## **Measurement Error 1: Consequences of Measurement Error**

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Parameter	Explanation
$E(X) = \frac{\sum X_i}{N} = \mu_x$	Expectation, or Mean, of X
$V(X) = E[(X - \mu_x)^2] = \sigma_x^2$	Variance of X
$SD(X) = \sqrt{V(X)} = \sigma_x$	Standard Deviation of X
$COV(X,Y) = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)] = \sigma_{xy}$	Covariance of X and Y
$CORR(X,Y) = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = r_{xy} = r_{yx}$	Correlation of X and Y
$\beta_{yx} = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x^2}$	Slope coefficient for the Bivariate regression of Y on X (Y dependent)

Definitions. For two variables, X and Y, the following hold:

*Question*: Suppose X suffers from random measurement error - that is, the values of X that we observe differ randomly from the true values that we are interested in. For example, we might be interested in income. Since people do not remember their income exactly, reported income will sometimes be higher and sometimes be lower than true income. In such a case, how does random measurement error affect the various statistical measures we are typically interested in? That is, how does <u>unreliability</u> affect our statistical measures and conclusions?

*Revised Question*: Let us put the question more formally. Let  $X = X_t + \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is a random error term (i.e. has mean 0 and variance  $s^2_{\varepsilon}$ ). That is,  $X_t$  is the "true" value of the variable, and X is the flawed measure of the variable that is observed. We want to see how the statistics for the observed variable, X, differ from the statistics for the true variable, X<sub>t</sub>. When thinking about this question, keep in mind that, because  $\varepsilon$  is a random error term, it is <u>independent</u> from all other variables (except itself), e.g. COV(X,  $\varepsilon$ ) = COV(Y,  $\varepsilon$ ) = 0.

Definition of Reliability: The reliability of a variable is defined as:

$$\operatorname{REL}(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\sigma_{x_t}^2}{\sigma_x^2} = r^2 x_{tX}$$

The first equality says reliability is true variance divided by total variance. The second equality says the reliability of a variable is the squared correlation between the true value of the variable and the observed value that suffers from random measurement error. If there is no random measurement error, reliability = 1.

Some additional rules for expectations. Before answering the question, the following additional rules are helpful. Let A, B, C, and D be random variables. Then,

- (1) E(A + B) = E(A) + E(B)
- (2) If A and B are independent, V(A + B) = V(A) + V(B)
- (3) COV(A + B, C + D) = COV(A,C) + COV(A,D) + COV(B,C) + COV(B,D)

*Hypothetical Data.* To help illustrate the points that will follow, we create a data set where the true measures (Yt and Xt) have a correlation of .7 with each other – but the observed measures (Y and X) both have some degree of random measurement error, and the reliability of both is .64. The way I am constructing the data set, using the corr2data command, there will be no sampling variability, i.e. we can act as though we have the entire population.

```
. matrix input corr = (1,.7,0,0\.7,1,0,0\0,0,1,0\0,0,0,1)
. matrix input sd = (4,8,3,6)
. matrix input mean = (10,7,0,0)
. corr2data Yt Xt ey ex, corr(corr) sd(sd) mean(mean) n(500)
(obs 500)
. * Create flawed measures with random measurement error
. gen Y = Yt + ey
. gen X = Xt + ex
```

## **Effects of Unreliability**

A. For the mean:  $E(X) = E(X_t + \varepsilon) = E(X_t) + E(\varepsilon) = E(X_t)$ 

 $E(X) = E(X_t + \varepsilon) = E(X_t) + E(\varepsilon) = E(X_t)$  [Expectations rule 1] NOTE: Remember, since errors are random,  $\varepsilon$  has mean 0.

*Implication*: Random measurement error does <u>not</u> bias the expected value of a variable - that is,  $E(X) = E(X_t)$ 

B. For the variance:

$$\begin{split} V(X) &= V(X_t + \epsilon) = V(X_t) + V(\epsilon) & [Expectations rule 2] \\ \text{NOTE: Remember, COV}(X_t, \epsilon) &= 0 \text{ because } \epsilon \text{ is a random disturbance.} \end{split}$$

*Implication*: Random measurement error <u>does</u> result in biased variances. The variance of the observed variable will be <u>greater</u> than the true variance.

