



**INFERENTIAL PROCEDURES FOR THE GENERALIZED  
EXPONENTIAL MODEL HAVING COVARIATE, WITH RIGHT AND  
INTERVAL CENSORED DATA**

**By**

**ALHARBI NADA MOHAMMEDSAEED M**

**Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia,  
in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**May 2023**

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## DEDICATIONS

*To my loving parents for their unconditional love.  
To my siblings for their understanding, affection, prayers and wholeheartedness.  
To my husband and my kids.  
To all of my love*



Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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**May 2023**

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Institute: Institute for Mathematical Research**

In literature, there are various studies that incorporate censoring mechanisms to the generalized exponential model (GEM). This research aims to analyse generalized exponential models in the presence of right and interval-censored data with fixed covariates. The analysis starts with the extension of the GEM to incorporate fixed covariates in the presence of right and interval censored data. Parameters of the models under both censoring were estimated using the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method. The performance of these estimates were assessed at various sample sizes ( $n$ ) and censoring proportion ( $cp$ ) via the bias, standard error (SE) and root mean square error (RMSE). Next the model was extended to incorporate interval censored data with covariate. The performance of the MLE using the midpoint, right, left, random imputations were compared at various sample sizes and censoring proportions via a simulation study.

In addition, three asymptotic confidence interval procedures which included Wald, likelihood ratio, and score confidence intervals procedures were investigated through a coverage probability study when the data were both right and interval censored at various  $n$  and  $cp$ . Then, five alternative confidence intervals procedures, which included the jackknife, bootstrap-normal, bootstrap-t, bootstrap-p, bias correction acceleration bootstrap procedures were studied via a coverage probability study. This simulation study showed that overall, the Wald asymptotic and bootstrap normal alternative confidence intervals methods are recommended as a suitable inferential to estimate the parameters of the model using different sample sizes, interval length and censoring proportions.

In summary, the simulation studies for each category indicate that the bias, standard error, and root mean square error are large when the  $cp$  is high, which indicates that the estimators perform better when the sample size is large, and the  $cp$  is low. Furthermore, the performance of the asymptotic confidence interval estimate indicates that the Wald confidence interval for the parameter  $\beta_1$  in the generalized exponential model, under both right and interval censoring, represent the most effective approach. In comparison to alternative confidence intervals, the bootstrap normal (b-n) method yields results significantly closer to the nominal error probability for parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ .

Finally, to further support the findings of the simulation studies, we employ two real datasets with right and interval-censored data from lung and breast cancer datasets, respectively. The first dataset is an interval censored data from a breast cancer study with age as the covariate. The second dataset consists of right censored lung cancer data with age as the covariate. The results indicated that the GEM was a better fit for both datasets compared to the exponential distribution. The confidence interval estimation techniques were obtained for the covariate parameter of both models. Additionally, the findings of the real data indicate that the Wald method for the covariate  $\beta_1$  is significant within the context of the lung cancer data. For the breast cancer data with age as the covariate, the bootstrap normal, bootstrap-t, BCa and the jackknife have a similar confidence interval for  $\mu$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ . The results indicate that the generalized exponential model outperforms the submodel based on the exponential distribution.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk ijazah Doktor Falsafah

**PROSEDUR INFERENSI BAGI MODEL EKSPONEN TERITLAK  
MEMPUNYAI KOVARIAT, DENGAN DATA TERTAPIS KE KANAN DAN  
SELANG TERTAPIS**

Oleh

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Dalam tinjauan literatur, terdapat pelbagai kajian yang menggabungkan mekanisma tapisan kepada taburan eksponen umum. Penyelidikan ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis model eksponen teritlak terhadap kehadiran data tertapis kanan dan selang dengan kovariat tetap. Analisis dimulakan dengan melanjutkan model eksponen teritlak bagi menggabungkan kovariat tetap dengan kehadiran data tertapis kanan. Parameter bagi model bagi tertapis kanan dianggar dengan menggunakan kaedah anggaran kebolehdajian maksimum (MLE). Prestasi anggaran ini dinilai pada pelbagai saiz sampel ( $n$ ) dan kadaran data tertapis ( $cp$ ) melalui pincang, ralat piawai (SE) dan punca min ralat kuasa dua (RMSE). Seterusnya, model tersebut dilanjutkan bagi menggabungkan data tertapis selang dengan kehadiran kovariat. Prestasi MLE yang menggunakan imputasi titik tengah, kanan, kiri, rawak dibandingkan pada pelbagai saiz sampel dan kadaran data tertapis menerusi kajian simulasi.

