



# Bayesian Cox Model with Categorical Predictors for Time to Event Breast Cancer Data

## KEYWORDS

Survival data, Cox PH Model, Bayesian approach, Gibbs sampler

**Leo Alexander T**

Loyola College, Chennai

**Pari Dayal L**

DRBCCC Hindu College, Chennai

**Ponnuraja C**

NIRT(ICMR), Chennai

**Venkatesan P**

NIRT(ICMR), Chennai

**ABSTRACT** Survival analysis has become a standard tool for modeling cancer trial data when the event of interest is "time to event". Cox regression, which implements the proportional hazards model, is designed for analysis of time until an event or time between events, introduced by Cox (1972) in order to estimate the effects of different covariates influencing the time-to-event data. This model has been used extensively in time to event of cancer trial data for given categorical predictor variables. The Bayesian analysis has advantageous in dealing with small sample of censored data more than a frequentist method. The main objective of this article is to apply a Bayesian Cox model and is being compared with a frequentist method. Gibbs sampling technique is used to assess the posterior quantities of interest and to avoid the complexity in calculations. The posterior is arrived using SAS package.

## INTRODUCTION

In many cancer trials, the applications of proportional hazards model is often a more realistic model than the other survival models in the analysis of time to event data. The Cox proportional hazards model constructs an analytical model for time-to-event breast cancer data. The model produces a survival function that predicts the probability that the event of interest has occurred at a given time  $t$  for given values of the predictor variables. The predictors are in nature of categorical type, shape of the survival function and the regression coefficients for the predictors are estimated from observed subjects.

To describe the distribution of survival time has assumed that the hazard function is completely specified given the baseline hazard function and the values of the covariates. In cancer studies, there may be factors other than the measured covariates that significantly affect the distribution of survival time. This condition is often referred to as heterogeneity of the subjects. Among the early papers of Vaupel, Manton and Stallard (1979) who used the concept of to describe the differences in survival time apparently among similar individuals. Hougaard (1995) presented an overview of the models, proposed for the use in time to event data. Aalen (1994) also provides a relatively non-technical summary with a focus on fully parametric models. Klein and Moeschberger (1997) presented methods based on incorporating in proportional hazards models and its technical details.

There are two approaches to a Bayesian analysis of the Cox Proportional Hazards Model (PHM). This is based on the partial likelihood  $L(\beta; \mathbf{y})$  combined with a prior  $\pi(\beta)$  which produces the posterior  $\pi(\beta|\mathbf{y})$ . The baseline hazard is left unspecified. Inference is made from samples drawn from  $\pi(\beta|\mathbf{y})$ . Thus the partial likelihood is treated as a likelihood function just as in the classical analysis. The basic idea of a model is to incorporate a comparison between Bayesian Cox PHM with non Bayesian approach of Cox PHM.

which may be re-expressed as

$$h(t) = h_0(t) \exp(\beta x_{ij}) \quad (1)$$

$$h(t) = h_0(t) \exp(\beta x_{ij} + \eta_i), \quad (2)$$

Using the relationship between the survival and hazard function, it has the conditional survival function as

$$S(t) = \text{Exp}[\Lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta x_{ij})] \quad (3)$$

and the conditional likelihood as

$$L(\gamma, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^I \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} (h(t_{ij})^{\delta_{ij}} S(t_{ij})) \quad (4)$$

where there are  $i$  clusters,  $i^{\text{th}}$  one being of size  $n_i$  and  $g$  and  $b$  represent baseline hazard and regression parameters, respectively. On substitution it gives

$$\begin{aligned} L(\gamma, \beta) &= \prod_{i=1}^I \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} \left[ (h_0(t) \exp(\beta X_{ij}))^{\delta_{ij}} \exp[-\Lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta X_{ij})] \right] \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^I \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} \left( \frac{\phi}{\Phi} \right)^{\delta_{ij}} \prod_{i=1}^I \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\Phi} \Phi\right)^{\delta_{ij}} \end{aligned}$$

where,

$$\phi = \exp(\beta^T X_i) \exp(\alpha^T W_{ij}) \tau_i^{r-1}$$

$$\Phi = \exp(\beta^T X_i) \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \exp(\alpha^T W_{ij}) \tau_i^r = \exp(\beta^T X_i) e_i \quad (5)$$

In the Bayesian point of view, the variance "t", would be expressed as a hyperparameter and prior knowledge concerning its value which will be summarized in a hyper prior distribution.

