

Introduction to Measurement Error: Prevalence, Impact and Adjustments

Jose Pina-Sánchez (University of Leeds)
j.pinasanchez@leeds.ac.uk



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- What is measurement error?
 - The result of an imperfect measurement process
 - Discrepancies between the ‘true’ and the observed value

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- What is measurement error?
 - The result of an imperfect measurement process
 - Discrepancies between the ‘true’ and the observed value
- A widespread problem, but especially prevalent in the Social Sciences
 - Elusive constructs, subjectively defined, e.g. happiness, ethnicity
 - Even when well-defined, they often are subjectively elicited: e.g. survey data, affected by memory failures (e.g. *when was the last time you went to a pub?*), social desirability (e.g. *for how long have you been unemployed?*)
 - Administrative/official data used as proxies (e.g. using earnings to measure poverty; measuring violent crime from police records)

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- What is measurement error?
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- A widespread problem, but especially prevalent in the Social Sciences
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 - Administrative/official data used as proxies (e.g. using earnings to measure poverty; measuring violent crime from police records)
- To investigate the prevalence, impact and adjustments we need to define these errors formally using measurement error models

Defining Measurement Error Formally

- The classical measurement error model (random errors)

$$\underbrace{\widehat{X^*}}^{\text{observed}} = \underbrace{\widehat{X}}^{\text{true value}} + \underbrace{\widehat{U}}^{\text{noise}}$$

- with the errors taken to be randomly distributed, $U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$
- E.g. results from an IQ test, blood pressure measurements,



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- with the errors taken to be randomly distributed, $U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$
- E.g. results from an IQ test, blood pressure measurements,



- Only the variance is affected

- $\sigma_{X^*}^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_U^2$; but the mean is unaffected since $E(U) = 0$
- Taking repeated observations we can estimate the prevalence of classical measurement error

- The reliability ratio: $\rho_{X^*} = \frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_U^2} = \frac{\text{true variability}}{\text{observed variability}}$

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Systematic Errors

- The classical model is the most commonly used in applications seeking to describe and adjust for measurement error
 - It is simple, and reflects well enough some measurement error mechanisms, but it is often misleading

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 - It is simple, and reflects well enough some measurement error mechanisms, but it is often misleading
- Measurement error is often *systematic*
 - $X^* = X + U$; but $E(U) \neq 0$
 - E.g. crime reported to the police, self-reported xenophobia, whether received benefits



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 - $X^* = X + U$; but $E(U) \neq 0$
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- Repeated observations won't pick up systematic errors
 - We need a *gold standard* (at least for a subgroup of our sample)
 - E.g. Unemployment register, victimisation surveys

More Errors (Multiplicative)?!

- What if the error is proportional to the true value of the quantity being measured?
 - E.g. memory failures;

How many alcohol units do you drink per week?

How many times have you eaten indoors (in a restaurant or similar) since 'Freedom day'?

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More Errors (Multiplicative)?!

- What if the error is proportional to the true value of the quantity being measured?

- E.g. memory failures;

How many alcohol units do you drink per week?

How many times have you eaten indoors (in a restaurant or similar) since 'Freedom day'?

- These can be better specified using a multiplicative rather than an additive model

I.e., as $X^* = X \cdot U$, rather than $X^* = X + U$,

with $E(U) = 1$ if random, and $E(U) \neq 1$ if systematic

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More Errors (Multiplicative)?!

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 - How many alcohol units do you drink per week?*
 - How many times have you eaten indoors (in a restaurant or similar) since 'Freedom day'?*
 - These can be better specified using a multiplicative rather than an additive model
 - I.e., as $X^* = X \cdot U$, rather than $X^* = X + U$, with $E(U) = 1$ if random, and $E(U) \neq 1$ if systematic
- Often we might have multiple mechanisms
 - Recounting Crime, an ESRC project where we study measurement error in police recorded crime rates
 - We have defined the measurement error as:
 - i) multiplicative systematic, since not all crime is reported to the police, and the observed crime seems proportional to the true extent of crime in the area
 - ii) subject to variability across areas, as a result of the different reporting rates and recording practices across police forces

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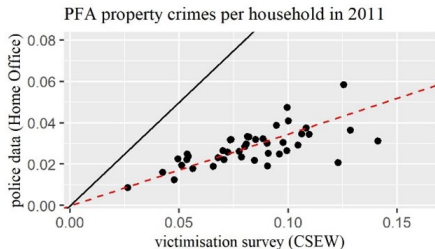
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Multiplicative Errors: Crime Rates



