

Week 12

# Hazard Models 1

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# A few things

- APSA deadline is December 15<sup>th</sup>.
- It will be held in Chicago.

# A few Stata things

- How to increase **memory** to Stata:

```
set mem 500m, permanently
```

- What is the **reference category**, and why is it important?

# A few Stata things

- How to set graph schemes for black and white:  
query scheme  
set scheme s2mono
- Search documentation for “schemes intro”

# A few Stata things

- Here's how you generate dummies automagically in Stata:

- To generate year dummies:

```
xi i.year
```

- To generate country dummies:

```
xi: i.ccode
```

- Then when you want to include them in the model you type `*year` or `*ccode`

# Today

- We are going to be talking about a particular type of model that looks at time in a different way than we did last week.
- This group of models all look at the length of time until something happens.

- These are known as:
  - Duration models
  - Hazard models
  - Event history models
  - Survival models
  
- We are going to call them *hazard models* because they are commonly motivated by one of the two motivations for these models.

- These models come from the biostatistics literature where researchers were trying to model the **likelihood of death** (the event of interest) given some treatment effect.
- Political research began modeling hazards using OLS.



# Why not OLS?

- However, duration data have some characteristics that make OLS unsuitable.
- Like event counts, **duration must be greater than or equal to zero.**
- Survival at time  $t$  means that you have survived since  $t-1$ . This means that observations at time  $t$  are **conditional** on observations at time  $t-1$ .
- Some observations will survive the length of the study. These observations are considered **censored**.
- **Time-varying covariates** are not taken into account.

# Examples

- Criminal recidivism
- How long someone is unemployed
- How long a civil war lasts
- How long a peace between rivals lasts

- Why could we just not run a logit model where all observations are considered 0 until death, which is coded 1?
- Because of the **conditionality** of the observations.
- Therefore what we need is to figure out the conditional probability of  $t_i$  given the fact that a unit survived to  $t_i - 1$ .

# Two Types of Hazard Models

- Continuous
  - Failure can happen and be captured at *any* time.
- Discrete
  - Observations are captured within certain regular measures of time (days, months, years).
  - The data we have are likely to be discrete time data.

# Discrete

- The dependent variables are binary.
  - 0 if the event does not occur at time  $t$ .
  - 1 if the event does occur at time  $t$ .
- These data are considered Binary Time Series Cross Section (BTSCS) data.

# Example of Discrete Data

<i>dyad</i>	<i>year</i>	<i>dispute</i>	<i>jio</i>	<i>deml</i>	<i>peaceyears</i>
2020	1966	0	53	10	15
2020	1967	0	54.2	10	16
2020	1968	0	55.4	10	17
2020	1969	0	56.6	10	18
2020	1970	0	57.8	10	19
2020	1971	0	59	10	20
2020	1972	0	59.43	10	21
2020	1973	0	59.86	10	22
2020	1974	1	60.29	10	23
2020	1975	1	60.71	10	0
2020	1976	0	61.14	10	0
2020	1977	0	61.57	10	1
2020	1978	0	62	10	2

- As you can see you can have variables like  $j_{i0}$  that vary over time.
- Couldn't we just include a time count and use probit or logit?
- e.g. peace lasts 20 years, and then war broke out.
- Berry and Berry (1990) use this approach.

```
. probit dispute border caprat ally jio deml depl
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -3667.7447  
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -3352.8902  
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -3313.131  
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -3309.6175  
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -3309.5866  
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -3309.5866
```

```
Probit regression  
Log likelihood = -3309.5866  
Number of obs = 20142  
LR chi2(6) = 716.32  
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000  
Pseudo R2 = 0.0977
```

dispute	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
border	.6709295	.0387312	17.32	0.000	.5950176	.7468413
caprat	-.0010414	.0001413	-7.37	0.000	-.0013184	-.0007644
ally	-.2973491	.0398825	-7.46	0.000	-.3755174	-.2191808
jio	-.006198	.0013492	-4.59	0.000	-.0088424	-.0035537
deml	-.0165374	.0034323	-4.82	0.000	-.0232646	-.0098102
depl	-23.45946	5.82678	-4.03	0.000	-34.87974	-12.03918
_cons	-1.651092	.0526098	-31.38	0.000	-1.754205	-1.547979

Note: 34 failures and 0 successes completely determined.



- So we can see that being allies and being joint members of international organizations decrease the risk of a dispute.
- How can we include time in this model?
- Looking at the data earlier we could see that the effect of time that we are interested in is the string of zeros...how long a dyad has not had a dispute.

- This suggests that the longer the peace has lasted the less likely a dispute is.
- In other words, the probability of conflict at time  $t$  is *conditional* on the probability of conflict at time  $t-1$ .

```
. probit dispute border caprat ally jio deml depl peaceyears
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -3667.7447  
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2901.2495  
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2737.4396  
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -2731.3405  
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -2731.3184  
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -2731.3184
```

```
Probit regression                               Number of obs   =       20142  
                                                LR chi2(7)      =       1872.85  
                                                Prob > chi2     =         0.0000  
Log likelihood = -2731.3184                    Pseudo R2      =         0.2553
```

```
-----  
      dispute |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]  
-----+-----  
      border |   .3515146   .0437673     8.03   0.000   .2657322   .437297  
      caprat |  -.0009783   .000149    -6.56   0.000  -.0012704  -.0006862  
       ally |  -.2935278   .0444728    -6.60   0.000  -.3806929  -.2063628  
       jio |   .0108222   .0015529     6.97   0.000   .0077785   .0138659  
      deml |  -.0275271   .0037987    -7.25   0.000  -.0349724  -.0200818  
      depl | -19.61321   6.234162    -3.15   0.002  -31.83194  -7.394476  
peaceyears | -.1001257 .0036322 -27.57 0.000 -.1072446 -.0930068  
      _cons | -1.348062 .0575867 -23.41 0.000 -1.46093 -1.235194  
-----
```

Note: 77 failures and 0 successes completely determined.

- As you can see time matters—conflict becomes less likely as the number of peaceful years increases.
- Since the baseline (the constant) is negative and `peaceyears` is negative, as time goes by the *hazard* of conflict gets smaller.

# Splines

- We could also include splines, which are a more general smooth function of all time point dummies.

- You can create splines in Stata:

```
. btscs dispute year dyad, g(peaceyears) nspline(3)
```

- This command creates both the peace counter as well as three points (known as knots) along a smooth function of time (see Beck, Katz, and Tucker 1998 for a more detailed explanation of splines).

```
. probit dispute border caprat ally jio deml depl peaceyears _spline*
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -3667.7447
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2451.3166
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2356.8304
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -2351.521
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -2351.3876
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -2351.3874
```

```
Probit regression                               Number of obs =      20142
                                                LR chi2(10)      =      2632.71
                                                Prob > chi2      =      0.0000
Log likelihood = -2351.3874                    Pseudo R2       =      0.3589
```

dispute	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
border	.3369159	.0468629	7.19	0.000	.2450664	.4287654
caprat	-.0007732	.0001482	-5.22	0.000	-.0010638	-.0004827
ally	-.2092891	.0471655	-4.44	0.000	-.3017319	-.1168464
jio	.0069146	.0016371	4.22	0.000	.0037059	.0101234
deml	-.0250491	.0040983	-6.11	0.000	-.0330816	-.0170165
depl	-15.20443	5.947518	-2.56	0.011	-26.86135	-3.547511
<b>peaceyears</b>	<b>-.5315939</b>	<b>.0200018</b>	<b>-26.58</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>-.5707968</b>	<b>-.492391</b>
<b>_spline1</b>	<b>-.0098482</b>	<b>.0006208</b>	<b>-15.86</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>-.011065</b>	<b>-.0086313</b>
<b>_spline2</b>	<b>.0056757</b>	<b>.000479</b>	<b>11.85</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>.0047369</b>	<b>.0066146</b>
<b>_spline3</b>	<b>-.0016084</b>	<b>.0002206</b>	<b>-7.29</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>-.0020408</b>	<b>-.0011761</b>
_cons	-.5949071	.0663745	-8.96	0.000	-.7249988	-.4648154

- As you can see that time has a non-monotonic effect—the splines have significant effects but in different directions.
- Early periods of peace (`_spline 1`) shift the baseline hazard down while the middle period (`_spline 2`) shifts it upward.
- In essence looking at both the peace years and the splines it would appear that the chance that the dyad *fails* (has a dispute) decreases for every year that the dyad *survives* (stays at peace).

- We also *could* aggregate these data to just one row with the number of time units in which the event occurs.
- This would then necessitate *continuous* time models.



# Continuous

- This only has one observation for each individual indicating the time the event happened.
- There are two variations dependent upon whether the independent variables vary over time (TVC) or not (NTVC).

# Time Varying Covariates (TVC)

<b>dyad</b>	<b>year</b>	<b>dispute</b>	<b>jio</b>	<b>deml</b>	<b>peaceyears</b>
2020	1966	0	53	10	15
2020	1967	0	54.2	10	16
2020	1968	0	55.4	10	17
2020	1969	0	56.6	10	18
2020	1970	0	57.8	10	19
2020	1971	0	59	10	20
2020	1972	0	59.43	10	21
2020	1973	0	59.86	10	22
2020	1974	1	60.29	10	23
2020	1975	1	60.71	10	0
2020	1976	0	61.14	10	0
2020	1977	0	61.57	10	1
2020	1978	0	62	10	2

# Non-Time Varying Covariates (NTVC)

<i>dyad</i>	<i>dispute</i>	<i>jio</i>	<i>deml</i>	<i>peaceyears</i>
2020	1	53	10	4
2091	1	21.14	-9	16
345710	0	.	-3	8
485623	1	13.88	-7	65
2020	0	69.17	4	23
2020	1	59	2	1

- As we can see from the dispute data, the time at peace is
  - strictly *positive*.
  - Is *reset* after a conflict, so there can be more than one dispute per dyad (multiple events).
  - And can *vary* with time-varying covariates.
- While the time counter and splines can capture the conditional effects of time, there is a whole class of models that more specifically model the hazard of events.

- As Box-Steffensmeier and Jones (2004) mention there are a number of models where you can explicitly assume a distribution for the hazard rate.
- I am going to go over the logic of event history before delving into the *parametric* models—models where we can estimate the hazard given a number of covariates and assumptions about the hazard distribution.

- Let's begin by defining  $T$  as a positive random variable measuring survival time.
- We assume that  $T$  is continuous.
- What we observe is a value of  $T$ , called  $t$ .
- The possible values of  $T$  have a probability distribution characterized by a PDF:  $f(t)$  and a CDF,  $F(t)$ .

- $f(t)$  can be considered as the estimate of the instantaneous probability that the event (a dispute) occurs.

$$f(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(t \leq T \leq t + \Delta t)}{\Delta t}$$

- Thus as  $\Delta t$  gets infinitesimally small you get an instantaneous estimate of the probability of failure at time  $t$ .

- We are also interested in the survivor function,  $S(t)$ —the probability of surviving at time  $t$ .
- As you might guess the chances of surviving past  $t$  are related to the chance of dying at  $t$ .

$$S(t) = 1 - F(t) = P(T \geq t)$$



- Therefore the failure and the survival rates are related to each other.
- This relation is given by the hazard rate.

$$h(t) = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)}$$

- In words, the hazard rate is the conditional failure rate—the rate that units fail by  $t$  given that they have survived until  $t$ .

- The hazard rate, the survivor function, and the density functions are *mathematically linked* so that if you can specify one then you can determine the others.
- The hazard rate is what the literature (and we) are going to be focused on for the next week.

