Ratio and Regression Estimation

SurvMeth/Surv 625: Applied Sampling

Yajuan Si

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

1/29/25

Review: Stratified sampling

- Identify stratifying variables correlated with the measure(s) of interest
- ② Choose "cuts" on the stratifying variables and divide the population into strata
- Compute an stratified sample size $n = n_{SRS} * deff$
- ullet Determine an allocation for the desired n
- f 0 Adjust n based on expected deff & allocate
- Select sample and compute estimates taking the stratified sample selection into account

Model-based theory

- In randomization theory, or design-based sampling, the sampling design determines how sampling variability is estimated.
- In model-based sampling, the model determines how variability is estimated, and the sampling design is irrelevant—as long as the model holds, you could choose any n units you want to from the population.
- The discrepancy is due to the different definitions of variance:
 - In design-based sampling, the variance is the average squared deviation
 of the estimate from its expected value, averaged over all samples that
 could be obtained using a given design.
 - If we are using a model, the variance is again the average squared deviation of the estimate from its expected value, but here the average is over all possible samples that could be generated from the population model.

Model-based theory cont.

- Design-based inferences about finite population quantities using ratio or regression estimation are correct even if the model does not fit the data well.
- Model-assisted estimators: A model motivates the form of the estimator, but inference depends on the sampling design.
- If we adopt a model consistent with the reasons we would adopt a
 certain sampling scheme or method of estimation, the point
 estimators would be similar. The model-based variance, though,
 usually differs from the variance from the randomization theory.

Ratio and regression estimation

- Ratio estimation is used to improve the precision of estimates by incorporating auxiliary information correlated with the variable of interest.
- ullet Suppose we want to estimate the total or mean of a population characteristic Y. We have an auxiliary variable X for which the total is known, or its sample mean can be accurately estimated.
- ullet The ratio estimator uses both Y and X to improve estimation.
- Define the ratio $B=\frac{t_y}{t_x}=\frac{\bar{Y}}{\bar{X}}.$
- \bullet Ratio and regression estimation both use the correlation of X and Y. The population correlation coefficient of X and Y is

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{(N-1)S_x S_y}$$

Why using ratio estimation

- Ratio estimator $\hat{B}=\frac{\hat{t}_y}{\hat{t}_x}=\frac{\bar{y}}{\bar{x}}$, and $\hat{\bar{y}}_r=\hat{B}\bar{X}$
- When the sample size changes as a random variable, we need to use ratio estimation for the mean
- When we want to estimate a population total, but the population size is unknown. We can estimate \hat{N} by t_x/\bar{X}
- Increase the precision of estimated means and totals
- Adjust estimates from the sample to reflect population totals (poststratification)
- Adjust for nonresponse (discussed later)

Examples

- Using the total number of registered births as auxiliary information for estimating the total population in France (Laplace, 1814)
- Using field acreage to estimate field yield of grains
- Using farm acreage in 1987 to estimate farm acreage in 1992
- Using family income to estimate wealth
- Using the number of employees to estimate the amount spent on health insurance in a business

Poststratification: Example

- An SRS of 400 students taken from a school with 4000 students: 240 women and 160 men
- With 84 of the sampled women and 40 of the sampled men planning to follow careers in academia
- Question: How many students planning to work in academia?
- **1** SRS: $\frac{4000}{400} * 124 = 1240$
- ② If we know that the school has 2700 women and 1300 men, another estimate is $\frac{2700}{240}*84+\frac{1300}{160}*40=1270$
 - We can treat this as a ratio estimation by gender: $\frac{84}{240} * 2700 + \frac{40}{160} * 1300 = 1270$
 - The sample has 60% women, but the population has 67.5%.
 - We adjust the estimated total by the sexual decomposition discrepancy:
 Poststratification

• If we calculate $\hat{\bar{y}}_r = \bar{y} \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}}$ for all possible SRSs, their average value will be close to but usually not be equal \bar{Y} exactly.

