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Reliability Analysis

Test-Based Interval Estimation Under the Accelerated Failure Time Model

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The accelerated failure time (AFT) model is an important regression tool to study the association between survival time and covariates. Semiparametric inference procedures have been proposed extensively in the literature. Recently, Zhou (2005a) proposed to use a model-based empirical likelihood approach to interval estimation for the AFT model. However, comparison was not made with more standard approaches based on score test and Wald-type test. In this article, we conduct extensive simulation studies to evaluate their relative performance in small samples. In addition to these methods, we also devise and consider model-free empirical likelihood approach for the comparisons. Our simulation results suggest that these empirical likelihood-based methods are not better than the standard approach based on the score test.

Keywords Confidence region; Counting process; Estimating equation; Rightcensoring; Wilks's theorem.

Mathematics Subject Classification Primary 62G05; Secondary 62F12.

1. Introduction

In survival analysis, the accelerated failure time (AFT) model is an important alternative to the popular proportional hazards model of Cox (1972). The AFT model relates the logarithm of the failure time linearly to the covariates, with the model error distribution unspecified. One standard inference procedure is based on the class of weighted log-rank estimating functions (Tsiatis, 1990). As shown by Ying (1993), among others, there exists a zero-crossing to a weighted log-rank estimating function that is consistent and asymptotically normal. Note that Ritov (1990) extended the estimating function of Buckley and James (1979) and showed his class is asymptotically equivalent to that of Tsiatis (1990).

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However, weighted log-rank estimating functions are neither monotone in general nor continuous, which gives rise to difficulty with root-finding and variance estimation. As an exception, the Gehan estimating function is monotone (Fygenson and Ritov, 1994) and its root-finding can be carried out with the linear programming technique (Lin et al., 1998). Recently, Jin et al. (2003) developed a broad class of monotone estimating functions and the resulting estimators represent the consistent roots of the weighted log-rank estimating functions. The difficulty with variance estimation is due to the fact that the weighted log-rank estimating functions are not differentiable. Therefore, the sandwich variance estimation does not apply. To address this issue, Parzen et al. (1994) developed a resampling approach and Huang (2002) proposed a computationally more efficient samplebased method. Nevertheless, standard approaches to confidence region by inverting the score and Wald-type tests still apply to the weighted log-rank estimating functions.

Empirical likelihood (EL) method is a powerful nonparametric method. In general, EL has unique features, such as range respecting, transformationpreserving, asymmetric confidence interval, and Bartlett correctability (Owen, 2001). The EL approach does not require to estimate the limiting covariance matrices. Moreover, the confidence region is adapted to the data set and not necessarily symmetric. Thus, it reflects the nature of the underlying data and hence gives a more representative way to make inferences about the parameter of interest. In analysis of censored survival times, for example, empirical likelihood was used to derived pointwise confidence intervals for survival function with right-censored data as early as 1975 (Thomas and Grunkemeier, 1975).

In linear regression analysis via EL for right-censored survival data, recent work includes Qin and Jing (2001) and Li and Wang (2003), among others. More recently, Zhou and Li (2004) and Zhou (2005a) developed model-based empirical likelihood confidence regions for regression parameter based on Buckley–James and rank-based estimating equations. They do not need to estimate the variance matrix when building confidence region. However, the constrained maximization of the EL has no closed form and involves *n* nonlinear equations, where *n* is a sample size. Since the computation is demanding, they applied the modified EM algorithm (cf. Zhou, 2005b) to obtain it. Moreover, the comparison was not made with standard approached based on score test and Wald-type test.

In this article, we build alternative confidence regions for regression parameter and conduct a comparison study. The rest of the article is organized as follows. In Sec. 2, we first introduce standard confidence regions for regression parameter using score test and Wald-type test. Then, we construct model-free empirical likelihood confidence regions for the regression parameter. The corresponding constrained maximization of the empirical likelihood can be done reliably by Newton–Raphson method. In Sec. 3, we conduct extensive simulation studies to compare the relative performance with other methods. The proof is presented in the Appendix.