- The hazard rate can vary from 0 to infinity (and beyond!).
- When the risk of something is zero (me being declared president of the universe by Gary King), the hazard is zero.
- When the hazard rate nears infinity, it means the certainty of failure in that instant.
- Thus the hazard rate is not limited to a 0—1 range like probability.

- The (continuous) cumulative hazard function is given by:

$$H(t) = \int_0^t h(u)du$$

Which can also be (and more often is) seen as:

$$H(t) = -\ln\{S(t)\}$$

- As you might be able to guess, there are several issues we need to address when trying to model the hazard rate given the data that we have.
- For example, the democratic peace data ranged from 1951 to 1985.
- We lack information about what happened *before* 1951 and *after* 1985.

# Censoring

- Censoring happens when the full event history of a unit is unobserved.
  - In political science we are likely to observe right censoring.
  - For example, two dyads (USA-Ecuador and China-South Korea) had disputes in 1971.
  - The peace year count would both start over in 1972.
  - But what if the US and Ecuador had a conflict in 1986 but China and S. Korea did not?
  - Both would have the same duration time, but the observations are clearly different.
- Also possible to have left censoring—US-Ecuador had a dispute in 1965 that was not coded.



# Truncation

- Now, the dataset also *begins* at a set time, so we lack information about what happened *prior* to the data.
- The time (history) before 1951 in the dispute data would therefore be *left-truncated*.
- Truncation means that the unit could have failed before we started measuring meaning that we never would have measured the unit.
  - A smoker dies before a study would be truncated from the study.



- In estimating the likelihood of the sampled duration times, you can account for right-censoring and left-truncation.
- The likelihood of observing the sample that we have is determined by  $t_i^*$ , which represents the  $i$ th censored case equal to the last observed period even though  $i$  survives past  $t^*$ .
- If the case is uncensored then  $t_i \leq t^*$ .
- We can create a censor indicator  $\delta_i$  that codes censored cases.

$$\delta_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t_i \leq t^* \\ 0 & \text{if } t_i > t^* \end{cases}$$

- Therefore when  $\delta_i = 1$  the observation is uncensored and  $\delta_i = 0$  it is censored.
- Given what we know about right-censoring we can now specify the likelihood of observing our duration data:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n \{f(t_i)\}^{\delta_i} \{S(t_i)\}^{1 - \delta_i}$$

- But before we start with semi-parametric and parametric models (and down the rabbit hole), what can we learn through non-parametric means?
- And what on God's green earth are these terms?

# Nonparametric, semi-parametric, & parametric

- What are the differences between them?
- **Nonparametric**—no  $x$ 's, no distribution, lets the data “speak”
- **Semi-parametric**—probability of failure given  $x$ 's but no assumptions about distribution of the error,  $\varepsilon$ .  
At a specific failure time  $(0,1)$
- **Parametric**—assumes error distribution and probability given covariates. At all possible failure times.

- Let's use some actual data.
- I am going to use data on the duration of civil war from Collier, Hoeffler, and Soderbom (2004).

# Stset

- First, you have to tell Stata about the structure of your data.
- It helps minimize error by having to specify these options with every command you run.

```
stset time_of_failure (or censoring)_var, ///  
failure(one_if_failure_var)
```

## Stset creates four variables

- $\_t0$  and  $\_t$  = timespan starts at  $\_t0$  and ends at  $\_t$ 
  - In these data  $\_t0$  is January 1960
- $\_d$  = outcome at end of time span
  - In these data it is 1 if the war ended before 1999, 0 otherwise.
- $\_st$  = 1 if the observation will be used in the analysis, 0 otherwise.
  - In these data since there are no civil wars that started before 1960,  $\_st$  always ==1

. sts list

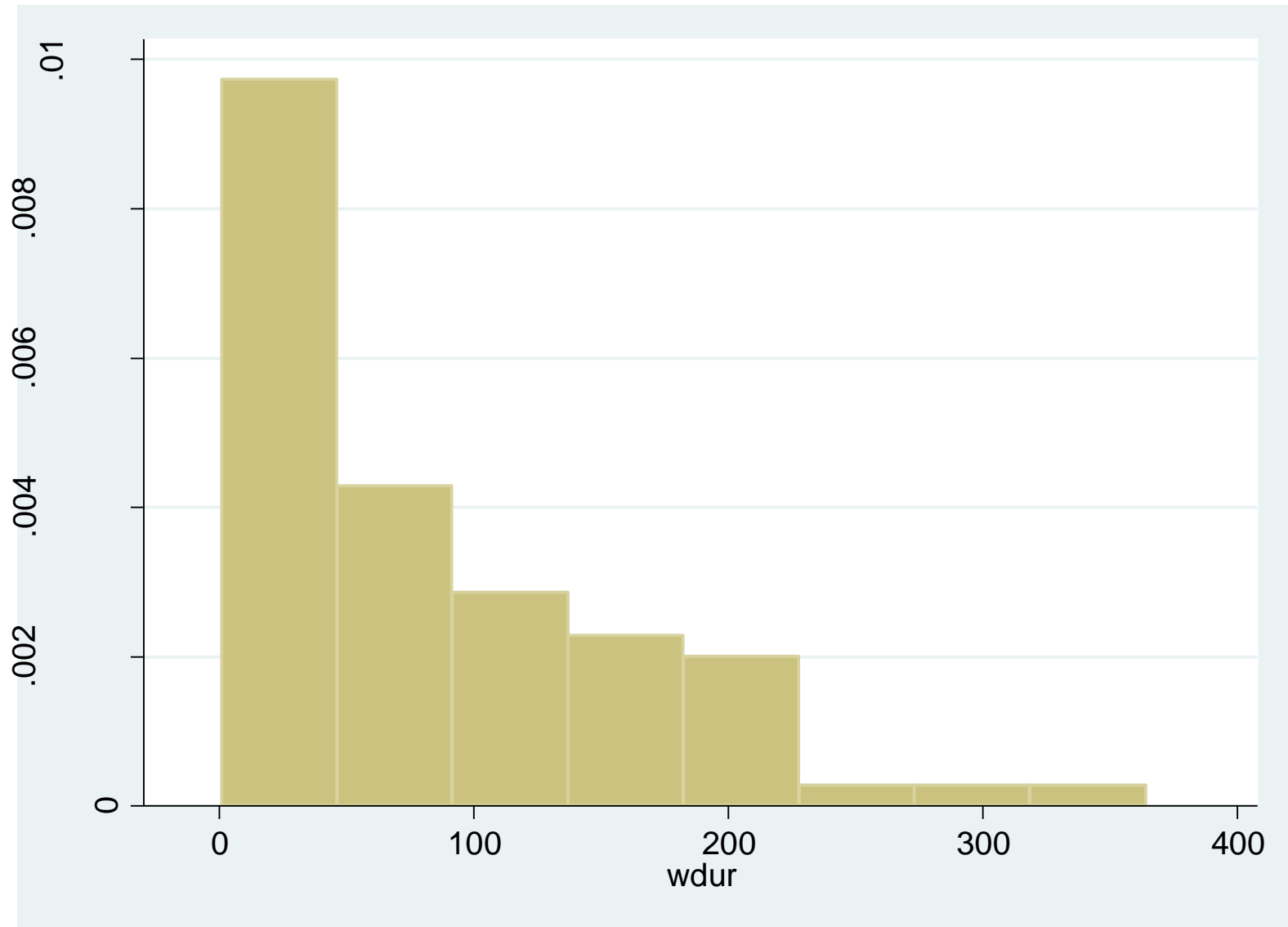
failure \_d: cens  
analysis time \_t: mo  
id: indsp

Time	Beg. Total	Fail	Net Lost	Survivor Function	Std. Error	[95% Conf. Int.]	
1	55	4	0	0.9273	0.0350	0.8177	0.9721
2	51	3	0	0.8727	0.0449	0.7515	0.9372
4	48	1	0	0.8545	0.0475	0.7301	0.9245
6	47	2	0	0.8182	0.0520	0.6884	0.8978
10	45	2	0	0.7818	0.0557	0.6479	0.8697
12	43	1	0	0.7636	0.0573	0.6280	0.8553
13	42	2	0	0.7273	0.0601	0.5890	0.8257
16	40	1	0	0.7091	0.0612	0.5698	0.8105
21	39	1	0	0.6909	0.0623	0.5508	0.7951
22	38	1	0	0.6727	0.0633	0.5320	0.7796
27	37	1	0	0.6545	0.0641	0.5134	0.7638
36	36	1	0	0.6364	0.0649	0.4950	0.7479
45	35	1	0	0.6182	0.0655	0.4768	0.7318
46	34	1	0	0.6000	0.0661	0.4587	0.7155
49	33	1	0	0.5818	0.0665	0.4408	0.6990
55	32	1	0	0.5636	0.0669	0.4231	0.6824
63	31	1	0	0.5455	0.0671	0.4056	0.6656
64	30	1	0	0.5273	0.0673	0.3882	0.6486
69	29	1	0	0.5091	0.0674	0.3710	0.6315
73	28	1	0	0.4909	0.0674	0.3539	0.6142
74	27	2	0	0.4545	0.0671	0.3204	0.5792
85	25	1	0	0.4364	0.0669	0.3038	0.5614
88	24	1	1	0.4182	0.0665	0.2875	0.5435
91	22	1	0	0.3992	0.0661	0.2704	0.5248
98	21	1	1	0.3802	0.0657	0.2535	0.5059
102	19	1	1	0.3602	0.0652	0.2356	0.4860
104	17	0	1	0.3602	0.0652	0.2356	0.4860
121	16	1	0	0.3376	0.0649	0.2152	0.4642
129	15	1	0	0.3151	0.0643	0.1953	0.4420
134	14	1	0	0.2926	0.0636	0.1759	0.4194
143	13	1	0	0.2701	0.0625	0.1570	0.3964
145	12	1	0	0.2476	0.0612	0.1387	0.3729
148	11	1	0	0.2251	0.0597	0.1209	0.3491
155	10	1	0	0.2026	0.0578	0.1037	0.3247
170	9	1	0	0.1801	0.0556	0.0872	0.2998
172	8	1	0	0.1576	0.0530	0.0714	0.2743
189	7	0	1	0.1576	0.0530	0.0714	0.2743
196	6	1	0	0.1313	0.0503	0.0530	0.2458
198	5	0	2	0.1313	0.0503	0.0530	0.2458
203	3	1	0	0.0875	0.0490	0.0219	0.2117
286	2	1	0	0.0438	0.0395	0.0041	0.1689
364	1	1	0	0.0000	.	.	.



- One of the simplest ways at looking at what the survivor function might look like is to histogram the length of the 55 conflicts in the estimate data.