Di samping itu, tiga prosedur selang keyakinan asimptotik termasuk Wald, nisbah kebolehdajian dan prosedur selang keyakinan skor disiasat menerusi kajian kebarangkalian liputan apabila data tertapis secara kanan dan selang pada pelbagai  $n$  dan  $cp$ . Seterusnya, lima prosedur selang keyakinan alternatif, iaitu prosedur selang keyakinan *jackknife*, *bootstrap – normal*, *bootstrap – t*, *bootstrap – p*, dan *bootstrap* pembetulan kepincangan telah dikaji menerusi kajian kebarangkalian liputan. Hasil kajian simulasi ini menunjukkan bahawa secara keseluruhan, selang keyakinan Wald dan selang keyakinan bootstrap-normal disyorkan sebagai inferensi yang sesuai untuk menganggar parameter model menggunakan sampel saiz, panjang selang dan kadaran tertapis yang berbeza.

Secara ringkasnya, kajian simulasi untuk setiap kategori menunjukkan bahawa pin-cang, ralat piawai, dan punca ralat kuasa dua adalah besar apabila  $cp$  adalah tinggi, yang menunjukkan bahawa penganggar berfungsi lebih baik apabila saiz sampel besar, dan  $cp$  adalah rendah. Selain itu, prestasi anggaran selang keyakinan asimptotik menunjukkan bahawa selang keyakinan Wald untuk parameter  $\beta_1$  dalam model eksponen teritlak, di bawah kedua-dua tapisan kanan dan selang, mewakili pendekatan yang paling berkesan. Berbanding dengan selang keyakinan alternatif, kaedah bootstrap normal (b-n) memberikan hasil yang lebih hampir secara signifikan dengan kebarangkalian ralat nominal untuk parameter  $\beta_0$  dan  $\beta_1$ .

Akhirnya, untuk menyokong penemuan kajian simulasi ini, kami menggunakan dua set data tertapis kanan dan selang sebenar kanser paru-paru dan kanser payudara, masing-masing. Set data pertama adalah data yang tertapis selang dari kajian kanser payudara dengan usia sebagai pembolehubah kovariat. Set data kedua terdiri daripada data kanser paru-paru yang tertapis kanan dengan usia sebagai pembolehubah kovariat. Keputusan menunjukkan bahawa GEM adalah lebih padan untuk kedua-dua set data berbanding dengan taburan eksponen. Teknik penentuan selang keyakinan diperoleh untuk parameter kovariat kedua-dua model. Selain itu, penemuan data sebenar menunjukkan bahawa kaedah Wald untuk kovariat  $\beta_1$  adalah signifikan dalam konteks data kanser paru-paru. Bagi data kanser payudara dengan usia sebagai kovariat, penganggaran selang keyakinan yang diperolehi adalah hampir sama untuk  $\mu$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta_0$  dan  $\beta_1$  menggunakan kaedah bootstrap normal, *bootstrap-t*, *BCa*, dan *jackknife*. Hasil menunjukkan bahawa model eksponen teritlak adalah lebih baik berbanding submodel berdasarkan taburan eksponen.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Anti-Conservative
AS	Asymmetrical
AFT	Accelerated failure time
C	Conservative
CI	Confidence Interval
Cp	Censoring proportion
CDF	Cumulative distribution function
DIC	Doubly interval-Censored
EO	Exactly Observed
GE	Generalized Exponential
GEMR	Generalized Exponential Model with
RCDFC	Right-Censored Data and Fixed Covariate
GEMI	Generalized Exponential Model with
ICDFC	Interval-Censored Data and Fixed Covariate
GEMDIC	Generalized exponential with
DICD	Doubly Interval-Censored Data
GEM	Generalized Exponential Model
IC	Interval-Censored
ICDT	Interval-censored and doubly truncated
IME	Inverse moment estimators
LC	Left-Censored
MLE	Maximum likelihood estimate
$n$	Sample size
LR	Likelihood ratio
JK	Jackknife

n-b	Normal bootstrap
b-t	Bootstrap-t
b-p	Percentile bootstrap
BCa	Bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap
pdf	Probability distribution function
SE	Standard error
SCIs	Simultaneous Confidence Intervals
RMSE	Root Mean Square Error
RC	Right-Censored
$t$	Time
TD	Time Dependent
MCMC	Markov chain Monte Carlo
MOIPL	Marshall-Olkin inverse power Lomax
BLUEs	Best linear unbiased estimates

