Impact of Measurement Errors on Estimators of Parameters of a Finite Population with Linear Trend Under Systematic Sampling

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Abstract: The study involves investigating the impact of measurement errors on estimators of parameters of a finite population with linear trend among population values, under systematic sampling. The study provides deep understanding on the amount and nature of deviation introduced by errors and how these errors affect estimators of parameters of a population with linear trend. Consideration is given to measurement errors that assume a normal distribution. Systematic sampling technique is used where a sample of size \( n \) is selected randomly from a finite population with a fixed interval \( a \). Systematic sampling is considered instead of simple random sampling in this case because of its effectiveness in dealing with linear trend. The explicit values of population totals, means and variances together with their estimates are derived. The results indicate that there can be overestimate of the population mean if the expected systematic errors tend towards positive values and underestimate if the expected systematic error tend towards negative values. When random errors are considered, there is no effect on estimated population parameters.

Keywords: Finite Population with Linear Trend, Systematic Sampling, Measurement Errors

1. Introduction

In an ideal situation, it is assumed that through some kind of probability sampling, in this case systematic sampling, the observation \( y_i \) on the \( i^{th} \) unit is the correct value for that unit, and that sampling errors may arise solely from the random sampling variation that is present when \( n \) units are measured instead of complete population of \( N \) units. Contrary to the assumption, non-sampling errors that are due to measurement or observation do occur at data collection stage.

The true score theory is a good simple model for measurement. It consists of true value and two error components; random error and systematic error.

\[
y = t + e_r + e_s
\]  

\( y \) is the measured value  
\( t \) is the true value  
\( e_r \) is the random error  
\( e_s \) is the systematic error

Random error is caused by unpredictable fluctuation in the reading of a measurement apparatus or experimenter’s interpretation of the instrumental reading. Systematic error is caused by any physical factor that affect an experiment or measurement of the variable across the sample in a predictable direction.

According to Fuller and Carroll et al [1, 2], it is well known that measurement errors in observed data can lead researchers to draw incorrect inferences. Much of the early work in this area focused on the typical textbook model of classical measurement error. Bound et al [3] concluded the survey of measurement errors by calling for researchers to pay more attention to the possibility of non-classical measurement error, both in accessing the likely biases in the analyses that take no
account of measurement error and in devising procedure that
corrects such error.

In recent years, a number of papers have examined the
consequences of non-classical measurement errors in labor
economics.

[4-6], all noted that non-classical measurement errors of the
type typically found in income data, attenuates the role of
white noise measurement error in models of earnings
dynamics.

Measurement errors can best be studied if the true value is
obtained. This approach is limited to items for which a
feasible method for finding the true value exists. For instance
majority of studies using Body Mass Index(BMI) rely on
self-reported measures from survey data sets. However Conor
et al shows that there is a large body of evidence which
suggests that self-reported BMI tends to underestimate true
BMI; this occurs both because people underreport their weight
and overestimate their height [7]. Looking at measurement
errors in self-reported BMI specifically, Plankey et al
examines the consequences of these errors when classifying
people according to obesity status [8]. Stommel et al [9]
compared self-reported and recorded BMI using US data and
found a substantial amount of misclassification of obesity
status when using self-reported BMI, particularly in the
extreme (overweight or underweight) categories. Consequences of this measurement errors were examined
when analysing the impact of BMI on a range of health risks.

Belloc [10], compared data on hospitalization as reported in
household interviews with the hospital records for the
individuals. Hospital record produces the true values which
are then compared to the observed values from household
interviews. Gray [11] compared employee’s statements of sick
leave with the personal office records. The comparison of data
was to determine the presence of measurement errors if any.
[12-13] compares respondents’ illness with either doctors’
records on the respondents or with the results of a complete
medical examination.

According to Särndal measurement errors arise during data
collection stage, and may have a considerable impact on the
estimates [14]. In recent studies; Nyabwanga [15] studied
Effect of measurement errors on population in random order.
Rosella et al [16] studied the influence of measurement error
on calibration, discrimination and overall estimation of risk
prediction model. O’Neil et al [17] examined the
consequences of measurement errors in self-reported BMI
when estimating the relationship between obesity and income.