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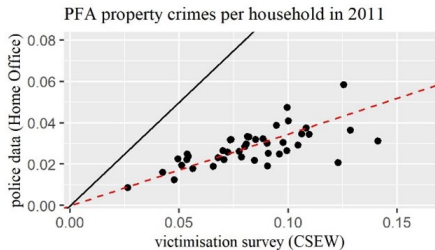
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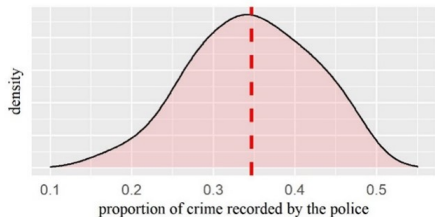
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Multiplicative Errors: Crime Rates



Measurement error ($U=X^*/X$), property crime



More Errors (Misclassification)?!

- Up to now we have taken examples from continuous variables
- What if the variable affected by measurement error is discrete?
 - E.g. self-reported work status, ethnicity determined through subjects' names
- We have a misclassification problem
 - which, for a binary variable, can be specified through a 2x2 misclassification matrix

$$\begin{cases} P(X^* = 1|X = 1) = \theta_{1|1}; & \text{Sensitivity} \\ P(X^* = 0|X = 0) = \theta_{0|0}; & \text{Specificity} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} P(X^* = 1|X = 0) = \theta_{1|0}; & \text{Probability false positive} \\ P(X^* = 0|X = 1) = \theta_{0|1}; & \text{Probability false negative} \end{cases}$$

The Impact of Measurement Error

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The Impact of Measurement Error

- We have seen how different forms of measurement error can affect univariate stats
 - Random errors affect measures of dispersion, systematic errors affect measures of centrality
- But how does measurement error affect estimates from multivariate (regression) models?

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The Impact of Measurement Error

- We have seen how different forms of measurement error can affect univariate stats
 - Random errors affect measures of dispersion, systematic errors affect measures of centrality
- But how does measurement error affect estimates from multivariate (regression) models?
- Assuming only one variable is prone to measurement error, its impact will depend on:
 - ① the outcome model (whether linear, Poisson, etc.)
 - ② the measurement error model (additive, random, etc.)
 - ③ where is the affected variable introduced in the model (as a response or an explanatory variable)

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- Let's review some scenarios for the case of simple linear regression

$$- Y = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$$

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- Let's review some scenarios for the case of simple linear regression

$$- Y = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$$

- Random additive errors affecting the response variable

$$- Y^* = Y + U, \text{ and } U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$$

- E.g. IQ scores, measures of blood pressure

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- Random additive errors affecting the response variable

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- E.g. IQ scores, measures of blood pressure

- Similar errors affecting the explanatory variable

$$- X^* = X + U, \text{ and } U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$$

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- 1 Random additive errors affecting the response variable

$$- Y^* = Y + U, \text{ and } U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$$

- E.g. IQ scores, measures of blood pressure

- 2 Similar errors affecting the explanatory variable

$$- X^* = X + U, \text{ and } U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$$

- 3 Systematic additive errors affecting the response variable

$$- Y^* = Y + U, \text{ and } E(U) \neq 0$$

- E.g. self-reported position in a scale of xenophilia, percentage of income donated to charities

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- E.g. IQ scores, measures of blood pressure

- Similar errors affecting the explanatory variable

$$- X^* = X + U, \text{ and } U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$$

- Systematic additive errors affecting the response variable

$$- Y^* = Y + U, \text{ and } E(U) \neq 0$$

- E.g. self-reported position in a scale of xenophilia, percentage of income donated to charities

- Systematic multiplicative errors affecting the response variable

$$- Y^* = Y \cdot U, \text{ and } E(U) \neq 1$$

- E.g. self-reported duration of spells of unemployment, police recorded crime across areas

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Classical Error on the Response

- Scenario 1: random additive errors on the response

$$- Y^* = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon, \text{ with } Y^* = Y + U, \text{ and } U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$$

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Classical Error on the Response

- Scenario 1: random additive errors on the response
 - $Y^* = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$, with $Y^* = Y + U$, and $U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$
 $Y + U = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$
 $Y = \alpha + \beta X + (\epsilon - U)$
 - The measurement error is absorbed by the model's error term, affecting precision, but leaving regression coefficients unbiased

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$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + (\epsilon - U)$$