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Survival Analysis

Survival analysis is described as a collection of statistical methods used for a dataset, which is estimated using a well-defined time variable denoted as  $T$  until the occurrence of a specific event for an individual or observation. In survival studies, the time variable  $T$  is a non-negative continuous or discrete variable representing failure, duration, or survival time. According to Kleinbaum and Klein (2012) this period is usually measured in days, weeks, months, or years from the time the individual joins the study until the occurrence of significance, such as death, recurrence, or disease incidence, occurs. Lawless (2011) pointed out that the time variable needs a well-defined reference point that refers to as the time origin;  $t = 0$ ; the starting time from which the individual's survival is measured, which means results in the incidence of the event of interest and, eventually, a reason for the observation time to be ended.

Kalbfleisch and Prentice (2011) emphasized that, in any survival study, the investigator should verify the starting point and the study endpoint. In other words, survival analysis can be described as the study of time-dependent data sets i.e., time to failure of a mechanical or physical component from time of installation in a particular machine or time to death for a patient diagnosed with leukemia. So also, survival analysis equally plays an essential role in industrial or reliability studies, although the methodologies involved are most commonly used in the biomedical field (Jennison and Turnbull, 1999). The aim of clinical research is often to identify and estimate the survival distribution of time  $T$ , by estimating the probability that an individual survives from a specified time  $t$  or beyond (Kleinbaum and Klein, 2012). Mathematically, the survival of these patients can be expressed as a function  $S(t) = Pr(T \geq t)$ . Due to the instantaneous risk at failure time  $t$ , the conditional probability of dying given that patients have survived up to time  $t$  can be obtained using the hazard function,  $h(t)$ . Furthermore, because some individuals may be diagnosed with a disease, for instance lung cancer disease, at random time points after the study begins, a straightforward method is to shift the start time to the time origin,  $t = 0$  (Klein and Moeschberger, 2006).

The presence of incomplete observation of the survival times due to censoring and truncation mechanisms is another unique feature of survival data. If censoring is present in a survival study, the exact survival time or time to failure of a randomly selected individuals remains unknown to the researcher. For instance, in the cancer study discussed earlier, some individuals may have survived death even after the end of the study.

Therefore, the exact death time for these individuals will be unknown, because these times are longer than the end time point of the study. Additionally, some of these individuals maybe sampled from a medical registry records due to cost or time constraints. The observation times of these individuals might be truncated due to a selection mechanism applied to select only individuals who are free from failure into the study. If no assumptions are made on the distribution of  $T$ , a non-parametric method can be applied to estimate the survival probabilities of the observations in the study. The non-parametric methods that are most commonly used are the Kaplan-Meier and the Nelson Aalen estimators. Also, a semi-parametric model known as Cox's proportional hazard model or parametric regression models can be applied (Mitra, 2013).

## 1.2 Basic Formulation in Survival Analysis

Survival time,  $T$ , is a non-negative random variable which has a continuous distribution function. The survival, hazard, and cumulative hazard function can be defined as follows:

### 1.2.1 Survival Function

The essential quantity employed to describe failure time phenomena is the survival function, the probability of an individual survives beyond time  $t$ . It is defined as,

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

where  $F(t)$  is the cumulative distribution function (CDF). Meanwhile, the survival function is given by,

$$S(t) = Pr(T \geq t) = \int_t^{\infty} f(u)du,$$

thus,

$$f(t) = -\frac{dS(t)}{dt},$$

where  $f(t)$  is the probability distribution function (pdf) for the random variable  $T$ .

The survival function is fundamental to a survival analysis because obtaining survival probabilities for different values of  $t$  provides crucial summary information from survival data (Kleinbaum et al., 2012). As  $t$  ranges from 0 to  $\infty$ , the survival function has the following properties:

- For  $t = 0$  :

$$S(0) = \int_0^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$$

- For  $t = \infty$  :

$$S(\infty) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} S(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_t^{\infty} f(x)dx = 0$$



- $S(t)$  is a decreasing continuous function.