2. Confidence Regions

2.1. *Standard Confidence Regions*

Let T_1, \ldots, T_n be a sequence of positive random variables, usually representing survival (failure) times of *n* patients (items) in a medical study. Let Z_1, \ldots, Z_n be their corresponding $(p \times 1)$ covariates sequence. The AFT model is to relate the logarithms of survival times, $\log T_i$, to their covariates through a system of linear regression equations.

$$
\log T_i = \beta^{\mathrm{T}} Z_i + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,
$$
\n(1)

where β is a $p \times 1$ parameter vector and ϵ_i are independent error terms with a common, but completely unspecified, distribution. There exist censoring times C_i , such that we can only observe $X_i = T_i \wedge C_i$, $\delta_i = I(T_i \le C_i)$ and Z_i , $i = 1, ..., n$.

Considering the model (1), the following conditional independent censoring is assumed: Conditional on Z_i , C_i is independent of T_i , $i = 1, ..., n$. We define $e_i(\beta) =$ $\log X_i - \beta^T Z_i$, $N_i(\beta; t) = \delta_i I(e_i(\beta) \le t)$, and $R_i(\beta; t) = I(e_i(\beta) \ge t)$. Write

$$
S^{(0)}(\beta; t) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i(\beta; t),
$$

$$
S^{(1)}(\beta; t) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i(\beta; t) Z_i.
$$

The weighted log-rank estimating function for β is

$$
U(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(\beta; t) (Z_i - \overline{Z}(\beta; t) dN_i(\beta; t), \qquad (2)
$$

where $\overline{Z}(\beta; t) = S^{(1)}(\beta, t) / S^{(0)}(\beta; t)$, and ϕ is a possibly data-dependent weight function satisfying Condition 5 of Ying (1993, p. 90). The choice of $\phi = 1$ and $\phi = S^{(0)}$ corresponds to the log-rank (Mantel, 1966) and Gehan (1965) statistics, respectively.

Write β_{ϕ} and β_0 as the estimated and true values of β , respectively. Then as shown in Ying (1993), under the regularity conditions, the random vector

$$
n^{1/2}(\hat{\beta}_{\phi}-\beta_0) \stackrel{\mathfrak{D}}{\rightarrow} N(0, D_{\phi}^{-1}V_{\phi}D_{\phi}^{-1}),
$$

where $D_{\phi} = \lim_{n \to \infty} D_{\phi}(\beta_{\phi})$ and $V_{\phi} = \lim_{n \to \infty} V_{\phi}(\beta_{\phi})$; here,

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\widehat{D}_{\phi}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}; t) \{Z_{i} - \overline{Z}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}; t)\}^{\otimes 2} \{\lambda'(t)/\lambda(t)\} dN_{i}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}; t), \\
\widehat{V}_{\phi}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^{2}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}; t) \{Z_{i} - \overline{Z}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}; t)\}^{\otimes 2} dN_{i}(\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}; t),\n\end{aligned}
$$

respectively, where $\lambda(\cdot)$ is the common hazard function of the error terms. Thus using the test-based approach (cf. Wei et al., 1990), an asymptotic $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ Wald-type confidence region for β is given by

$$
\mathcal{R}_1 = \{ \beta : n^{-1} U(\beta)^{\mathrm{T}} \widehat{V}_{\phi}^{-1} (\widehat{\beta}_{\phi}) U(\beta) \leq \chi_p^2(\alpha) \},\tag{3}
$$

where $\chi_p^2(\alpha)$ is the upper α -quantile of the chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom p. Apparently the coverage accuracy of \mathcal{R}_1 mainly depends on the large-sample normal approximation, which might be affected by sample size and censoring rate.

In (3) for the $V_{\phi}(\beta_{\phi})$, we substitute β_{ϕ} with β . Thus, an asymptotic $100(1-\alpha)\%$ score test based confidence region for β is given by

$$
\mathcal{R}_2 = \{ \beta : n^{-1} U(\beta)^{\mathrm{T}} \widehat{V}_{\phi}^{-1}(\beta) U(\beta) \leq \chi_p^2(\alpha) \},\tag{4}
$$

where $\chi_p^2(\alpha)$ is defined as before.

2.2. *Model-Free EL Confidence Region*

Zhou (2005a) proposed a model-based empirical likelihood testing procedure for the rank-based estimator where the likelihood is defined as the censored empirical likelihood of the error variables $e_i(\beta)$, $i = 1, ..., n$, used by Thomas and Grunkemeier (1975) and Li (1995), among others. He showed the limiting distribution of the log empirical likelihood ratio at the true value of regression parameter is a chi-squared distribution. Based on the result, he builded confidence region for the regression parameter.

