Estimation of excess hazard using compound Poisson frailty model

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ABSTRACT

Background & Aim: The excess hazard rate proposed by Andersen and Vaeth may underestimate the long-term excess hazard rate for cancer survival. Zahl explained the phenomenon by continuous selection of the most robust individuals after diagnosis. He applied correlated inverse Gaussian and gamma frailty models to estimate excess intensity and reached a better estimate of the rate and called it the corrected excess hazard. The compound Poisson distribution has more parameters and therefore owns more flexibility and includes gamma and inverse Gaussian distributions as special cases. Therefore, the aim of this study was to estimate the excess hazard using compound poisson frailty model.

Methods & Materials: Both shared and correlated frailty (CF) variables based on compound Poisson distribution were used to model unobserved common covariates. A data set of patients diagnosed with localized or regional gastrointestinal tract cancer collected at the Mazandaran province of Iran was studied. As registration systems in Iran are so affected by omission and various errors, a number of five West Coale-Demeny life tables for men and four for women were constructed corresponding to each birth cohort, which was considered as the reference life tables. Thus, population-based mortality rates \( h_1(t) \) were simply replaced by the appropriate values of the West tables depending on the sex (male or female) and birth cohort of the patient.

Results: The CF model with unequal variances could best estimate the long-term excess hazard.

Conclusion: This study advocates the CF models can best estimate the long-term excess hazard rates regardless of the distribution of the frailty variable.

Key words: excess hazard, frailty models, shared and correlated frailty models, gamma and inverse Gaussian frailty models, compound Poisson frailty model, Coale-Demeny life table models, Mazandaran province of Iran

Introduction

Excess mortality modeling is a statistical tool frequently used in population-based studies to evaluate the effect of a particular disease on mortality, especially when the cause of death is known unreliable or unavailable (1, 2). Zahl noted that the excess hazard rate proposed by Andersen and Vaeth (3) may underestimate the long-term excess hazard rate when comparing to the cause-specific mortality of cancer, and he explained that the phenomenon may be caused by bias of the excess intensity model. Zahl discussed that unobserved heterogeneity in population may lead to systematic selection after diagnosis of patients who are more robust than the reference population with whom they are compared. This selection process may be the main reason leading to bias of underestimating the cause-specific mortality rate of cancer (4, 5). Zahl used frailty modeling, including inverse
Gaussian and gamma frailty models to estimate excess hazard in malignant melanoma or colon cancer patients (4, 5).

The compound Poisson distribution was introduced by Aalen as a frailty distribution (6, 7). The distribution is considered as a hit model, where each individual experiences a random number of hits causing damage, each of a random size. It includes power variance function (PVF) distribution, gamma, and inverse Gaussian distribution as special cases. The model was successfully used by Aalen in 1992 (7) to model the incidence of marriage of women born in Denmark. Hougaard et al. in 1994 (8) applied the model to diabetic nephropathy onset data. Aalen and Tretli in 1999 (9) applied the compound Poisson distribution to testicular cancer data. Haukka et al. in 2003 (10) applied the model to schizophrenia data from the Finnish population born 1950 to 1968.

In estimating excess hazard, life tables as the common tools comprising mortality information of the general population are considered as a standard reference and one usually relies on the published life tables as the reference mortality rate that depends on the characteristics of the study patient, such as sex, and age, and year of birth. One major limitation of these reference life tables is that individuals in a population basically come from different cohorts with different mortality experiences, whereas information of mortality rates of different cohorts is as if pooled and combined into a single table. This disparity in the pattern of mortality across cohorts can severely affect life table figures and therefore excess mortality measures, which requires an adequate adjustment for birth cohort effect during the establishment process of life tables. Unfortunately, in many developing countries including Iran, registration systems either do not exist or are so affected by omission and other errors. Indeed, there may be little known on the actual age pattern of mortality in these populations, so as measures based on the data that they produce fail to reflect properly either levels or trends of mortality. A number of model life table systems have been developed for use in such cases, but one of the most commonly used is the Coale-Demeny model life tables for developing countries (11-13).

Since a dramatic climb was evident in incidence rate of gastrointestinal (GI) tract cancers in northern regions of Iran during the past a few decades (14, 15), we came to examine the long-term excess mortality due to the GI tract cancer in Mazandaran, the province with the dominating rate of GI tract cancers (15) using the shared and correlated compound Poisson frailty models. To do so, we constructed distinct life tables for different cohorts, each separated by gender, using the West Coale-Demeny life table model and these tables were considered as the population-based mortality rates.