### 1.2.2 Hazard Function

The hazard function of  $T$  is also fundamental in survival analysis. Hazard function is also known as the conditional failure rate in reliability and can be defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} h(t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} P(t \leq T < t + \Delta t \mid T \geq t) \\ &= \frac{f(t)}{S(t)}. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, Breslow (1975) emphasized that the relationship between the hazard and the survival functions can be derived as follows:

$$h(t) = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)} = \frac{-\frac{d}{dt}S(t)}{S(t)} = -\frac{d}{dt} \log S(t) \text{ for } t \geq 0.$$

Also,

$$S(t) = \exp\left(-\int_0^t h(u)du\right) \text{ for } t \geq 0. \quad (1.1)$$

### 1.2.3 Cumulative Hazard Function

The cumulative hazard function,  $H(t)$ , is define as

$$H(t) = \int_0^t h(u)du \text{ for } t \geq 0. \quad (1.2)$$

By substituting (1.1) in (1.2), the relationship between the survival function and the cumulative hazard function can be written as follows:

$$S(t) = \exp(-H(t)).$$

## 1.3 Censoring

In any medical survival study, a researcher must determine the start and endpoint of the study based on the fact that survival studies do not last indefinitely. Subsequently, this results in the incomplete observation of failure times, and the recorded time for these individuals is categorized as censored survival or failure time. In most clinical studies, three types of censoring, right, left, and interval censoring, are encountered (Bogaerts et al., 2017). These censoring mechanisms are given in more detail in the following sections.

### 1.3.1 Right Censoring

In some survival study, all the individuals may have the same fixed and known censoring times. Usually this occurs when individuals enter the study at the same time origin  $t = 0$  and the study terminates later at a time. In other words, the study comes to an end at a pre-determined end time and individuals can leave the study only through failure (Lawless et al., 2003). The right censoring are of three forms. They are:

#### 1.3.1.1 Type I Censoring

Fixed type I censoring occurs when a study is designed to end after  $C$  years of follow-up. In this case, everyone who does not have an event observed during the course of the study is censored at  $C$  years. In a simple generalization of this scheme, each unit has a potential maximum observation time  $\psi_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  which may differ from one case to the next but is nevertheless fixed in advance. The probability that unit  $i$  will be alive at the end of her observation time is  $S(\psi_i)$ , and the total number of deaths is again random (Lawless et al., 2003).

#### 1.3.1.2 Random Censoring

In random type I censoring, the study is designed to end after  $C$  years, but censored subjects do not all have the same censoring time. It is the most common type of right-censoring use in several studies. In addition to the grounds that random censoring occurs because the study has come to an end, an observation is equally censored for a reason that individuals drop out of the study because the patient wishes to discontinue treatment or lost to the study at a random point due to migration or death related to other possibilities regardless of the event being observed (Bogaerts et al., 2017).

#### 1.3.1.3 Fixed Type II Censoring

In type II censoring, a study ends when there is a pre-specified number of events. A sample of  $n$  units is followed as long as necessary until  $d$  units have experienced the event. In this design the number of deaths  $d$ , which determines the precision of the study, is fixed in advance and can be used as a design parameter. Unfortunately, the total duration of the study is then random and cannot be known with certainty in advance. Other forms of Type-I and Type-II right censoring includes the generalized Type-I, progressive Type-I and progressive Type-II right censoring, see (Lawless, 2011; Klein and Moeschberger, 2006).

### 1.3.2 Left Censoring

Left censoring is also a common censoring mechanism that takes place in any medical setting. Under this type of censoring, an event of interest has already occurred

or has been experienced by an individual even before he/she is enrolled in the study. Thus, the exact survival time for this individual remains unknown. Left censoring is most likely to occur when you begin observing a sample at a time when some of the individuals may have already experienced the event. The survival times for the  $i^{th}$  individual is left-censored (LC) when  $t_i < c_i$  and  $t_i \in (0, l_i]$  with  $l_i$  the left-censored survival times.