Now consider an alternative approach based on EL. Let $\widehat{\Lambda}(t)$ be the Nelson– Aalen estimator of cumulative hazard function $\Lambda(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \lambda(s) ds$ of ϵ_i . Denote

$$
\widehat{M}_i(\beta_0; t) = N_i(\beta_0; t) - \int_{-\infty}^t R_i(\beta_0; s) d\widehat{\Lambda}(s).
$$
\n(5)

By simple algebra, we have

$$
U(\beta_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(\beta_0; t)(Z_i - \overline{Z}(\beta_0; t) d\widehat{M}_i(\beta_0; t).
$$
 (6)

Assume the covariates Z_i are uniformly bounded. For $i = 1, 2, ..., n$, we define

$$
W_i = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(\beta_0; t) \{Z_i - \overline{Z}(\beta_0; t)\} d\widehat{M}_i(\beta_0; t),
$$

and summarize the following results as a lemma.

Lemma 2.1. *Under regularity conditions,* i*)* $n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{\rightarrow} N(0, V_{\phi})$, and (ii) $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i W_i^T \rightarrow V_{\phi}$ in probability.

Thus, the empirical likelihood at true value β_0 is given

$$
L(\beta_0) = \sup \bigg\{ \prod_{i=1}^n p_i : \sum p_i = 1, \sum_{i=1}^n p_i W_i = 0, p_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n \bigg\}.
$$

Let $p = (p_1, \ldots, p_n)^T$ be a vector of probabilities such that $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$, where $p_i \ge 0$, $i = 1, 2, ..., n$. Since $\prod_{i=1}^n p_i$ attains its maximum at $p_i = 1/n$, the empirical likelihood ratio at the true value β_0 is then

$$
R(\beta_0) = \sup \bigg\{ \prod_{i=1}^n n p_i : \sum p_i = 1, \sum_{i=1}^n p_i W_i = 0, p_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n \bigg\}.
$$

By using Lagrange multipliers, we know that $R(\beta_0)$ is maximized when

$$
p_i = \frac{1}{n} \{1 + \lambda^T W_i\}^{-1}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,
$$

where $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p)^T$ satisfies the equation

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{W_{i}}{1+\lambda^{T}W_{i}}=0.
$$
\n(7)

The value of λ may be found by numerical search (e.g., Newton–Raphson method), see the discussion in Owen (2001). Thus combining above equalities, we have

$$
-2\log R(\beta_0) = 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \{1 + \lambda^{\mathrm{T}} W_i\},\tag{8}
$$

where λ satisfies Eq. (7).

Hence, we establish the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1. *Assume the above conditions hold. Then* $-2 \log R(\beta_0)$ *converges in* distribution to χ_p^2 , where χ_p^2 is a chi-squared distribution with degrees of freedom p.

According to this theorem, an asymptotic $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ empirical likelihood confidence region for β is

$$
\mathcal{R}_3 = \{ \beta : -2 \log R(\beta) \le \chi_p^2(\alpha) \},\tag{9}
$$

where $\chi_p^2(\alpha)$ is defined before.

3. Simulation Study

An extensive simulation is conducted to compare the relative performance of score test based procedure (SCORE), Wald-type procedure (WALD), modelbased empirical likelihood procedure (MBEL), and model-free empirical likelihood procedure (MFEL). The SCORE is based on (4). The WALD is based on (3). The MBEL is based on Zhou (2005a). The MFEL is based on (9). We consider the extreme value distribution for error term. The covariate is uniformly distributed in $[-1, 1]$, and the censoring time is Uniform[0, c], where c controls the censoring rate (CR). Corresponding to $\beta_0 = 2$, the censoring rates are approximately 15%, 30%, 45%, and 60%, respectively, which represent light censoring, moderate censoring, and heavy censoring rates, respectively. First, we choose $\phi = 1$ corresponding to the log-rank statistics. Second, we choose $\phi = S^{(0)}$ corresponding to the Gehan statistics. Simulations are carried out with a Fortran program that is available from the authors.

3.1. *Size Comparison*

We compare the four methods in terms of coverage probability. The sample size is set to be 10, 30, 50, 75, and 100, respectively. The simulation results for log-rank

and Gehan estimating functions are tabulated in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. Each entry of the table is based on 10,000 simulated data sets. Note that "NA" in the table means the result is not applicable because of the failure of EM algorithm in the simulation.

