Modeling Survival and Risk Regression techniques in survival analysis

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Outline

Introduction

Regularized regression models

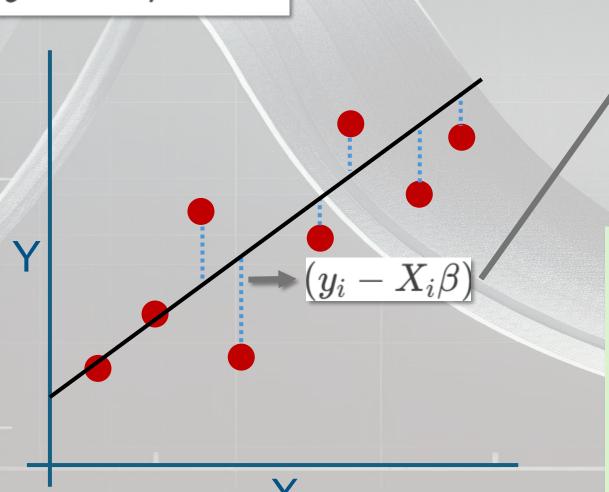
- Ridge
- Lasso
- Elastic-net

Survival and Risk

Applications

- Gene-Phenotype
- Gene-Survival
- Patient-Risk

 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} oldsymbol{eta} + oldsymbol{arepsilon}$ Linear regression: Ordinary Least Squares



DLS:
$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - X_i \beta)^2$$
$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

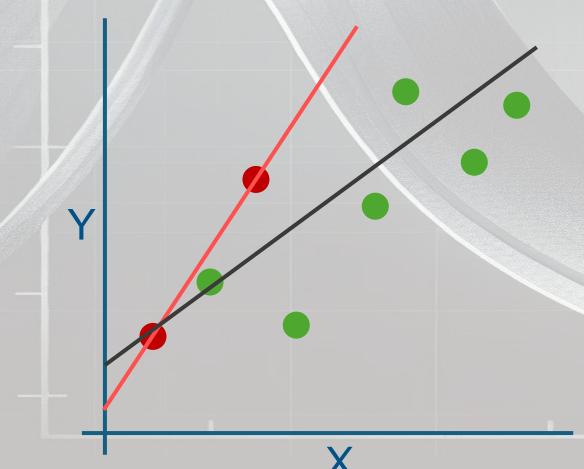
- > Requires $X^T X$ to be invertible.
- If we have a lot of observations, we can be we sure that the model reflects the relationship between X and Y.
- If predictors are correlated (multicollinearity), the matrix X^TX becomes near-singular:
 - inflating coefficient variance
 - making estimates unreliable

But what if we only have two points?

 $\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1} (y_i - X_i \beta)^2 = \mathbf{0}$

If we have few points, the minimum sum of the residuals will be close to 0 because it is easier to find a model that fits well.

Here are the original data and the original model for comparison.



- In machine learning techniques we need to divide the dataset into two subsets: training and testing.
 - Let's call the red dots the training data, and the remaining green dots the testing data.

The sum of the squared residuals for the training data is small (0 in this case), but for the testing data is large.

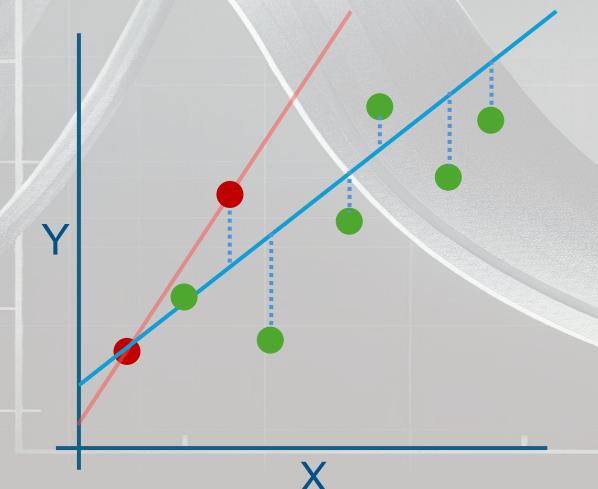
 The red model has high variance.
 In machine learning, we'd say that the red model is Over-Fit to the training data.