### 1.3.3 Interval Censoring

Interval censoring arises when the exact event time is unknown except to fall between pre-specified interval. Since death is not the only event to be observed in medical settings, disease progression has equally gained interest or concern among medical practitioners. There are several different types of interval-censored data. They are as follows:

1. Case I interval-censored data, also called current status data, arises when each individual is subjected to observation only at a single follow-up time, and thus, the event of interest (failure) is only observed either to have or have not occurred before the observation time. That is, the failure time of interest is either left- or right-censored data (Keiding, 1991; Groeneboom and Wellner, 1992; Koul and Yi, 2006).

Case I interval-censored data usually occur in tumorigenicity tests. In these tests, the tumor start time of animals is always of prime interest but not observable. Instead, tumor status is commonly known at death (either natural death for scientific study). Hence, the tumor start time is expected to be less or greater than the death time. There are many authors who discussed the current status data arising from survival studies such as (Huang and Wellner, 1995; Huang et al., 1996; Rossini and Tsiatis, 1996; Lin et al., 1998; Shen, 2000; Ghosh, 2001; Martinussen and Scheike, 2002; Xue et al., 2004; Sun, 2007).

2. Case II interval-censored data, also known as general interval-censored data, is defined as data which refers to a situation when the event of interest cannot be immediately observed and is only known to have appeared through a random interval of time. Left (right) censoring is a special case of interval censoring in which the left (right) endpoint is  $0(\infty)$ .

Case II interval-censored data arises in several medical and health studies. For example, in a study which compares time to cosmetic deterioration of breasts for breast cancer patients treated with radiotherapy and radiotherapy plus chemotherapy, patients were examined at each clinical visit for breast retraction. The breast retraction is only known to occur between two clinical visits or right-censored at the end of the study. The study objective is to compare the patients who received adjuvant chemotherapy to those who did

not and to decide whether chemotherapy affects the rate of deterioration of the cosmetic state (Finkelstein, 1986; Pan, 2000; Lim and Sun, 2003; Huang et al., 2008).

3. Mixed interval-censored data refers to the survival time of interest, which is observed either to belong to an interval, or to be in right-censoring (Zhao and Sun, 2004).
4. Partly interval-censored data arise when the exact failure times are observed of some subjects but, for the remaining subjects, the failure time of interest is not observable, but is only known to be bracketed between two examination times (Huang, 1999). Example of partly interval-censored data is given by the Framingham Heart Disease study. In this research, times of the first occurrence of the subcategory angina pectoris in coronary heart disease patients are of interest. For some patients, the event time is recorded precisely, but for the remaining patients, time is recorded only between two clinical examinations see (Feinleib et al., 1975; Odell et al., 1992).

#### 1.3.4 Independent Random Censoring

A more realistic and common postulation in a clinical study is to assume that the censoring times are random and independent of the survival or failure times. In other words, the random censoring mechanism is non-informative or contains no information of the survival/failure times of all observations in a survival study. Thus, under independent random censoring, all individuals in the study have the same probability being censored despite the fact that the risk/hazard of failure for some individuals may be higher than the others.

Subsequently for RC data, let the failure time  $T$  be independent continuous random variable with common survival function, density function and hazard function given as  $S(t)$ ,  $f(t)$  and  $h(t)$  respectively. Also, let the censoring time  $C$  be continuous random variable with common survival function  $G(t)$  and density function  $g(t)$ . Assuming that the censoring times are non-informative of the failure times, we know that the distribution of  $G(t)$  does not rely on any parameters in  $S(t)$  (Lawless, 2011).

Independent interval censoring is the condition whereby the method that generates the censoring is independent of the subject's failure time distribution. For instance,  $T$  is failure time of interest and  $L$  and  $R$  are the two observed values such that  $T \in (L, R]$ . Then the independent random censoring process for interval-censored data can be expressed by,

$$P(L < T \leq R \mid L = l, R = r) = P(l < T \leq r). \quad (1.3)$$

That is, the joint survival function of the two observed values  $L$  and  $R$  is free from any

parameters contributory in the survival function of  $T$ . More importantly, it should be noted that the independent interval censoring is non-informative interval censoring while the opposite is not always true (Betensky, 2000; Oller et al., 2004; Sun, 2007).