From Tables 1 and 2, we find that at each nominal confidence level, the accuracy of coverage probabilities for all methods increases as the sample size n increases. As shown in the tables, all the methods work reasonably well with right coverage probabilities of 90%, 95%, and 99% when sample size is relatively large. The MFEL, MBEL, Wald-type, and score-based coverage probabilities tend to achieve the nominal levels with moderate sample sizes $(n = 50, 75, 100)$. All the methods work well under censoring rates 15%, 30%, 45%, and 60%, respectively, for moderate sample.

Now, we compare the relative performance of two EL-related methods. Corresponding to log-rank statistics, from Table 1 we see that for small sample $(n = 10, 30)$ the coverage probability of MBEL is more accurate than that of MFEL when censoring rate is 15% and 30%, and the coverage probability of MBEL is close to that of MFEL when censoring rate is 45% and 60%. That is, the advantage of MBEL disappears when censoring rate is high. Corresponding to Gehan statistics, from Table 2 we see that for small sample $(n = 10, 30)$ the coverage probability of MFEL is more accurate than that of MBEL. Thus, the coverage probabilities for MFEL and MBEL are comparable in general.

For small sample size ($n = 10, 30$), the model-free empirical likelihood method apparently has relatively larger under-coverage, while the Wald-type method has better coverage for nominal level 90%, 95%. Note for nominal level 99%, when censoring rate increases the empirical likelihood becomes relatively better than Waldtype method. In particular, for higher censoring rate 60%, the empirical likelihood method has better coverage than the Wald-type method for nominal level 99%.

From Tables 1 and 2, we see that the coverage probability of the score testbased confidence region \mathcal{R}_2 based on (4) is the best among all the four methods. The score-based method outperforms EL-based methods remarkably. Its good performance may be expected from the fact the estimating function is rank based which is quite robust, stable, and is not sensitive to the outliers.

3.2. *Power Analysis*

Now, we do some power comparison for these tests. The null hypothesis is that β is 0.9, 1.4, 2.6, and 3.1, respectively, i.e., $H_0: \beta_0 = 0.9$, or $H_0: \beta_0 = 1.4$, or $H_0: \beta_0 =$ 2.6, or $H_0: \beta_0 = 3.1$. The alternative hypothesis is $H_a: \beta_0 \neq 0.9$, or $H_a: \beta_0 \neq 1.4$, or $H_a: \beta_0 \neq 2.6$, or $H_a: \beta_0 \neq 3.1$. Let sample size *n* be 30, 50, and 100, respectively. The censoring rate is chosen to be approximately 15%, 30%, 45%, and 60%, respectively. In each case the powers are based on 10,000 samples and exact critical value 1.96² at nominal level $\alpha = 0.05$ is used. Data sets are simulated with $\beta_0 = 2.0$ and that the test H_0 is carried out, thus by counting the number of rejection of H_0 . The corresponding power for these tests is given in Tables 3 and 4, respectively.

From the tables, the power decreases when censoring rate increases and the power increases when sample size increases. When the value of β is far away from $\beta_0 = 2$, the power increases and it is much easy to detect the H_a . Since from Tables 3 and 4, the power of test for $\beta = 0.9$ is the largest and the power of test for $\beta = 2.6$ is the smallest among the four values for fixed sample size *n* and censoring rate.

Table 1
Coverage probabilities for the regression parameter with log-rank statistics

Table 2

The power comparison of four tests are interesting. The powers for MBEL and MFEL tests are close in each case. For $H_0: \beta_0 = 2.6$, or $H_0: \beta_0 = 3.1$, the power for SCORE test is smaller than those for MBEL and MFEL tests when sample size n is 30, 50 and censoring rate is 45%, 60% and the power for the Wald-type test is the smallest among the four methods. In particular, when sample size is small or the censoring rate is heavy, the difference is very large. For $H_0: \beta_0 = 0.9$, or $H_0: \beta_0 =$ 1-4, the power for the SCORE test is the smallest among the four methods when sample size is very small ($n = 30$) and the censoring rate is very heavy (CR = 60%).

3.3. *Conclusion*

Note that all these confidence intervals are test-based, i.e., constructed through the inversion of a test. We know that the shorter the average length of confidence interval, the better the confidence interval. Since Newton–Raphson algorithm does not work due to non-differentiable property of estimating equation with respect to β (cf. Huang, 2002), we could apply grid search to find confidence intervals for the four methods. We are not doing it in this article, largely due to the fact that the power analysis serves the same purpose. Thus, it is equivalent to do the power analysis for these four tests in Sec. 3.2. The larger the power of test, the better the test and more sensitive to detect the alternative hypothesis.

