Statistical Analysis of Heaped Duration Data *

K. Petoussis †
R.D. Gill †
K. Zeelenberg

* The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the policy of Statistics Netherlands.
† Department of Psychology, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, de Boelelaan 1081c, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands (e-mail: Kos_Petoussis@psy.vu.nl).
‡ Mathematical Institute, University of Utrecht, P.O. Box 80,010, 3508 TA Utrecht, The Netherlands (e-mail: gill@math.ruu.nl).

BPA no.: 10445-95-RSM
December 12, 1995

Proj.: RSM-8901-2/R
First draft
Abstract

The motivation of this paper is to study how heaping affects estimates in survival analysis. Cox regression is often used in survival analysis. If the data are heaped, e.g. because of recall errors, Cox’s partial likelihood approach is no longer appropriate. This paper shows how this problem can be overcome. We consider the problem as a missing data problem. A model is constructed that takes heaping into account. We apply ‘full’ maximum likelihood based on the actual data, with many nuisance parameters, simultaneously for all parameters. Ingredients of our method are application of the EM algorithm, Cox regression and nonparametric maximum likelihood calculation with ‘predicted’ data in each M step. An example from practice, where jackknife is used to estimate the variances, illustrates the power of the new methodology.

Keywords: heaping, duration data, survival analysis, PHM, profile likelihood, EM.
1 Introduction

Heaping occurs in many kinds of retrospectively obtained duration data. Different proposals have been put forward on how to cope with this phenomenon. For example, heaping may occur in unemployment data obtained by periodic labour force surveys (LFS), see [12] for a discussion on the Italian LFS. Anthropometric data on children's age from Tanzania suffer from another kind of heaping, see [7]. Heaping is important in statistical analysis, for rounding may affect results if data are assumed correct.

The following example serves to illustrate how heaping may arise in practice. The relation between unemployment duration and covariates is studied in [5] using standard Cox regression on data from the Netherlands Socio-economic panel (SEP) survey. Unemployment spells are derived from this SEP and linked to the covariates of the participating respondents. However, a peculiarity appears in the frequency table of these unemployment spells. A suspicious 'peaking' appears at multiples of six months. For a typical plot, see Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Typical plot of heaped data frequency table.](image)

We suspect there has been some rounding of these data. The reported data seem 'heaped' on some months.

The SEP has been conducted from April 1984 onwards by Statistics Netherlands (CBS), resulting in a longitudinal cross-section of a representative sample of the Dutch population, among 5000 households, see [1]. The respondents were followed in time, and every six months, in April and October, they were asked, among other questions, whether they had found a job or not, and if so when. Keeping — for practical reasons — only those unemployment spells that started between April 1984 and October 1987 leads to a data set of 784 unemployment spell records. The first month is April 1984 and the last month is October 1987. Each spell is linked with a data record of 43 fields: a reported begin point, a reported end point (in months), a censoring indicator (indicating whether the spell has been observed to end) and a list of covariates. In the SEP case (the problem at hand), reported durations are derived from end and begin month data. This suggests that heaping is here caused by rounding of begin or end points of unemployment spells.

A frequency table of begin points indeed reveals a spiking on multiples of six months in the problem at hand; uncensored and right censored end point frequency tables show similar features. The end point frequency table shows a huge spike at the last month, but this is mainly due to the right censored ongoing spells. This suggests that modelling begin and end heaping is a more natural approach than modelling the heaping of durations directly. The idea is that some reported dates are true; others are rounded to the next or previous April or October. Such months (to which dates may be rounded) are called 'heaping months'. This concept of 'heaping months' is the basis of our heaping model. The methodology in the next section is therefore based on this approach. Note that even seemingly accurate durations, e.g. of eleven months, may occur from this rounding.
2 Heaping Model

In this section we introduce our heaping model in an informal way. For any duration there is a true begin point, a true end point, and also a reported begin point, and a reported end point.

A reported date coincides with a true date with some probability. However, it is also possible that the reported date is rounded forward or backward (with some restriction), i.e. a date is reported on a heaping month. The restriction we use in this paper is that any reported date may only be rounded to the nearest heaping month before the true date, or to the nearest heaping month after the true date. If such a date is rounded, then it is said to be ‘heaped’.