## GIBBS SAMPLER ALGORITHM

The Gibbs sampler technique is one of the best known MCMC sampling algorithms in the Bayesian computational methods. The Gibbs sampler by Grenander (1983),

the prescribed term is introduced by Geman and Geman (1984). Gibbs sampling is the landmark in problem of Bayesian inference (Gelfand and Smith, 1991). The Gibbs sampler tutorial is provided by Casella and George (1992).

Let  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_p)$  be a p-dimensional vector of parameters and let  $\pi(\theta|D)$  be its posterior distribution given the data D. Then, the fundamental format of the Gibbs sampler is given as

**Step 1. Select an arbitrary starting point**

$$\theta_0 = (\theta_{1,0}, \theta_{2,0}, \dots, \theta_{p,0}) \text{ and set } i = 0$$

**Step 2. Generate  $\theta_{i+1} = (\theta_{1,i+1}, \theta_{2,i+1}, \dots, \theta_{p,i+1})$**

- Generate  $\theta_{1,i+1} \sim \pi(\theta_1 | \theta_{2,i}, \dots, \theta_{p,i}, D)$ ;
- Generate  $\theta_{2,i+1} \sim \pi(\theta_2 | \theta_{1,i+1}, \theta_{3,i}, \dots, \theta_{p,i}, D)$ ;
- ... ..
- Generate  $\theta_{p,i+1} \sim \pi(\theta_p | \theta_{1,i+1}, \theta_{2,i+1}, \dots, \theta_{p-1,i+1}, D)$ ;

**Step 3. Set  $i = i + 1$ , and go to step 2**

Each component of  $\theta$  is in the natural order and a cycle in this scheme requires generation of p random variates. Gelfand and Smith (1990) show that under certain regularity conditions, the vector sequence  $\{\theta_i, i=1,2,\dots\}$  has a stationary distribution  $\pi(\theta|D)$ . The performance of a Metropolis-Hastings algorithm depends on the choice of a proposal density q. The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm can be used within the Gibbs sampler when direct sampling from the full conditional posterior is difficult.

**PRIOR**

Prior elicitation perhaps plays the most crucial role in Bayesian inference. Survival analysis with covariates, the most popular choice of informative prior for b is the normal prior, and the most common choice of non-informative prior for b is the uniform prior. The non-informative and improper priors may be useful and easier to specify for certain problems, but they cannot be used in all applications, such as model selection or model comparison, as it is well known that proper priors are required to compute Bayes factors and posterior model probabilities (Ibrahim, et al., 2004). Also non-informative priors may cause instability in the posterior estimates and lead to convergence problems for the Gibbs sampler. Moreover, non-informative prior do not make use of real prior information that one may use for a specific application.

**APPLICATION**

We consider the database consisting of 368 breast cancer women patients diagnosed at Cancer Institute (WIA), Chennai, India and follow-up period up to 180 months, represented by the variable Time. The event of interest was time to death in months. A censoring indicator variable, Status, is created from the data, with the value 0 indicating a censored time and the value 1 indicating an event time.

Overall 187(51%) cases have experienced the event and 63% of 130 are of stage 3B cases.

The demographic and disease characteristics of the patients are given in table 1

**Table 1: Classification of death according to Stages and Age group**

Status	Stages			Age groups	
	Stage2B N (%)	Stage3A N (%)	Stage3B N (%)	Age <50 years N (%)	Age > 50 years N (%)
Alive	61 (55)	72 (56)	48 (37)	115 (53)	66 (44)
Dead	49 (45)	56 (44)	82 (63)	103 (47)	84 (56)
Total	110	128	130	218	150

From the table1, we see that death increases with the severity of stages and age. The event experienced cases among age group in more than 50 years is higher than the less than 50 years (Pari Dayal et al., 2013). The linear predictor is set equal to the intercept in the reference group (stage = 3); this defines the baseline hazard. The corresponding distribution of survival time is Gamma distribution (Cox and Oakes, 1984).