## 1.4 Survival Models

In any survival study, estimation of the survival or hazard function is crucial in providing an overview of failure/hazard rate of an individual following the event of interest being studied. Furthermore, it is common in clinical studies to have conditions where several (known) covariates or risk factors such as age and blood pressure level possibly affect patient diagnosis and are recorded to investigate the effect of these variables on the survival times of an individual (Clark et al., 2003). The modeling can be achieved using either the non-parametric, semi-parametric or parametric approaches. In this research, the parametric approach is considered.

## 1.5 Parametric Approach

Parametric regression often remain a useful tool as it is fitted much faster compared to the semi-parametric models (Venables and Ripley, 2013). Also, under conditions such as the dependency of the survival times on the covariates, either fixed or time-dependent, and when parameter values are far from zero, an asymptotically adequate parametric model offers more efficient estimates as they are based on fewer parameters compared to a semi-parametric model (Cox and Oakes, 1984; Nardi and Schemper, 2003). Some of the advantages of the parametric models are the existence of straightforward methods to obtain the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) of the parameters, confidence intervals (CI) and hypothesis testing procedures. Also, in a parametric framework, the survival times  $T$  is a continuous random variable with a specified distribution function  $f(t)$ . Sometimes it is vital to extend the existing parametric distributions to incorporate information on the censoring mechanism and covariates. Some of the most commonly used parametric regression models are the extensions of the Weibull, exponential, and the log-normal, which differs from each other with different hazard functions (Bradburn et al., 2003).

## 1.6 Types of Covariates

Sometimes it is necessary to measure the effect of covariates in survival analysis study. The two types of covariates that are usually encountered in any survival study are the fixed and time-dependent covariates. Fixed covariates are commonly measured at the beginning time point of the study, but these covariates can be equally measured at the middle or end of the study. The covariates are constant throughout the study. Examples of such covariates are the gender and ethnicity of individuals. On the other hand, time-dependent covariates vary over time and are measured on regular basis for an individual in a study. By accessing the record of a time-dependent covariate up to a specified time  $t$ , a researcher is able to study the continuous effect

of these variables on the survival time  $T$ . For instance, accounting for the change in the level of covariates such as age, glucose level, blood pressure, or tumor sizes provides an up-to-date effect of these variables on the hazard and survival rate of the individuals in the study. It provides a more reliable prognosis of the future life expectancy comparatively when these covariates are measured only at the time origin (Collett, 2015).

Fixed-time covariates are those whose values are fixed throughout the study, examples are sex, and race, among others. It is typical in many survival studies that individuals are monitored for the duration of the study, and some explanatory variables are recorded whose values may change during the study. For example, the status of neutrophil recovery of patients with leukemia after transplantation (discrete-time) and the number of CD4 T-cells of HIV/AIDS patients measured at irregular intervals (continuous).

Also, some external covariates may influence the survival time of an individual at time  $t$  which however exist independently. Such covariate may exist in respiratory survival studies, where the presence of air pollutant may affect the life span of individuals with heart disease or lung cancer where the change in the air quality is independent of any particular individual in the study (Collett, 2015; Kalbfleisch and Prentice, 2011; Kiani, 2012). Another approach is to extend parametric models where the covariates are often modeled through the mean function by incorporating in the hazard function as proposed by (Sparling et al., 2006; Arasan and Lunn, 2008; Kiani, 2012) among others.

## 1.7 Multiple Imputation

Missing data usually occur in various fields of study due to several reasons. The most popular method used in estimating the missing values is the imputation. For example, in medical and health studies, it is required for the participants to undergo periodic follow-ups for the examination of characteristics related to the condition of interest. In handling the missing observations various imputation methods, such as single imputation, multiple imputation, etc are used (Sterne et al., 2009).

Single imputation is often applied because it is intuitively attractive. In single imputation, we fill in each missing value by a single predicted value. The obvious shortcoming of single imputation is that we replace the missing value with a single value. Hence, single imputation ignores uncertainty and always underestimates the variance. Multiple imputation method on the other hand, rectify the shortcoming of single imputation by taking into account both within imputation uncertainty and between imputation uncertainty. In other words, multiple imputations use multiple values to estimate the unknown missing observation. In survival analysis, the multiple imputation method is used in estimating missing interval-censored failure time

data. The method reduces the interval-censored data to right-censored data, which can be handled using specified methods for right-censored data (Pan, 2000; Chen and Sun, 2010; Kiani, 2012; Manoharan, 2018). Some of the research in the literature that employed the imputation methods for interval-censored data are the works of (Dorey et al., 1993; Satten et al., 1998; Betensky and Finkelstein, 1999; Bebbchuk and Betensky, 2000; Pan, 2001).