A & B illustrated with our hypothetical data. We see that the flawed, observed measures have the same means as the true measures – but their variances & standard deviations are larger:

. sum Yt Y Xt X

Variable	0bs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Yt Y Xt X	500 500 500 500 500	10 10 7 7	5 8	-2.639851 -3.706503 -16.16331 -23.81675	22.83863 26.55569 28.80884 38.49127

C. For the covariance (we'll let Yt stand for the perfectly measured Y variable):  $COV(X,Yt) = COV(X_t + \varepsilon, Yt) = COV(X_t, Yt) + COV(\varepsilon, Yt)$  $= COV(X_t, Yt)$  [Expectations rule 3]

NOTE: Remember,  $COV(\varepsilon, Yt) = 0$  because  $\varepsilon$  is a random disturbance.

Implication: Covariances are not biased by random measurement error.

*C illustrated with our hypothetical data*. Random measurement error in X does NOT affect the covariance:

```
. corr Yt Xt X, cov
(obs=500)
Yt | 16
Xt | 22.4 64
X | 22.4 64 100
```

D. For the correlation:

 $r_{xy_t} = \frac{\sigma_{XY_t}}{\sigma_X \sigma_{Y_t}}, \ r_{x_t y_t} = \frac{\sigma_{X_t Y_t}}{\sigma_{X_t} \sigma_{Y_t}} = \frac{\sigma_{XY_t}}{\sigma_{X_t} \sigma_{Y_t}}.$ 

Thus, when X and Yt covary positively,  $CORR(X, Yt) \leq CORR(X_t, Yt)$ 

*Implication*: Random measurement error produces a <u>downward bias</u> in the bivariate correlation. This is often referred to as <u>attenuation</u>.

D with hypothetical data. The correlation is attenuated by random measurement error: . corr Yt Xt X (obs=500) Yt | 1.0000 Xt | 0.7000 1.0000 X | 0.5600 0.8000 1.0000

Note that the correlation between X and Xt is .8 - and that the correlation between X and Yt (.56) is only .8 times as large as the correlation between Xt and Yt (.7). Also, the .8 correlation between X and Xt means that the reliability of X is .64.

E. For  $\beta_{YtX}$ : (Yt is perfectly measured, X has random measurement error)

$$\beta_{YtX} = \frac{\sigma_{XYt}}{\sigma_X^2}, \ \beta_{YtXt} = \frac{\sigma_{XtYt}}{\sigma_{Xt}^2}$$
 Thus, when X and Yt covary positively,  $\beta_{YtX} \le \beta_{YtXt}$ 

*Implication*: Random measurement error in the Independent variable produces a <u>downward bias</u> in the bivariate regression slope coefficient.

*E with hypothetical data*. In a bivariate regression, random measurement error in X causes the slope coefficient to be attenuated, i.e. smaller in magnitude. First we run the regression between the true measures, and then we run the regression of Yt with the flawed measure X:

. reg Yt Xt

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs $F(1, 498)$	
Model	3912.16007	1 3912	2.16007		Prob > F	
1	4071.84001				R-squared	
+-					Adj R-squared	= 0.4890
Total	7984.00008	499 16.0	000002		Root MSE	= 2.8594
Yt	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
xt	. 35	.0160008	21.87	0.000	.3185627	.3814373
_cons	7.55	.169994	44.41	0.000	7.216006	7.883994
. reg Yt X Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs $F(1, 498)$	
Model	2503.78247	1 2503	8.78247		Prob > F	
Residual	5480.21761	498 11.	004453		R-squared	= 0.3136
+-					Adj R-squared	
Total	7984.00008	499 16.0	000002		Root MSE	= 3.3173
Yt	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Х	.224	.0148503	15.08	0.000	.1948231	.2531769
_cons	8.432	.1811488	46.55	0.000	8.07609	8.78791

Note that X has a reliability of .64 - and the slope coefficient using the flawed X (.224) is only .64 times as large as the slope coefficient using the perfectly measured Xt (.35).