If a true date is on a heaping month then its corresponding reported date is equal to this true date, i.e. it is not rounded.

The heaping months are assumed fixed and known. It depends on the survey structure whether the heaping months for begin points and for end points coincide. For the problem at hand, the set of heaping months for the begin months consists of Aprils and Octobers, from October 1984 up to and including October 1986. Similarly, the set of heaping months for the uncensored end points consists of Marches and Septembers, from September 1985 up to and including March 1987.

A duration may also be right censored, i.e. its corresponding end point is only observed to exceed some point. It depends on the survey structure how censoring should be modeled.

3 Strategy

This section outlines the techniques needed for the construction of our heaping model. Heaping is a complex phenomenon in general. Formal definitions of heaped data are not needed here, but for a definition, see [6]. Heaping is interpreted in this paper as a kind of data coarsening, i.e. as a grouping of different kinds of data, so we consider this statistical problem as a coarse data problem.

Censoring is also a complex phenomenon in general, see for example [9]. Since the emphasis of this paper is on illustrating how to model heaping, we assume a simple censoring mechanism, see section 4. Observe the following.

- If all variables in the model had been observed (i.e. true as well as reported durations), then (standard) maximum likelihood techniques would yield a maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) along with variances, i.e. statistical inference on the parameter of interest as well as on the heaping effect. However, this so-called ‘full data’ likelihood contains unknown, unobserved variables and therefore it cannot be calculated.

  The Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm provides a useful alternative for the computationally heavier method of integrating out all the unknowns. By EM the MLE is found without having ever to write down the ‘actual’ data full likelihood, under some regularity assumptions, see [4] for more on this topic. Therefore we propose to use EM to find this MLE.

- However, EM does not directly yield the variances of this MLE, because missingness of the data increases variances, see [11] and [10] for more on this topic.

  Jackknifing is a way to estimate the variances, see for example [13], and saves time with respect to bootstrapping, while standard large sample properties hold, t-values can be calculated etc. Therefore we propose to use jackknife for estimating the variances of the parameters.
• Standard survival analysis assumes no heaping and instead of the full data likelihood often the more simple Cox Partial Likelihood (PL) is used for inference on the parameter of interest. However, the problem with heaping is that it destroys the very special PL structure. The conditions that allow the use of PL techniques are not satisfied, see [3] for more on this topic.

Now a significant contribution of Johansen [8] is that the ideas of PL are not at all necessary for estimating the parameter of interest.

Johansen shows in his paper that the Cox maximum PL estimator of the regression parameters is actually the profile MLE where $\beta$ and $\lambda$ are considered as joint parameters. Profile likelihood is ‘full’ MLE with nuisance parameters, for a definition, see [2].

A nice feature of this profile likelihood method is that in the case of Cox regression the estimator of $\beta$ that maximizes this profile likelihood has the same value as the estimator that maximizes the PL, see [8].

Also, using nonparametric baseline hazard notation the Breslow estimator of $\lambda$ is identically equal to the maximum likelihood estimator; in fact the Cox partial likelihood for $\beta$ is identically equal to the profile likelihood for $\beta$, $\max_{\lambda} \text{lik}(\beta, \lambda)$, see also subsection 4.5.

In fact, $\beta$ and $\lambda$ should be estimated simultaneously, but the point is that in [8] it is argued that $\lambda$ can be estimated after estimation of $\beta$, and that the resulting pair $(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\lambda})$ are the joint MLE's of $(\beta, \lambda)$.

Although using profile likelihood may at first glance look more complicated than using PL, in fact, we show that its implementation is not so difficult, see section 4.5. Therefore we propose to use profile likelihood for inference on the parameter of interest.

4 Implementation

4.1 Assumptions

The following assumptions on Cox regression are in order to compare the results of our heaping model with those of a standard Cox regression model without heaping, i.e. where the reported durations are considered true, see [5]. Discussing the strength of these assumptions for the problem at hand is beyond the scope of this paper.

• All reported variables and covariates are observed correctly.

• Covariates are constant in time; for the problem at hand this implies that unemployment benefit and change of region do not affect people's attitudes and efforts.