What if we introduce a small amount of bias into the red model?

Hoerl and Kennard (1970)

Ridge Regression: Biased Estimation for Nonorthogonal Problems Author(s): Arthur E. Hoerl and Robert W. Kennard Source: *Technometrics*, Feb., 1970, Vol. 12, No. 1 (Feb., 1970), pp. 55-67 Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd. on behalf of American Statistical Association and American Society for Quality Stable URL: https://www.jstor.org/stable/1267351

The idea behind **Ridge Regression** is to find a new model that doesn't fit the training data as well...



- ...we introduce a small amount of bias in the way the model fits the data.
- But for that small amount of bias, we get a significant reduction in variance.
- That is, by starting with a worse fit, Ridge regression can provide better long-term predictions.

Ridge adds a L2 penalty (sum of squared **slopes** β_i) to the OLS loss function:

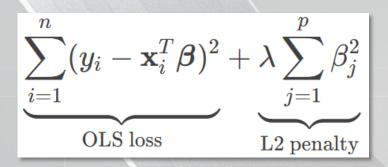
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{Ridge}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left\{ \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_{2}^{2} \right\} \text{ is equivalent to}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{Ridge}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j}^{2} \right\} \text{ or } \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{Ridge}} = (X^{T}X + \lambda I)^{-1}X^{T}y$$

 $> \lambda \ge 0$, the regularization parameter (controls penalty strength).

- $\succ \sum \beta_i^2$: L2 norm of coefficients (excluding intercept β_0).
- > Stabilizes $X^T X$ by adding λI (identity matrix) to OLS solution. This ensures invertibility even with multicollinearity.

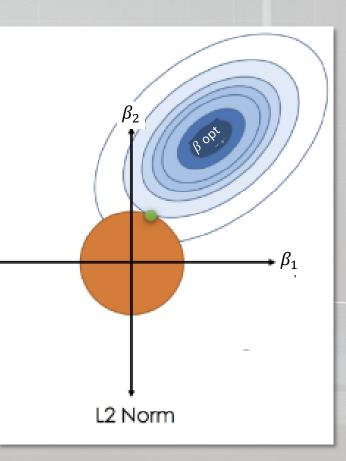
> Ridge regression pulls β 's toward zero to minimize the new loss function.



• **OLS**: Finds coefficients where the residual sum of squares (RSS) is minimized (unconstrained).

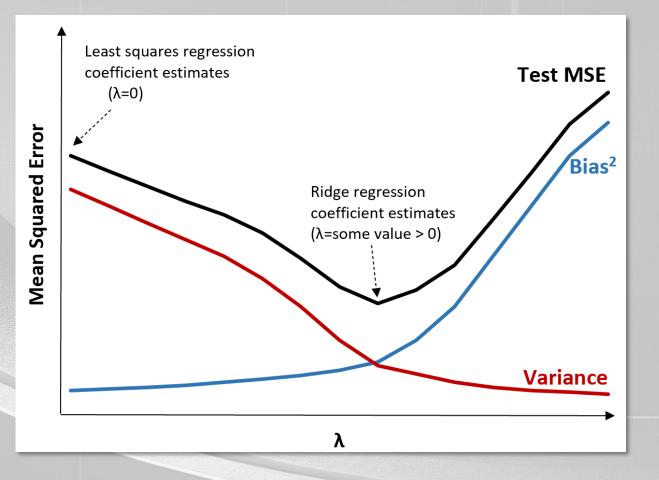
• **Ridge**: Constrains coefficients to lie within a **hypersphere** (L2 ball) centered at zero.

- The solution is the point where the RSS contours touch the L2 ball tangentially.
- The larger λ, the smaller the L2 ball, forcing coefficients (slopes) toward zero (but never zero).



Bias-Variance tradeoff:

- Bias: how much your model's predictions deviate from training data. Bias ↑ as λ increases.
- Variance: how much your model's predictions from the test data.
 Variance ↓ as λ increases.



Predictors X must be standardized because penalization is scale-sensitive.
 λ is estimated using cross-validation.