- The measurement error is absorbed by the model's error term, affecting precision, but leaving regression coefficients unbiased

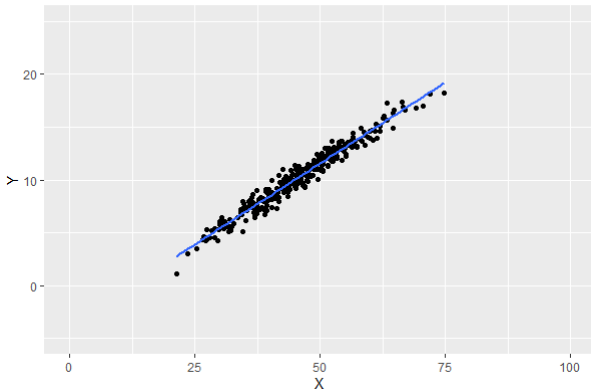
- We can see this effect using simulated data

$$Y \sim N(10, 3); \quad X = 15 + 3Y + \epsilon; \quad \rho_{Y,X} = 0.97$$

$$\sigma_U = (0, 1, 2, 3)$$

Classical Error on the Response

Scatterplot for Y and X



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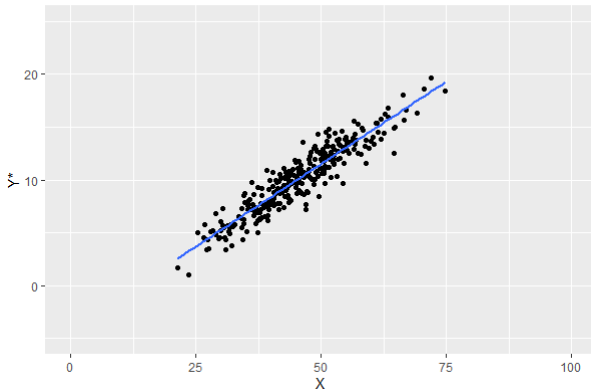
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Scatterplot for Y^* and X , where $Y^*=Y+U$, and $U\sim N(0,1)$ 

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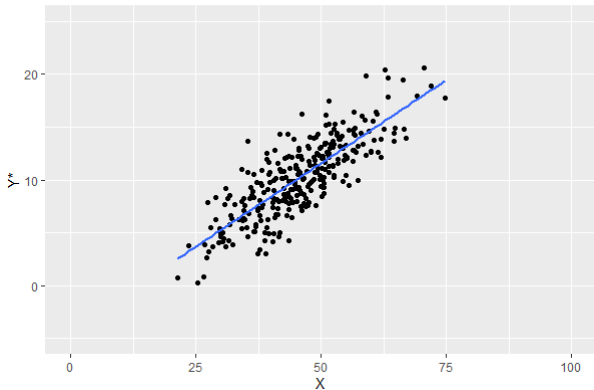
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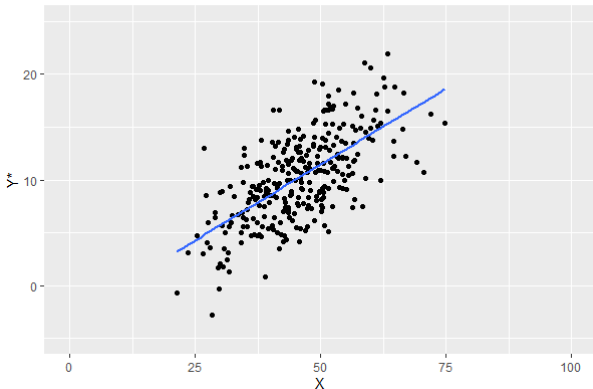
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Classical Error on a Covariate

- Scenario 2: random additive errors on the covariate
 - $Y = \alpha + \beta X^* + \epsilon$, with $X^* = X + U$, and $U \sim N(0, \sigma_U)$

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$$\begin{cases} \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X} \\ \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X^2} \end{cases}$$

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- If instead we have...