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) = -Cov(\hat{B}, \bar{x})$$

• If we calculate $\hat{\bar{y}}_r = \bar{y} \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}}$ for all possible SRSs, their average value will be close to but usually not be equal \bar{Y} exactly.

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) = -Cov(\hat{B}, \bar{x})$$

We have

$$\frac{|Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)|}{\sqrt{Var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)}} = \frac{|Cov(\hat{B},\bar{x})|}{\bar{X}\sqrt{Var(\hat{B})}} \leq \frac{\sqrt{Var(\bar{x})}}{\bar{X}} = CV(\bar{x})$$

• If we calculate $\hat{\bar{y}}_r = \bar{y} \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}}$ for all possible SRSs, their average value will be close to but usually not be equal \bar{Y} exactly.

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) = -Cov(\hat{B}, \bar{x})$$

We have

$$\frac{|Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)|}{\sqrt{Var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)}} = \frac{|Cov(\hat{B},\bar{x})|}{\bar{X}\sqrt{Var(\hat{B})}} \leq \frac{\sqrt{Var(\bar{x})}}{\bar{X}} = CV(\bar{x})$$

 \bullet The absolute value of the bias is small relative to the standard deviation if $CV(\bar{x})$ is small.

• If we calculate $\hat{\bar{y}}_r = \bar{y} \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}}$ for all possible SRSs, their average value will be close to but usually not be equal \bar{Y} exactly.

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) = -Cov(\hat{B}, \bar{x})$$

We have

$$\frac{|Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)|}{\sqrt{Var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)}} = \frac{|Cov(\hat{B},\bar{x})|}{\bar{X}\sqrt{Var(\hat{B})}} \leq \frac{\sqrt{Var(\bar{x})}}{\bar{X}} = CV(\bar{x})$$

- The absolute value of the bias is small relative to the standard deviation if $CV(\bar{x})$ is small.
- \bullet A small $CV(\bar{x})$ means that \bar{x} is stable from sample to sample

• Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})$$

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - X}{\bar{x}})$$

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)}$$
 (1)

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})$$

We can show

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)} \qquad \textbf{(1)}$$

• The bias is small if

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})$$

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)} \qquad \textbf{(1)}$$

- The bias is small if
 - n is large

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - X}{\bar{x}})$$

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)} \tag{1}$$

- The bias is small if
 - ullet n is large
 - \bullet n/N is large

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - X}{\bar{x}})$$

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)} \tag{1}$$

- The bias is small if
 - $\bullet \ n \ {\rm is \ large}$
 - n/N is large
 - ullet $ar{X}$ is large

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})$$

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)} \tag{1}$$

- The bias is small if
 - $\bullet \ n \ {\rm is \ large}$
 - n/N is large
 - ullet $ar{X}$ is large
 - ullet S_x is small

Linearization approach to approximating variances

$$\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y} = (\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - X}{\bar{x}})$$

$$Bias(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y}) \approx (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n\bar{X}(BS_x^2 - RS_xS_y)} \tag{1}$$

- The bias is small if
 - $\bullet \ n \ {\rm is \ large}$
 - n/N is large
 - ullet $ar{X}$ is large
 - ullet S_x is small
 - ullet R is close to 1

 \bullet With the sampling weight $w_i=1/\pi_i$, $\bar{y}_w=\frac{\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i}{\sum_{i\in s}w_i}$

- \bullet With the sampling weight $w_i=1/\pi_i$, $\bar{y}_w=\frac{\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i}{\sum_{i\in s}w_i}$
- Note that $\hat{t}_{yr}=\frac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}\hat{t}_{yw}=\frac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i$, we can think of the modification used in ratio estimation as an adjustment to each weight.