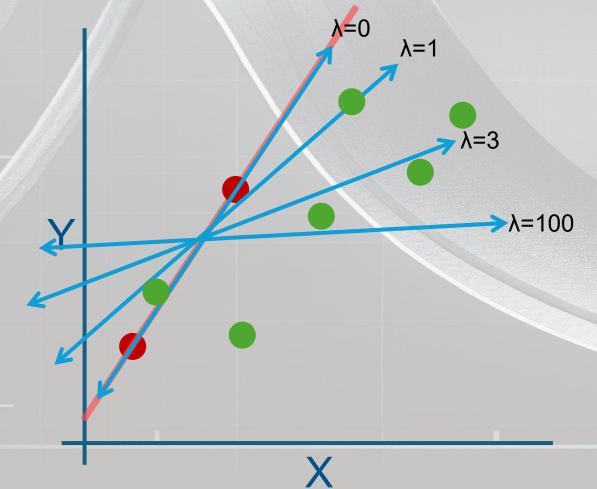
The effect of $\lambda \rightarrow \text{Example}$, let $\lambda = 1$.

 $Y = 0.5 + 1.4 \cdot X$ $Y = 1.2 + 0.7 \cdot X$

Model	SSR	$\lambda \times slope^2$	Loss
Least Squares line	$0^2 + 0^2 = 0$	1 x 1.4 ²	1.96
Ridge line	$0.1^2 + 1.1^2 = 1.22$	1 x 0,7 ²	1.71

Thus, if we wanted to minimize the SSR plus the Ridge Penalty, we would choose the Ridge line over the Least Squares line.

The effect of $\lambda \to If$ we increase λ , the slope gets smaller to minimize the total loss function.



The larger is λ :

- \succ slope tends asymptotically to 0.
- \succ Y becomes less sensitive to X.

Cross Validation (typically 10-fold)
 is used to determine the value of
 λ giving the best bias-variance

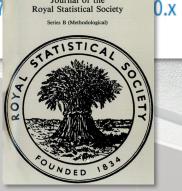
Tibshirani R (1996)

JOURNAL ARTICLE

Regression Shrinkage and Selection Via the Lasso Robert Tibshirani 🖂

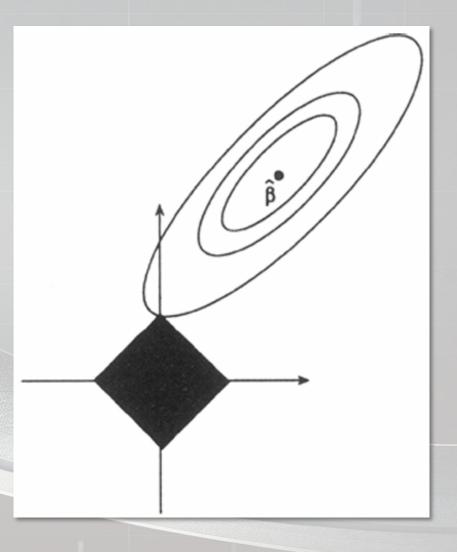
Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological), Volume 58, Issue 1,

January 1996, Pages 267–288, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2517 Published: 05 December 2018



Journal of the

Royal Statistical Society

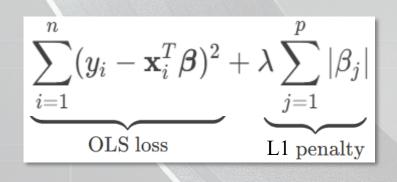


Lasso adds a L1 penalty (sum of absolutes values of **slopes** β_j) to the OLS loss function. It works similarly to Ridge by changing the L2 norm to L1 norm.

$$egin{aligned} \hat{m{eta}}^{ ext{Lasso}} &= rg\min_{m{eta}} \left\{ \| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} m{eta} \|_2^2 + \lambda \| m{eta} \|_1
ight\} & ext{ is equivalent to } \ \hat{m{eta}}^{ ext{Lasso}} &= rg\min_{m{eta}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T m{eta})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |m{eta}_j|
ight\} \end{aligned}$$

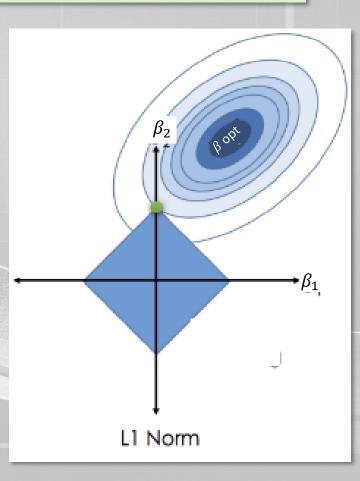
- $> \lambda \ge 0$, the regularization parameter, controls penalty strength as in Ridge.
- > Sum of L1 norm of coefficients $\sum |\beta_j|$ forces some β_j to be **exactly 0**.

