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Survey Sampling

Theory and Methods

Second Edition

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Survey Sampling

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Foreword

ARIJIT CHAUDHURI and HORST STENGER are well known in sampling theory. The present book further confirms their reputation. Here the authors have undertaken the large task of surveying the sampling literature of the past few decades to provide a reference book for researchers in the area. They have done an excellent job. Starting with the unified theory the authors very clearly explain subsequent developments. In fact, even the most modern innovations of survey sampling, both methodological and theoretical, have found a place in this concise volume. In this connection I may specially mention the authors' presentation of estimating functions. With its own distinctiveness, this book is indeed a very welcome addition to the already existing rich literature on survey sampling.

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Preface to the Second Edition

It is gratifying that our Publishers engaged us to prepare this second edition. Since our first edition appeared in 1992, *Survey Sampling* acquired a remarkable growth to which we, too, have made a modest contribution. So, some addition seems due. Meanwhile, we have received feedback from our readers that prompts us to incorporate some modifications.

Several significant books of relevance have emerged after our write-up for the first edition went to press that we may now draw upon, by the following authors or editors: SÄRNDAL, SWENSSON and WRETMAN (1992), BOLFARINE and ZACKS (1992), S. K. THOMPSON (1992), GHOSH and MEEDEN (1986), THOMPSON and SEBER (1996), M. E. THOMPSON, (1997) GODAMBE (1991), COX (1991) and VALLIANT, DORFMAN and ROYALL (2000), among others.

Numerous path-breaking research articles have also appeared in journals keeping pace with this phenomenal progress. So, we are blessed with an opportunity to enlighten ourselves with plenty of new ideas. Yet we curb our impulse to cover the salient aspects of even a sizeable section of this current literature. This is because we are not inclined to reshape

the essential structure of our original volume and we are aware of the limitations that prevent us from such a venture.

As in our earlier presentation, herein we also avoid being dogmatic—more precisely, we eschew taking sides. *Survey Sampling* is at the periphery of mainstream statistics. The speciality here is that we have a tangible collection of objects with certain features, and there is an intention to pry into them by getting hold of some of these objects and attempting an inference about those left untouched. This inference is traditionally based on a theory of probability that is used to exploit a possible link of the observed with the unobserved. This probability is not conceived as in statistics, covering other fields, to characterize the interrelation of the individual values of the variables of our interest. But this is created by a survey sampling investigator through arbitrary specification of an artifice to select the samples from the populations of objects with preassigned probabilities. This is motivated by a desire to draw a representative sample, which is a concept yet to be precisely defined. Purposive selection (earlier purported to achieve representativeness) is discarded in favor of this sampling design-based approach, which is theoretically admitted as a means of yielding a legitimate inference about an aggregate from a sampled segment and also valued for its objectivity, being free of personal bias of a sampler. NEYMAN's (1934) pioneering masterpiece, followed by survey sampling texts by YATES (1953), HANSEN, HURWITZ and MADOW (1953), DEMING (1954) and SUKHATME (1954), backed up by exquisitely executed survey findings by MAHALANOBIS (1946) in India as well as by others in England and the U.S., ensured an unstinted support of probability sampling for about 35 years.

But ROYALL (1970) and BREWER (1963) installed a rival theory dislodging the role of the selection probability as an inferential tool in survey sampling. This theory takes off postulating a probability model characterizing the possible links among the observed and the unobserved variate values associated with the survey population units. The parameter of the surveyor's inferential concern is now a random variable rather than a constant. Hence it can be predicted, not estimated.

The basis of inference here is this probability structure as modeled.

Fortunately, the virtues of some of the sampling design-supported techniques like stratification, ratio method of estimation, etc., continue to be upheld by this model-based prediction theory as well. But procedures for assessing and measuring the errors in estimation and prediction and setting up confidence intervals do not match.