In this project further study is based on The Impact of
Measurement Errors on Estimators of Parameters for a finite
Population with Linear Trend under Systematic Sampling.

Finite population with linear trend consists of N units
identified by the label 1, 2,..., N ordered in increasing size.
Through systematic sampling, the population is then divided
into 271 Oloo Odhiambo Erick et al.: Impact of Measurement Errors on Estimators of Parameters of a Finite
Population with Linear Trend Under Systematic Sampling
into 2 a samples of n units each.

The table below shows sets of all possible samples.

| Table 1. Sets of all possible samples. |
|--------------------------------------|
| Samples, s | S1 | S2 | ... | Sn-1 | Sn |
| y values   | y1 | y2 | ... | yh-1| yh |
| y values   | yh+1 | yh+2 | ... | yh+h | yN |
| Sample totals | t1s1 | t2s2 | ... | ts1 | tN |

Let systematic sampling be denoted as SY.

The sets of all possible samples denoted Sny consists of a
different sets that are non-overlapping that can be obtained as

\[ S_{N_y} = \{S1, S2, ..., Sn\} \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

Sampling design of SY is thus given as

\[ p(s) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } s \text{ belongs to } S_{N_y} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

Each sample or a cluster is selected with probability \(1/n\) and observed completely as per the design.

2. Parameter Estimation

2.1. Estimation of Parameters for a Finite Population with
Linear Trend Under Systematic Sampling

Let N be the size of a finite population. Suppose the finite
population is such that the observed values assume a
hypothetical trend as

\[ y_i = \mu + \beta_i \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where \( \mu \) and \( \beta \) are constants and \( i = 1, 2, ..., N \) are ordered
in increasing size of the label.

The population is then said to possess linear trend among its
values.

Let population size \( N \) be a multiple of \( n \), \( N = an \). The
estimate of population mean under linear systematic sampling
in which case a single random start is taken is obtained as

\[ \bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (\mu + \beta i) = \mu + \frac{N+1}{2} \beta \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

According to Mukhopadhyay [20], population with linear
trend has a systematic sample given by

\[ \mu + \beta \left[ r + (l-1)a \right] \], \text{ where } r \text{ is the random start,}
The sample total
\[ t_s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ \mu + \beta [ r + (l-1)a ] \right\} \tag{5} \]

Then the sample mean is written as
\[ \bar{y}_s = \mu + \beta \left( r + a \frac{n-1}{2} \right) \tag{6} \]

\( \bar{y} \) is the mean of a systematic sample and through probability sampling, it is the unbiased estimator of \( \bar{Y} \)

Similarly, population total is denote as \( \sum_{i} \theta_i \)

Since the interest is in estimating population total, from a design-based approach, Horvitz-Thompson estimator, HTE, Horvitz and Thompson \([22]\) is used.

The estimator is defined as,
\[ \hat{t}_\pi = \sum_{U} \frac{l_i y_i}{\pi_j} = \sum_{j} \frac{y_i}{\pi_j} \tag{7} \]

Where \( \pi_j \) is the first order inclusion probability.

Under Systematic Sampling, SY design with sampling interval \( a \), and the response variable \( y_i \), the population total estimator for \( \pi_i = p(I_i = 1) = \frac{1}{a} \) is given as
\[ \hat{t}_\pi = \sum s y_i = at_s \tag{8} \]

Where \( \pi_i = p(I_i = 1) = \frac{1}{a} \) is the probability that the \( i^{th} \) unit of the population is included in the sample.

Finite population variance is given as
\[ S^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( y_i - \bar{Y} \right)^2 \]
\[ = \frac{N(N+1)}{12} \beta^2 \]

Variance of mean from a simple random sample is given as
\[ Var(\bar{y}_{sr}) = \frac{N-n}{N} s^2 \]
\[ = \frac{(a-1)(na+1)}{12} \beta^2 \]

Under systematic sampling, the variance of mean is given as
\[ Var(\bar{y}_s) = \frac{(a^2-1)}{12} \beta^2 \tag{9} \]

According to Daroga et al \([23]\), for removing effect of linear trend, systematic sampling is much more efficient than simple random sampling.