- \bullet With the sampling weight $w_i=1/\pi_i, \ \bar{y}_w=\frac{\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i}{\sum_{i\in s}w_i}$
- Note that $\hat{t}_{yr}=\frac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}\hat{t}_{yw}=\frac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i$, we can think of the modification used in ratio estimation as an adjustment to each weight.
- Define $g_i=rac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}$, then $\hat{t}_{yr}=\sum_{i\in s}w_ig_iy_i$ as a weighted sum of the observations, with new weights

- \bullet With the sampling weight $w_i=1/\pi_i,~\bar{y}_w=\frac{\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i}{\sum_{i\in s}w_i}$
- Note that $\hat{t}_{yr}=\frac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}\hat{t}_{yw}=\frac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}\sum_{i\in s}w_iy_i$, we can think of the modification used in ratio estimation as an adjustment to each weight.
- Define $g_i=rac{t_x}{\hat{t}_x}$, then $\hat{t}_{yr}=\sum_{i\in s}w_ig_iy_i$ as a weighted sum of the observations, with new weights
- \bullet The weight adjustments g_i calibrates the estimates based on x : $\sum_{i \in s} w_i g_i x_i = t_x.$

Mean squared error (MSE)

We have

$$E[(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y})^2] = E[\{(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})\}^2] \approx E[(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})^2]$$

Mean squared error (MSE)

We have

$$E[(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y})^2] = E[\{(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})\}^2] \approx E[(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})^2]$$

The variance and MSE are both approximated by

$$MSE(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E[(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})^2] = (1/n - 1/N)(S_y^2 - 2BRS_x + B^2S_x^2)$$

Mean squared error (MSE)

We have

$$E[(\hat{\bar{y}}_r - \bar{Y})^2] = E[\{(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})(1 - \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{X}}{\bar{x}})\}^2] \approx E[(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})^2]$$

The variance and MSE are both approximated by

$$MSE(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) = E[(\bar{y} - B\bar{x})^2] = (1/n - 1/N)(S_y^2 - 2BRS_x + B^2S_x^2)$$

• The MSE is small if n is large, n/N is large, the deviations $d_i=y_i-Bx_i$ is small, and R is close to 1.

• Since $E[(\bar{y}-B\bar{x})^2]=Var(\bar{d}),\ \bar{d}_U=0,$ define a new variable $e_i=y_i-\hat{B}x_i$ as the i-th residual from fitting the line $y=\hat{B}x.$

- Since $E[(\bar{y}-B\bar{x})^2]=Var(\bar{d}),\ \bar{d}_U=0,$ define a new variable $e_i=y_i-\hat{B}x_i$ as the i-th residual from fitting the line $y=\hat{B}x.$
- \bullet Estimate $var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)=(1-\frac{n}{N})(\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}})^2\frac{s_e^2}{n}$ with $s_e^2=\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i\in S}e_i^2$

- Since $E[(\bar{y}-B\bar{x})^2]=Var(\bar{d}),\ \bar{d}_U=0,$ define a new variable $e_i=y_i-\hat{B}x_i$ as the i-th residual from fitting the line $y=\hat{B}x.$
- \bullet Estimate $var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)=(1-\frac{n}{N})(\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}})^2\frac{s_e^2}{n}$ with $s_e^2=\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i\in S}e_i^2$
- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \text{ With weights } g_i = \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}} \text{ and } u_i = g_i e_i \text{, for an SRS,} \\ var(\bar{u}) = (1 \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i \in S} (u_i \bar{u})^2 = (1 \frac{n}{N}) (\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}})^2 \frac{s_e^2}{n} = var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) \end{array}$

- Since $E[(\bar{y}-B\bar{x})^2]=Var(\bar{d}),\ \bar{d}_U=0,$ define a new variable $e_i=y_i-\hat{B}x_i$ as the i-th residual from fitting the line $y=\hat{B}x.$
- \bullet Estimate $var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r)=(1-\frac{n}{N})(\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}})^2\frac{s_e^2}{n}$ with $s_e^2=\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i\in S}e_i^2$
- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \text{ With weights } g_i = \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}} \text{ and } u_i = g_i e_i \text{, for an SRS,} \\ var(\bar{u}) = (1 \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i \in S} (u_i \bar{u})^2 = (1 \frac{n}{N}) (\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{x}})^2 \frac{s_e^2}{n} = var(\hat{\bar{y}}_r) \end{array}$
- Similarly

$$var(\hat{B}) = (1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{s_e^2}{n\bar{x}^2}$$
 (2)