Effect on coefficients: Ridge Regression produces a smooth shrinkage (no exact zeros), but Lasso selects variables (exact zeros).



• Lasso: Constrains coefficients to lie within a diamond (2D) or a high-dimensional polytope centered at zero.

- The solution is the point where the RSS contours touch the L1 diamond tangentially.
- The larger λ , the smaller the L1 diamond, forcing coefficients (slopes) toward 0 or even to take the value 0.



Standardization required and choosing λ through cross-validation.

➤ When to use Lasso?

- Variable selection: when you suspect that many characteristics are irrelevant.
- Interpretable models: to obtain models with fewer predictors.
- High dimensional data: if the number of predictors (p) is much larger than the number of samples (n).

idea: when λ increases: relevant predictors non-relevant predictors $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \beta_{k+1} X_{k+1} + \dots + \beta_p X_p$ Ridge ~ 0 Lasso = 0~ 0

Ridge vs Lasso

		Ridge Regression	Lasso Regression
	Penalty type	$\lambda \sum_{j} \beta_{j}^{2}$	$\lambda \sum_{j} \beta_{j} $
	Correlated Predictors	Similar weights to correlated predictors.	Selects one predictor and discards others.
		Stable with multicollinearity.	Automatic predictor selection.
	Advantages &	Good performance when <i>p</i> > <i>n</i> .	Interpretability (simpler models).
	Disadvantages	No dimensionality reduction.	Unstable with highly correlated predictors.
		Less interpretable for large <i>p</i> .	May select only <i>n</i> predictors if <i>p>n</i> .
	Turniand Llon Conn	High multicollinearity.	Removing irrelevant predictors.
/y	Typical Use Case	All predictors are relevant.	Interpretable models.

Elastic-net regression

Zou & Hastie (2005)

JOURNAL ARTICLE

Regularization and Variable Selection Via the Elastic

Net Get access >

Hui Zou , Trevor Hastie 🐱

Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B: Statistical Methodology, Volume 67, Issue

Series B

2, April 2005, Pages 301–320, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-986