# Histogram of survival



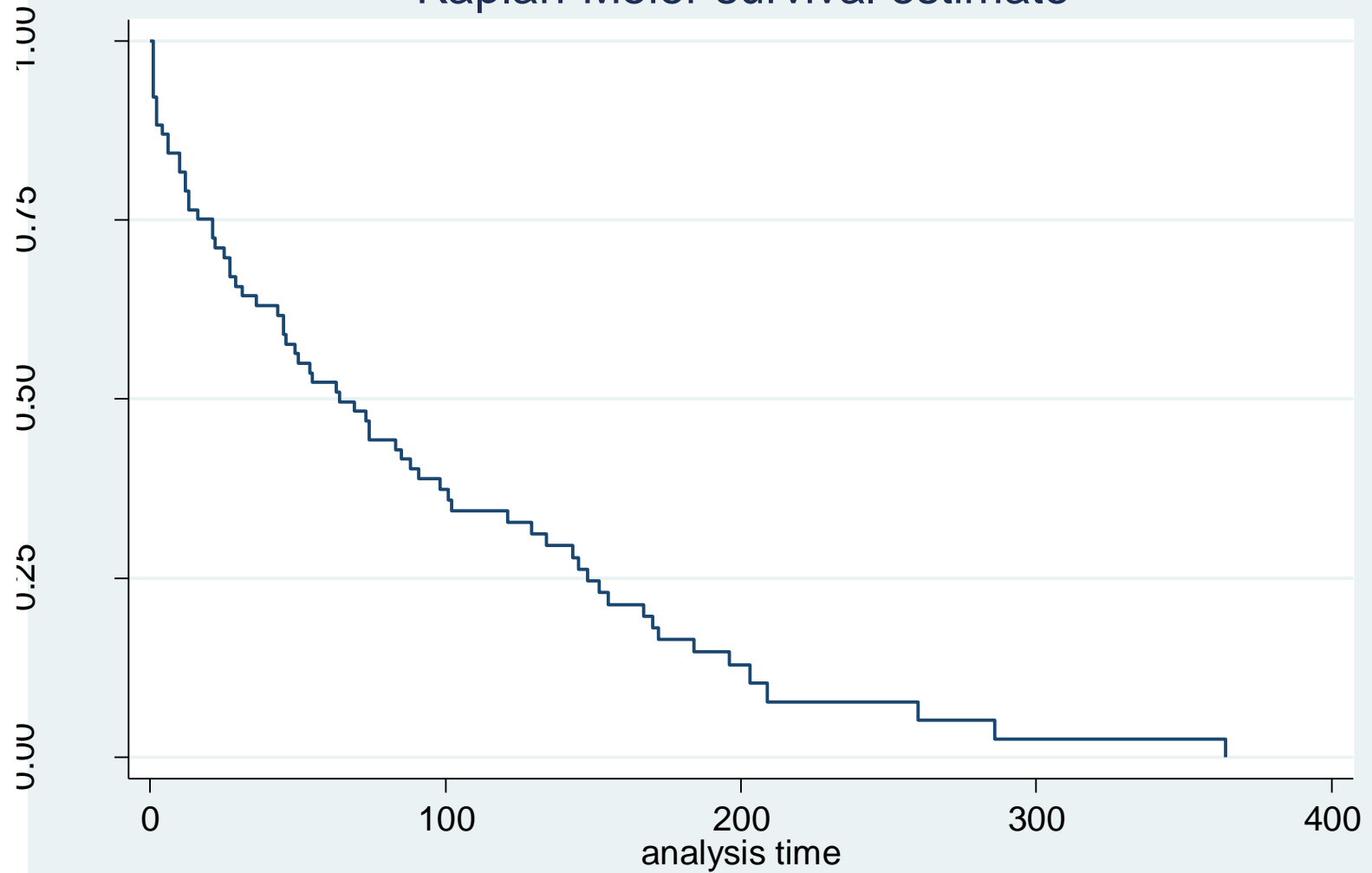
- The simplest means of survival analysis is the Kaplan-Meier estimator.

- It is a non-parametric estimate of the survival function:

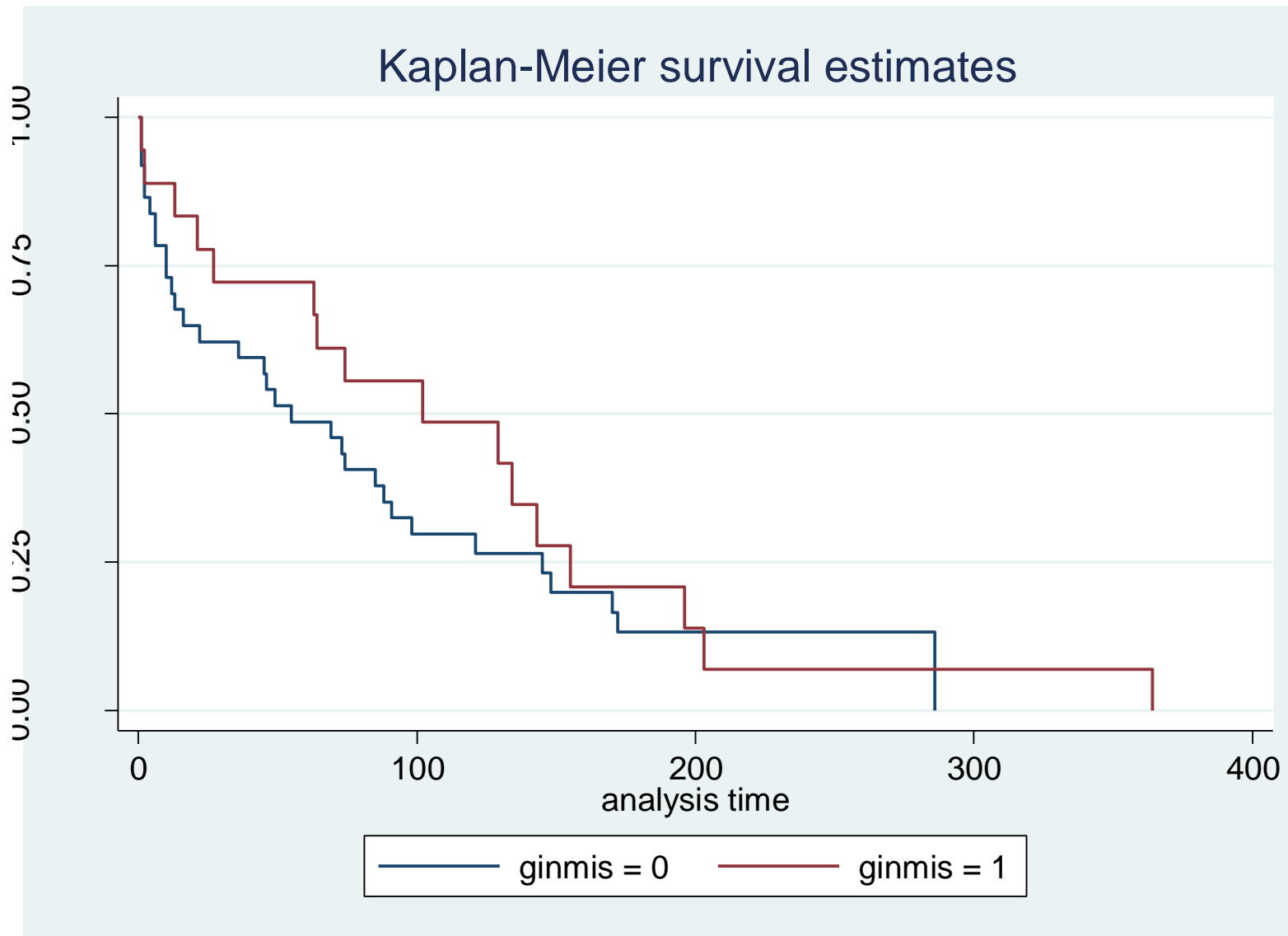
$$\hat{S}(t) = \prod_{j | t_j \leq t} \left( \frac{n_j - d_j}{n_j} \right)$$

Where  $n_j$  is the number of individuals at risk at time  $t_j$ , and  $d_j$  is number of failures at time  $t_j$