### Compound Poisson Frailty Model

The compound Poisson distribution was introduced by Aalen (1988, 1992) as a frailty distribution (6, 7). The distribution can be established as the sum of a Poisson-distributed number of independent and identical gamma distributed random variables.

\[ Z = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \cdots + X_N; \text{ if } N > 0, \]

\[ 0; \text{ if } N = 0, \]

where \( N \) is Poisson distributed with the expectation \( \nu \sim \text{Poisson}(\nu) \), while \( X_1, X_2, X_3, \ldots \) are independent and gamma distributed with \( X_i \sim \Gamma(k, \lambda) \).

Using the following parameterization:

\[ \nu = -\frac{k\lambda^\gamma}{\gamma}, \lambda = \lambda, k = -\gamma, \]

the Laplace transform of the compound Poisson distribution takes the form

\[ L_Z(s) = \exp\left[-\frac{k}{\gamma}\left((\lambda + s)^\gamma - \lambda^\gamma\right)\right] \]

Expectation and variance of a compound Poisson-distributed random variable \( Z \) are

\[ E(Z) = k\lambda^{\gamma-1}, \ Var(Z) = k(1 - \gamma)\lambda^{\gamma-2} \]

Applying the Laplace transform given above, the marginal survival and hazard function in case of a compound Poisson frailty model are as

\[ S(t) = \exp\left[-\frac{k}{\gamma}\left((\lambda + \Lambda(t))^\gamma - \lambda^\gamma\right)\right] \]

and

\[ \lambda(t) = k\lambda(\lambda + \Lambda(t))^{\gamma-1} \]

Using the constraint \( E(Z) = 1 \), it holds

\[ k\lambda^{\gamma-1} = 1 \]
and accordingly
\[ \text{Var}(Z) = \frac{1 - \gamma}{\lambda} \]

In consequence, after some simplification
\[ (16) \]
\[ S(t) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1 - \gamma}{\sigma^2\gamma} \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma} \Lambda(t) \right)^{\gamma} - 1 \right] \right\} \]
(1)

and the observed population mortality rate is further given by
\[ \lambda_p(t) = \frac{\lambda(t)}{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma} \Lambda(t)} \]
(2)

In case \( \gamma = 0 \) or \( \gamma = 0.5 \) the gamma or inverse Gaussian distributions will be yielded as special cases.

A Shared Frailty (SF) Model

Consider an individual with common frailty \( Z \) for both dying of cancer and of other causes. The individual intensity is then described by (4, 5)
\[ \lambda(t; Z) = z[h_1(t) + h_2(t)] \]
where \( t \) denotes time from diagnosis to death for individual \( i \), and \( Z \) is a compound Poisson variable. Here, \( h_1(t) \) is known as the intensity for dying of other causes, or the basic mortality rate for an individual, and is usually assumed of the Gompertz-Makeham form, that is, \( h_1(t) = a + b \exp[c(t_0 + t)] \), where \( a, b, \) and \( c \) are the parameters of the Gompertz-Makeham distribution, and \( t_0 \) is age at diagnosis; \( t_0 + t \) is the current age. \( h_2(t) \) is the individual cancer intensity, and can be of Weibull form, and is interpreted as the force of dying of the cancer under study. This model is called a shared compound Poisson frailty model because the frailty variable is common to both intensities.

The survival function for the population is according to Hougaard (17) and Eq. (1)
\[ s(T) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1 - \gamma}{\gamma \sigma^2} \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma} H_1(t) \right)^{\gamma} + H_2(t) - 1 \right] \right\} \]
in which \( H_1(t) \) is the cumulative basic mortality rate and \( H_2(t) \) is the cumulative individual cancer mortality.