Published: 09 March 2005 Article history •

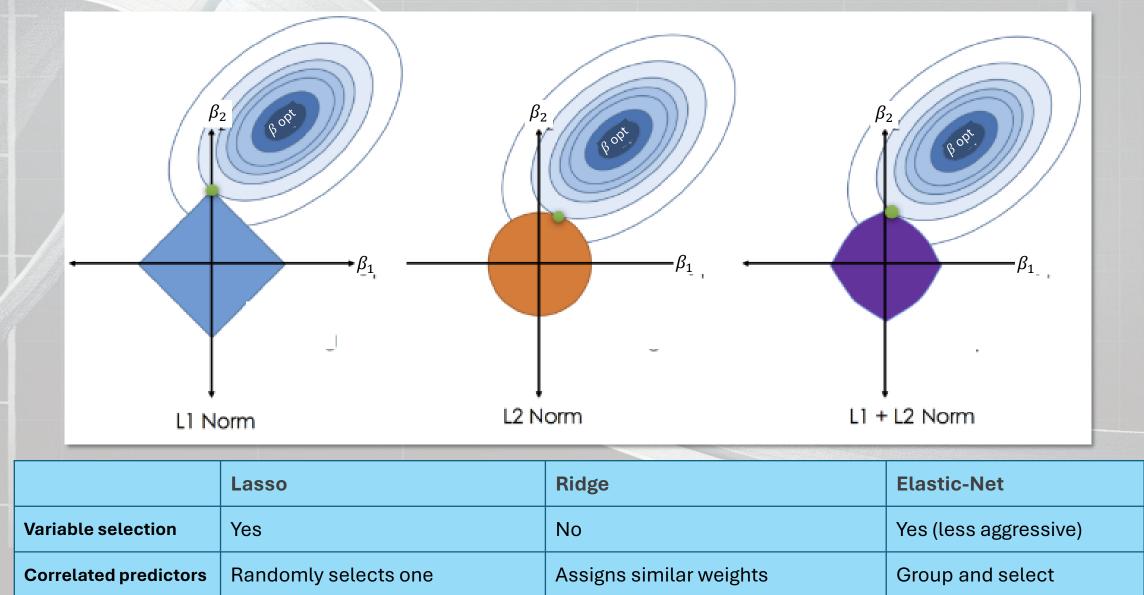
Elastic-net regression

Elastic-net is a regularized regression method that combines the Lasso and Ridge penalties to overcome limitations when there are more predictors than observations or when there are highly correlated variables.

$$\hat{\beta}^{ ext{Elastic-Net}} = rg\min_{eta} \left\{ \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}eta\|_2^2 + \lambda \left(lpha \|eta\|_1 + rac{1-lpha}{2} \|eta\|_2^2
ight)
ight\}$$
 is equivalent to

$$\hat{eta}^{ ext{Elastic-Net}} = rg\min_eta \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^Teta)^2 + \lambda \left(lpha \sum_{j=1}^p |eta_j| + rac{1-lpha}{2} \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j^2
ight)
ight\}$$

Regularization regression methods



The branch of statistics focused on analyzing the time until an event occur (death, recurrence, failure...)

Survival function: probability that the event occurs beyond a time t.

S(t) = P(T > t)

➤ Hazard function: the probability that if you survive to t, you will experiment the event in the next instant. $h(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{P(t < T \le t + \Delta t \mid T \ge t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)}$

Event

Time = T

Start

Goals:

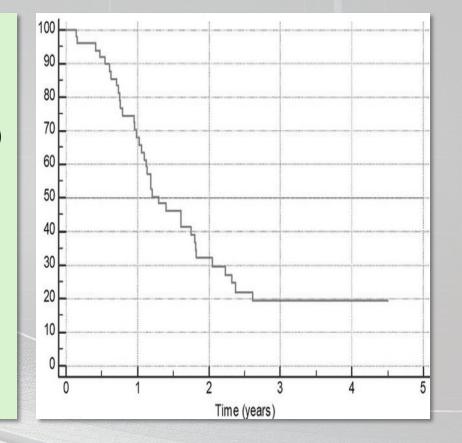
- 1) Estimate survival function over time.
- 2) Compare survival between different groups of individuals.
- 3) Identify risk factors associated with survival and quantify their influence.

> (1) Survival function estimation:

Kaplan-Meier method (Kaplan, Meier 1958)

- t_i : distinct event times (ordered, $t_1 < t_2 < \cdots t_n$)
- \circ d_i : number of events in t_i
- *n_i* : number of individuals at risk just before *t_i h_i* = <sup>*d_i*/<sub>*n_i*</sup> : risk of the event in [*t_i*, *t_{i+1}*)
 </sup></sub>

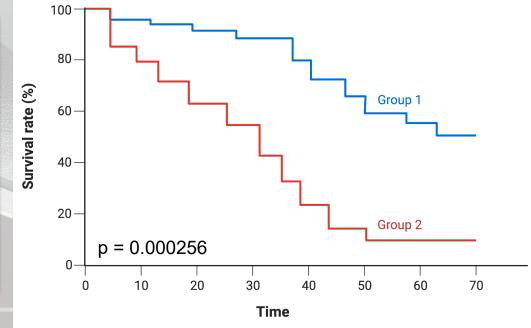
$$\hat{S}(t) = \prod_{t_i < t} (1 - h_i) = \prod_{t_i < t} \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n_i} \right)$$



> (2) Survival comparation: Log-rank test (Mantel-Cox test) (Mantel 1966)

*H*₀: All groups have the same survival function: $S_1(t) = S_2(t) = ... = S_k(t)$ *H*₁: At least one group differs in survival: $S_i(t) \neq S_i(t)$, for some $i \neq j$

Test statistic is based on observed and expected events (χ^2 Pearson or Mantel-Haenszel) O_i : vector of observed events for each group E_i : vector of expected events under H_0 $U = \sum_i (O_i - E_i)$; $V = \sum_i V_i$ $\chi^2_{k-1} \sim U^* V^{*-1} U^*$ (U^* and V^* exclude the kth group)



➤ (3) Influence of risk factors: Cox proportional hazards model (Cox 1972) $h(t|x) = h_0(t) \cdot exp\{\beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \dots + \beta_pX_p\} \qquad h_0(t): \text{ baseline risk}$

 β_k : effect of factor k

It estimates the influence of *p* factors (covariates) in the event happening.