The design-based approach fails to yield a best estimator for a total free of design-bias. By contrast, a model-specific best predictor is readily produced if the model is simple, correct, and plausible. If the model is in doubt one has to strike a balance over bias versus accuracy. A procedure that works well even with a wrong model and is thus robust is in demand with this approach. That requires a sample that is adequately balanced in terms of sample and population values of one or more variables related to one of the primary inferential interest. For the design-based classical approach, currently recognized performers are the estimators motivated by appropriate prediction models that are design-biased, but the biases are negligible when the sample sizes are large. So, a modern compromise survey approach called model assisted survey sampling is now popular. Thanks to the pioneering efforts by SÄRNDAL (1982) and his colleagues the generalized regression (GREG) estimators of this category are found to be very effective in practice.

Regression modeling motivated their arrival. But an alternative calibration approach cultivated since the early nineties by ZIESCHANG (1990), DEVILLE and SÄRNDAL (1992), and others renders them purely design-based as well with an assured robustness or riddance from model-dependence altogether.

A predictor for a survey population total is a sum of the sampled values plus the sum of the predictors for the unsampled ones. A design-based estimator for a population total, by contrast, is a sum of the sampled values with multiplicative weights yielded by specific sampling designs. A calibration approach adjusts these initial sampling weights, the new weights keeping close to them but satisfying certain

consistency constraints or calibration equations determined by one or more auxiliary variables with known population totals.

This approach was not discussed in the first edition but is now treated at length. Adjustments here need further care to keep the new weights within certain plausible limits, for which there is considerable documentation in the literature. Here we also discuss a concern for outliers—a topic which also recommends adjustments of sampling weights. While calibration and restricted calibration estimators remain asymptotically design unbiased (ADU) and asymptotically design consistent (ADC), the other adjusted ones do not.

Earlier we discussed the QR predictors, which include (1) the best predictors, (2) projection estimators, (3) generalized regression estimators, and (4) the cosmetic predictors for which (1) and (3) match under certain conditions. Developments since 1992 modify QR predictors into restricted QR predictors (RQR) as we also recount.

SÄRNDAL (1996), DEVILLE (1999), BREWER (1999a, 1999b), and BREWER and GREGOIRE (2000) are prescribing a line of research to justify omission of the cross-product terms in the quadratic forms, giving the variance and mean square error (MSE) estimators of linear estimators of population totals, by suitable approximations. In this context SÄRNDAL (1996) makes a strong plea for the use of generalized regression estimators based either on stratified (1) simple random sampling (SRS) or (2) Bernoulli sampling (BS), which is a special case of Poisson sampling devoid of cross-product terms. This encourages us to present an appraisal of Poisson sampling and its valuable ramifications employing permanent random numbers (PRN), useful in coordination and exercise of control in rotational sampling, a topic we omitted earlier.

Among other novelties of this edition we mention the following. We give essential complements to our earlier discussion of the minimax principle. In the first edition, exact results were presented for completely symmetric situations and approximate results for large populations and samples. Now, following STENGER and GABLER (1996) an exact minimax

property of the expansion estimator in connection with the LAHIRI-MIDZUNO-SEN design is presented for arbitrary sample sizes.

An exact minimax property of a Hansen-Hurwitz estimator proved by GABLER and STENGER (2000) is reviewed; in this case a rather complicated design has to be applied, as sample sizes are arbitrary.

A corrective term is added to SEN (1953) and YATES and GRUNDY's (1953) variance estimator to make it unbiased even for non-fixed-sample-size designs with an easy check for its uniform non-negativity, as introduced by CHAUDHURI and PAL (2002). Its extension to cover the generalized regression estimator analogously to HORVITZ and THOMPSON's (1952) estimator is but a simple step forward.

In multistage sampling DURBIN (1953), RAJ (1968) and J. N. K. RAO's (1975a) formulae for variance estimation need expression in general for single-stage variance formulae as quadratic forms to start with, a condition violated in RAJ (1956), MURTHY (1957) and RAO, HARTLEY and COCHRAN (1962) estimators, among others. Utilizing commutativity of expectation operators in the first and later stages of sampling, new simple formulae are derived bypassing the above constraint following CHAUDHURI, ADHIKARI and DIHIDAR (2000a, 2000b).