The observed population mortality is then given by using Eq. (2) as
\[ \lambda_p(t) = \frac{h_1(t) + h_2(t)}{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma} (H_1(t) + H_2(t))} \]
which may be written as
\[ \lambda_p(t) = h_1(t) + h_2(t) \]
\[ \left\{ 1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma} (H_1(t) + H_2(t)) \right\}^{-1} \]
where
\[ h_i(t) = \tilde{h}_i(t) \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma} H_i(t) \right)^{-1}; \ i = 1, 2 \]
(4)

As Zahl stated, \( \tilde{h}_i(t) \) is denoted the population cancer hazard as this function describes the force of dying of the cancer under study for the study group, and this is what we intend to estimate by the excess hazard model. The last term in Eq. (4) is the bias of the excess intensity model, and this is also a measure of the increase in the risk of dying of other causes after removing the risk of dying of cancer. The shared frailty model will be denoted by SF below.

A Correlated Compound Poisson Frailty Model

The shared frailty model has important shortcomings. First, an individual may have distinct frailties for \( h_1(t) \) and \( h_2(t) \). Second, the variances of the two frailty variables may differ and the difference may be large (6). A suggested way of handling this problem is by establishing a multivariate distribution by adding up a number of independent frailty variables. Here, the individual mortality rate is described by (4, 5).
\[ \lambda(t; Z_1, Z_2) = Z_1 h_1(t) + Z_2 h_2(t) \]
where \( Z_i, i = 1, 2 \), are two mixed compound Poisson variables with variances \( \sigma^2_1 \) and \( \sigma^2_2 \), respectively. The correlation coefficient between the two variables is further denoted by \( 0 \leq \rho \leq \min \left\{ \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}, \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right\} \). The population intensity can be derived from Eq. (8) in Appendix
Excess hazard using compound poisson frailty model

\[ \lambda_p(t) = \tilde{h}_1(t) + \tilde{h}_2(t) \]

\[ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \left( \sigma_1^2 \tilde{h}_1(t) - \frac{\tilde{h}_1(t)}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} (\sigma_1^2 \tilde{h}_1(t) + \sigma_2^2 \tilde{h}_2(t))\right)^{1-\gamma}} + \right) \]

\[ \sigma_2^2 \left( \tilde{h}_2(t) - \frac{\tilde{h}_2(t)}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} (\sigma_1^2 \tilde{h}_1(t) + \sigma_2^2 \tilde{h}_2(t))\right)^{1-\gamma}} \right) \]

(6)

\[ \tilde{h}_1(t) = \frac{h_1(t)}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \tilde{h}_1(t)\right)^{1-\gamma}}; \ i = 1,2; \] (7)

Once more, the last term in Eq. (6) is the bias when the two frailty variables are correlated. \( \tilde{h}_2(t) \) can be estimated indirectly and the estimate is as Zahl stated the corrected excess hazard.

We have that Eq. (6) equals Eq. (4), when \( \rho = 1 \) and \( Z_1 \) and \( Z_2 \) have equal variances (\( \sigma_1 = \sigma_2 \)).

When \( \sigma_1 = \sigma_2 \), this model will be denoted by CF1, otherwise this model is denoted by CF2.

Cancer Survival

Estimation

The population cancer hazard, \( \tilde{h}_2(t) \), is estimated indirectly by substituting a known function for \( h_1(t) \) in the likelihood for the shared and correlated frailty (CF) models, a method which does not require exact information about the cause of death. Furthermore, this indirect method reduces the number of parameters to be estimated. In this method, we simply substitute the population mortality rate for \( h_1(t) \), assuming this equal to the individual risk of dying from diseases other than the cancer under study. The individual cancer mortality \( h_1(t) \) is assumed of Weibull form. The parameters of the frailty distribution and \( h_1(t) \) are estimated by the maximum likelihood method.

Creating the West life table model

Since in many countries including Iran, death registration is incomplete or nonexistent, adequate life tables cannot be calculated from the data available. Model life tables have been developed for use in such cases. The Coale-Demeny model life tables are amongst the most commonly used models and consist of four sets or models, each representing a distinct mortality patterns, including North, South, East, and West. As the West pattern is considered to represent the most general mortality pattern, Coale and Demeny recommended its use when reliable information is not available for choosing one of the other patterns (13). Plus, our previous experience reveals that the West life table model can best estimate the actual age pattern of mortality of our population (18). Having the measure of infant mortality rate (IMR) for each year of birth, defined as the number of newborns dying under a year of age divided by the number of live births that year, Coale-Demeny model life tables can be constructed showing mortality rate for single years of age 0-100. Concerning the Mazandaran province, IMR was available for birth years after 1965; therefore, linear extrapolation methods were invoked to approximate IMR for birth years before 1965. Because the study patients came from different birth cohorts with experiencing different mortality patterns, men were classified into five distinct cohorts of 1911-1920, 1921-1930, 1931-1940, 1941-1950, and 1951-1961, and women into four cohorts of 1921-1930, 1931-1940, 1941-1950, and 1951-1961. It should be noted that to establish life tables, an average IMR was obtained for each cohort and according to gender. As such a number of five West life tables for men and four tables for women were constructed for Mazandaran province of Iran, corresponding to each birth cohort. Once the West life tables were established, population-based mortality rates [\( h_1(t) \)] were simply replaced by the appropriate values of the West tables depending on the sex (male or female) and birth cohort of the patient.