The Cox model with a parameter for each individual is using for identifying the risk variables for breast cancer patients. Here, the age and stages are considered as risk factors of categorical predictor variables. We analyzed the data assuming a Weibull distribution for the survivor function, and including random effect  $(b_i)$  for each patient. The hazard model is as follows

$$t_i \sim \text{Weibull}(r, \mu_i) \quad i = 1, \dots, 368$$

$$\ln \mu_i = \alpha + \beta_{age1} \text{AGE}_{i1} + \beta_{age2} \text{AGE}_{i2} + \beta_{stage1} \text{STAGE}_{i1} + \beta_{stage2} \text{STAGE}_{i2} + \beta_{stage3} \text{STAGE}_{i3} + b_i$$

$$b_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, \tau)$$

where  $\text{AGE}_j$  has two levels (Age <50yrs(=1 as reference) and Age>50yrs), and stage has 3-level of categorical predictor covariates (stage2B = 1(as reference), stage 3A = 2 and stage 3B = 3)  $\text{STAGE}_k$  (k=1,2,3) are dummy variables representing the 3-level factor for underlying stage.

**Cox Proportion Hazards regression**

The Cox proportional hazards model to these data, variables age group and stages, which are categorical variables, are also take part as stratified aspects. By default, they categorized by using the reference coding with the last category as the reference category. However, it can explicitly specify the reference category of our own preference. Here, Age Group(less than 50 years=0) is chosen as the reference category for age, stage (stage2B=1) is chosen as the reference category for stages of cancer. Coded variables are resulted (table below "Class Level Information") with the reference coding has zero and the rest are having one for all variables. Since age group variable is binary, the variable has a value of 0 for the reference category. The variable stage has three categories and is represented by two dummy variables.

Class Level Information				
Class	Value	Design Variables		
Age group	0	0		Reference
	1	1		
stage	1	0	0	Reference
	2	1	0	
	3	0	1	

The test results of individual model effects are shown in table2. There is a strong prognostic effect of stages on patient's survivorship (p0.0007), and the survival times for patients of different age groups play a role other way that it differ non significantly (0.4083). In the Cox proportional

hazards model, the effects of the covariates are to act multiplicatively on the hazard of the survival time, and therefore it is a little easier to interpret the corresponding hazard ratios than the regression parameters. For a categorical variable parameter, the hazard ratio is the ratio of the hazard rates between the given category and the reference

category. The hazard rate of age group of less than 50 years is 1.137 times more that of Age Group more than 50 years, the hazard rate of stage of 3A is 0.951 times more that of stage2B, and the hazard rate of stage3B is 1.715 times more that of stage2B. Moreover there is evidence that the stage influences the event of interest.

**Table2: Cox PH Model: Parameters Estimates with Reference Coding**

Parameter	levels	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	P	Hazard Ratio	Wald ChiSq	P
age group	1	0.12805	0.15485	0.6838	0.4083	1.137	0.68	0.4083
stage3A	2	-0.05045	0.19651	0.0659	0.7974	0.951	14.45	0.0007
stage3B	3	0.53946	0.18359	8.634	0.0033	1.715		
-2LL	2027.348							

The further illustrate the use of the backward elimination process to identify the effects that affect the survivorship of the breast cancer patients. It is specified to carry out the backward elimination which specifies the significant level for retaining the effects in the model. Hence, it results of the backward elimination process that it retained the stage and eliminated the age group subsequently.

This analysis generates a posterior chain of 10,000 iterations after 2,000 iterations of burn-in and it also displayed the names of the parameters and their corresponding effects and categories. Further it computes the maximum likelihood estimates of regression parameters are depicted in table3. These estimates are used as the starting values for the simulation of posterior samples.