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\alpha}^* = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X}^* \\ \hat{\beta}^* = \frac{\sigma_{X^*Y}}{\sigma_{X^*}^2} \end{cases}$$

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$$\begin{cases} \hat{\alpha}^* = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X}^* = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X} = \hat{\alpha}; \quad \underline{\text{unbiased constant}} \\ \hat{\beta}^* = \frac{\sigma_{X^*Y}}{\sigma_{X^*}^2} \end{cases}$$

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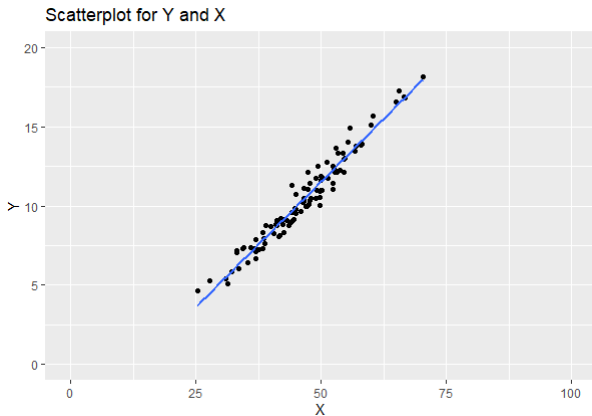
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- We can see this effect using simulated data

$$Y \sim N(10, 3); \quad X = 15 + 3Y + \epsilon; \quad \rho_{Y,X} = 0.97$$

$$\sigma_U = (0, 5, 10, 20)$$

Effect of Random Measurement Error



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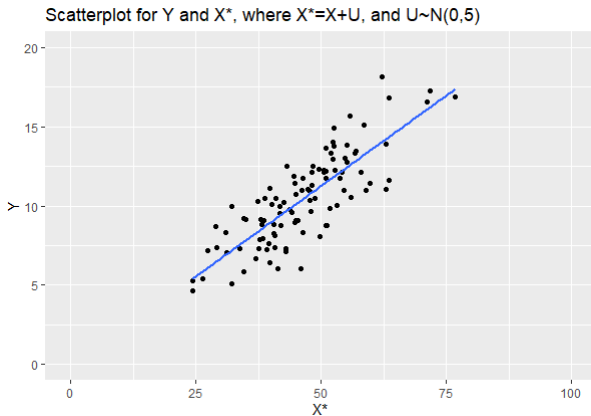
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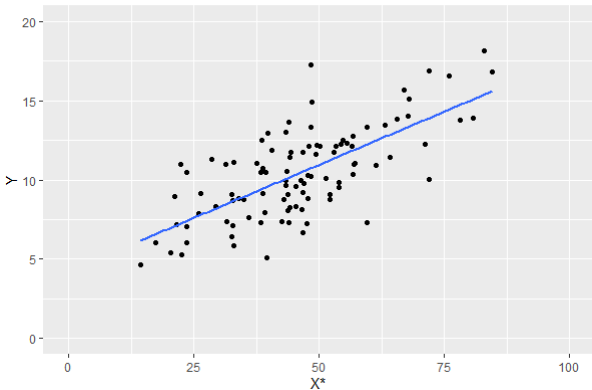
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Scatterplot for Y and X^* , where $X^*=X+U$, and $U \sim N(0,10)$ 

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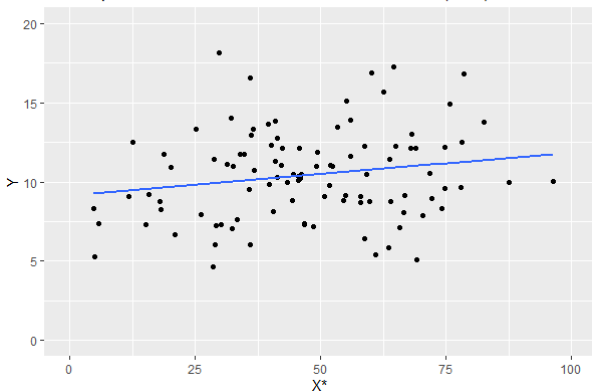
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Systematic Errors on the Response

- Scenario 3: systematic additive errors on the response
 - $Y^* = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$, with $Y^* = Y + U$, and $E(U) \neq 0$

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$$Y + U = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$$

$$Y = (\alpha - U) + \beta X + \epsilon$$

- The constant is biased, but the slope is not

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- Scenario 4: systematic multiplicative errors on the response

- $Y^* = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$, with $\underline{Y^* = Y \cdot U}$, and $E(U) \neq 1$

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- Scenario 4: systematic multiplicative errors on the response

- $Y^* = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$, with $\underline{Y^* = Y \cdot U}$, and $E(U) \neq 1$

$$Y \cdot U = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$$

$$Y = \frac{\alpha + \beta X + \epsilon}{U}$$

- All regression coefficients are biased

E.g. When modelling police crime rates ($E(U) < 1$), regression coefficients are biased upwards