Gastrointestinal tract cancer

A data set of 484 patients diagnosed with localized or regional GI tract cancer collected at the Babol cancer registration in Mazandaran province of Iran during the years 1990-1991 was studied. The sample contained 359 cases with esophageal, 110 with stomach, and 15 with colorectal cancers. Patients were followed-up for
a maximum period of 15 years by the year 2006. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Tehran University of Medical Sciences.

**Results**

The mean age of the patients was 58.26 ± 10.90 (mean ± SD) years (range 40-90). Males accounted for 66.3% and females 33.7% of GI tract cancers. The Kaplan-Meier method of survival analysis estimated that the survival rates in 5, 10, and 15 years following diagnosis were 16.9%, 13.8%, and 6.2%, respectively. The overall patient survival rate was not statistically different across the three subgroups of patients with esophageal, stomach, and colorectal cancers (log-rank test; \( P = 0.213 \)). Owing to small sample size, especially the few number of patients with colorectal cancer, we analyzed the whole sample as patients with GI tract cancer, and did not carry out distinct analysis for each type of GI cancer.

Table 1 presents parameters for the shared and CF models. The individual cancer hazard \( h_i(t) \) was assumed of the two-parameter Weibull form. As shown in table, in all models \( \beta \) was estimated to be more than 1 indicating an increasing individual cancer hazard \( h_i(t) \) over the course of study. The log-likelihoods are almost identical for all models, but the correlation coefficients for CF1 and CF2 models are different. The correlation coefficients are positive meaning that the risk of dying of cancer is correlated to the risk of dying of other causes. The frailty parameters are estimated with inflated standard errors in all models, which may be reduced by studying larger datasets. In figure 1, we present the integrated excess intensity (traditional excess hazard) comparing with the integrated corrected excess hazards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Parameters of Weibull distribution</th>
<th>Parameters of frailty distribution</th>
<th>(-\ln(L))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SF</td>
<td>1.25 (0.39) 0.26 (0.09) 1.95 (0.51)</td>
<td>- - -</td>
<td>521.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF1</td>
<td>1.19 (0.27) 0.20 (0.06) 1.92 (0.43)</td>
<td>- - 0.55 (0.47)</td>
<td>520.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF2</td>
<td>1.13 (0.25) 0.19 (0.07) 1.80 (0.59)</td>
<td>2.21 (0.94) 0.75 (0.66)</td>
<td>519.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GI: Gastrointestinal, SF: Shared frailty model, CF1: Correlated frailty model with equal variances, CF2: Correlated frailty model with unequal variances. Standard errors are given in parentheses.

**Table 1.** Estimated parameters for 484 patients with GI tract cancer diagnosed in Mazandaran province of Iran, and according to the West Coale-Demeny regional life table model (based on compound Poisson frailty distribution).

![Figure 1. Integrated corrected excess hazards compared with integrated conventional excess hazard of patients with gastrointestinal tract cancer in Mazandaran province (based on compound Poisson frailty distribution).]
Table 2. Estimated cumulative excess mortality for 484 patients with GI tract cancer diagnosed in Mazandaran province of Iran according to shared and correlated frailty models and based on the compound Poisson frailty distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Years on the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional excess hazard</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound Poisson frailty model</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlated with equal variances</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlated with unequal variances</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GI: Gastrointestinal

As can be seen, after 2 years the difference increases. The corrected excess hazard based on the CF2 model gives the best estimate of the long-term cause-specific mortality, while the SF and CF1 models give the worst fit. Modeling of the heterogeneity, especially by distinct variances for $Z_1$ and $Z_2$, is an essential way for capturing the selection phenomenon.