**Bayesian Cox Proportion Hazards Regression**

Cox Proportion Hazards Regression uses the partial likelihood of the Cox model as the likelihood and generates a chain of posterior distribution samples by the Gibbs Sampler.

**Table3: Maximum Likelihood Estimates**

Parameter	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	95% Confidence Limits	
a1	1	0.128	0.1549	-0.1755	0.4315
sta2	1	-0.0503	0.1965	-0.4354	0.3349
sta3	1	0.5394	0.1836	0.1796	0.8993
Theta	1	0.0001	.	.	.

The Bayesian Cox PH model invokes the Bayesian analysis with generating samples by Gibbs sampler to maintain reproducibility to accumulate the posterior distribution samples using the data. By default, a uniform prior distribution is assumed on the regression coefficient Group. The uniform prior is a flat prior on the real line with a distribution that reflects ignorance of the location of the parameter, placing equal probability on all possible values the regression coefficient can take. Using the uniform prior, it would expect the Bayesian estimates to resemble the classical results of maximizing the likelihood (see: Table2). It should make sure that the posterior distribution samples have achieved convergence before using them for Bayesian inference.

Summary statistics, convergence diagnostics, and diagnostic plots are provided for each parameter of categorical predictors. Summary statistics of the posterior samples are shown in Table5. These results are quite comparable to the classical results based on maximizing the likelihood as shown in Table3, since the prior distribution for the regression coefficients is relatively flat. The table4 results the initial values of the chain on each parameters.

**Table4: Initial Values of the Chain on each Parameter**

age1	0.128	id41	-0.612	id84	-0.665	id127	0.2283	id170	0.381	id213	-1.0411	id256	-0.901	id299	0.596	id342	-0.586
sta2	-0.027	id42	-1.249	id85	0.169	id128	0.1209	id171	-0.556	id214	0.4951	id257	-0.119	id300	0.252	id343	-1.098
sta3	0.764	id43	0.038	id86	-0.769	id129	0.5169	id172	-0.242	id215	-0.0492	id258	-0.248	id301	-0.617	id344	0.3766
id1	-0.617	id44	-0.807	id87	-1.226	id130	0.5959	id173	0.215	id216	0.3108	id259	0.495	id302	0.449	id345	-0.436
id2	-0.358	id45	0.657	id88	-1.159	id131	-1.0134	id174	0.618	id217	0.2797	id260	-0.574	id303	-0.617	id346	-0.17
id3	-0.258	id46	-0.752	id89	0.331	id132	0.3665	id175	-0.617	id218	0.5675	id261	0.451	id304	0.115	id347	0.2285
id4	0.088	id47	-0.689	id90	-0.491	id133	-0.4832	id176	-0.798	id219	0.6271	id262	-1.126	id305	-0.361	id348	0.5914
id5	-0.807	id48	0.537	id91	-0.673	id134	-1.3184	id177	-0.501	id220	0.3665	id263	0.419	id306	0.01	id349	0.3008
id6	0.21	id49	-0.059	id92	-0.441	id135	-0.9173	id178	-0.65	id221	-0.6051	id264	0.572	id307	0.464	id350	-0.496
id7	-0.65	id50	-0.689	id93	0.539	id136	-0.5308	id179	0.637	id222	0.2683	id265	0.677	id308	-1.226	id351	0.3046
id8	0.513	id51	-1.226	id94	0.104	id137	-0.0147	id180	0.533	id223	0.4812	id266	-0.032	id309	0.667	id352	-0.59
id9	0.669	id52	0.524	id95	-0.66	id138	-0.5777	id181	0.056	id224	-0.6051	id267	0.173	id310	0.661	id353	0.6093
id10	0.646	id53	-0.496	id96	0.596	id139	-0.405	id182	-1.087	id225	0.3792	id268	0.077	id311	-1.085	id354	-0.952