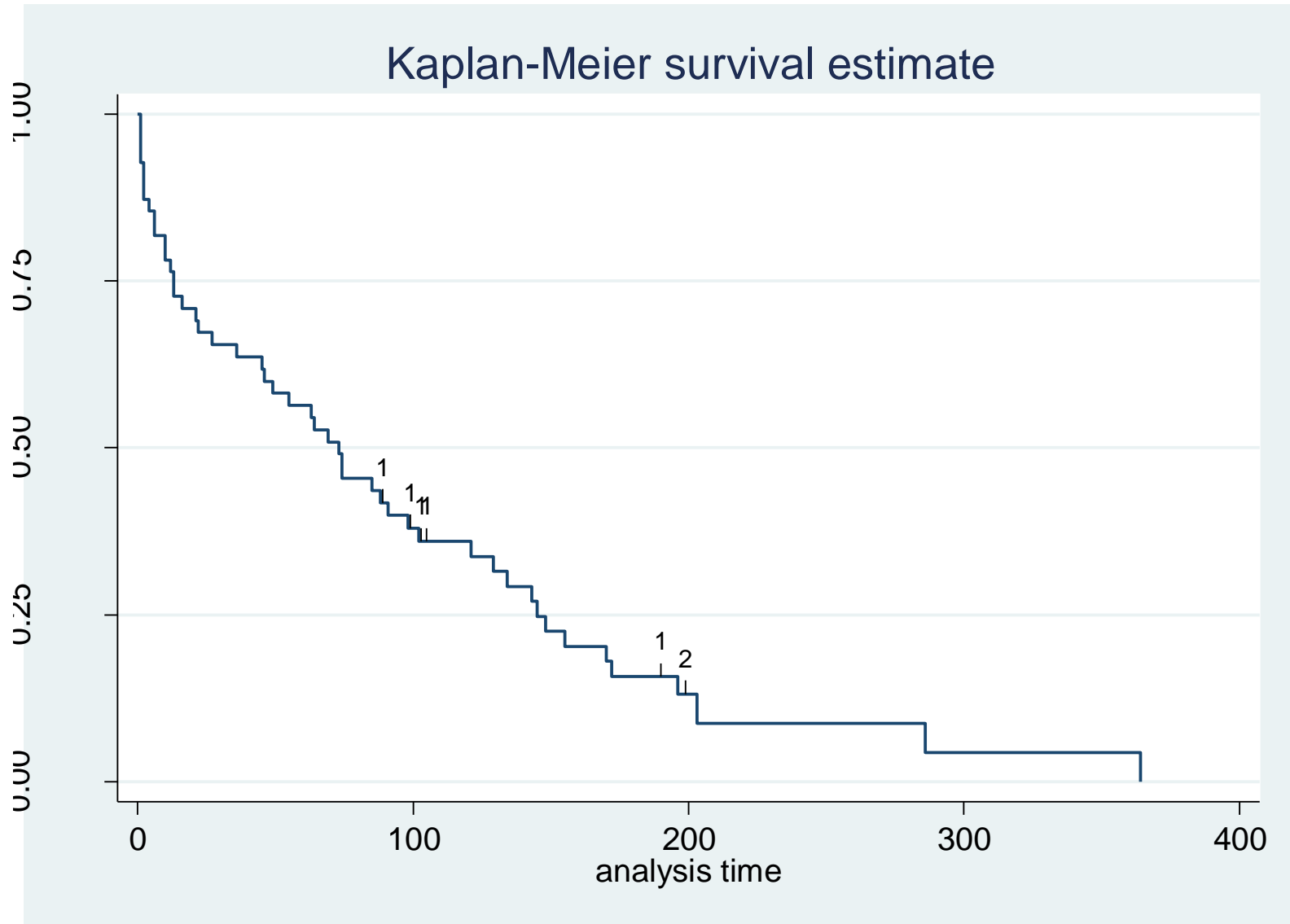
# Kaplan-Meier survival estimate



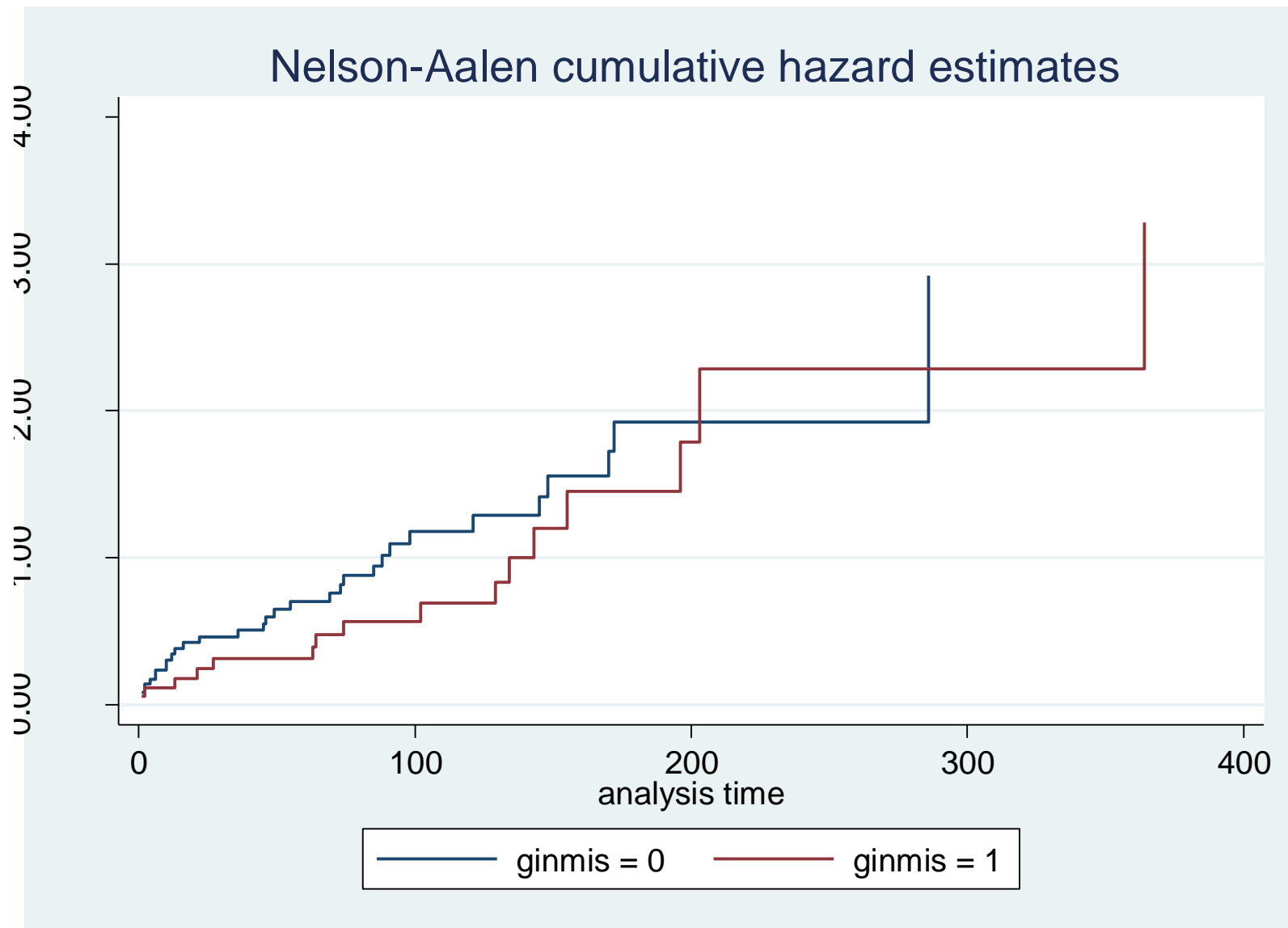
# Can also graph by dichotomous variables



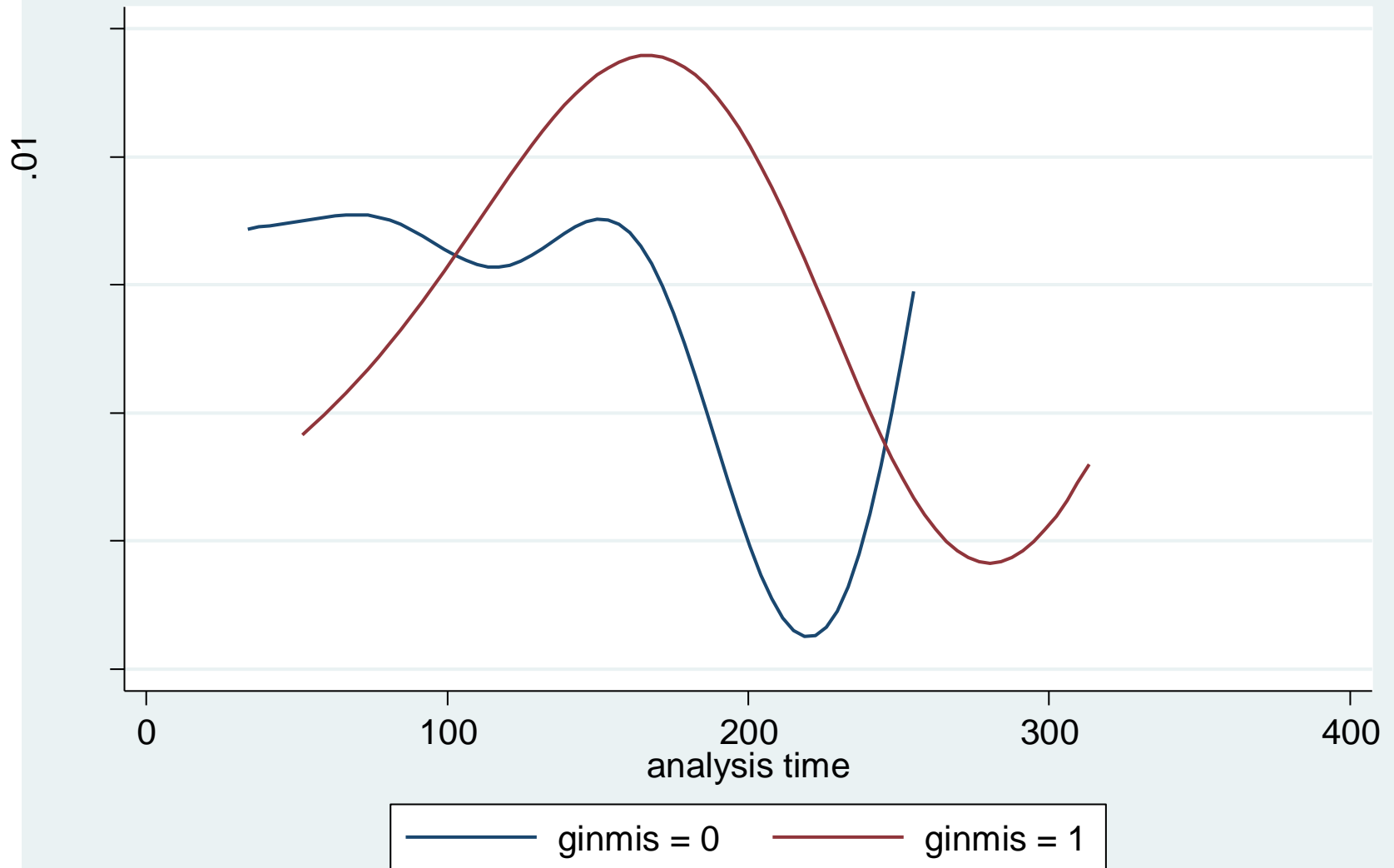
# And whether units were censored



# And the cumulative hazard



## Smoothed hazard estimates



Methods of smoothing will be discussed next week.



# Stata commands

```
** List Kaplan-Meier survival estimates **
```

```
sts list
```

```
sts graph
```

```
*By a dichotomous variable **
```

```
sts graph, by(ginmis)
```

```
** Showing where censored obs left data **
```

```
sts graph, censored(number)
```

```
** Cumulative Hazard **
```

```
sts graph, by(ginmis) cumhaz
```

```
** Smoothed Hazard Function **
```

```
sts graph, hazard by(ginmis) kernel(gaussian)
```

- So now, how do we create a model that allows us to capture both the occurrence (or non-occurrence) of an event (death) as well as how long the unit lasted (lived) before the event?

- We move to looking at parametric models.
- We are starting from models that assume a distribution of the hazard rate.
- Next week, we will look at semi-parametric models where we do not specify the hazard distribution.

# Exponential model

- The easiest model where we assume that the hazard rate is constant (flat) across time.

$$h(t) = \lambda \text{ where } \lambda > 0 \text{ and } t > 0$$

- Specifying the hazard rate allows us to determine the survival and density functions:

$$S(t) = e^{-\lambda(t)}$$

$$f(t) = \lambda(t)e^{-\lambda(t)}$$

- We can now parameterize a model to estimate what the expected duration time of observation  $i$ :

$$E(t_i) = e^{\beta X}$$

and parameterize the hazard rate:

$$h(t | \mathbf{x}) = e^{-(\beta X)}$$

- As we know from previous classes:

$$\beta X = (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots \beta_j x_{ij} )$$

- This allows us to show an important characteristic of the exponential model:

$$h(t | \mathbf{x}) = e^{-(\beta_0)} e^{-(\beta X)}$$

- This shows that the *baseline hazard rate* is given by  $\beta_0$ .

# Proportional hazards property

- Changes to the baseline hazard rate in the exponential model are in multiples of the baseline hazard.

$$\frac{h_i(t | x_1=1)}{h_i(t | x_1=0)} = e^{-\beta_1}$$

- The exponential distribution is known as a “memoryless” because the distribution of the survival time is not affected by knowing how long the unit has survived.



# Collier et al. (2004), Exponential regression

```
. streg gini_m ginmis rgdpch elf elf2 logpop y70stv y80stv y90stv d2-d4,  
dist(exponential) nohr  
      failure _d: cens  
      analysis time _t: mo  
      id: indsp
```

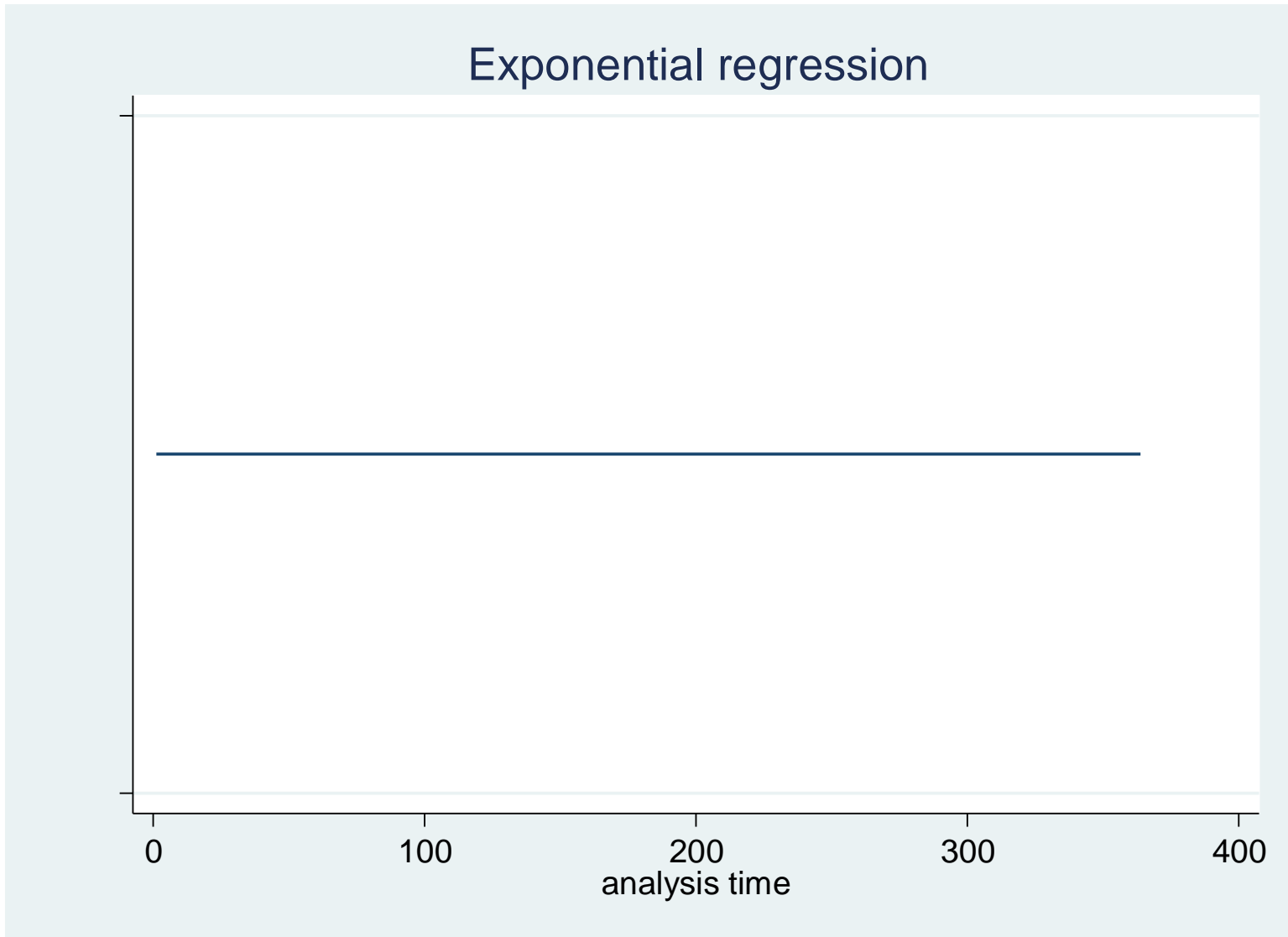
```
Iteration 0:  log likelihood = -101.63735  
Iteration 1:  log likelihood = -90.265345  
Iteration 2:  log likelihood = -80.526611  
Iteration 3:  log likelihood = -80.430147  
Iteration 4:  log likelihood = -80.429995  
Iteration 5:  log likelihood = -80.429995
```