### 2.2. Estimation of Variance from a Single Systematic Sample

According to Särndal \([14]\), a major drawback of SY is that there is no unbiased estimator for the variance of the estimator of population mean except for some cases of circular systematic sampling. This is because SY is equivalent to cluster sampling with only one cluster selected.

However, under some assumptions about the nature of the population, it is possible to propose estimators that are approximately unbiased for the design variance.

In this case, the appropriate variance estimator for the population with linear trend in which case values of the units are steadily increasing by a constant amount is considered.

Many biased estimators have been proposed for this kind of population:

Wolter \([22]\), made analytical studies on population with linear trend and proposed the following estimator for the variance of the estimator of population total.

Assume \( n = 2m \). Since a systematic sample can be looked upon as grouping the population in \( m \) groups and choosing 2 units from each group of size \( 2a \), an estimator of the mean of the \( g^{th} \) group is
\[ \bar{y}_g = \frac{y_{2g} - y_{2g-1}}{2} \]

with the variance estimator
\[ v = \frac{a-1}{a} \left( \frac{y_{2g-1} - y_{2g}}{2} \right)^2 \]

Hence estimator of \( V_{sy} (t_\pi) \) is
\[ v_1 = N^2 \hat{\sigma} \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{g} y_g \right)^2 \]
\[ v_1 = N^2 \frac{1-f}{n^2} \sum_{g=1}^{m} \left( y_{2g-1} - y_{2g} \right)^2 \]
\[ , f = \frac{n}{N} \tag{10} \]

Cochran \([25]\), suggested the estimator below to be appropriate
\[ v = \hat{\sigma} (t_\pi) = N^2 a^{-1} \frac{n-n^{-1}}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} \left( y_i - 2y_{i+1} + y_{i+2} \right)^2 \]

for \( 1<i \leq n-2 \)

Where \( S^2_{sy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} \left( y_i - 2y_{i+1} + y_{i+2} \right)^2 \) is the variance of a systematic sample.
\( a \) is the sampling interval.  
The estimate is based on successive quadratic terms in the sequence \( y_{i1} \). The factor 6 is the sum of squares of the coefficients in the \( n - 2 \) differences. The term \( \frac{n^2 - 1}{n^2} \) is the sum of squares of the weights in \( y_{xy} \).  

\[ n' \text{ is due to the weight } \frac{2n-a-1}{2(n-1)a} \text{ applied to the first and the last sample values.} \]  

Unless \( n \) is small, \( \frac{n'}{n} \) can be replaced by the factor \( \frac{1}{n} \).  

Thus  

\[
v_2 = \hat{\Delta}(\bar{y}) = N^2 \frac{a-1}{an} \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} \left( \frac{y_i - 2y_{i+1} + y_{i+2}}{6(n-2)} \right),  
\]  

for \( 1 < i \leq n - 2 \).  

Yates [26], suggested the following estimator among others based successively on second and higher order differences.  

\[
v_3 = N^2 \frac{1-f}{3.5n(n-4)} \sum_{i=1}^{n-4} \left( \frac{y_i - y_{i+1} + y_{i+2} - y_{i+3} + y_{i+4}}{2} \right)^2  
\]  

The sum of squares contains (n-4) terms.  

### 2.3. Population Total Estimator and Its Variance in Presence of Random Errors  

Through measurement procedure, the \( i^{th} \) individual observed is accompanied by the random error term \( e_i \).  

The observed value is thus given as  

\[
y = \mu + \beta i + e_i  
\]  

The model can thus be expressed as  

\[
y_i = \mu + e_i  
\]  

Where  

\( y_i \) - is the observed value for the \( i^{th} \) individual,  

\( \mu + \beta i = \mu_i \) - is the true value for the \( i^{th} \) individual,  

\( e_i \) - is the random error for the \( i^{th} \) individual.  