R code: Examples 4.2 in Lohr

```
agsrs$sampwt <- rep(3078/n,n)
agdsrs <- svydesign(id = -1, weights=-sampwt, fpc=rep(3078,300), data = agsrs)
# estimate the ratio acres92/acres87
sratio<-svyratio(numerator = -acres92, denominator = -acres87, design = agdsrs); sratio

Ratio estimator: svyratio.survey.design2(numerator = -acres92, denominator = -acres87, design = agdsrs)
Ratios=

acres87
acres92 0.9865652
SEs=
acres87
acres92 0.005750473
confint(sratio, df=degf(agdsrs))
```

acres92/acres87 0.9752487 0.9978818 # provide the population total of x xpoptotal <- 964470625 # Ratio estimate of population total predict(sratio, total=xpoptotal)

\$total

acres87 acres92 951513191

\$se

acres87
acres92 5546162
Ratio estimate of population mean
predict(sratio.total=xpoptotal/3078)

Regression estimation in SRS

• Ratio estimation works best in the data are well fit by a straight line through the origin.

Regression estimation in SRS

- Ratio estimation works best in the data are well fit by a straight line through the origin.
- \bullet General regression model $y=B_0+B_1x$ with ordinary least squares regression coefficient estimate

$$\begin{split} \hat{B}_1 &= \frac{\sum_{i \in s} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i \in s} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{rs_y}{s_x} \\ \hat{B}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{B}_1 \bar{x} \end{split}$$

Regression estimation in SRS

- Ratio estimation works best in the data are well fit by a straight line through the origin.
- \bullet General regression model $y=B_0+B_1x$ with ordinary least squares regression coefficient estimate

$$\begin{split} \hat{B}_1 &= \frac{\sum_{i \in s} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i \in s} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{rs_y}{s_x} \\ \hat{B}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{B}_1 \bar{x} \end{split}$$

• If we know \bar{X} , we can obtain the regression estimator $\hat{\bar{y}}_{req}=\hat{B}_0+\hat{B}_1\bar{X}=\bar{y}+\hat{B}_1(\bar{X}-\bar{x})$

Regression estimator is biased

• Let population slope $B_1=\frac{RS_y}{S_x}$, we have $E(\hat{\bar{y}}_{req}-\bar{Y})=-Cov(\hat{B}_1,\bar{x})$

Regression estimator is biased

- Let population slope $B_1=\frac{RS_y}{S_x}$, we have $E(\hat{\bar{y}}_{req}-\bar{Y})=-Cov(\hat{B}_1,\bar{x})$
- For large SRSs the MSE for regression estimation is similar to the variance. Let $d_i=y_i-[\bar{Y}+B_1(x_i-\bar{X})]$, then

$$MSE(\hat{\bar{y}}_{reg}) = E[\{\bar{y}\bar{Y} + B_1(x_i - \bar{X})\}^2] \approx V(\bar{d}) = (1 - \frac{n}{N})\frac{S_d^2}{n}$$

Regression estimator is biased

- Let population slope $B_1=\frac{RS_y}{S_x}$, we have $E(\hat{\bar{y}}_{reg}-\bar{Y})=-Cov(\hat{B}_1,\bar{x})$
- For large SRSs the MSE for regression estimation is similar to the variance. Let $d_i=y_i-[\bar{Y}+B_1(x_i-\bar{X})]$, then

$$MSE(\hat{\bar{y}}_{reg}) = E[\{\bar{y}\bar{Y} + B_1(x_i - \bar{X})\}^2] \approx V(\bar{d}) = (1 - \frac{n}{N})\frac{S_d^2}{n}$$

• We can estimate S_d^2 by using residuals $e_i=y_i-(\hat{B}_0+\hat{B}_1x_i)$ and $s_e^2=\sum_i e_i^2/(n-2)$

$$SE(\hat{\bar{y}}_{reg}) = \sqrt{(1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{1}{n} s_y^2 (1 - r^2)}$$
 (3)