Table 2 depicts the estimated cumulative excess mortality both traditional and corrected counterparts for 484 patients with GI tract cancer diagnosed in Mazandaran province of Iran. It is evident that the corrected estimates differ from the traditional estimates and the difference increases, especially after 2 years indicating the phenomenon of systematic selection of robust individuals after diagnosis (that means patients with low frailty) may probably be taken place.

**Discussion**

Here, we tried both shared and correlated frailty models based on compound Poisson distribution for estimating long-term excess hazard rate. An interesting interpretation of this distribution is that individuals may come from different backgrounds and cultures and are exposed to different environmental effects which cause each individual experiences several hits causing damage, so as the number of hits causing damage in an individual are random and each of a random size. The effect of these hits accumulates over time and increases individual frailty (6, 7). Furthermore, because there are more parameters in the distribution compared to gamma and inverse Gaussian, it will increase the flexibility of the model. That is why we found it relevant to model excess hazard rate.

Even though, the individual cancer hazard was parameterized for getting small standard errors and there were more parameters in the model when compared to former competing risks models (4, 5), hence naturally leading to more flexibility of the model, the correlation coefficients and the variances were not estimated with small standard errors which might be reduced by studying larger datasets.

Heterogeneity as the responsible for systematic selection process of robust individuals after diagnosis may be happened in our study. A considerable number of deaths (366 deaths, i.e., 75.6% of the total sample size) occurred in the first early years of diagnosis showing those patients who were most frail or those who were diagnosed in higher stages of the disease would die earlier than the others and, in consequence, systematic selection of robust individuals after diagnosis (that means patients with low frailty) would have been probably taken place.

It should also be alluded that we observed a huge number of deaths in the first 2 years of diagnosis so a dramatic climb was observed in excess mortality during the period in all models, as figure 1 shows. This might be expected because patients with GI tract cancers are generally discovered at a late stage of disease when cancer is difficult to cure successfully at this stage (19, 20).

Our secondary focus was directed toward adjustment for confounding effects of different mortality rates across different cohorts on life table figures, by constructing the West Coale-Demeny model life table. As was pointed out registration systems in Iran are so affected by omission and various errors; therefore, there may be little known on the actual age pattern of
mortality in our population. The basis of the Coale-Demeny life table system is the mortality patterns exhibited in 192 actual life tables by sex. Analysis of 192 life tables revealed four age patterns of mortality labeled North, South, East, and West. The West pattern is, however, derived from the largest set of observed life tables (130) and is considered to represent the most general mortality pattern. They recommended its use when the reliability of information is under question for choosing a more deserved model (12, 13, 21).

Here, we address how to correct the excess hazard rates when there is unobserved correlated heterogeneity. This study advocates the correlated frailty models with unequal variances can best estimate the long-term excess hazard regardless of the distribution of the frailty variable.

Acknowledgments

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References


Appendix

Let \( k_1, k_2, \) and \( k_3 \) be some real positive variables and let \( Y_1, Y_2, \) and \( Y_3 \) be independently compound Poisson distributed random variables with \( Y_1 \sim \text{cP}(\gamma, k_1, \lambda), Y_2 \sim \text{cP}(\gamma, k_2, \lambda), \) and \( Y_3 \sim \text{cP}(\gamma, k_3, \lambda). \) Thus,

\[
E(Y_i) = k_i \gamma^{y-1}, \quad \text{Var}(Y_i) = k_i (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3.
\]

The frailty variables \( Z_1 \) and \( Z_2 \) can be defined as a set of the three above independent compound Poisson variables using a similar additive structure for the frailties as in gamma and inverse Gaussian models:

\[
Z_1 = Y_1 + Y_2 \Rightarrow E(Z_1) = (k_1 + k_2) \gamma^{y-1}, \quad \text{Var}(Z_1) = (k_1 + k_2) (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2},
\]

\[
Z_2 = \alpha(Y_1 + Y_2) \Rightarrow E(Z_2) = \alpha(k_1 + k_3) \gamma^{y-1}, \quad \text{Var}(Z_2) = \alpha^2 (k_1 + k_3) (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2}
\]

where \( \alpha \) is a scaling parameter (a positive real number).