For the true function value \( \mu_i \), population total is  

\[
t_y = \sum_i \mu_i  
\]  

Define  

\[
t_{\bar{y}/s} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi_i} = \frac{\sum_i y_i}{\pi_i} \]  
as the population total estimator (Horvitz-Thompson estimator), with \( \pi_i > 0 \)  

In SY design, \( \pi_i = p(I_i = 1) = \frac{1}{a} \)  

The joint expectation of the population total estimator is obtained as;  

\[
E_p(t_{\bar{y}/s}) = E_p\left[ \frac{E_m(t_{\bar{y}/s})}{s} \right] = \sum_i \mu_i  
\]  

The total variance of \( t_{\bar{y}/s} \) with respect to sampling design \( p(\cdot) \) and the measurement model \( m \) according to Särndal [14] is given as  

\[
V_p(t_{\bar{y}/s}) = E_p\left[ V_m(t_{\bar{y}/s}) \right] + V_p\left[ E_m(t_{\bar{y}/s}) \right]  
\]  

The variance of population estimator is the sum of the expected value of the conditional variance and the variance of conditional expected value.  

Therefore total variance consists of measurement variance and sampling variance respectively.  

Measurement variance when decomposed is expressed as follows;  

\[
E_p\left[ V_m(t_{\bar{y}/s}) \right] = a \sum_i \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij}  
\]  

Sampling variance when decomposed is also expressed as  

\[
V_p\left[ E_m(t_{\bar{y}/s}) \right] = \sum_j (a-1) \mu_i \mu_j  
\]  

Combining the results we have  

\[
V_p(t_{\bar{y}/s}) = a \sum_i \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + \sum_{ij} (a-1) \mu_i \mu_j  
\]  

This is the derived equation for total variance in presence of random error with respect to sampling design \( p(\cdot) \) and measurement model \( m \) jointly.  

The measurement variance \( a \sum_i \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} \) has simple response variance and the correlated response variance as its components respectively:  

\[
\sum_{ij} (a-1) \mu_i \mu_j \]  

is the sampling variance. Simple response variance reflects the random variation in a respondent’s answer to a survey over repeated measurements.  

Correlated response variance also known as interviewer variance occurs because response errors are correlated for sample units interviewed by the same interviewer.  

### 2.4. Mathematical Model for Errors of Measurement  

Suppose measurement could be independently repeated many times on unit \( i \in s \), we could generate different \( y_i \)-values.  

Let \( y_i \) be the realized value in the repeated observation, then  

\[
y_i = \mu + \beta i + e_i  
\]
Let $\mu + \beta i = \mu_i$

Thus

$$y_i = \mu_i + e_i + \varepsilon_i$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)$$

$\mu_i$ is the true value of unit $i$

Both $e_i$ and $\varepsilon_i$ are random variables where $e_i (i \in s)$ are independent random variables with $E(e_i) = 0$ and variance $\sigma_e^2$.

$e_1, \ldots, e_a$ are independent and identically distributed random variables with the expected value $\varepsilon$ and variance $\sigma_e^2$

The random variables $\varepsilon_i (i = 1, \ldots, a)$ are independent of the random variables $e_i (i \in s)$

From the selected sample consisting of $y_i$-values, the first and second-order moments are;

$$E_m(y_i / s) = E(\mu) + E(e_i) + E(\varepsilon_i) = \mu_i + \varepsilon = \alpha_i$$

$$V_m(y_i / s) = \delta^2 + \delta_e^2 = \delta^2$$

$\text{Cov}_m(y_i / s) = \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = \delta_{ij}$

$\varepsilon_i$ is the systematic error on the individual measured value and $E(\varepsilon_i) = \varepsilon$ is the bias in measurement.

Unlike random error, systematic error tends to be consistently either positive or negative - because of this, systematic error is sometimes considered to be bias in measurement.

2.5. Measurement Bias and Expectation of $\pi$-estimator

Measurement bias arises when expected measurement value on elements do not agree with true element values.

$$B_{pm}(t_{\pi}) = E_{pm}(t_{\pi}) - t_\theta$$

The derived expected measurement value is expressed as

$$E_{pm}(t_{\pi} / s) = t_\theta + \sum_U \varepsilon$$

The derive total measurement bias with respect to sampling design $p(.)$ and measurement model $m$ respectively is thus expressed as follows

$$B_{pm}(t_{\pi}) = t_\theta + \sum_U \varepsilon - t_\theta = \sum_U \varepsilon$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)$$

$$V_{pm}(t_{\pi}) = \sum_U \delta^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + (a-1) \sum_{i, j} \left( \mu_i \mu_j \right) + (a-1) \sum_{i, j} \left( \mu_i \varepsilon_j + \mu_j \varepsilon_i \right)$$

The term $(a-1) \sum_{i, j} \left( \mu_i \varepsilon_j + \mu_j \varepsilon_i \right)$ consists of systematic error and it causes variation in total variance.