R code: Lohr Example 4.7

2.5 % 97.5 %

(Intercept) 2.1777362 7.940848 0.3527717 0.873777

photo

```
data(deadtrees): #head(deadtrees) nrow(deadtrees) # 25
# Fit with survey regression
dtree<- svydesign(id = ~1, weight=rep(4,25), fpc=rep(100,25), data = deadtrees)
mvfit1 <- svvglm(field~photo, design=dtree)</pre>
summary(myfit1) # displays regression coefficients
Call:
svyglm(formula = field ~ photo, design = dtree)
Survey design:
svydesign(id = ~1, weight = rep(4, 25), fpc = rep(100, 25), data = deadtrees)
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 5.0593 1.3930 3.632 0.0014 **
           0.6133 0.1259 4.870 6.44e-05 ***
photo
---
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for gaussian family taken to be 5.548341)
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 2
confint(mvfit1,df=23) # df = 25-2
```

R code: Lohr Example 4.7 cont.

2.5 % 97.5 % 1 1112.455 1285.404

```
# Regression estimate of population mean field trees
newdata <- data.frame(photo=11.3)
predict(myfit1, newdata)
    link
1 11.989 0.418
confint(predict(myfit1, newdata), df=23)
     2.5 % 97.5 %
1 11 12455 12 85404
# Estimate total field tree, add population size in total= argument
newdata2 <- data.frame(photo=1130)
predict(myfit1, newdata2, total=100)
   link
1 1198 9 41 802
confint(predict(mvfit1, newdata2,total=100),df=23)
```

Subdomain estimation

- Often we want separate estimates for subpopulations; the subpopulations are called domains or subdomains.
- ullet The number of persons in an SRS who fall into each domain n_d is a random variable, so estimating domain means is a special case of ratio estimation.
- \bullet Let $x_i=1$ and $u_i=x_iy_i=y_i$ if $i\in s_d$ and $x_i=u_i=0$ otherwise
- \bullet Domain mean $\bar{y}_d = \frac{\hat{t}_u}{\hat{t}_x} = \frac{\bar{u}}{\bar{x}} = \hat{B}$

• Using the variance of \hat{B} in Equation (2),

$$SE(\bar{y}_d) = \sqrt{(1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{n}{n_d^2} \frac{(n_d - 1)s_{yd}^2}{n - 1}},$$

where
$$s_{yd}^2 = \sum_{i \in s_d} (y_i - \bar{y}_d)^2/(n_d - 1)$$

• Using the variance of \hat{B} in Equation (2),

$$SE(\bar{y}_d) = \sqrt{(1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{n}{n_d^2} \frac{(n_d - 1)s_{yd}^2}{n - 1}},$$

where
$$s_{yd}^2 = \sum_{i \in s_d} (y_i - \bar{y}_d)^2/(n_d - 1)$$

• If $E(n_d)$ is large, $SE(\bar{y}_d) \approx \sqrt{(1-\frac{n}{N})\frac{s_{yd}^2}{n_d}}$

ullet Using the variance of \hat{B} in Equation (2),

$$SE(\bar{y}_d) = \sqrt{(1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{n}{n_d^2} \frac{(n_d - 1)s_{yd}^2}{n - 1}},$$

where
$$s_{yd}^2 = \sum_{i \in s_d} (y_i - \bar{y}_d)^2/(n_d - 1)$$

- If $E(n_d)$ is large, $SE(\bar{y}_d) \approx \sqrt{(1-\frac{n}{N})\frac{s_{yd}^2}{n_d}}$
- \bullet The results for now only apply to SRSs, and approximations depends on having a sufficiently large sample so that $E(n_d)$ is large

ullet Using the variance of \hat{B} in Equation (2),

$$SE(\bar{y}_d) = \sqrt{(1 - \frac{n}{N}) \frac{n}{n_d^2} \frac{(n_d - 1)s_{yd}^2}{n - 1}},$$

where
$$s_{yd}^2 = \sum_{i \in s_d} (y_i - \bar{y}_d)^2/(n_d - 1)$$

- If $E(n_d)$ is large, $SE(\bar{y}_d) \approx \sqrt{(1-\frac{n}{N})\frac{s_{yd}^2}{n_d}}$
- \bullet The results for now only apply to SRSs, and approximations depends on having a sufficiently large sample so that $E(n_d)$ is large
- More generally, we use small area estimation approaches that rely on models