Exponential regression -- log relative-hazard form

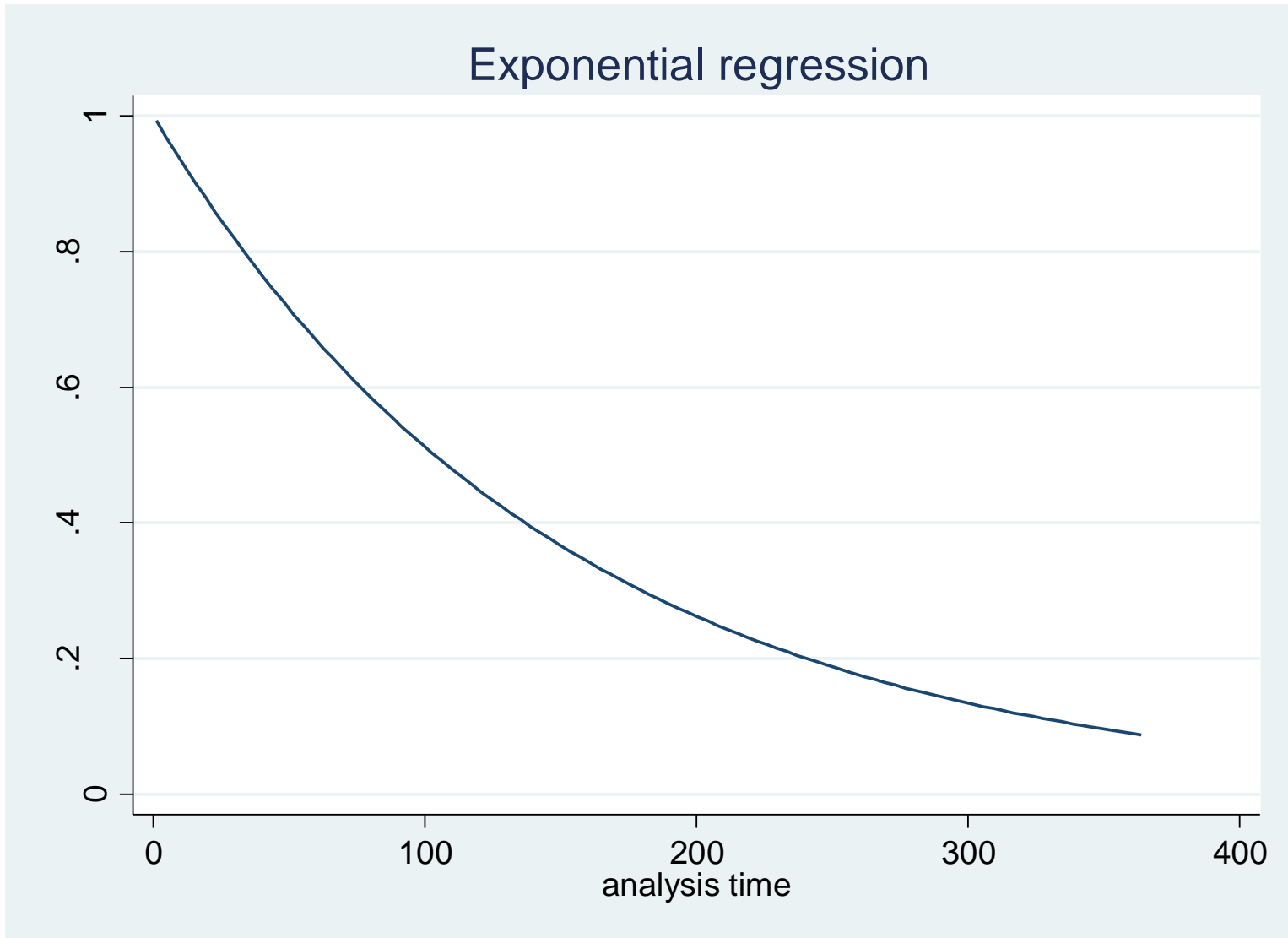
```
No. of subjects =          55          Number of obs   =          4625  
No. of failures =          48  
Time at risk   =          4625  
  
LR chi2(12)    =          42.41  
Log likelihood = -80.429995      Prob > chi2     =          0.0000
```

_t	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
gini_m	-.1244463	.0284179	-4.38	0.000	-.1801444	-.0687482
ginmis	-5.867928	1.277403	-4.59	0.000	-8.371591	-3.364265
rgdpch	.3651031	.1322248	2.76	0.006	.1059472	.624259
elf	-.0628267	.0258742	-2.43	0.015	-.1135392	-.0121143
elf2	.0581252	.0270411	2.15	0.032	.0051256	.1111247
logpop	-.3163905	.1230657	-2.57	0.010	-.5575948	-.0751863
y70stv	.0077905	.4625409	0.02	0.987	-.8987729	.9143539
y80stv	-1.420202	.5203341	-2.73	0.006	-2.440038	-.4003656
y90stv	-1.162059	.5416506	-2.15	0.032	-2.223675	-.1004433
d2	-.8067415	.5742936	-1.40	0.160	-1.932336	.3188533
d3	-.0010657	.5606172	-0.00	0.998	-1.099855	1.097724
d4	.6098389	.4464024	1.37	0.172	-.2650937	1.484771
_cons	7.433105	2.707863	2.75	0.006	2.125791	12.74042