The concepts of borrowing strength, synthetic, and empirical Bayes estimation in the context of developing small domain statistics were introduced in the first edition. Now we clarify how in two-stage sampling an estimator for the population total may be strengthened by employing empirical Bayes estimators initiated through synthetic versions of GREG estimators for the totals of the sampling clusters, which are themselves chosen with suitable unequal probabilities. A new version of cluster sampling developed by CHAUDHURI and PAL (2003) is also recounted.

S. K. THOMPSON (1992) and THOMPSON and SEBER's (1996) adaptive and network sampling techniques have been shown by CHAUDHURI (2000a) to be generally applicable for any sampling scheme in one stage or multistages with or without stratification. It is now illustrated how adaptive sampling

may help the capture of rare units with appropriate network formations; vide CHAUDHURI, BOSE and GHOSH (2003).

In the first edition as well as in the text by CHAUDHURI and MUKERJEE (1988), randomized response technique to cover qualitative features was restricted to simple random sampling with replacement (SRSWR) alone. Newly emerging extension procedures to general sampling designs are now covered.

In the first edition we failed to cover SITTER's (1992a, 1992b) mirror-match and extended BWO bootstrap procedures and discussed RAO and WU's (1985, 1988) rescaled bootstrap only cursorily; we have extended coverage on them now.

Circular systematic sampling (CSS) with probability proportional to size (PPS) is known to yield zero inclusion probabilities for paired units. But this defect may now be removed on allowing a random, rather than a predetermined, sampling interval—a recent development, which we now cover. Barring these innovations and a few stylistic repairs the second edition mimics the first.

Of course, the supplementary references are added alphabetically. We continue to remain grateful to the same persons and institutions mentioned in the first edition for their sustained support.

In addition, we wish to thank Mrs. Y. CHEN for typing and organizing typesetting of the manuscript.

ARIJIT CHAUDHURI
HORST STENGER

Preface to the First Edition

Our subject of attention is a finite population with a known number of identifiable individuals, bearing values of a characteristic under study. The main problem is to estimate the population total or mean of these values by surveying a suitably chosen sample of individuals. An elaborate literature has grown over the years around various criteria for appropriate sampling designs and estimators based on selected samples so designed. We cover this literature selectively to communicate to the reader our appreciation of the current state of development of essential aspects of theory and methods of survey sampling.

Our aim is to reach graduate and advanced level students of sampling and, at the same time, researchers in the area looking for a reference book. Practitioners will be interested in many techniques of sampling that, we believe, are not adequately covered in most textbooks. We have avoided details of foundational aspects of inference in survey sampling treated in the texts by CASSEL, SÄRNDAL and WRETMAN (1977) and CHAUDHURI and VOS (1988).

In the first four chapters we state fundamental results and provide proofs of many propositions, although often

leaving some of them incomplete purposely in order to save space and invite our readers to fill in the gaps themselves. We have taken care to keep the level of discussion within reach of the average graduate-level student.

The first four chapters constitute the core of the book. Although not a prerequisite, they are nevertheless helpful in giving motivations for numerous theoretical and practical problems of survey sampling dealt with in subsequent chapters, which are rather specialized and indicate several lines of approach. We have collected widely scattered materials in order to aid researchers in pursuing further studies in areas of specific interest. The coverage is mostly review in nature, leaving wide gaps to be bridged with further reading from sources cited in the References.

In chapter 1 we first formulate the problem of getting a good point estimator for a finite population total. We suppose the number of individuals is known and each unit can be assigned an identifying label. Consequently, one may choose an appropriate sample of these labels. It is assumed that unknown values can be ascertained for the individuals sampled. First we discuss the classical design-based approach of inference and present GODAMBE (1955) and GODAMBE and JOSHI's (1965) celebrated theorems on nonexistence of the best estimator of a population total. The concepts of likelihood and sufficiency and the criteria of admissibility, minimaxity, and completeness of estimators and strategies are introduced and briefly reviewed. Uses and limitations of well-known superpopulation modeling in finding serviceable sampling strategies are also discussed. But an innovation worth mentioning is the introduction of certain preliminaries on GODAMBE's (1960b) theory of estimating equations. We illustrate its application to survey sampling, bestowing optimality properties on certain sampling strategies traditionally employed ad hoc.