F. For  $\beta_{YXt}$ : (Now Y is measured with random error, while Xt is measured perfectly)

$$\beta_{YXt} = \frac{\sigma_{X_tY}}{\sigma_{X_t}^2}, \quad \beta_{Y_tX_t} = \frac{\sigma_{X_tY_t}}{\sigma_{X_t}^2}.$$
 Thus,  $\beta_{YXt} = \beta_{YtXt}$ 

*Implication*: Random measurement error in the Dependent variable <u>does not</u> bias the slope coefficient. HOWEVER, it does lead to larger standard errors. Recall that the formula for the standard error of b is

$$s_b = \sqrt{\frac{1-R^2}{(N-K-1)}} * \frac{s_Y}{s_X}$$

When you have random measurement error in Y,  $R^2$  goes down because of the previously noted downward bias. This increases the numerator. Also, the variance of Y goes up, which further increases the standard error.

*F* with hypothetical data. Random measurement error in Y does not cause the slope coefficient to be biased – but it does cause the standard error for the slope coefficient to be larger and the t value smaller. Again we run the true regression followed by the regression of Y with Xt.

. reg it it
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Source    Model   Residual   + Total		498 8.17	 .16007 638555 		Number of obs F( 1, 498) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared Root MSE	$= 478.47 \\ = 0.0000 \\ = 0.4900$
 Yt	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Xt   _cons					.3185627 7.216006	
. reg Y Xt						
Source	SS	df 	MS		Number of obs $F(1, 498)$	
Model   Residual	3912.16001 8562.84011				Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 = 0.3136
Total	12475.0001	499 25.0	000002		Root MSE	= 4.1466
Y	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Xt   _cons		.0232035 .2465171			.3044111 7.065658	

## Additional implications

- When you have more than one independent variable, random measurement error can cause coefficients to be biased <u>either</u> upward or downward. As you add more variables to the model, all you can really be sure of is that, if the variables suffer from random measurement error (and most do) the results will probably be at least a little wrong!
- Reliability is a function of both the total variance and the error variance. True variance is a population characteristic; error variance is a characteristic of the measuring instrument.
- The fact that reliabilities differ between groups does not necessarily mean that one group is more "accurate." It may just mean that there is less true variance in one group than there is in another.
- Comparisons of any sort can be distorted by differential reliability of variables. For example, if comparing effects of two variables, one variable may appear to have a stronger effect simply because it is better measured. If comparing, say, husbands and wives, the spouse who gives more accurate information may appear more influential. For a more detailed discussion of how measurement error can affect group comparisons, see Thomson, Elizabeth and Richard Williams (1982) "Beyond wives family sociology: a method for analyzing couple data" Journal of Marriage and the Family Vol 44 999:1008

*Dealing with measurement error.* For the most part, this is a subject for a research methods class or a more advanced statistics class. I'll toss out a few ideas for now:

- Collect better quality data in the first place. Make questions as clear as possible.
- Measure multiple indicators of concepts. When more than one question measures a concept, it is possible to estimate reliability and to take corrective action. For a more detailed discussion on measuring reliability, see <u>Reliability and Validity Assessment</u>, by Edward G. Carmines and Richard A. Zeller. 1979. Paper # 17 in the Sage Series on Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Create scales from multiple indicators of a concept. The scales will generally be more reliable than any single item would be. In SPSS you might use the FACTOR or RELIABILITY commands; in Stata relevant commands include factor and alpha.
- Use advanced techniques, such as LISREL, which let you incorporate multiple indicators of a concept in your model. Ideally, LISREL "purges" the items of measurement error hence producing unbiased estimates of structural parameters. In Stata 12+, this can also be done with the sem (Structural Equation Modeling) command.