Imputation is a common approach to dealing with missing data. A straightforward method is to use right limit for the period in which the infection time is censored to impute the infection time. The procedure is called the right end imputation. Furthermore, another method called the left-end imputation method involves considering the first inspection time for the imputations. Lastly, a random imputation in which a random time is selected within the interval between the first inspection time, and the last inspection time.

### 1.8 The Generalized Exponential Distribution

The two parameter exponential distribution has been applied in real-life studies in the literature. A random variable  $T$  is assumed to follow the two-parameter exponential distribution if  $T$  has the cumulative distribution function as,

$$F(t; \lambda, \mu) = (1 - e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda}), \quad t > \mu, \alpha > 0, \lambda > 0, \quad (1.4)$$

with corresponding probability density function,

$$f(t; \lambda, \mu) = \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda}, \quad t > \mu, \lambda > 0. \quad (1.5)$$

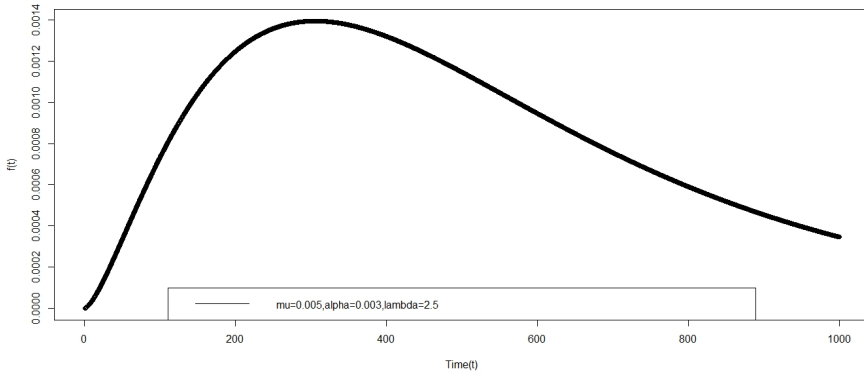
The two parameter exponential distribution was generalized by the introduction of a shape parameter (also called exponent parameter) by Gupta and Kundu (1999) to have a three-parameter generalised exponential (GE) distribution. This shape parameter enables the distribution to have different shapes which makes it more flexible when used in fitting lifetime data. The GE distribution has the following cumulative distribution function (CDF),

$$F(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu) = (1 - e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda})^\alpha, \quad t > \mu, \alpha > 0, \lambda > 0, \quad (1.6)$$

and probability density function (pdf),

$$f(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} (1 - e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda})^{\alpha-1} e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda}, \quad t > \mu, \alpha > 0, \lambda > 0, \quad (1.7)$$

where  $\alpha$ ,  $\lambda$ , and  $\mu$  are respectively the shape, scale, and location parameters of the distribution. Figure 1.1 shows the plots of pdf of GE distribution with different parameter values.



**Figure 1.1: Graph of the pdf of GE with various parameter values**

Meanwhile, the survival function and hazard function are given respectively by:

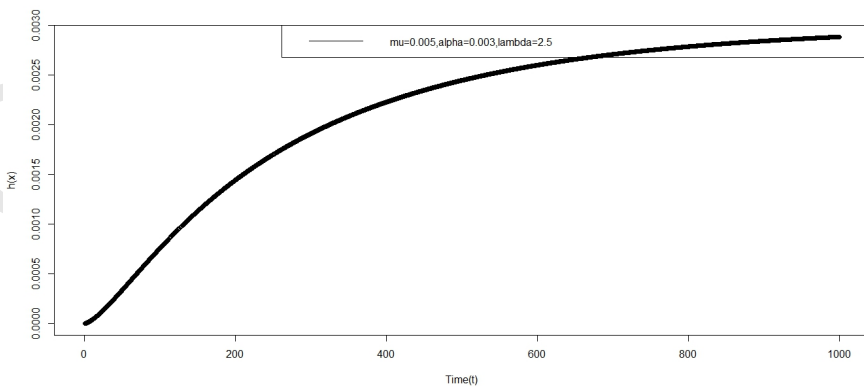
$$S(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu) = 1 - F(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu) = 1 - (1 - e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda})^\alpha, \quad (1.8)$$