The second chapter gives RAO and VIJAYAN's (1977) procedure of mean square error estimation for homogeneous linear estimators and mentions several specific strategies to which it applies.

The third chapter introduces ROYALL's (1970) linear prediction approach in sampling. Here one does not speculate

about what may happen if another sample is drawn with a preassigned probability. On the contrary, the inference is based on speculation on the possible nature of the finite population vector of variate values for which one may postulate plausible models. It is also shown how and why one needs to revise appropriate predictors and optimal purposive sampling designs to guard against possible mis-specifications in models and, at the same time, seek to employ robust but nonoptimal procedures that work well even when a model is inaccurately hypothesized. This illustrates how these sampling designs may be recommended when a model is correctly but simplistically postulated. Later in the chapter, Bayes estimators for finite population totals based on simplistic priors are mentioned and requirements for their replacements by empirical Bayes methods are indicated with examples. Uses of the JAMES–STEIN technique on borrowing strength from allied sources are also emphasized, especially when one has inadequate sample data specific to a given situation.

In chapter 4 we first note that if a model is correctly postulated, a design-unbiased strategy under the model may be optimal yet poorer than a comparable optimal predictive strategy. On the other hand, the optimal predictive strategy is devoid of design-based properties and modeling is difficult. Hence the importance of relaxing design-unbiasedness for the design-based strategy and replacing the optimal predictive strategy by a nonoptimal robust alternative enriched with good design properties. The two considerations lead to inevitable asymptotics. We present, therefore, contemporary activities in exploring competitive strategies that do well under correct modeling but continue to have desirable asymptotic design-based features in case of model failures. Although achieving robustness is a guiding motive in this presentation, we do not repeat here alternative robustness preserving techniques, for example, due to GODAMBE (1982). However, the asymptotic approaches for minimax sampling strategies are duly reported to cover recently emerging developments.

In chapter 5 we address the problem of mean square error estimation covering estimators and predictors and we follow procedures that originate from twin considerations of designs

and models. In judging comparative efficacies of competing procedures one needs to appeal to asymptotics and extensive empirical investigations demanding Monte Carlo simulations; we have illustrated some of the relevant findings of established experts in this regard.

Chapter 6 is intended to supplement a few recent developments of topics concerning multistage, multiphase, and repetitive sampling. The time series methods applicable for a fuller treatment are not discussed.

Chapter 7 recounts a few techniques for variance estimation involving nonlinear estimators and complex survey designs including stratification, clustering, and selection in stages.

The next chapter deals with specialized techniques needed for domain estimation, poststratification, and estimation from samples taken using inadequate frames. The chapter emphasizes the necessity for conditional inference involving speculation over only those samples having some recognizable features common with the sample at hand.

Chapter 9 introduces the topic of analytic rather than descriptive studies where the center of attention is not the survey population at hand but something that lies beyond and typifies it in some discernible respect. Aspects of various methodologies needed for regression and categorical data analyses in connection with complex sampling designs are discussed as briefly as possible.

Chapter 10 includes some accounts of methods of generating randomized data and their analyses when there is a need for protected privacy relating to sensitive issues under investigation.

Chapter 11 presents several methods of analyzing survey data when there is an appreciable discrepancy between those gathered and those desired. The material presented is culled intensively from the three-volume text on incomplete data by MADOW et al. (1983) and from KALTON's (1983a,b) texts and other sources mentioned in the references.

The concluding chapter sums up our ideas about inference problems in survey sampling.

We would like to end with the following brief remarks. In employing a good sampling strategy it is important to acquire knowledge about the background of the material under investigation. In light of the background information at one's command one may postulate models characterizing some of the essential features of the population on which an inference is to be made. While employing the model one should guard against its possible incorrectness and hence be ready to take advantage of the classical design-based approach in adjusting the inference procedures. While deriving in full the virtue of design-based arguments one should also examine if appropriate conditional inference is applicable in case some cognizable features common to the given sample are discernible. This would allow averaging over them instead of over the entire set of samples.