id11	0.34	id54	0.575	id97	-0.628	id140	-0.6375	id183	-0.65	id226	0.2173	id269	-0.501	id312	-0.605	id355	-0.98
id12	-0.723	id55	0.252	id98	0.304	id141	0.4011	id184	-0.605	id227	-0.6596	id270	0.461	id313	-0.59	id356	0.1387
id13	0.532	id56	0.485	id99	0.66	id142	0.3313	id185	0.669	id228	0.4011	id271	0.404	id314	0.3	id357	0.5319
id14	-0.655	id57	0.49	id100	-0.057	id143	-0.8499	id186	0.401	id229	0.367	id272	0.683	id315	-1.041	id358	-0.578
id15	-0.738	id58	0.661	id101	0.313	id144	-0.5308	id187	-0.188	id230	0.1708	id273	-0.557	id316	0.168	id359	0.5563
id16	-0.425	id59	-0.617	id102	-0.604	id145	0.1013	id188	-0.617	id231	-0.6051	id274	0.505	id317	0.455	id360	0.4011
id17	0.422	id60	-0.47	id103	-0.605	id146	-0.6503	id189	-0.013	id232	0.6683	id275	-0.59	id318	0.688	id361	-0.578
id18	0.481	id61	0.199	id104	-0.066	id147	-0.0093	id190	-0.638	id233	0.5236	id276	-0.063	id319	0.208	id362	0.464
id19	0.048	id62	0.641	id105	0.449	id148	-0.6174	id191	-0.003	id234	0.4812	id277	0.558	id320	-0.59	id363	0.4554
id20	-0.162	id63	0.173	id106	0.641	id149	-0.6596	id192	-0.605	id235	0.6107	id278	-0.476	id321	0.309	id364	0.451
id21	-1.052	id64	0.388	id107	0.49	id150	0.5279	id193	0.519	id236	0.4701	id279	-0.441	id322	0.539	id365	0.5964
id22	-0.119	id65	-0.104	id108	0.574	id151	-0.6785	id194	0.439	id237	-0.5672	id280	0.37	id323	-1.027	id366	-0.501
id23	-0.46	id66	-0.665	id109	0.455	id152	0.6242	id195	0.197	id238	-0.6503	id281	-1.041	id324	-0.655	id367	-0.189
id24	-0.127	id67	-0.48	id110	0.502	id153	0.6683	id196	-0.119	id239	0.123	id282	-0.027	id325	0.595	id368	0.5737
id25	-1.013	id68	-0.605	id111	-1.159	id154	-0.6728	id197	-0.154	id240	0.0557	id283	0.578	id326	-0.655	Theta	1
id26	-1.226	id69	-0.566	id112	0.059	id155	-1.174	id198	0.171	id241	0.0889	id284	-0.617	id327	-0.625		
id27	0.575	id70	0.296	id113	-1.249	id156	-0.6728	id199	-0.638	id242	0.401	id285	-0.617	id328	0.62		
id28	-0.752	id71	0.668	id114	-0.66	id157	-0.6051	id200	0.016	id243	-0.3692	id286	-0.697	id329	-0.784		
id29	-0.137	id72	-0.703	id115	-0.679	id158	-0.6375	id201	0.49	id244	-0.5777	id287	0.296	id330	-0.578		
id30	-1.318	id73	0.179	id116	-0.752	id159	-0.0241	id202	-0.617	id245	0.4038	id288	0.636	id331	-0.607		
id31	0.301	id74	0.086	id117	-1.118	id160	-0.5556	id203	0.524	id246	-0.6074	id289	-1.002	id332	-1.002		
id32	-0.807	id75	-0.66	id118	-0.605	id161	-0.7136	id204	0.383	id247	-0.6051	id290	-0.665	id333	0.102		
id33	0.539	id76	0.237	id119	0.687	id162	-0.2241	id205	0.377	id248	-0.6653	id291	-0.567	id334	-0.455		
id34	0.388	id77	-0.607	id120	-0.97	id163	-0.6247	id206	-1.052	id249	0.3716	id292	-0.556	id335	-0.258		
id35	0.126	id78	0.252	id121	-0.722	id164	0.6076	id207	0.048	id250	-0.0159	id293	-0.655	id336	-0.129		
id36	-1.226	id79	-0.755	id122	-0.251	id165	-0.5556	id208	0.629	id251	0.4384	id294	-0.605	id337	0.484		
id37	-0.466	id80	-0.48	id123	0.142	id166	-0.3926	id209	0.188	id252	-0.6051	id295	-0.011	id338	0.137		
id38	-0.807	id81	-0.531	id124	-0.582	id167	0.2131	id210	-0.554	id253	0.691	id296	0.29	id339	0.381		
id39	-0.752	id82	-0.574	id125	-0.7	id168	-0.1541	id211	-1.041	id254	0.264	id297	-1.126	id340	-0.003		
id40	-0.612	id83	-1.002	id126	-0.703	id169	0.1512	id212	-0.605	id255	-0.5952	id298	0.288	id341	0.449		