$t > \mu, \lambda, \alpha > 0.$

$$h(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu) = \frac{f(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu)}{S(t; \alpha, \lambda, \mu)} = \frac{\alpha (1 - e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda})^{\alpha-1} e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda}}{1 - (1 - e^{-(t-\mu)/\lambda})^\alpha}, \quad (1.9)$$

$(t > \mu).$

Figure 1.2 shows the plots of hazard function of GE distribution with different parameter values.



**Figure 1.2: Graph of the hazard function of GE with various parameter values**



## 1.9 Problem Statement

Many statistical approaches have been developed to solve the problems that arise in the survival analysis. But these methods still face some problems such as the following :

- The three-parameter GE distribution was shown to perform better than the three-parameter Weibull and Gamma distributions in some cases. However, no work has been conducted to check the performance of the model with covariates.
- The performance of the GE distribution and GE distribution with covariates and mixed case interval-censored data has never been explored as well.
- There is no existing literature on the confidence interval estimation procedures for the GE distribution with covariates and mixed case interval-censored data. Alternative inferential procedures via the bootstrap and jackknife have also not been applied to these distributions and their extensions.

## 1.10 Research Objectives

- To extend the Generalized exponential distribution to incorporate fixed covariate with right censored data (GEMR model) and fixed covariate with interval censored data (GEMI model).
- To estimate the parameters of the GEMR and GEMI models via simulation studies by evaluating the values of bias, standard error and root mean square error of the parameter estimates at various sample sizes and censoring proportions.
- To assess the performance of the parameter estimates for the GEMI model using midpoint imputation by evaluating the values of bias, standard error and root mean square error of the parameter estimates at various sample sizes, interval lengths and censoring proportions.
- To investigate the performance of confidence interval methods (Wald, likelihood ratio, and score) asymptotic and alternative inferential procedures (jackknife and bootstrap intervals) for the parameters estimates of GEMR and GEMI models with fixed covariate. The evaluation will be conducted through a coverage probability study at various sample sizes, censoring proportions, and nominal levels.
- To apply the proposed models and inferential procedures to real data namely the breast cancer and the lung cancer studies to see how the proposed models work with real-life data.

## 1.11 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into seven chapters. Chapter 1.1 provides a brief introduction to survival data, basic functions in survival analysis, types of censoring, censoring mechanisms, and fixed covariates. This chapter equally discusses parametric survival models that are commonly applied to survival data. The objectives of this research are also discussed in this chapter. Chapter 2 provides a review of related literature to the current work. Special consideration in this literature review is the research conducted on parametric models with RC and IC data with fixed covariates.

Chapter 3 begins with the GE model's extension to incorporate both the right-censored and interval-censored data with fixed covariates. Furthermore, the interval-censored with fixed covariates of the generalized exponential distribution with different forms of imputations were considered. These models' performance is compared at different sample sizes, censoring proportions through a simulation study. Chapter 4 focuses on inferential procedures by evaluating the performance of asymptotic confidence intervals: Wald, likelihood ratio, and score intervals on the parameters of the (GEMR) and (GEMI) models through a coverage probability study at various sample sizes, nominal levels, censoring proportions and interval widths.

Chapter 5 focuses on inferential procedures by evaluating the performance of alternative confidence intervals: jackknife and bootstrap intervals (Normal Bootstrap, Bootstrap Percentile (B-p), Bootstrap-t (B-t), Bias Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) CI estimate methods) on the parameters of the (GEMR) and (GEMI) models through a coverage probability study at various sample sizes, nominal levels, censoring proportions and interval widths.

Chapter 6 discusses the applications of the (GEMR) and (GEMI) to different time-to-event data. The proposed (GEMR) model and confidence interval technique are then applied to modified lung cancer data with age as a fixed covariate. Furthermore, the (GEMI) model was applied to breast cancer data. The necessary inferences were drawn from the applications. Chapter 7 summarizes and concludes the whole thesis.

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