ARIJIT CHAUDHURI gratefully acknowledges the facilities for work provided at the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and University of Mannheim as a visiting professor and the generosity of the Indian Statistical Institute in granting him the necessary leave and opportunities for joint research with his coauthor. He is also grateful to his wife, Mrs. BINATA CHAUDHURI, for her nonacademic but silent help.

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Comments on inaccuracies and flaws in our presentation will be appreciated and necessary corrective measures are promised for any future editions.

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Chapter 1

Estimation in Finite Populations: A Unified Theory

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Suppose it is considered important to gather ideas about, for example, (1) the total quantity of food grains stocked in all the godowns managed by a state government, (2) the total number of patients admitted in all the hospitals of a country classified by varieties of their complaints, (3) the amount of income tax evaded on an average by the income earners of a city. Now, to inspect all godowns, examine all admission documents of all hospitals of a country, and make inquiries about all income earners of a city will be too expensive and time consuming. So it seems natural to select a few godowns, hospitals, and income earners, to get all relevant data for them and to be able to draw conclusions on those quantities that could be ascertained exactly only by a survey of all godowns, hospitals, and income earners. We feel it is useful to formulate mathematically as follows the essentials of the issues at hand common to the above and similar circumstances.

1.2 ELEMENTARY DEFINITIONS

Let N be a known number of units, e.g., godowns, hospitals, or income earners, each assignable identifying labels $1, 2, \dots, N$ and bearing values, respectively, $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_N$ of a real-valued variable y , which are initially unknown to an investigator who intends to estimate the total

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i$$

or the mean $\bar{Y} = Y/N$.

We call the sequence $U = (1, \dots, N)$ of labels a **population**. Selecting units leads to a sequence $s = (i_1, \dots, i_n)$, which is called a **sample**. Here $i_1, \dots, i_n$ are elements of U , not necessarily distinct from one another but the **order of its appearance** is maintained. We refer to $n = n(s)$ as the **size** of s , while the **effective sample size** $\nu(s) = |s|$ is the cardinality of s , i.e., the number of distinct units in s . Once a specific sample s is chosen we suppose it is possible to ascertain the values $Y_{i_1}, \dots, Y_{i_n}$ of y associated with the respective units of s . Then

$$d = [(i_1, Y_{i_1}), \dots, (i_n, Y_{i_n})] \quad \text{or briefly} \\ d = [(i, Y_i) | i \in s]$$

constitutes the **survey data**.

An **estimator** t is a real-valued function $t(d)$, which is free of Y_i for $i \notin s$ but may involve Y_i for $i \in s$. Sometimes we will express $t(d)$ alternatively by $t(s, \underline{Y})$, where $\underline{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_N)'$.

An estimator of special importance for $\bar{Y}$ is the **sample mean**

$$t(s, \underline{Y}) = \frac{1}{n(s)} \sum_{i=1}^N f_{si} Y_i = \bar{y}, \text{ say}$$

where f_{si} denotes the frequency of i in s such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^N f_{si} = n(s).$$

$N\bar{y}$ is called the **expansion estimator** for Y .

More generally, an estimator t of the form

$$t(s, \underline{Y}) = b_s + \sum_{i=1}^N b_{si} Y_i$$

with $b_{si} = 0$ for $i \notin s$ is called **linear** (L). Here b_s and b_{si} are free of $\underline{Y}$. Keeping $b_s = 0$ we obtain a **homogeneous linear** (HL) estimator.

We must emphasize that here $t(s, \underline{Y})$ is linear (or homogeneous linear) in $Y_i, i \in s$. It may be a nonlinear function of two random variables, e.g., when $b_s = 0$ and $b_{si} = X / \sum_1^N f_{si} X_i$ so that

$$t(s, \underline{Y}) = \frac{\sum_1^N f_{si} Y_i}{\sum_1^N f_{si} X_i} X.$$

Here, X_i is the value of a variable x on $i \in \mathcal{U}$ and $X = \sum_1^N X_i$ (see section 2.2.)

In what follows we will assume that a sample is drawn at **random**, i.e., with each sample s is associated a selection probability $p(s)$. A **design** p may depend on related variables x, z , etc. But we assume, unless explicitly mentioned otherwise, that p is free of $\underline{Y}$. To emphasize this freedom, p is often referred to in the literature as a **noninformative design**.