With autocorrelations retreating quickly to 0 and large effective sample sizes (Table5) (both diagnostics indicate a reasonably good mixing of the Markov chain.

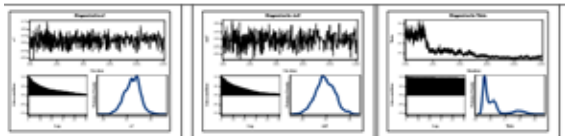
**Table5: Posterior Summaries and Intervals, Posterior Autocorrelations and Effective Sample Sizes**

Param	N	Mean	SD	95% HPD Interval						ESS	Time	Efficiency
						Lag 1	Lag 5	Lag 10	Lag 50			
Age>50	10000	0.107	0.160	-0.204	0.423	0.939	0.741	0.550	0.079	265	37.67	0.026
Stage3A	10000	-0.027	0.201	-0.431	0.359	0.950	0.776	0.608	0.0924	248	40.27	0.024
stage3B	10000	0.609	0.195	0.2383	1	0.943	0.75	0.568	0.0506	245	40.84	0.024
id2	10000	-0.081	0.33	-0.791	0.5	0.907	0.62	0.395	0.0297	393	25.46	0.039
id4	10000	-0.040	0.280	-0.545	0.574	0.955	0.800	0.646	0.2458	92	108.7	0.009
Theta	10000	0.115	0.081	0.0417	0.31	0.984	0.979	0.976	0.9473	22	455.4	0.002

Trace, autocorrelation and density plots are produced for each of the four parameters  $\theta$  in figure1 also confirm the convergence of the Markov chain. It is imperative that these are examined before any conclusions are drawn from

the simulated posterior samples. The results shown on the table6 are almost perfect. The trace plot show excellent mixing, the autocorrelation decreases to near zero, and the density is bell-shaped. The trace plots are centered near

their respective posterior mean and later the posterior space with small fluctuations. For the theta which corresponds to the all group, the trace plot is centered near the posterior mean. Samples in both tails are covered. These results exhibit convergence of the Markov chain to its stationary distribution.



**Figure1: Confirmation of convergence by Trace, autocorrelation and density plots**

The first hazard ratio table compares the hazards between the age group less than 50 years and more than 50 years. Summaries of the posterior distribution of the correspond-

**Table6: Hazard Ratios for age group**

Description	N	Mean	SD	Percentiles /Quantiles			Posterior Intervals			
				25%	50%	75%	95% Equal-Tail Interval		95% HPD Interval	
Age<50 vs >50	10000	0.9099	0.149	0.802	0.893	1.001	0.655	1.244	0.644	1.215
Hazard Ratios for stage										
sta 1 vs 2	10000	1.0485	0.2138	0.889	1.035	1.174	0.694	1.538	0.631	1.448
sta 1 vs 3	10000	0.554	0.1085	0.477	0.547	0.623	0.369	0.795	0.359	0.771
sta 2 vs 3	10000	0.5383	0.1011	0.464	0.529	0.594	0.371	0.767	0.349	0.729