2.6. Decomposing Variance of Population Total Estimator When Systematic Errors Are Present

According to Särndal [14] the total variance of $\hat{t}_{1\pi}$ with respect to sampling design $p(.)$ and the measurement model $m$ is given as

$$V_{pm}(t_{\pi}) = E_p \left[ V_m(t_{\pi} / s) \right] + V_p \left[ E_m(t_{\pi} / s) \right]$$  \hspace{1cm} (19)$$

Measurement variance when decomposed is expressed as follows;

$$E_p \left[ V_m(t_{\pi} / s) \right] = a \sum_U \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij}$$  \hspace{1cm} (20)$$

Similarly, sampling variance is decomposed as follows

$$V_p \left[ E_m(t_{\pi} / s) \right] = V_p \left[ a \sum_i y_i \right]$$

$$E_m \left[ a \sum_i y_i \right] = a \sum_i E_m(y_i) = a \sum_i \alpha_i$$

Now

$$V_p \left[ E_m(a \sum_i y_i) \right] = V_p \left[ a \sum_i \alpha_i \right]$$

$$= \sum_U \alpha_i \check V_p (l_{i} (s)) + \sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_i \alpha_j \text{cov} (l_i (s), l_j (s))$$

$$= \sum_U a^2 \pi_i (1 - \pi_i) \alpha_i^2 + a^2 (\pi_i - \pi_j) \sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_i \alpha_j$$

$$= \sum_U a^2 (a-1) \alpha_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} a^2 (a-1) \alpha_i \alpha_j$$

$$= \sum_U (a-1) \alpha_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} (a-1) \alpha_i \alpha_j$$

$$= \sum_{i, j} (a-1) \alpha_i \alpha_j$$

Combining the results the total variance becomes

$$V_{pm}(t_{\pi}) = a \sum_U \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + \sum_{i, j} (a-1) \alpha_i \alpha_j$$  \hspace{1cm} (21)$$

We let $\alpha_i = \mu_i + \varepsilon_i$ and $\alpha_j = \mu_j + \varepsilon_j$

Substituting 17 & 18 into 16 above

$$V_{pm}(t_{\pi}) = a \sum_U \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + \sum_{i, j} (a-1)(\mu_i + \varepsilon_i)(\mu_j + \varepsilon_j)$$

$$= a \sum_U \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + (a-1) \sum_{i, j} \left( \mu_i \mu_j + \mu_i \varepsilon_j + \mu_j \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j \right)$$

$$= a \sum_U \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + (a-1) \sum_{i, j} \left( \mu_i \mu_j \varepsilon_i + \mu_j \varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j \right)$$

$$= a \sum_U \delta_i^2 + a \sum_{i \neq j} \delta_{ij} + (a-1) \sum_{i, j} \left( \mu_i \varepsilon_i + \mu_j \varepsilon_j + \varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j \right)$$

(22)
3. Numerical Results and Discussion

A finite population of size \( N \) is generated for a population without errors, a population with random errors and a population with systematic errors.

The population total variances, the population means and the population totals are then computed.

In the selection of a systematic sample of size \( n \), a random start \( r \) is selected between 1 and \( a \) inclusive in which case \( a \) is the sampling interval.

To estimate parameters, simulation of data is done 10 times in each case the estimate is obtained. The results are then averaged to get the estimates of all parameters required in the study.