Furthermore, the following relations are assumed:

\[
E(Z_1) = (k_1 + k_2) \gamma^{y-1} = 1, \quad E(Z_2) = \alpha(k_1 + k_3) \gamma^{y-1} = 1,
\]

which leads to

\[
\text{Var}(Z_1) = \frac{1 - \gamma}{\lambda}, \quad \text{Var}(Z_2) = \alpha \left( \frac{1 - \gamma}{\lambda} \right).
\]

The two above equations result in \( \alpha = \frac{\sigma_3^2}{\sigma_1^2}. \) The covariance between \( Z_1 \) and \( Z_2 \) is given by

\[
\text{Cov}(Z_1, Z_2) = E(Z_1 Z_2) - E(Z_1) E(Z_2)
\]

In order to derive an expression for the first term on the right-hand side of the above equation we require

\[
E(Y_1^2) = \text{Var}(Y_1) + [E(Y_1)]^2 = k_1 (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2} + k_1 \gamma^{y-2}
\]

We then have for the first term on the right-hand side of the covariance equality

\[
E(Z_1 Z_2) = E[(Y_1 + Y_2) \times \alpha(Y_1 + Y_3)]
\]

\[
= \alpha E[Y_1^2 + Y_1 Y_2 + Y_1 Y_3 + Y_2 Y_3]
\]

\[
= \alpha [k_1 (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2} + k_1 k_2 \gamma^{y-2} + k_1 k_3 \gamma^{y-2} + k_2 k_3 \gamma^{y-2}]
\]

\[
= \alpha [k_1 (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2} + \alpha^2 (k_1 + k_2) (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2} + \alpha (k_1 + k_3) (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2} + 1]
\]

\[
E(Z_1) E(Z_2) = 1
\]

Furthermore, \( Z_1 \) and \( Z_2 \) are correlated since they contain the common part \( Y_1 \) with a correlation coefficient:

\[
\rho = \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_1, Z_2)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(Z_1) \text{Var}(Z_2)}} = \frac{\alpha k_1 (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2}}{\sqrt{(k_1 + k_2) (1 - \gamma) \gamma^{y-2}}}
\]

Because the k-parameters are all assumed non-negative, it follows that the range of the correlation between frailties depends on the values of \( \sigma_1 \) and \( \sigma_2:

\[
0 \leq \rho \leq \min \left( \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}, \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)
\]

We can derive the unconditional model, applying the Laplace transform of compound Poisson distributed random variables. The population survival probability becomes

\[
S(t) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \exp[-(y_1 + y_2) H_1(t)] \cdot f(y_1) \cdot f(y_2) \cdot f(y_3) dy_1 dy_2 dy_3
\]

\[
= \exp \left[ -k_1 \left( \lambda + H_1(t) + \alpha H_2(t) \right) \gamma - \lambda \gamma \right] \times \\
\exp \left[ -k_2 \left( \lambda + H_1(t) \gamma - \lambda \gamma \right) \right] \times \\
\exp \left[ -k_3 \left( \lambda + \alpha H_2(t) \gamma - \lambda \gamma \right) \right]
\]

The following relations are hold:

\[
\lambda = (1 - \gamma) \gamma, \quad \alpha = \frac{\sigma_3^2}{\sigma_1^2},
\]

\[
k_1 = \rho \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \left( \frac{1 - \gamma}{\gamma} \right)^{1-\gamma},
\]

\[
k_2 = \left( \frac{1 - \gamma}{\sigma_1} \right)^{1-\gamma} (1 - \rho \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}),
\]

\[
k_3 = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \left( \frac{1 - \gamma}{\gamma} \right)^{1-\gamma} (1 - \rho \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}).
\]

For each of the net survival functions (according to Eq. (1))

\[
S_1(t) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1 - \gamma}{\gamma} \left[ \lambda + \frac{\sigma_1}{1 - \gamma} H_1(t) \right] \gamma - 1 \right\};
\]

in consequence \( S(t) \) can be rewritten as

\[
S(t) = S_1(t)^{1-\rho \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}} \times S_2(t)^{1-\rho \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\rho (1 - \gamma)}{\gamma \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \left[ 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\gamma^2} \ln(S_1(t)) \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} \right] \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\gamma^2} \ln(S_2(t)) \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} - 1 \right\}.
\]

(8)