Impact of Measurement Error

- Depending on the type of errors, we see vastly different impacts
 - From relatively negligible to ‘all is wrong!’
 - Even when the errors are completely random

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Impact of Measurement Error

- Depending on the type of errors, we see vastly different impacts
 - From relatively negligible to ‘all is wrong!’
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- We have only considered simple linear regression
 - When we add other explanatory variables their coefficients will also be biased, even if they are perfectly measured
 - Much harder to assess if we consider more complex models: non-linear, two-stage processes, systems of equations, etc.
 - For most ‘real-world’ applications we won’t be able to trace out the measurement error induced biased algebraically
 - And we have not even consider how measurements of uncertainty are also affected

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 - And we have not even consider how measurements of uncertainty are also affected

- In the words of Nugent et al. (2000: 60):
 - *“Measurement error is, to borrow a metaphor, a gremlin hiding in the details of our research that can contaminate the entire set of estimated regression parameters”*

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Adjustment Methods

- We should always aim to improve data collection processes
- When that is not possible we should adjust for the impact of measurement error
 - We have seen how to do this in some simple settings, where we can anticipate the impact

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- Ex.1, the effect of perceptions of offender dangerousness (subject to classical errors) on the duration of prison sentences
 - the measurement error variability can be derived from the inter-rater reliability for a subsample of cases,
 - which can then be used to adjust the expected bias

$$\hat{\beta}^* = \hat{\beta} \left(\frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_U^2} \right)$$

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- Ex.2, the effect of immigration on crime rates recorded by the police (systematic multiplicative errors)
 - the under-recording can be estimated using victimisation surveys,
$$\hat{\beta}^* = \hat{\beta} / \bar{U}$$

Adjustment Methods

- When we can't trace out the impact of measurement error algebraically we need to use other methods

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Adjustment Methods

- When we can't trace out the impact of measurement error algebraically we need to use other methods
- Most adjustment methods require additional forms of data
 - Multiple reflective indicators (latent variable models)
 - Instrumental variables (two stage processes)
 - A validation subsample (multiple imputation)
 - Repeated observations (regression calibration)

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Adjustment Methods

- When we can't trace out the impact of measurement error algebraically we need to use other methods
- Most adjustment methods require additional forms of data
 - Multiple reflective indicators (latent variable models)
 - Instrumental variables (two stage processes)
 - A validation subsample (multiple imputation)
 - Repeated observations (regression calibration)
- Others can be used when all you have is an educated guess (sensitivity analysis)
 - Bayesian adjustments (Gustaffson, 2003)
 - Multiple overimputation (Blackwell et al., 2017)
 - SIMEX (Cook & Stefanski, 1994)

Bayesian Adjustments

- The most flexible approach
 - Can adjust any form of measurement error
 - We just need to specify a measurement model to be estimated simultaneously with our outcome model
 - The more we know about the underlying measurement error mechanisms the better the measurement model can be specified
 - The better the measurement model the more effective the adjustment
 - Even if we have an educated guess, it is still worth doing as a sensitivity analysis

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 - Even if we have an educated guess, it is still worth doing as a sensitivity analysis
- The hardest to implement?
 - To really exploit the full flexibility of Bayesian methods we need to use Bayesian software
 - Stan, WinBUGS

Bayesian Adjustments

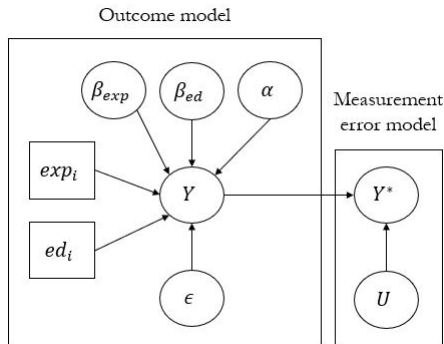
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SIMEX

- The simplest approach?
 - Estimates the impact of measurement error through simulation
 - All we need is an understanding of the form and prevalence of the measurement error
 - An R package ([simex](#)) with built-in commands to explore the impact in general cases (e.g. additive errors, misclassification)

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- The SIMulation-EXtrapolation algorithm
 - Assuming $Y = \alpha + \beta X^* + \epsilon$, and $X^* = X + U$

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 - ④ $\overline{\hat{\beta}_k^*}$ and λ_k can now be paired and their relationship estimated
 - ⑤ $\hat{\beta}_{SIMEX}$ can now be calculated by extrapolating to $\lambda_k = -1$