• The true durations are independently distributed; for the problem at hand, this assumption seems reasonable. For each respondent only the first three unemployment spells during the survey period were included in the data set (most respondents lost their job at most once during the survey period).

• Cox's Proportional Hazards Model (PHM) describes the relation between true duration and covariates, see for example [9] for more on this topic.

• The baseline hazard is piecewise constant in each month; since the data we observe are all given in units of months this is not so much of a restriction on our model.

Assumptions for our heaping model need some discussion now.
• The sets of heaping months are known in advance and independent of the data; for the problem at hand this seems quite reasonable, considering the survey structure, since the dates of the survey are exogenously determined.

• Heaping only depends on the true point, whether it is on the according set of heaping months or not; this seems reasonable, if precisely reported variables are considered reliable.

• In case a true point is on the corresponding set of heaping months, it depends on the structure of the survey what decision rule to use. In case a true point is not on the according set of heaping months, its heaping is described by fixed, unknown probabilities.

• Censored end points are not heaped, for the problem at hand this assumption seems reasonable from the survey structure.

• Censoring does not depend on the parameter of interest, so it plays no role in the full data likelihood; for the problem at hand, however, various causes of censoring are present, e.g. end of survey, panel attrition or selectivity of nonresponse, so this assumption seems quite strong.

• Begin point distribution is uniform; for the problem at hand this implies that the effects of season are neglected and therefore this assumption seems quite strong.

4.2 Notations

Let $V$ denote the set of calendar months of the total survey period. Let $H_b$ denote (for the begin points) the set of heaping months. For any $s \in V$ we denote the last heaping month before $s$ by $t^b-(s) \equiv \max \{ h \in H_b : h < s \}$, we denote the first heaping month after $s$ by $t^b+(s) \equiv \min \{ h \in H_b : h > s \}$ and we denote also $t^b synchronized(s) \equiv \{s\}$. Denote by $H_e$ (for the uncensored end points) the set of heaping months. For any $u \in V$, $t^e-(u), t^e+(u)$ and $t^e synchronized(u)$ are defined similarly.

Denote the complete data specification of $n$ items by $x \equiv (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, where for each $i$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, $x_i \equiv (s_i, s_{i,r}, u_{i,r}, u_i, c_i, \delta_i)$ with $s_i \equiv$ true begin point; $s_{i,r} \equiv$ reported begin point; $u_i \equiv$ true end point (if observed); $u_{i,r} \equiv$ reported end point; $c_i \equiv$ last observed end point (if $i$ is right censored); $\delta_i \equiv$ censoring indicator (with value 1 if $i$'s end point is observed).

For any true duration $\tau_i$ we have $\tau_i = u_i - s_i + 1$ if the end point is observed, and $\tau_i \geq c_i - s_i + 1$ if the observation is right censored. Denote the covariate vector of item $i$ by $z_i$. Let $\phi$ denote the vector of parameters.

Begin heaping is described by its distribution given the true begin points:

$$\pi_b(\cdot \mid s_i) \equiv P(S_{i,r} = \cdot \mid S_i = s_i, z_i; \phi).$$

Similarly, uncensored end point heaping is described by

$$\pi_e(\cdot \mid u_i) \equiv P(U_{i,r} = \cdot \mid s_i, \tau_i = \cdot - s_i + 1, z_i, \delta_i = 1; \phi).$$

Denote the censoring mechanism by

$$\pi_c(\cdot \mid U_{i,r} \geq z_i, \delta_i = 0).$$
Denote the distribution of right censored and uncensored true durations by
\[ \pi_d^\gamma(\cdot) \equiv P(\tau \geq \cdot \mid z_i, \delta_i = 0; \phi) \]
and
\[ \pi_d(\cdot) \equiv P(\tau = \cdot \mid z_i, \delta_i = 1; \phi), \]
respectively.