**Discussion**

Bayesian Cox PH model proposed to fit flexible survival models for non-informative censored breast cancer data. Using SAS University Edition Virtual Application Software, we presented the comparable results as compared with the results of the seminal paper (Pari Dayal et al. 2013). Draw information based on different types of deviance criteria along with various additional supportive measures. The results which are presented in this paper followed the same trend and in fact it showed the reality. Results in all tables and all visual approximate estimates which are presented in this paper are consistent. The DIC is a suitable device to draw conclusions. Before drawing inferences from the posterior sample, we should examine the trace, autocorrelation and density plots for each parameter to be content that the underlying chain has converged. The plots for the two parameters shown the mixing in the chain is acceptable, although we notice long correlation times. The hazard ratio statement delivers the Bayes solution corresponding to the previous classical analysis in Table 2.

ing hazard ratio are shown in Table 6. There is a 95% chance that the hazard ratio of the age group less than 50 years and more than 50 years lies between 0.655 and 1.244. The second hazard ratio tables for three types of combinations with three different pairs of stages are being compared. Assesses the change of hazards for each pairs of stages and compares the stage2A vs Stage3A, stage2A vs Stage3B and stage3A vs Stage3B. Hazards ratio for Stage2A vs Stage3A lies between 0.694 and 1.538, hazards ratio for stage2A vs Stage3B lies between 0.369 and 0.795. Similarly the hazards ratio for stage3A vs Stage3B lies between 0.371 and 0.767. Also it reports the simple statistics, percentiles, credible intervals, and high probability density (HPD) intervals for each of the parameters based on the posterior sample of 10000. Because the priors used are non-informative, the mean, standard deviation and credible interval should be fairly close to the corresponding maximum likelihood estimates (estimate, standard error, 95% CI)

These results we can also use post sample to assess the posterior probability that the HR for age vs stage after the event of interest is <1. The probability is over 99%.

However, an enormous statistical knowledge is required for it to be used correctly. This approach provides an alternative validation that could be used to confirm results of 'frequentist' approach. Bayesian inference has a number of advantages over the frequentist approaches, mostly in the flexibility of model-building for time to event breast cancer survival data. In addition, for many models, 'frequentist' inference can be obtained as a special case of Bayesian inference with the use of non-informative priors (Ibrahim et al., 2001). The Bayesian approach enables us to formulate accurate inference based on the posterior distribution for any sample size, whereas the 'frequentist' approach relies heavily on the large sample approximation. The most important concern is that there is a risk involved in the erroneous usage of the Bayesian methods which could lead to improper data analysis

**REFERENCE**

1. Aalen O. O. (1994). Effects of frailty in Survival Analysis. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research*, 3, 227-43. | 2. Casella, G., and George, E.I. (1992). Explaining the Gibbs sampler. *The American Statistician*, 46, 167-74. | 3. Chib, S. and Greenberg, E. (1995), "Understanding the Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm," *American Statistician*, 49, 327-335. | 4. Cox, D.R. (1972). Regression model and life tables (with discussion). *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society(B)*, 34, 187-220. | 5. Cox, D.R and Oakes, D. (1984). *Analysis of Survival Data*. London Chapman and Hall. | 6. Gelfand, A.E., and Smith, A.F.M. (1990). Sampling-based approaches to calculating marginal densities. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 85, 398-409. | 7. Gelfand, A.E., and Smith, A.F.M. (1991). Gibbs sampling for marginal posterior expectations, *Communications in Statistics, A*, 20, 1747-66. | 8. Geman, S and Geman, D. (1984). Stochastic relaxation, Gibbs distributions, and the Bayesian restoration of images. *IEEE Transactions on pattern analysis and Matching Intelligence*, 6, 721-41. | 9. Grenander, U. (1983). *Tutorial in pattern theory*. Technical Report. Providence, R.I: Division of Applied Mathematics, Brown University. | 10. Ibrahim, G. J., Chen, M-H., and Sinha, D. (2001). *Bayesian Survival Analysis*. New York, Springer. | 11. Ibrahim, G. J., Chen, M-H., and Sinha, D. (2004). Bayesian methods for joint modeling of longitudinal and survival data with applications to cancer vaccine trials. *Statistica Sinica*, 14, 863-83. | 12. Pari Dayal L, Leo Alexander T, Ponnuraja C, and Venkatesan P. Modelling of breast cancer survival data: A frailty model approach. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, 2013, 3(10), 22-24 |