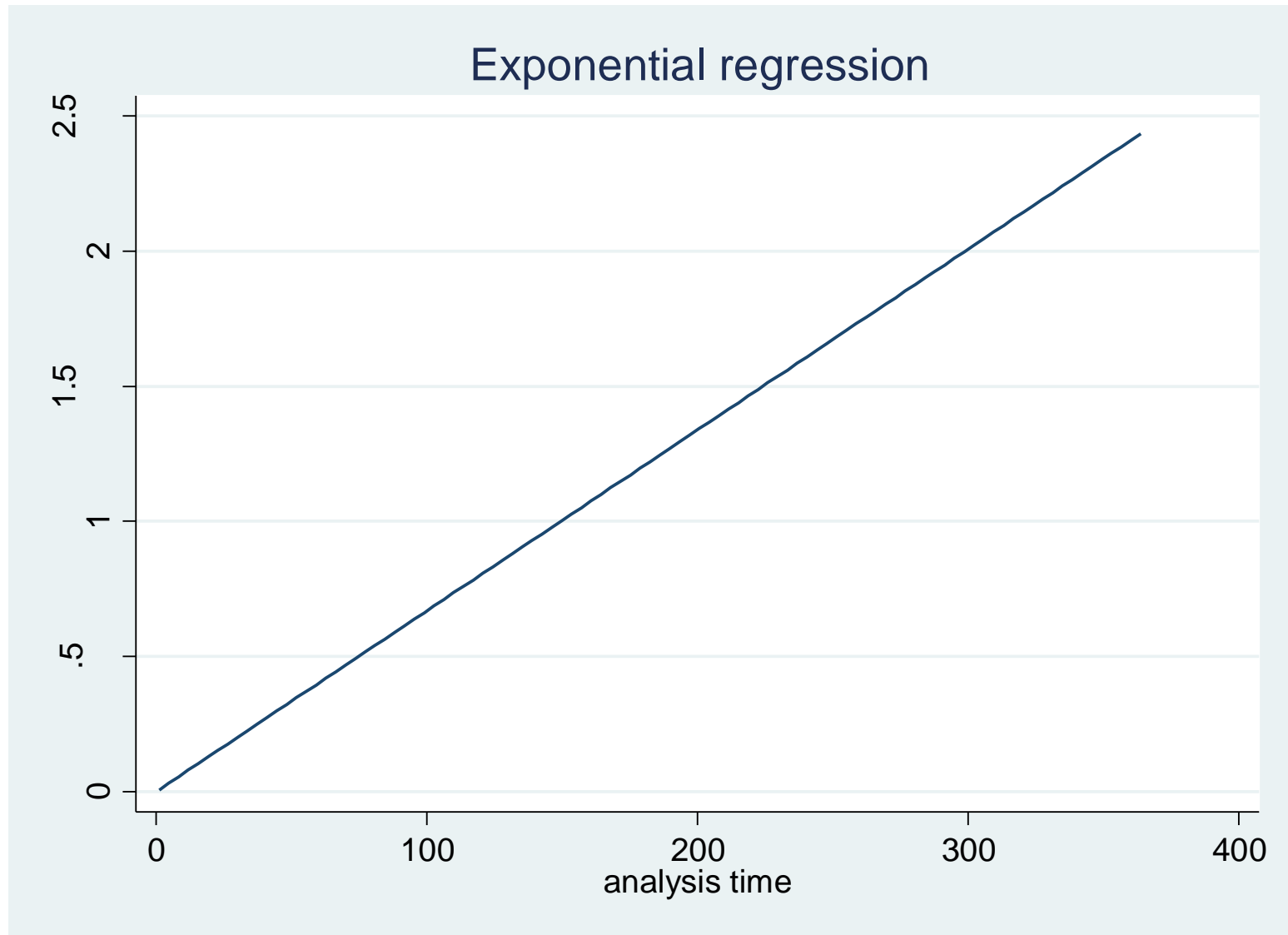
# Exponential Hazard Function



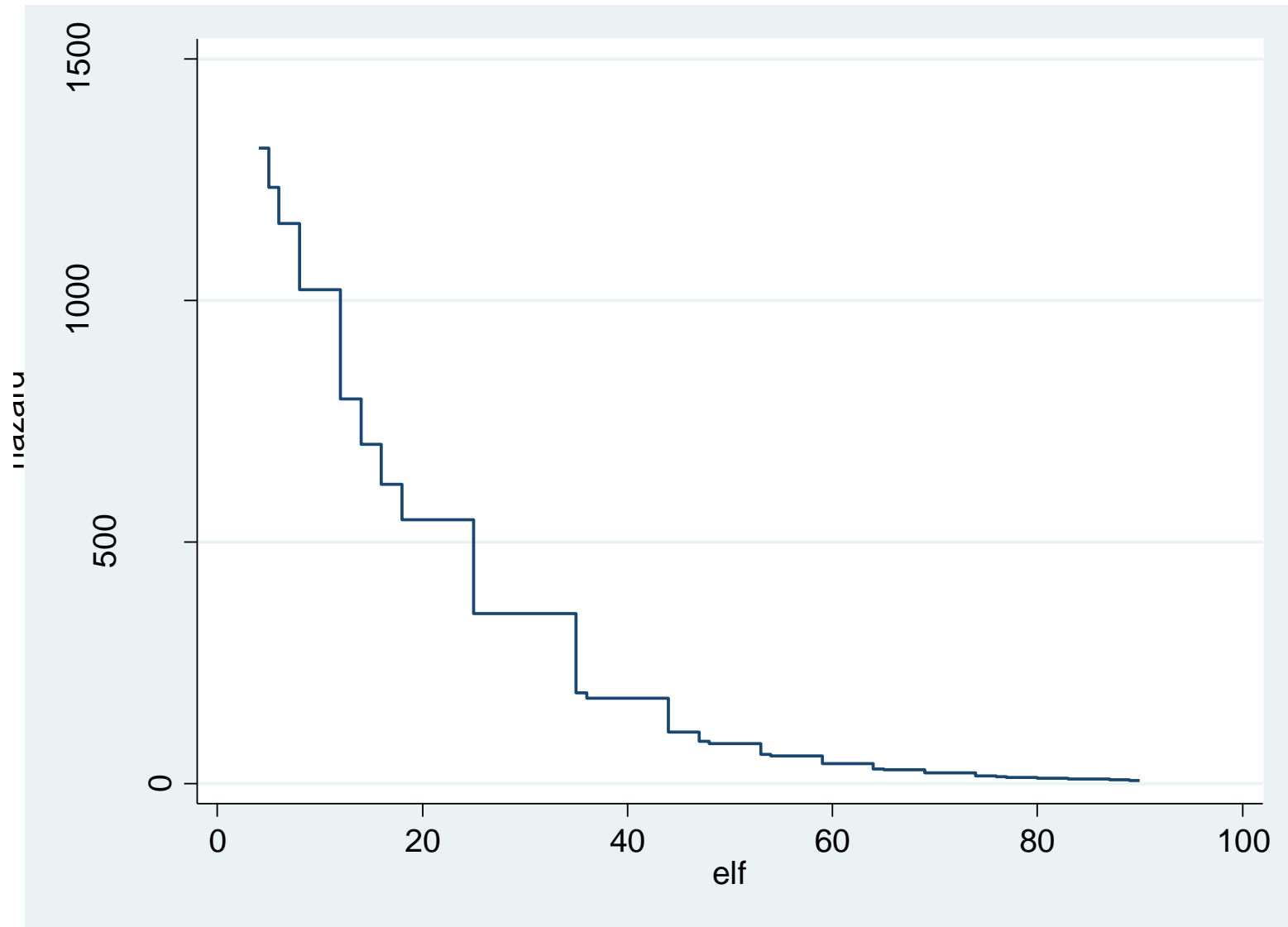
# Survival function



# Cumulative hazard



# Over the range of ELF



# Weibull

- Looking for a more flexible alternative, most turn to the Weibull, a distribution often seen in political science.
- It's defining characteristic is that the baseline hazard rate is monotonic—it can be always increasing, always decreasing, or flat.

# Weibull hazard rate distribution

$$h(t) = \lambda p (\lambda t)^{p-1} \text{ where } t > 0, \lambda > 0, p > 0$$

- $p$  is the **shape** parameter.
  - When  $p > 1$ , the hazard is monotonically *increasing*.
  - When  $p < 1$ , the hazard is monotonically *decreasing*.
  - When  $p = 1$ , the hazard is flat at value  $\lambda$  (therefore the exponential is nested in the Weibull).
- $\lambda$  is the **scale** parameter.

- You can then parameterize the hazard rate to model the effect of some  $x$ 's.

$$h(t | x) = pt^{p-1} e^{(\beta_j x)}$$

- We can now maximize a log-likelihood equation based on the one we saw above:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n \{f(t_i)\}^{\delta_i} \{S(t_i)\}^{1-\delta_i}$$

$$L(t | \lambda, p) = \prod_{i=1}^n \{ \lambda p (\lambda t)^{p-1} e^{-(\lambda t)^p} \}^{\delta_i} \{ e^{-(\lambda t)^p} \}^{1-\delta_i}$$

- Once you estimate the model, you can use the estimated shape parameter ( $p$ ) to test whether the hazard is actually flat—e.g. the observations are duration independent.

$$z = \frac{p - 1}{se(p)}$$



```
. streg gini_m ginmis rgdpch elf elf2 logpop y70stv y80stv y90stv ///
> d2-d4, dist(weibull) nohr nolog
```

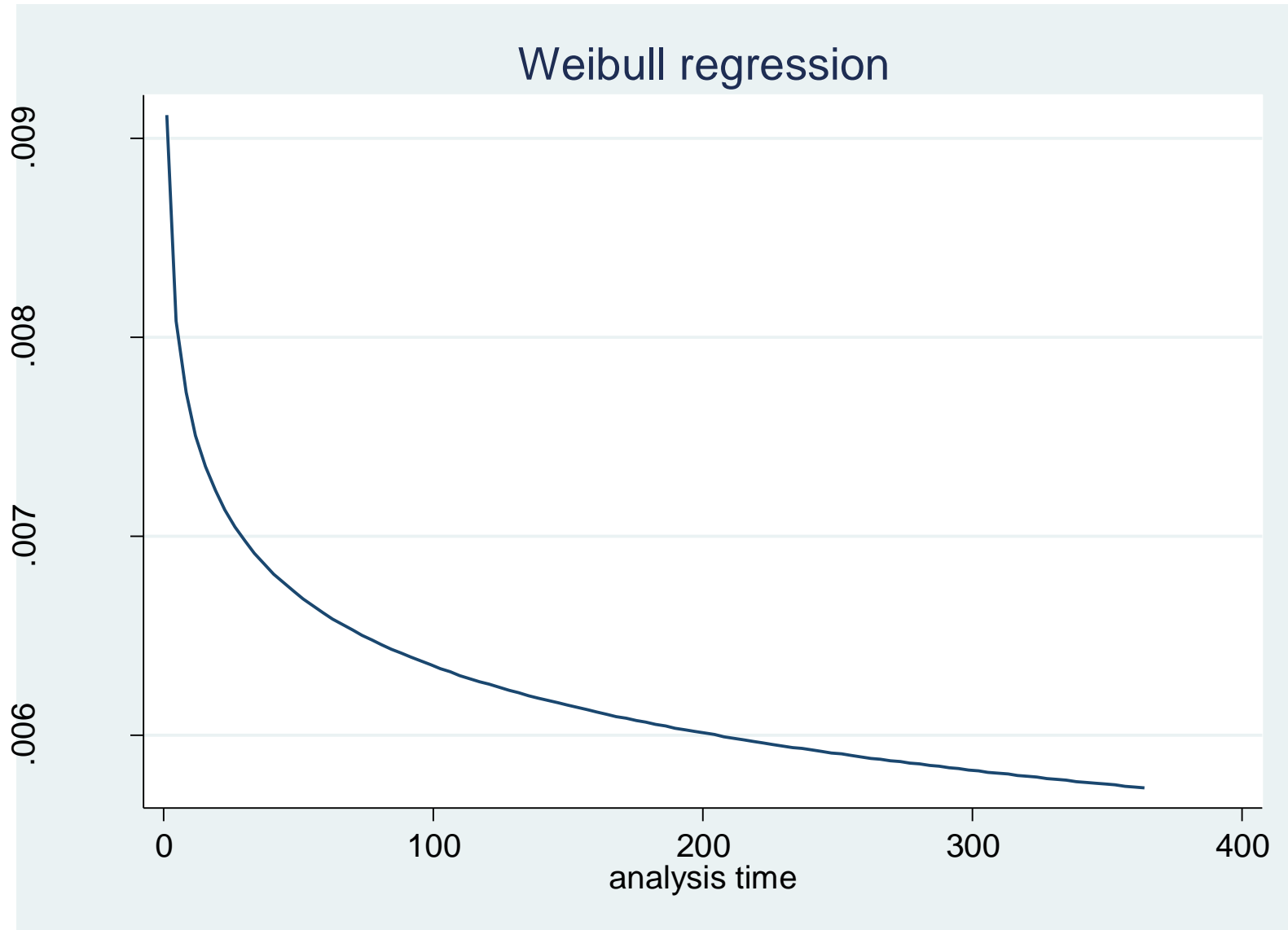
```
failure _d: cens
analysis time _t: mo
id: indsp
```

Weibull regression -- log relative-hazard form

```
No. of subjects =          55          Number of obs   =          4625
No. of failures =          48
Time at risk    =          4625
LR chi2(12)     =          37.65
Log likelihood  = -80.341859      Prob > chi2     =          0.0002
```