If p involves any component of $\underline{Y}$ it is an **informative design**.

A design p is **without replacement** (WOR) if no repetitions occur in any s with $p(s) > 0$; otherwise, p is called **with replacement** (WR). A design p is of **fixed size** n (**fixed effective size** n) if $p(s) > 0$ implies that s is of size n (of effective size n). With respect to WOR designs there is, of course, no difference between fixed size and fixed effective size.

A design p is called **simple random sampling without replacement** (SRSWOR) if

$$p(s) = \frac{1}{\binom{N}{n} n!}$$

for s of size n without repetitions, while it is called **simple random sampling with replacement** (SRSWR) if

$$p(s) = \frac{1}{N^n}$$

for every s of size n , n fixed in advance.

The combination (p, t) denoting an estimator t based on s chosen according to a design p is called a **strategy**. Sometimes a redundant epithet **sampling** is used before design and strategy but we will avoid this usage.

Whatever $\underline{Y}$ may be, let

$$E_p(t) = \sum_s t(s, \underline{Y}) p(s)$$

denote the **expectation** of t and

$$M_p(t) = E_p(t - Y)^2 = \sum_s p(s) (t(s, \underline{Y}) - Y)^2$$

the **mean square error** (MSE) of t . If $E_p(t) = Y$ for every $\underline{Y}$, then t is called a **p -unbiased estimator** (UE) of Y . In this case $M_p(t)$ becomes the **variance** of t and is written

$$V_p(t) = E_p(t - E_p(t))^2.$$

For an arbitrary design p , consider the **inclusion probabilities**

$$\pi_i = \sum_{s \ni i} p(s); i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$\pi_{ij} = \sum_{s \ni i, j} p(s); i \neq j = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

and, provided $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_N > 0$, the **Horvitz–Thompson** (HT) **estimator** (HTE)

$$\bar{t} = \sum_{i \in s} \frac{Y_i}{\pi_i}$$

(see HORVITZ and THOMPSON, 1952) where the sum is over $|s|$ terms while s is of length $n(s)$. It is easily seen that $\bar{t}$ is HL and p -unbiased (HLU) for Y .

REMARK 1.1 To mention another way to write $\bar{t}$ define

$$I_{si} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \in s \\ 0 & \text{if } i \notin s \end{cases}$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$. Then

$$\bar{t} = \bar{t}(s, \underline{Y}) = \sum_{i=1}^N I_{si} \frac{Y_i}{\pi_i}.$$

where the sum is over $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

REMARK 1.2 Assume $i_0 \in U$ exists with $\pi_{i_0} = 0$ for a design p . Then, for an estimator t

$$E_p t = \sum_{s \ni i_0} p(s) t(s, \underline{Y}) + \sum_{s \not\ni i_0} p(s) t(s, \underline{Y}).$$

The second term on the right of this equation is obviously free of Y_{i_0} . Since $p(s) = 0$ for all s with $i_0 \in s$, the first term is 0. Hence, $E_p t$ is free of Y_{i_0} and, especially, not equal to $Y = \sum_1^N Y_i$. Consequently, no p -unbiased estimator exists.

1.3 DESIGN-BASED INFERENCE

Let Σ_1 be the sum over samples for which $|t(s, \underline{Y}) - Y| \geq k > 0$ and let Σ_2 be the sum over samples for which $|t(s, \underline{Y}) - Y| < k$ for a fixed $\underline{Y}$. Then from

$$\begin{aligned} M_p(t) &= \Sigma_1 p(s) (t - Y)^2 + \Sigma_2 p(s) (t - Y)^2 \\ &\geq k^2 \text{Prob}[|t(s, \underline{Y}) - Y| \geq k] \end{aligned}$$

one derives the **Chebyshev inequality**:

$$\text{Prob}[|t(s, \underline{Y}) - Y| \geq k] \leq \frac{M_p(t)}{k^2}.$$

Hence

$$\text{Prob}[t - k \leq Y \leq t + k] \geq 1 - \frac{M_p(t)}{k^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{k^2} [V_p(t) + B_p^2(t)]$$