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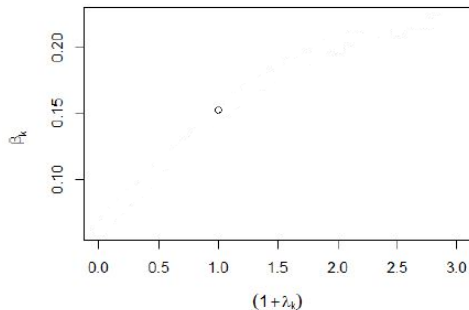
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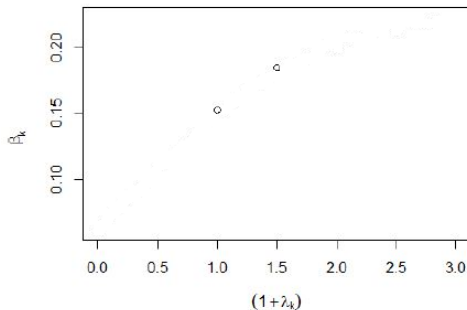
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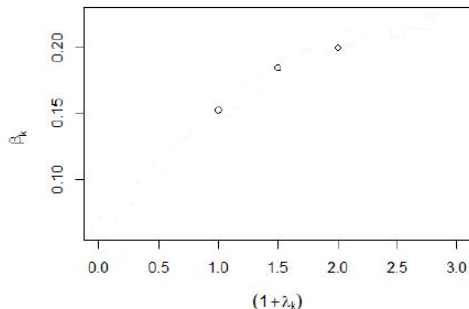
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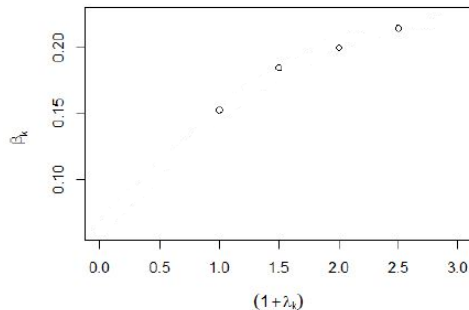
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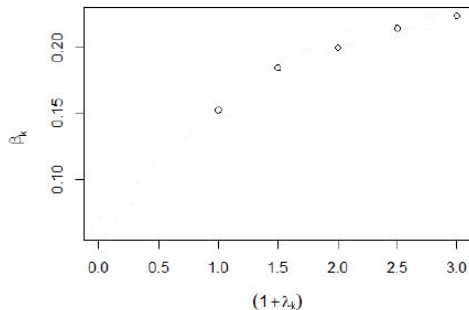
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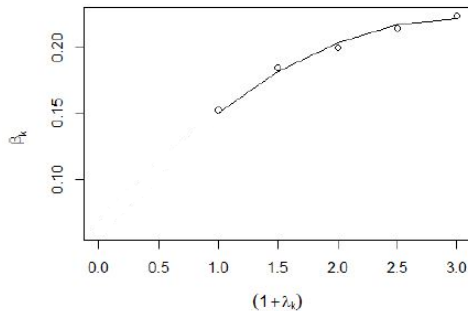
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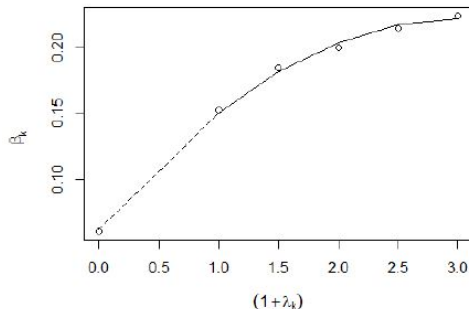
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- Many of the variables we use are affected by measurement error
 - Yet, we do very little about it

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 - The specific impact is hard to anticipate beyond simple scenarios

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- A much bigger problem than we tend to acknowledge
 - Affecting countless studies, potentially quite severely

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 - Even if the errors are random
 - The specific impact is hard to anticipate beyond simple scenarios
- A much bigger problem than we tend to acknowledge
 - Affecting countless studies, potentially quite severely
- Besides improving data collection processes, we also need to employ adjustments methods
 - Many require additional data, others are quite complex
 - But there are a few methods that are simple enough, and can be used even as a sensitivity analysis tool
 - We should use them every time we suspect measurement error is present in any of our variables

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