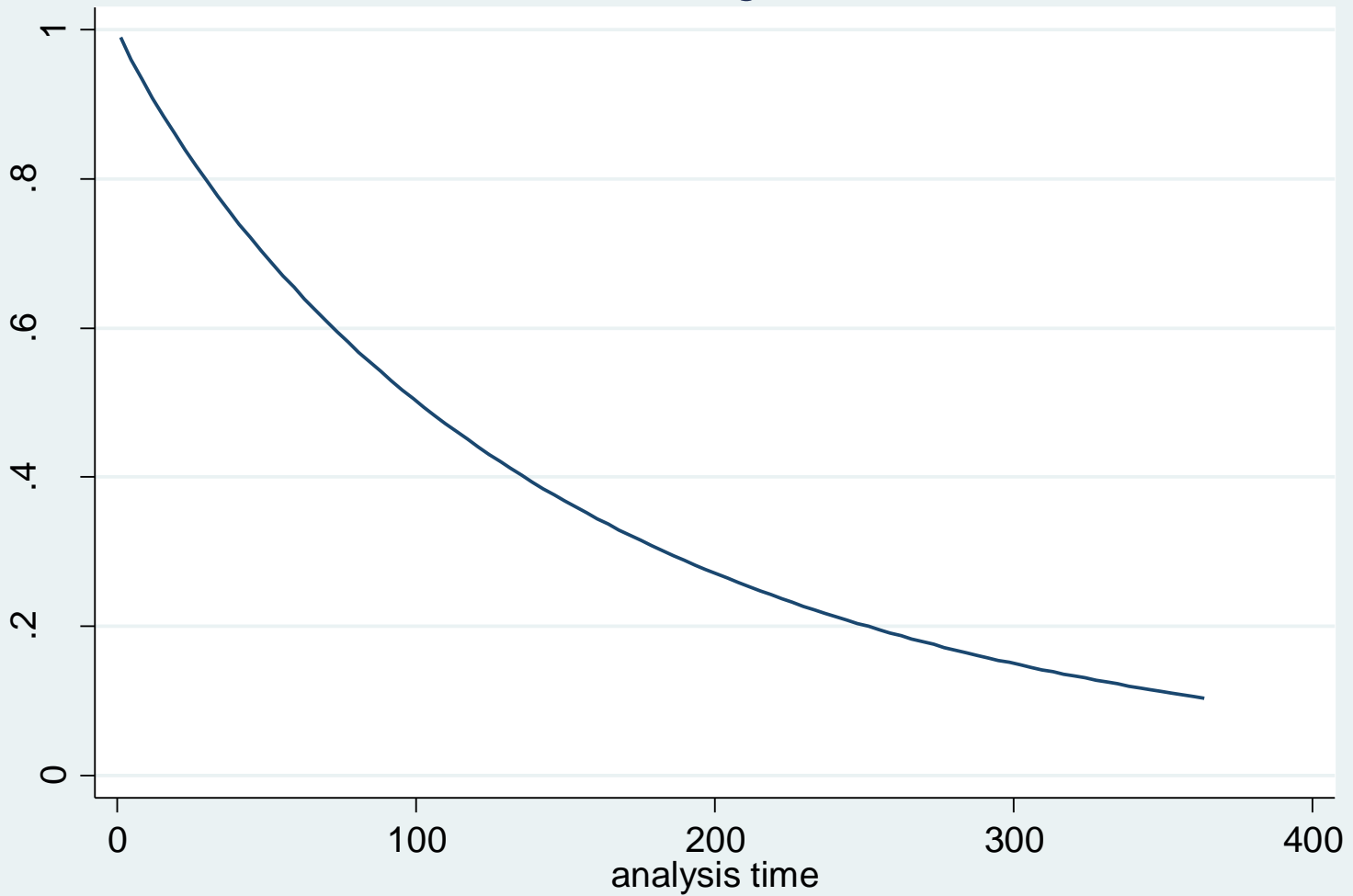
_t	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
gini_m	-.1221709	.0288244	-4.24	0.000	-.1786657	-.065676
ginmis	-5.746803	1.302304	-4.41	0.000	-8.299271	-3.194334
rgdpch	.3579029	.1331665	2.69	0.007	.0969013	.6189045
elf	-.0615579	.025954	-2.37	0.018	-.1124269	-.0106889
elf2	.0572613	.0270164	2.12	0.034	.0043101	.1102125
logpop	-.3092118	.1241655	-2.49	0.013	-.5525717	-.0658519
y70stv	.0223796	.4641904	0.05	0.962	-.887417	.9321761
y80stv	-1.384908	.5263604	-2.63	0.009	-2.416556	-.353261
y90stv	-1.108178	.5550966	-2.00	0.046	-2.196148	-.0202086
d2	-.6810668	.6493246	-1.05	0.294	-1.95372	.5915859
d3	.1526106	.6702459	0.23	0.820	-1.161047	1.466268
d4	.8091091	.6495045	1.25	0.213	-.4638963	2.082115
_cons	7.402131	2.691839	2.75	0.006	2.126223	12.67804
/ln_p	-.0818573	.1986233	-0.41	0.680	-.4711518	.3074373
p	.9214035	.1830122			.6242828	1.359936
1/p	1.085301	.2155661			.735329	1.601838

# Hazard Function

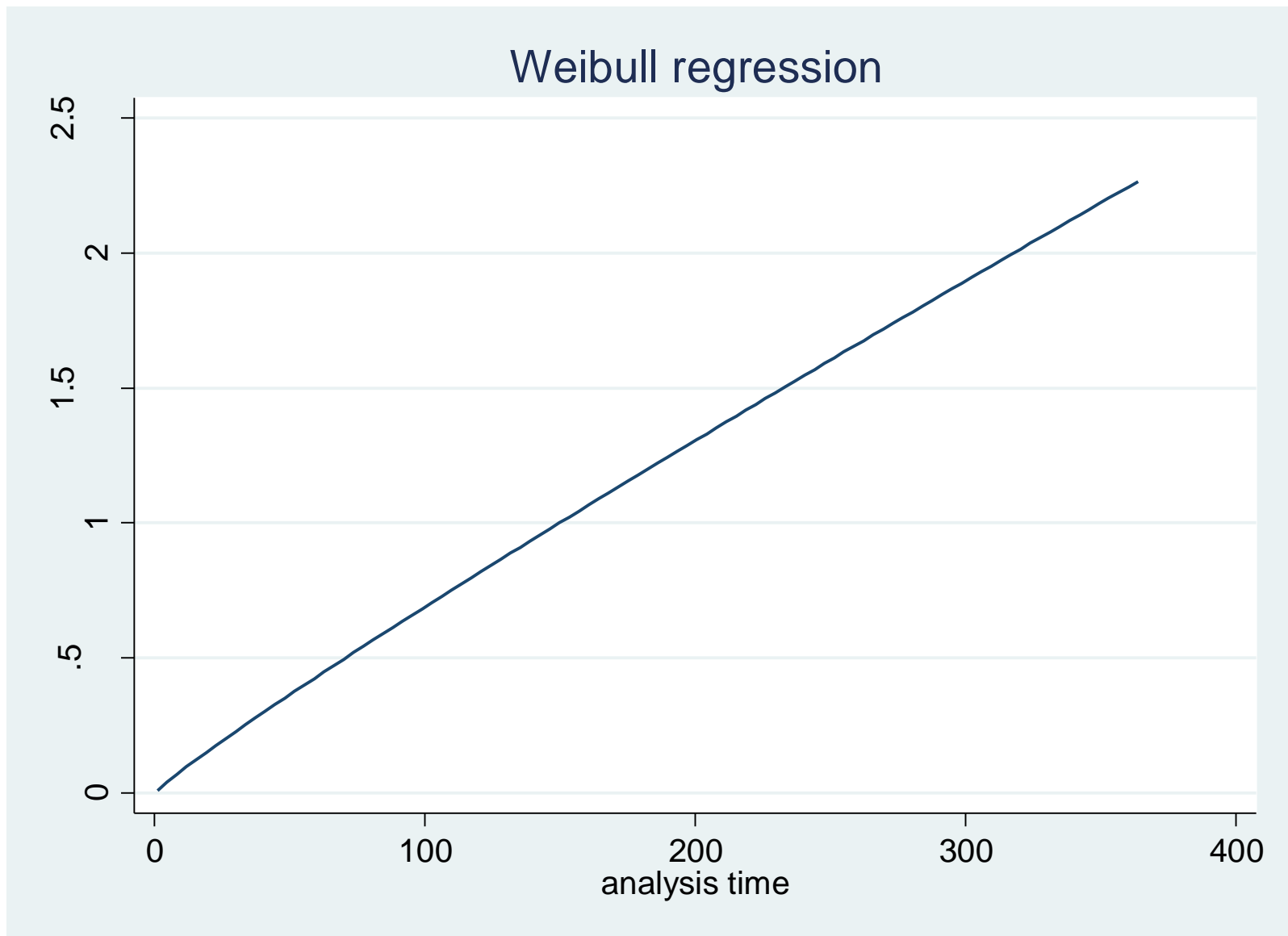


# Survival

Weibull regression



# Cumulative Hazard



# Gompertz

- The Gompertz distribution is another popular distribution.
- It differs from the Weibull in that the hazard rate is considered an exponential function of duration times.
- It too is monotonic.

$$h(t) = e^{\gamma t} e^{\lambda}$$

Where  $\gamma$  is the shape parameter, and  $\lambda = e^{\beta X}$

```
. streg gini_m ginmis rgdpch elf elf2 logpop y70stv y80stv y90stv ///
> d2-d4, dist(gompertz) nohr nolog
```

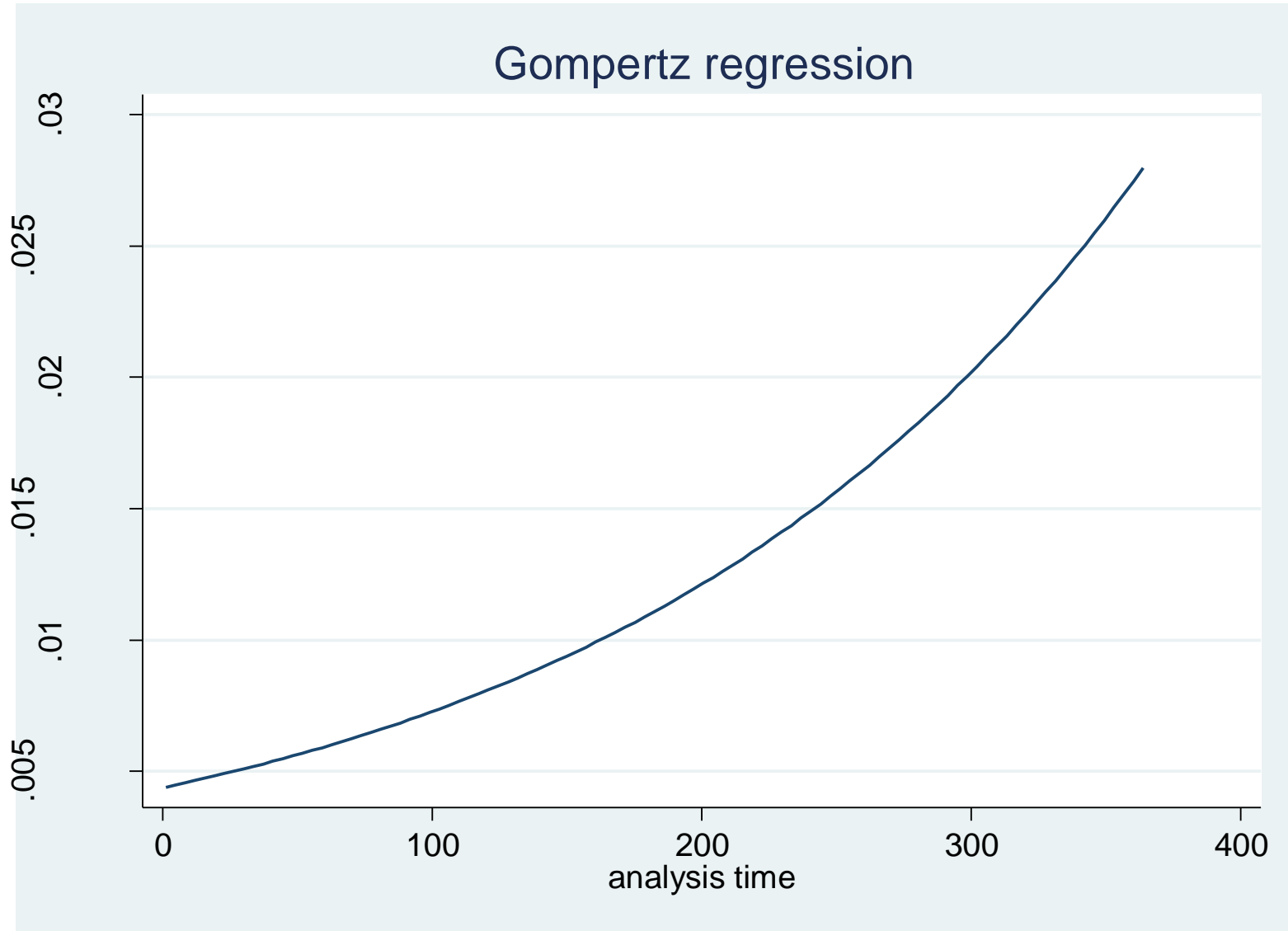
```
failure _d: cens
analysis time _t: mo
id: indsp
```