where $B_p(t) = E_p(t) - Y$ is the **bias** of t . Writing $\sigma_p(t) = \sqrt{V_p(t)}$ for the standard error of t and taking $k = 3\sigma_p(t)$, it follows that, whatever $\underline{Y}$ may be, the random interval $t \pm 3\sigma_p(t)$

covers the unknown Y with a probability not less than

$$\frac{8}{9} - \frac{1}{9} \frac{B_p^2(t)}{V_p(t)}.$$

So, to keep this probability high and the length of this covering interval small it is desirable that both $|B_p(t)|$ and $\sigma_p(t)$ be small, leading to a small $M_p(t)$ as well.

EXAMPLE 1.1 Let y be a variable with values 0 and 1 only. Then, as a consequence of $Y_i^2 = Y_i$,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{yy} &= \frac{1}{N} \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \\ &= \bar{Y}(1 - \bar{Y}) \leq \frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, with p SRSWR of size n ,

$$\begin{aligned} V_p(N\bar{y}) &= N^2 \frac{\sigma_{yy}}{n} \\ &\leq \frac{N^2}{4n}. \end{aligned}$$

From

$$E_p \bar{y} = \bar{Y}$$

we derive that the random interval

$$N\bar{y} \pm 3\sqrt{N^2 \frac{1}{4n}} = N \left[\bar{y} \pm \frac{3}{2\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

covers the unknown $N\bar{Y}$ with a probability of at least 8/9.

It may be noted that $\underline{Y}$ is regarded as fixed (nonstochastic) and s is a random variable with a probability distribution $p(s)$ that the investigator adopts at pleasure. It is through p alone that for a fixed $\underline{Y}$ the interval $t \pm 3\sigma_p(t)$ is a random interval. In practice an upper bound of $\sigma_p(t)$ may be available, as in the above example, or $\sigma_p(t)$ is estimated from survey data d plus auxiliary information by, for example, $\hat{\sigma}_p(t)$ inducing necessary changes in the above confidence statements.

If $|B_t(t)|$ is small, then we may argue that the average value of t over repeated sampling according to p is numerically close to Y and, if $M_p(t)$ is small, then we may say that

the average square error $E_p(t - Y)^2$ calculated over repeated sampling according to p is small.

Let us stress this point more fully. The parameter to be estimated may be written as $Y = \Sigma_s Y_i + \Sigma_r Y_i$, the sums being over the distinct units sampled and the remaining units of U , respectively. Its estimator is

$$t = \sum_s Y_i + \left(t - \sum_s Y_i \right).$$

Now, t is close to Y for a sample s at hand and the realized survey data $d = (i, Y_i | i \in s)$ if and only if $(t - \Sigma_s Y_i)$ is close to $\Sigma_r Y_i$, the first expression depending on Y_i for $i \in s$ and the second determined by Y_j for $j \notin s$. Now, so far we permit $\underline{Y}$ to be any vector of real numbers without any restrictions on the structural relationships among its coordinates. In this **fixed population setup** we have no way to claim or disclaim the required closeness of $(t - \Sigma_s Y_i)$ and $\Sigma_r Y_i$ for a given sample s . But we need a link between Y_i for $i \in s$ and Y_j for $j \notin s$ in order to provide a base on which our inference about Y from realized data d may stand. Such a link is established by the hypothesis of **repeated sampling**. The resulting **design-based** (briefly: p -based) theory following NEYMAN (1934) is developed around the faith that it is desirable and satisfactory to assess the performance of the strategy (p, t) over repeated sampling, even if in practice a sample will really be drawn once, yielding a single value for t .

This theory is unified in the sense that the performance of a strategy (p, t) is evaluated in terms of the characteristics $E_p(t)$ and $M_p(t)$, such that there is no need to refer to specific selection procedures.

1.4 SAMPLING SCHEMES

A unified theory is developed by noting that it is enough to establish results concerning (p, t) without heeding how one may actually succeed in choosing samples with preassigned probabilities. A method of choosing a sample draw by draw, assigning selection probabilities with each draw, is called a