model selection

Real data example

- 15,688 men diagnosed with Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer (NSCLC) in England in 2012 (only complete cases)
- 13,603 died before 31 December 2015
- Life tables stratified by age, sex, year, and deprivation level

- 3 models
 - M1 = model without correction
 - M2 = single-parameter correction model
 - M3 = frailty-correction model

Real data example

	M1	M2	M3
b	—	—	9.83 (3.03)
$\gamma \mid \mu$	—	2.7 (0.21)	6.54 (0.91)
θ	0.05 (0.01)	0.03 (0.01)	0.03 (0.01)
κ	0.38 (0.01)	0.35 (0.01)	0.34 (0.01)
α	4.64 (0.34)	5.64 (0.48)	5.92 (0.58)
Age-t	0.29 (0.04)	0.29 (0.04)	0.16 (0.05)
Dep-t	0.11 (0.04)	0.12 (0.04)	0.09 (0.04)
Stage 1-t	-2.66 (0.25)	-2.17 (0.32)	-5.4 (1.4)
Stage 2-t	-2.2 (0.2)	-2 (0.22)	-2.69 (0.35)
Stage 3-t	-1.66 (0.11)	-1.57 (0.11)	-1.75 (0.13)
CV-t	0.31 (0.11)	0.31 (0.11)	0.42 (0.11)
COPD-t	0.13 (0.11)	0.08 (0.12)	0.37 (0.14)
Age	0.27 (0.01)	0.23 (0.02)	0.16 (0.02)
Dep	0.06 (0.01)	0.06 (0.01)	0.04 (0.01)
Stage 1	-2.84 (0.06)	-3.13 (0.1)	-3.53 (0.36)
Stage 2	-2.16 (0.06)	-2.32 (0.07)	-2.65 (0.1)
Stage 3	-1.23 (0.03)	-1.27 (0.04)	-1.36 (0.04)
CV	0.24 (0.04)	0.26 (0.04)	0.3 (0.04)
COPD	0.19 (0.04)	0.17 (0.04)	0.25 (0.05)
AIC	20304.69	20241.27	20213.41