Before we summarize the comparison results of the methods, it is good to have in mind that for the best interval, the coverage probability needs to be as close as possible to the nominal confidence level while the average length needs to be the shortest. When coverage probabilities of two methods have close accuracies, we recommend the method which has shorter length, i.e., larger power. Based on coverage probability and power analysis, the model-based EL method and the model-free EL method are competitive methods. Overall, our simulation results suggest that these EL-based methods are not better than the standard approach based on the score test. The Wald-type method is the least favorable due to the small power.

4. Appendix

Proof of Theorem 1. Denote

$$
M_i(\beta_0; t) = N_i(\beta_0; t) - \int_{-\infty}^t R_i(\beta_0; s) \lambda(s) ds.
$$

We define

$$
V_i = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{\phi}(\beta_0; t) \{Z_i - \mu_Z(\beta_0; t)\} dM_i(\beta_0; t),
$$

where $\mu_Z(\beta_0; t)$ is the limit of $Z(\beta_0; t)$ as $n \to \infty$ and $\phi(\beta_0; t)$ is the limit of $\phi(\beta_0; t)$. Then, it is clear that $E|V_i|^2 < \infty$. According to the proof of Lemma 3 in Owen (1990), we have $\max_{1 \le i \le n} |V_i| = o_p(n^{1/2})$. By the martingale representation of V_i and W_i , we can prove that $\max_{1 \le i \le n} |V_i - W_i| = o_p(n^{1/2})$. Then, we have

$$
\max_{1 \le i \le n} |W_i| = o_p(n^{1/2}), \text{ and } (10)
$$

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}|W_i|^3 = o_p(n^{1/2}).
$$
\n(11)

Let $\lambda = \rho \theta$, where $\rho \ge 0$ and $|\theta| = 1$. Recall $\Gamma_n = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n W_i W_i^T = V_\phi + o_p(1)$, where V_{ϕ} is the limit of $1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i W_i^T$. Let $\sigma_1 > 0$ be the smallest eigenvalue of V_{ϕ} . Then, $\theta \Gamma_n \theta \ge \sigma_1 + o_p(1)$. According to Lemma 2.1, $1/n \sum_{i=1}^n W_i = O_p(n^{-1/2})$.

By (10), the equations in (7) and the argument used in Owen (1990), we know that

$$
|\lambda| = O_p(n^{-1/2}).\tag{12}
$$

Consider a Taylor expansion to the right-hand side of (8),

$$
-2\log R(\beta_0) = 2\sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \lambda^T W_i - \frac{1}{2} (\lambda^T W_i)^2 \right\} + r_n,
$$
\n(13)

where $|r_n| = O_p(1) \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda^T W_i|^3$. Hence, by (11), $|r_n| = O_p(1) |\lambda|^3 \sum_{i=1}^n |W_i|^3 = o_p(1)$. Furthermore, since

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{W_{i}}{1+\lambda^{T}W_{i}} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}W_{i}\left(1-\lambda^{T}W_{i}+\frac{(\lambda^{T}W_{i})^{2}}{1+\lambda^{T}W_{i}}\right)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}W_{i}-\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}W_{i}W_{i}^{T}\right)\lambda+\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{W_{i}(\lambda^{T}W_{i})^{2}}{1+\lambda^{T}W_{i}} = 0,
$$

it follows that

$$
\lambda = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i W_i^T\right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i + o_p(1).
$$
 (14)

Similarly, we have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\lambda^T W_i}{1 + \lambda^T W_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\lambda^T W_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\lambda^T W_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(\lambda^T W_i)^3}{1 + \lambda^T W_i} = 0.
$$
 (15)

Since

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(\lambda^T W_i)^3}{1 + \lambda^T W_i} = o_p(1),
$$
\n(16)

we know that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\lambda^T W_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda^T W_i + o_p(1)$. Thus, the following is true:

$$
-2\log R(\beta_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda^T W_i + o_p(1)
$$

= $\left(n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n W_i\right)^T \left(n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n W_i W_i^T\right)^{-1} \left(n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n W_i\right) + o_p(1)$
 $\stackrel{\mathfrak{D}}{\Rightarrow} \chi_p^2.$

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