Finally, denote begin point distribution by
\[ \pi_s(\cdot) \equiv P(S_i = \cdot \mid z_i). \]

### 4.3 Stochastic Specification

- Two cases may occur, depending on the true begin point: 
  - 
    - **scHb**: \( s \) is correctly reported: \( S_{i,r} = s \).
    - **sqHb**: \( s \) between two begin heaping months may be rounded backward, forward or not at all: 
      \( S_{i,r} = t^{b-}, S_{i,r} = t^{b+} \) or \( S_{i,r} = t^{b=}: \)
      \[ \pi_b(\cdot \mid s) = \frac{p_b}{b-} q_b^{(b-s)=} r_b^{(b-s)=}, \]  \[ \]  \[ (1) \]
      where \( p_b, q_b, r_b \) denote the probabilities for begin heaping backward, forward or not at all, respectively, with the constraint \( p_b + q_b + r_b = 1. \)

- Heaping of uncensored end points is specified similarly, with corresponding parameters \( p_e, q_e, r_e \), where \( p_e + q_e + r_e = 1. \)

- The uniform distribution of begin points implies \( \pi_s(\cdot) = |V|^{-1}. \)

- Independent censoring reduces \( \pi_c(\cdot) \) to a constant in the full data likelihood.

- Cox's PHM describes the relation between true durations and covariates. Using nonparametric baseline hazard notation, \( \lambda_0(t) = \sum_{t \geq 0} \lambda_0(t \mid t = \cdot), \) this relation can be written out explicitly as
  \[ \pi_d^\gamma(\cdot) = \exp(-\exp(\beta z_i) \sum_{t > \cdot} \lambda_0(t)); \]
  an expression for \( \pi_d(\cdot) \) can be derived similarly.

### 4.4 Likelihood

In order to apply EM later on, we need to write down the full data likelihood using all the random variables in the model, whether these are observed or not. Independence of the durations allows the 'full data' likelihood to be written as a product of individual likelihoods. If we accept the previously stated assumptions, then the contribution to the likelihood of an uncensored observation is
\[ P(s_i, s_{i,r}, \tau_i, u_i, u_{i,r} \mid z_i; \phi) = \pi_s(s_i) \times \pi_b(s_{i,r} \mid s_i) \times \pi_d(\tau_i) \times \pi_e(u_{i,r} \mid u_i) \]
and that of a right censored observation is
\[ P(s_i, s_{i,r}, \tau_i, c_i \mid z_i; \phi) = \pi_s(s_i) \times \pi_b(s_{i,r} \mid s_i) \times \pi_d^\gamma(\tau_i) \times \pi_e(c_i). \]
The full data log likelihood reduces to
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \pi_b(s_{i,r} \mid s_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - \delta_i) \log \pi_c(\tau_i) + \]
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \log \pi_e(u_{i,r} \mid u_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \log \pi_d(\tau_i), \]
up to a constant, since \( \pi_s \) and \( \pi_c \) do not depend on \( \phi \).

4.5 Estimation

The principle of EM is elementary. However, application of EM on (2) is elaborate and involves a lot of careful bookkeeping but is essentially routine. Some nice features in this practical implementation are worth mentioning.

- Consider the following interpretation, under the assumption of independent durations. Denote by \( J \) the space of all admissible realizations of a duration. Denote the contribution to the likelihood of realization \( j \) by \( f_j(\cdot) \). Denote the event ‘observation \( i \) has realization \( j \)’ by \( A_j(i) \). Now
\[ \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{i} 1\{A_j(i)\} f_j(\phi) \]
denotes the full data log likelihood. Taking conditional expectations on (3), given the incomplete data \( F \) and given a parameter value \( \phi^{(0)} \) is equivalent to replacing the indicators in (3) by appropriate conditional probabilities. The resulting expression,
\[ \sum_{j} \sum_{i} P(A_j(i) \mid F, \phi^{(0)}) f_j(\phi), \]
can be maximized over \( \phi \) for each M step. Some realizations may be taken together, thanks to the assumptions for the problem at hand. The effects of begin heaping, end heaping, censored and uncensored durations are isolated, see (2). Thanks to heaping specification (1), the heaping effect splits up into six simpler sums.

- Rewriting the full data log likelihood (2) in terms of nonparametric hazards, omitting those terms that do not vary with \( \lambda_0 \) and maximizing with respect to \( \lambda_{0t} \) for given \( \beta \) leads to the so-called ‘Breslow estimator’
\[ \hat{\lambda}_{0t} = \frac{A_t}{E_t(\beta)} \]
as an estimator of the baseline hazard, with \( A_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i a_{i,t} \) and \( E_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{i,t} \exp(\beta z_i) \) where \( a_{i,t} \equiv 1\{t = \tau_i\} \) and \( b_{i,t} \equiv 1\{t \leq \tau_i\} \).