Estimation of variance is done using the three estimators

Case 1
Let \( N=800, n=40, a=25 \)

\[
v_1 = a(a-1)\sum_{g=1}^{\frac{a}{2}}\left(y_{2g-1} - y_{2g}\right)^2
\]

\[
v_2 = N(a(\frac{a}{2}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n-2}(y_i - 2y_{i+1} + y_{i+2})^2)\frac{6(n-2)}{6}
\]

\[
v_3 = N(a(\frac{a}{2}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n-2}(y_i - 2y_{i+1} + y_{i+2} - y_{i+3} + y_{i+4})^2)\frac{3.5(n-4)}{3.5}
\]

The tables from case 1 to case 3 consists of parameters and their estimates for populations without errors and populations with errors.

Table 2. Population Parameters and Their Estimates for \( \epsilon_r \sim N(0,1) \) and \( \epsilon_i \sim N(-0.6, 1.5) \).

| Pop | Parameters | Mean  | Total  | Pop.var | Estimated mean | Estimated total | \( V_1 \) | \( V_2 \) | \( V_3 \) |
|-----|------------|-------|--------|---------|----------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| No error | 423.525 | 338, 820 | 36, 691, 200 | 422.475 | 337, 980 | 25, 412, 184 | 0 | 0 |
| With \( \epsilon_r \) | 423.530 | 338, 824 | 36, 716, 492 | 421.102 | 336, 880 | 25, 556, 994 | 18, 875 | 18, 956 |
| With \( \epsilon_i \) | 422.940 | 338, 352 | 37, 594, 498 | 418.767 | 335, 013 | 26, 027, 490 | 50, 734 | 52, 305 |

Table 3. Population Parameters and Their Estimates for \( \epsilon_r \sim N(0,1) \) and \( \epsilon_i \sim N(0.5, 1.5) \).

| Pop | Parameters | Mean  | Total  | Pop.var | Estimated mean | Estimated total | \( V_1 \) | \( V_2 \) | \( V_3 \) |
|-----|------------|-------|--------|---------|----------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| No error | 423.525 | 338, 820 | 36, 691, 200 | 422.475 | 337, 980 | 25, 412, 184 | 0 | 0 |
| With \( \epsilon_r \) | 423.563 | 338, 824 | 36, 883, 067 | 420.752 | 336, 601 | 25, 662, 927 | 17, 652 | 18, 720 |
| With \( \epsilon_i \) | 424.020 | 339, 216 | 36, 740, 158 | 427.770 | 342, 216 | 25, 450, 518 | 44, 746 | 37, 078 |

From tables 2 & 3, the results show that:
1. The population mean is underestimated if a population with systematic errors has a negative systematic bias.
2. The population mean is overestimated if a population with systematic errors has a positive systematic bias.
3. Population mean in presence of random errors almost conforms to the mean of population without errors.
4. Estimators of variance of population total estimator underestimate the population total variance.
5. \( V_2 \) and \( V_3 \) for population with true values are zeros but very small values for population with errors.

Table 4. Population Parameters and Their Estimates for \( \epsilon_r \sim N(0,1) \) and \( \epsilon_i \sim N(-0.6, 1.5) \).

| Pop | Parameters | Mean  | Total  | Pop.var | Estimated mean | Estimated total | \( V_1 \) | \( V_2 \) | \( V_3 \) |
|-----|------------|-------|--------|---------|----------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| No error | 423.525 | 338, 820 | 23, 461, 200 | 425.625 | 340, 500 | 12, 744, 459 | 0 | 0 |
| With \( \epsilon_r \) | 423.480 | 338, 824 | 23, 645, 877 | 424.97 | 339, 976 | 12, 755, 957 | 16, 807 | 17, 127 |
| With \( \epsilon_i \) | 422.940 | 338, 352 | 23, 446, 698 | 421.586 | 337, 268 | 12, 817, 490 | 67, 835 | 62, 698 |

Table 5. Population Parameters and Their Estimates for \( \epsilon_r \sim N(0,1) \) and \( \epsilon_i \sim N(0.5, 1.5) \).