Gompertz regression -- log relative-hazard form

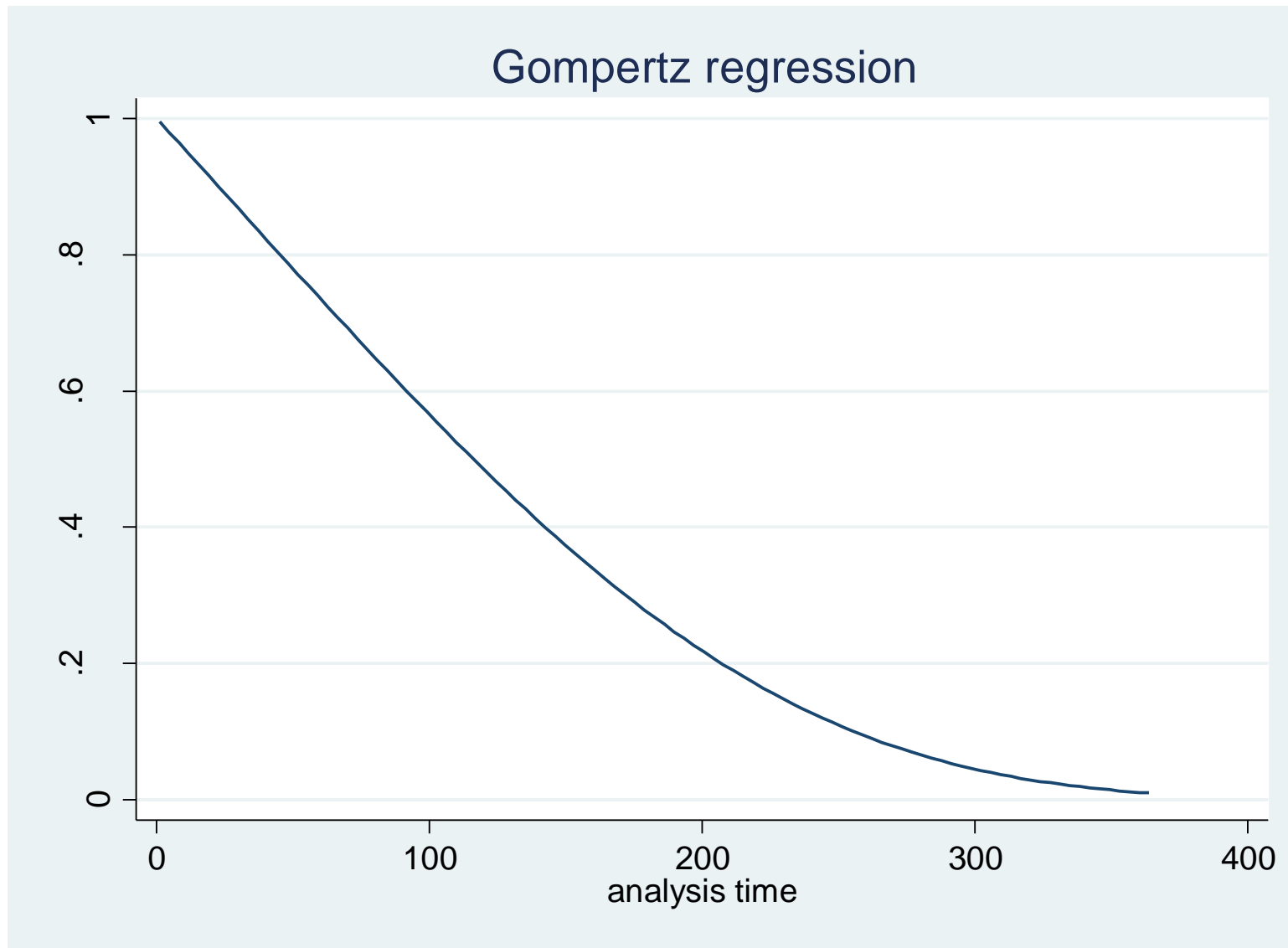
```
No. of subjects =          55          Number of obs =          4625
No. of failures =          48
Time at risk    =          4625
Log likelihood   = -79.524695          LR chi2(12)   =          44.15
                                          Prob > chi2   =          0.0000
```

_t	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
gini_m	-.127802	.0285724	-4.47	0.000	-.1838028	-.0718012
ginmis	-6.111802	1.299092	-4.70	0.000	-8.657975	-3.565629
rgdpch	.3803728	.1341579	2.84	0.005	.1174281	.6433174
elf	-.0652722	.0262721	-2.48	0.013	-.1167646	-.0137799
elf2	.0588794	.0275237	2.14	0.032	.0049339	.1128248
logpop	-.3115859	.1224821	-2.54	0.011	-.5516464	-.0715254
y70stv	-.0404225	.4672147	-0.09	0.931	-.9561466	.8753015
y80stv	-1.530275	.5310187	-2.88	0.004	-2.571052	-.4894973
y90stv	-1.302327	.5539067	-2.35	0.019	-2.387964	-.2166894
d2	-.9082049	.578435	-1.57	0.116	-2.041917	.2255069
d3	-.1798546	.574289	-0.31	0.754	-1.30544	.9457313
d4	.0726612	.6031641	0.12	0.904	-1.109519	1.254841
_cons	7.578502	2.697252	2.81	0.005	2.291986	12.86502
/gamma	.0050977	.0035916	1.42	0.156	-.0019418	.0121371

# Hazard function

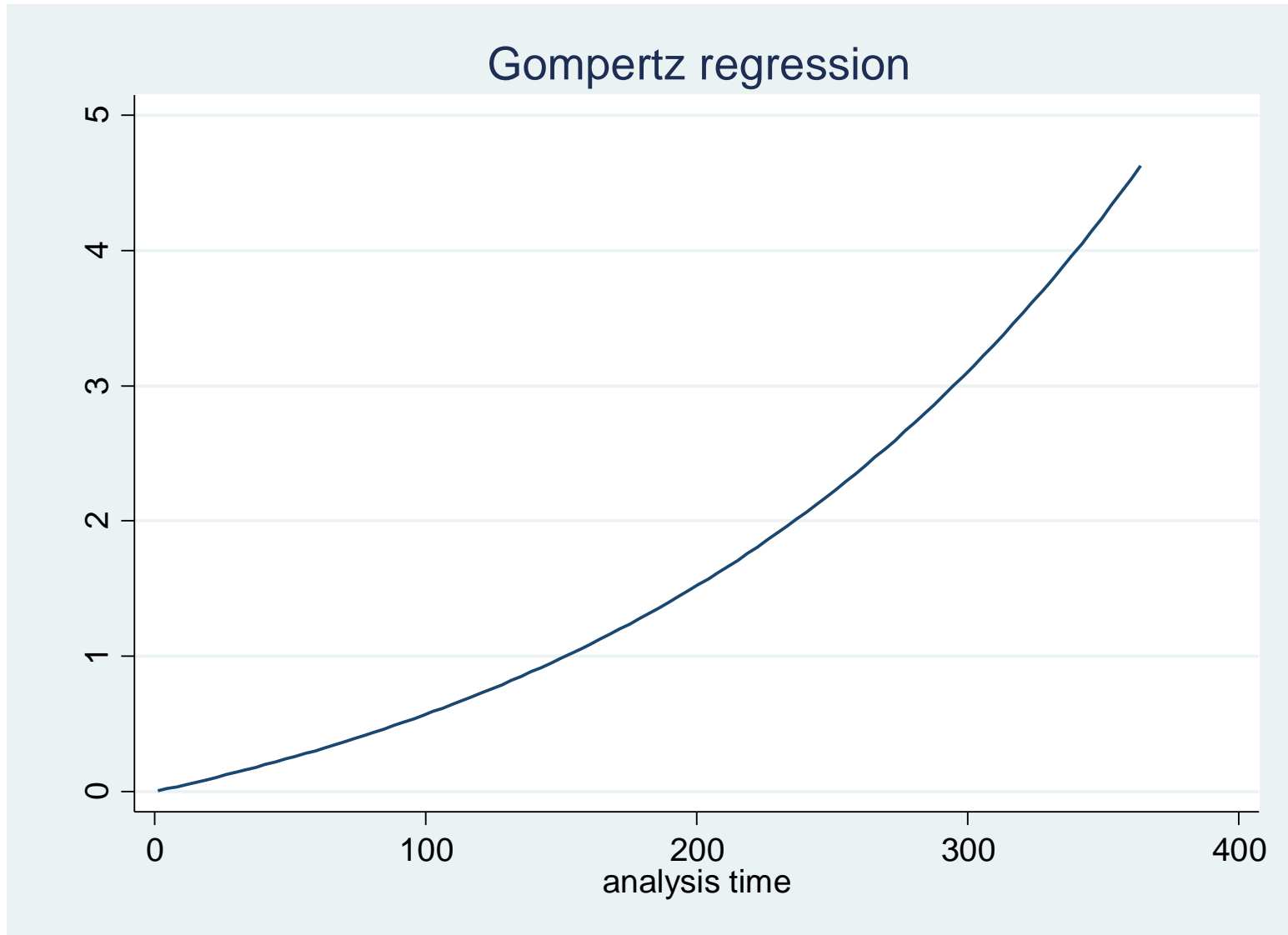


# Survival





# Cumulative hazard



```
. estout exponential weibull gompertz, cells(b(star) se(par)) ///
> stats(N ll p gamma)
```

	exponential b/se	weibull b/se	gompertz b/se
-----			
_t			
gini_m	-.1244463*** (.0284179)	-.1221709*** (.0288244)	-.127802*** (.0285724)
ginmis	-5.867928*** (1.277403)	-5.746803*** (1.302304)	-6.111802*** (1.299092)
rgdpch	.3651031** (.1322248)	.3579029** (.1331665)	.3803728** (.1341579)
elf	-.0628267* (.0258742)	-.0615579* (.025954)	-.0652722* (.0262721)
elf2	.0581252* (.0270411)	.0572613* (.0270164)	.0588794* (.0275237)
logpop	-.3163905* (.1230657)	-.3092118* (.1241655)	-.3115859* (.1224821)
y70stv	.0077905 (.4625409)	.0223796 (.4641904)	-.0404225 (.4672147)
y80stv	-1.420202** (.5203341)	-1.384908** (.5263604)	-1.530275** (.5310187)
y90stv	-1.162059* (.5416506)	-1.108178* (.5550966)	-1.302327* (.5539067)
d2	-.8067415 (.5742936)	-.6810668 (.6493246)	-.9082049 (.578435)
d3	-.0010657 (.5606172)	.1526106 (.6702459)	-.1798546 (.574289)
d4	.6098389 (.4464024)	.8091091 (.6495045)	.0726612 (.6031641)
_cons	7.433105** (2.707863)	7.402131** (2.691839)	7.578502** (2.697252)
-----			
ln_p			
_cons		-.0818573 (.1986233)	
-----			
gamma			
_cons			.0050977 (.0035916)
-----			
N	4625	4625	4625
ll	-80.43	-80.34186	-79.5247
p	.0000284	.0001753	.0000144
gamma			.0050977
-----			

- These parametric models—the Exponential, Weibull, and Gompertz—all made assumptions about the distribution of the errors.
- How to choose between them?
  - LR or Wald test for nested models
  - AIC for non-nested
  - Run a Generalized Gamma and test whether
    - $\kappa = 1$  for Weibull
    - $\kappa = p = 1$  for Exponential
    - $p = 1$  for Gamma (Stata calls it sigma rather than p)
- Other slightly less common models include the log-normal and log-logistic.

Distribution	$f(t)$	$S(t)$	$h(t)$
Exponential	$\lambda \exp(-\lambda t)$	$\exp(-\lambda t)$	$\lambda$
Weibull	$\lambda p t^{p-1} \exp(-\lambda t^p)$	$\exp(-\lambda t^p)$	$\lambda p t^{p-1}$
Log-logistic	$\frac{\lambda p t^{p-1}}{(1+\lambda t^p)^2}$	$\frac{1}{1+\lambda t^p}$	$\frac{\lambda p t^{p-1}}{1+\lambda t^p}$

- From Datwyler and Stucki (2011)

- Next week, we will examine the most common semi-parametric model, the Cox proportional hazards model, that does not make a distributional assumption.

- Questions?
- Questions on the readings?