However, (4) can not be calculated, because \( \beta \) is unknown. As an estimator of \( \beta \) we use the well-known Cox PL estimator. Thanks to Johansen’s result this yields the MLE.

For the EM algorithm we apply the analogue. Omitting from (2) those terms that do not vary with \( \lambda_0 \) leads to (4), where \( a_{i,t} \equiv P(\tau_i = t \mid F_i; \phi) \) and \( b_{i,t} \equiv P(\tau_i \geq t \mid F_i; \phi) \), where \( F_i \) represents the incomplete data on \( i \).

Following the same procedure we obtain in each E step estimators of \( \beta \) and \( \lambda \), which can be maximized in the following M step.
• In each E step, the begin heaping parameters have to be estimated simultaneously, because of their interdependence. End heaping is similarly estimated, and by the censoring assumptions it is correct to ignore right censored end points for the estimation of the end heaping parameters. Thanks to (1) we may use in each M step the classic trinomial MLE for estimating the proportion of the begin point data that are heaped backward, forward and not at all.

• From (2) it is easy to see that the full data log likelihood of our heaping model has the so-called regular exponential form, see [4] for more on this topic. So we expect no problems on the choice of initial values for the parameter vector nor any problems in finding a global maximum using standard methods.

5 Results

The results of implementing our heaping model on the data can be read from table 1. The nine most important covariates from Gorter and Hoogteijling’s report have been used for our heaping model. For the meaning of the variable names, see [5]. The first and third columns give the estimates of the Cox and heaping model, respectively. The variances of the standard model are obtained by standard methods and can be read from the second column. The fourth column is the result of a k-sample jackknife (where k = 28). The standard errors from the heaping model are better approximations than those from the standard model. We have used jackknife since using the standard errors from the last EM step is incorrect. Comparing the results of both our heaping model and the model without heaping leads to the following conclusions.

• Heaping exists. All heaping parameters are significantly non-zero.

• For both models, the factors having the most important influence on unemployment duration are the same, although the coefficients slightly differ.

• Respondents tend more to round backward than forward; this holds for begin points as well as for end points.

The nonparametric optimal baseline hazard for our heaping model is somewhat jumpy, however. The small amount of data might have caused these jumps.

Finally, a remark on computing time of the jackknife. On a 386 SX-20, computing took approximately 13 days, on a 486 DX-33, it took 4 days and on a parallel computer with 16 processors it took 13 minutes [14]. Clearly, parallel computing can be of great value for jackknife computations.

6 Remarks

We conclude with the following remarks.

• Right censored durations usually give less information than fully observed durations. If censoring is independent of heaping, then right censored durations may give more information about the end point than fully observed durations whose end points are on a 'suspicious' month.

• The data for the problem at hand are in discrete time, while our heaping model uses continuous time survival theory, see section 4.1. In continuous time survival theory the hazard rate follows directly from the integrated hazard, by differentiating the latter. However, for the discrete version this is not quite the same, see [9] for more on this topic.
Table 1: Comparison of estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEP unemployment data</th>
<th>756 observations, 9 covariates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Cox regression</td>
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<tr>
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<td>sex</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>$p_b$</td>
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<td>$r_e$</td>
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</table>

This discrepancy in the stochastic specification, see section 4.3, facilitates computation and is not expected to affect seriously the validity of our analysis.

- The heaping model described in this paper is based on a separate modelling of begin and end point heaping. We believe it is indeed better (more realistic) to model begin heaping and end heaping separately, instead of modelling the heaping of durations, even when no information is available about the begin points and end points.

- We emphasize that the assumptions in this paper are only intended to keep the implementation of the model transparent; extensions of the model and relaxation of the assumptions are straightforward, but left for future research.

It is our opinion that we have established a reasonable balance between the degree of complexity of the model and the degree of realism of the assumptions, at least for the problem at hand. We hope to have illustrated a reasonable heaping model and the use of profile likelihood.

References