| Pop | Parameters | Mean  | Total  | Pop.var | Estimated mean | Estimated total | \( V_1 \) | \( V_2 \) | \( V_3 \) |
|-----|------------|-------|--------|---------|----------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| No error | 423.525 | 338, 820 | 23, 461, 200 | 426.938 | 341, 550 | 12, 744, 459 | 0 | 0 |
| With \( \epsilon_r \) | 423.545 | 338, 824 | 25, 514, 150 | 420.900 | 336, 720 | 12, 706, 411 | 17, 792 | 18, 229 |
| With \( \epsilon_i \) | 424.020 | 339, 216 | 23, 419, 259 | 424.404 | 339, 523 | 12, 812, 648 | 37, 570 | 33, 006 |
From tables 4 & 5, the results shows that:
1. The population mean is underestimated if the expectation of systematic errors is negative.
2. The population mean is overestimated if the expectation of systematic errors is positive.
3. Estimates for population with systematic errors exceeds the corresponding estimates from the population without errors.
4. Estimates from $\epsilon_1$ exceeds estimates from $\epsilon_2$ and $\epsilon_3$.
5. The mean of population with random errors is closer to the actual population mean.

**Table 6. Population Parameters and Their Estimates for $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, 0.1)$ and $\epsilon_3 \sim N(0, 0.6, 1.5)$**

| Pop | Parameters | Estimates |
|-----|------------|-----------|
|     | Mean       | Total     | Var | Estimated mean | Estimated total | $V_1$ | $V_2$ | $V_3$ |
| N = 800, n = 100, a = 8 |
| No error | 423.525 | 338, 820 | 3, 764, 400 | 422.77 | 338, 216 | 694, 575 | 0 | 0 |
| With $\epsilon_1$ | 423.230 | 338, 824 | 3, 663, 845 | 423.589 | 338, 871 | 698, 297 | 6, 509 | 6, 787 |
| With $\epsilon_2$ | 422.940 | 338, 352 | 3, 680, 080 | 422.702 | 338, 161 | 723, 733 | 19, 702 | 19, 937 |

**Table 7. Population Parameters and Their Estimates for $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, 0.1)$ and $\epsilon_3 \sim N(0, 0.5, 1.5)$**

| Pop | Parameters | Estimates |
|-----|------------|-----------|
|     | Mean       | Total     | Var | Estimated mean | Estimated total | $V_1$ | $V_2$ | $V_3$ |
| N = 800, n = 100, a = 8 |
| No error | 423.525 | 338, 820 | 3, 764, 400 | 423.42 | 348, 736 | 694, 575 | 0 | 0 |
| With $\epsilon_1$ | 423.530 | 338, 824 | 3, 616, 050 | 422.816 | 338, 252 | 692, 4021 | 6, 887 | 7, 490 |
| With $\epsilon_2$ | 424.020 | 338, 216 | 3, 677, 402 | 424.586 | 339, 668 | 703, 750 | 18, 466 | 16, 872 |

From tables 6 & 7, the results shows that:
1. When the sample size is increased, both the population variances and estimated variances are reduced.
2. Estimates from $\epsilon_1$ are much higher than the respective estimates from $\epsilon_2$ and $\epsilon_3$.
3. Positive expected systematic errors overestimate population means and totals while negative expected systematic errors underestimate population means and total.

**4. Summary**

From the study, it is observed that:
1. The population means and hence the population totals are overestimated for the case where expectation of systematic errors is positive.
2. The population means and hence the population totals are underestimated for the case where expectation of systematic errors is negative.
3. Impact of random errors on population mean and population total is minimal and inconsistent.
4. The variances of population total estimator are all underestimated using the three estimators, $\epsilon_1$, $\epsilon_2$ and $\epsilon_3$.
5. Increase in sample size leads to decrease in estimated variance of population total estimator.
6. For population with systematic errors, the estimated variances are over represented. Estimator $\epsilon_1$ gives higher variance than estimators $\epsilon_2$ and $\epsilon_3$.

**5. Conclusions**

The study has shown that:
Impact of random errors on population mean, population total and estimated variance of population total estimator is very minimal.
Systematic errors produces systematic bias that overestimate the population mean when the bias is positive and underestimate the population mean when the bias is negative.
All the three estimators underestimate population variances and therefore they are biased. Among the three, $\epsilon_1$ is better because it gives values closer to the population variance.
Generally systematic errors lead to over representation of the estimated variance while random errors have no impact on estimates of population variance.

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