Coefficients β_i are estimated by maximizing the partial likelihood:

$$L(oldsymbol{eta}) = \prod_{i: ext{evento}} rac{ ext{exp}(oldsymbol{eta}^ op extbf{x}_i)}{\sum_{j\in R(t_i)} ext{exp}(oldsymbol{eta}^ op extbf{x}_j)}$$

$$Example: X = \{0,1\} \longrightarrow \frac{h(t|x=1)}{h(t|x=0)} = \frac{h_0(t) \cdot exp\{\beta \cdot 1\}}{h_0(t) \cdot exp\{\beta \cdot 0\}} = e^{\beta}$$



Applications

Analysis of disease SUrvival and patient RIsk prediction based on gene signatures

Doctoral Thesis



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Exploration and development of bioinformatics methods for survival analysis and drug targeting in cancer

Package ASURI

Alberto Berral González (december 2024)





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Applications: gene-phenotype

> Target: discovery of gene markers by identification of the significant association of gene expression (or another gene-related activity signal) with clinical variables or phenotypic characteristics ($G = \{0, 1\}$)

Fit a classifier to the dataset based on bootstrapping and ensemble Elastic-Net models, (Friedman, 2010).

$$log \frac{Pr(G=1|x)}{Pr(G=0|x)} = \beta_0 + \beta^T x \quad P_\alpha(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^p \left[\frac{1}{2}(1-\alpha) \cdot \beta_j^2 + \alpha \cdot |\beta_j|\right]$$

$$\max_{(\beta_0,\beta)\in\mathbb{R}^{p+1}} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(I(g_i=1) \cdot \log p_i + I(g_i=0) \cdot \log(1-p_i) \right) - \lambda \cdot P_{\alpha}(\beta) \right]$$

(optimal regularized parameters using 10-fold CV)

Symbol	stability	betas Median	betasMean
ESR1	0.89	0.13404022	0.14776460
NAT1	0.87	0.11227456	0.11600153
AGR3	0.74	0.03428295	0.03739961
SUSD3	0.72	0.07884203	0.03739961
USP6NL	0.70	-0.26426252	-0.30745744
PREX1	0.61	0.10581937	0.11813321
CA12	0.60	0.06944143	0.07564508
DNALI1	0.59	0.06659477	0.08097503
HPN	0.50	0.06901693	0.08676957
KDM4B	0.50	0.09876130	0.11851605

List of genes ordered by stability for the BRCA training dataset from Bueno-Fortes et al., 2023.

Applications: gene-survival

of the Kaplan-Meier curves.

- Target: Discovery of robust and reproducible gene lists associated with disease survival based on gene expression (or another gene-related activity signal).
- ✤ Evaluate each gene as a Kaplan-Meier plot (ESR1) 1.0 prognostic marker bv dividing patients into two 3.132096) groups (low/high expr.) with threshold that а we **Class Probability** 0.8 Survival Probability 1.863786 (0.31927) estimated by minimizing the *p-value* of the log-rank 0.7 Ratio: statistic. lazard 0.2 Iow.exp ✤ Strategy that determines 0.6 high.exp the optimal p-value of the 0.0 0.5 log-rank test that 50 100 150 200 Λ 49 73 2 low.exp 10 21 maximizes the separation Patients ordered by expression (coloured by groups)

Applications: patient-risk

Target: Construction of robust patient risk predictors based on gene signatures using univariate and multivariate Cox regression model approaches.

Estimate patient risk with the Cox proportional hazards regression model but...

$$h(t|x) = h_0(t) \cdot exp\{\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p\}$$

…the β_j coefficients are estimated by maximizing the partial log-likelihood with a L1 (lasso) norm penalty. (Tibshirani, 2009).