Real data example

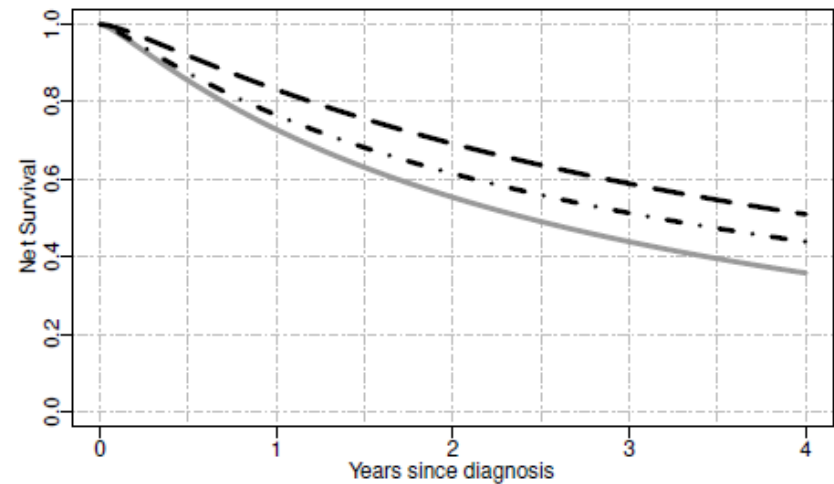
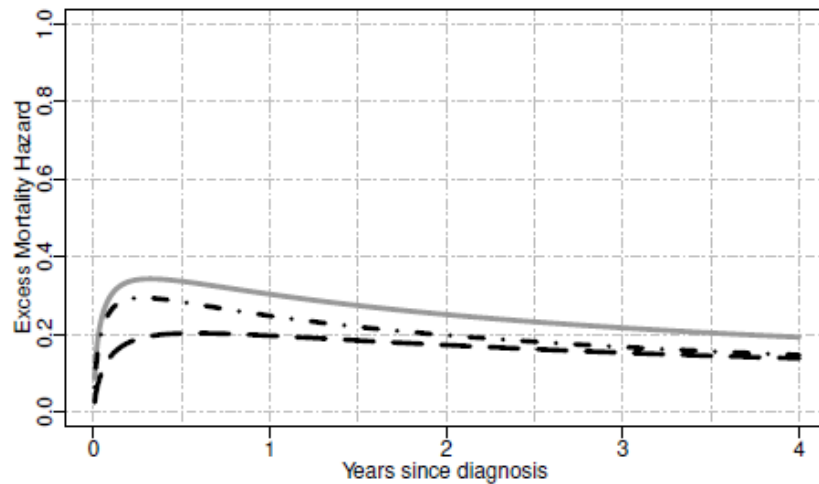
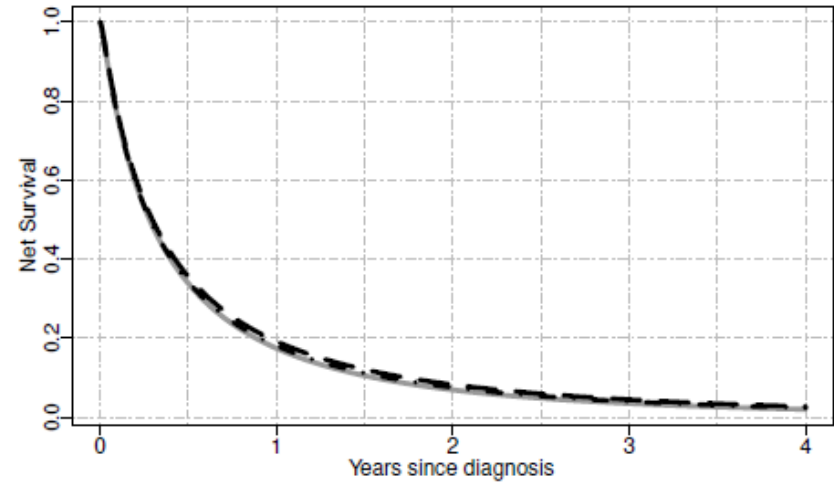
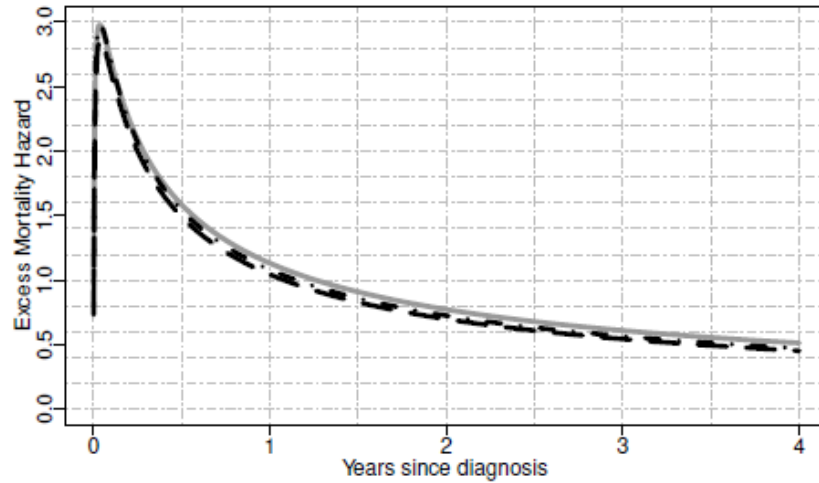


Figure: Men, 70 years old at diagnosis, Least deprived, without Cardiovascular comorbidity nor COPD, and Stage IV (upper panels) or Stage II (lower panels). M1=solid grey lines, M2=dot-dashed black lines, M3=long-dashed black lines

Quick interpretation

- We observe that the frailty distribution, used for correcting the population mortality in M3, cumulates 23% of the probability mass below 1, and 77% above 1
- These values are in fact related to the proportion of smokers (roughly 80%, which would, in principle, require a correction higher than 1) for England lung cancer patients, based on hospital data
- The impact of the presence of a comorbidity is higher in M3 compared to M1 and M2. Thus, correcting the population life table for unobserved predicting variables of background mortality seems to be quite relevant in this example.

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