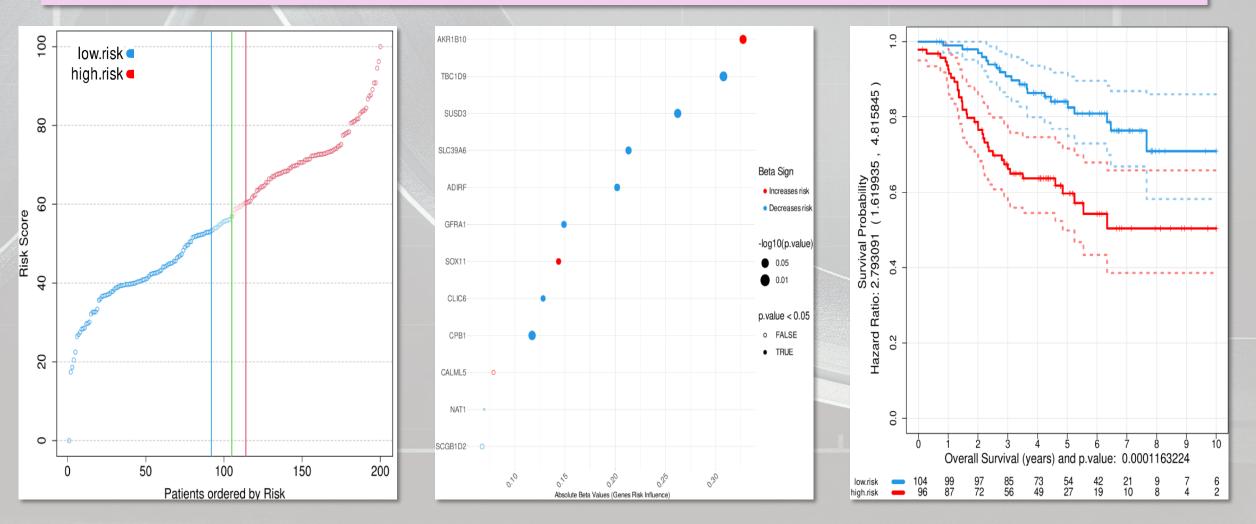
$$l(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left(x_{kj}\beta_j - \log \sum_{m \in \mathcal{R}_k} \exp(x_{mj}\beta_j) \right) - \lambda \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$

(optimal regularized parameters using 10-fold CV)

We rank patients according to their risk score and look for the one that maximizes the separation between the KM survival curves (lowest p-value of the log-rank test). Ö Logrank p.value 0.000 0.002 (10th perc 50 100 0 Patients ordered by Risk

Applications: patient-risk

The threshold allow us to separate the patients into two risk groups, low/high (or three, in case we want to consider intermediate risk).



Application to Breast cancer (BRCA)

The predictive **IHC** (*immunohistochemistry*) markers in breast pathology include two cell proliferation markers and three hormone receptor positive factors (and their genes): Chromosome segregation mitosis: **AURKA** / DNA damage: **MKI67** Estrogen receptors: **ER** (*ESR1 gene*) / Progesterone receptors: **PR** (*PGR gene*) Human epidermal growth factor receptor-2: **HER2** (*ERBB2 gene*)

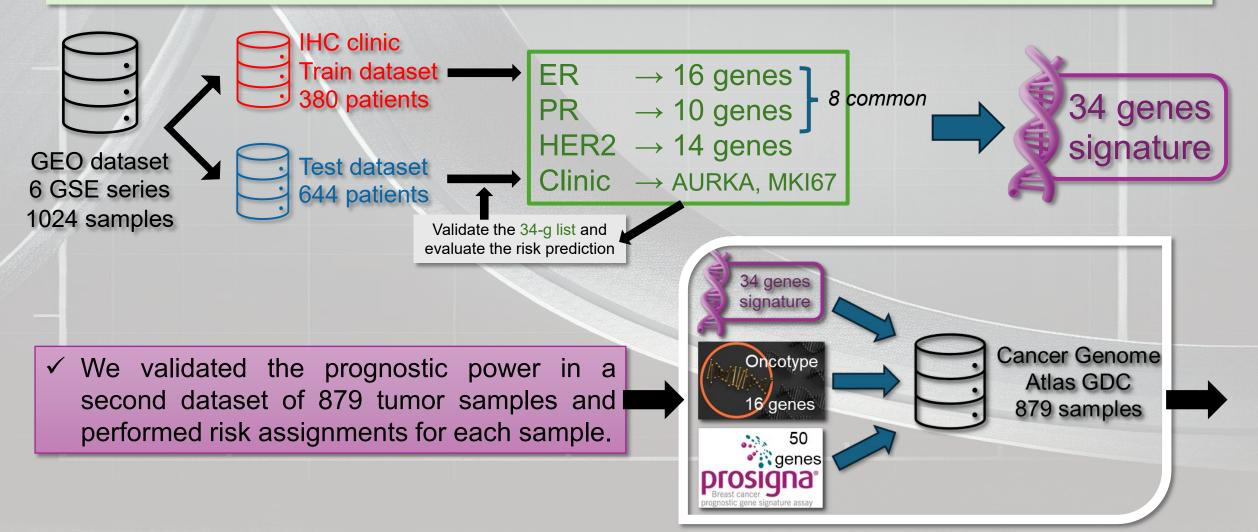
Two of the most widely used commercial platforms (Oncotype and Prosigna) use their own gene signatures to predict risk and stratify patients.



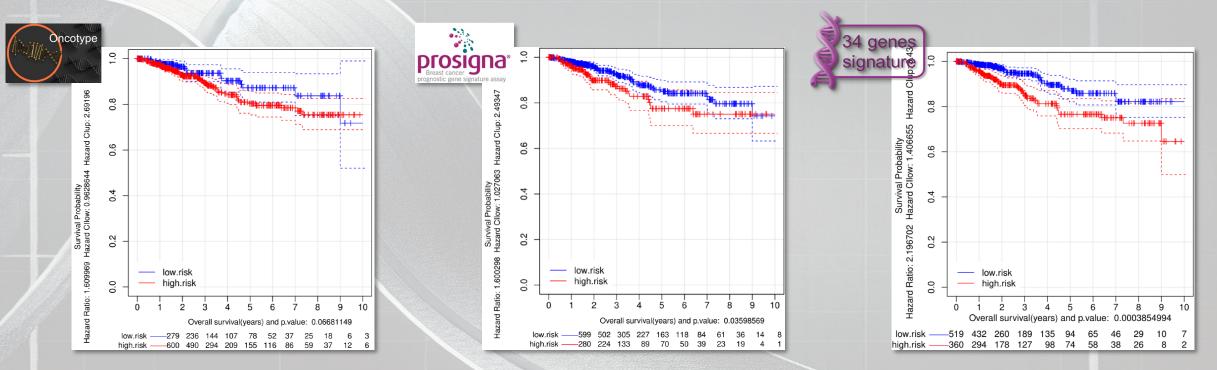
Our goal is to identify survival markers related with that improve risk prediction and patient stratification better than these two

Application to Breast cancer (BRCA)

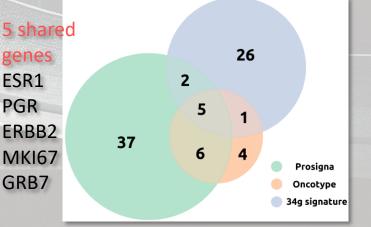
We follow the approach described before and apply it to two independent BRCA datasets that integrate multiple primary tumor samples (*curated*, Bueno-Fortes, 2023)



Application to Breast cancer (BRCA)



Signature	Log-rank p-value	Hazar ratio HR	95%CI of HR
34-g signature	0.00038	2.20	1.41 – 3.43
Oncotype 16-g	0.066	1.61	0.96 - 2.69
Prosigna 50-g	0.035	1.60	1.03 – 2.49



Some conclusions

Techniques such as Elastic-net or Lasso ensure diversity and reliability to obtain robust survival and risk markers.

The use of univariate or multivariate Cox regression and cross-validation leads to better selection of stable risk markers and better stratification of patients.

We have applied a survival analysis methods for large human cancer datasets to validate previously established biomarkers and discover new ones with potential clinical relevance.

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Team

Bioinformatics and Functional Genomics



Thanks for your attention

Modeling Survival and Risk Regression techniques in survival analysis

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