R code: Lohr Example 4.8

agsrsnew<-agsrs

confint(bothmeans,level=.95)

2.5 % 97.5 %
large 274322.1 358809.2
small 227064 4 340363 1

```
agsrsnew$farmcat<-rep("large",n)
agsrsnew$farmcat[agsrsnew$farms92 < 600] <- "small" #head(agsrsnew)
dsrsnew <- svydesign(id = ~1, weights=~sampwt, fpc=rep(3078,300), data=agsrsnew)
# domain estimation for large farmcat with subset statement
dsub1<-subset(dsrsnew,farmcat=='large') # design info for domain large farmcat
smean1<-svymean(~acres92,design=dsub1): smean1
          mean
                  SE
acres92 316566 21553
df1<-sum(agsrsnew$farmcat=='large')-1: df1 #calculate domain df if desired
Γ17 128
confint(smean1, level=.95,df=df1) # CI
           2.5 % 97.5 %
acres92 273918.9 359212.4
# use svvbv function
bothmeans <- svyby (~acres 92, by =~factor (farmcat), design = dsrsnew, svymean); bothmeans
     factor(farmcat) acres92
large
            large 316565.7 21553.21
small.
              small 283813 7 28852 24
```

51 / 57

• Since poststrata are formed after data collection, the sample domain sizes are random quantities.

- Since poststrata are formed after data collection, the sample domain sizes are random quantities.
- \bullet The poststratification estimator of \bar{Y} is $\bar{y}_{post}=\sum_h N_h/N\bar{y}_h$ is ratio estimation

- Since poststrata are formed after data collection, the sample domain sizes are random quantities.
- \bullet The poststratification estimator of \bar{Y} is $\bar{y}_{post}=\sum_h N_h/N\bar{y}_h$ is ratio estimation
- If n_h is reasonably large, we can use an approximate variance estimator $var(\bar{y}_{post})\approx (1-\frac{n}{N})\sum N_h/Ns_h^2/n$

- Since poststrata are formed after data collection, the sample domain sizes are random quantities.
- \bullet The poststratification estimator of \bar{Y} is $\bar{y}_{post} = \sum_h N_h/N\bar{y}_h$ is ratio estimation
- If n_h is reasonably large, we can use an approximate variance estimator $var(\bar{y}_{post})\approx (1-\frac{n}{N})\sum N_h/Ns_h^2/n$
- Difference between stratification (design) and poststratification (estimation): n_h fixed or random?

R code: Lohr Example 4.9

total SE acres92 922717031 53906392

```
data(agsrs)
dsrs <- svydesign(id = ~1, weights=rep(3078/300,300), fpc=rep(3078,300),data = agsrs)
# Create a data frame that gives the population totals for the poststrata
pop.region <- data.frame(region=c("NC","NE","S","W"), Freq=c(1054,220,1382,422))
# create design information with poststratification
dsrsp<-postStratify(dsrs, ~region, pop.region); summary(dsrsp)
Independent Sampling design
postStratify(dsrs, ~region, pop.region)
Probabilities:
   Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu.
                                         Max.
0.09242 0.09407 0.09407 0.09771 0.10152 0.10909
Population size (PSUs): 3078
Data variables:
 [1] "county" "state" "acres92" "acres87" "acres82" "farms92"
 [7] "farms87" "farms82" "largef92" "largef87" "largef82" "smallf92"
[13] "smallf87" "smallf82" "region"
1/unique(dsrsp$prob) # See the poststratified weight for each region
[1] 10.630769 10.820513 9.850467 9.166667
svymean(~acres92, dsrsp)
                 SE
          mean
acres92 299778 17513
svytotal(~acres92, dsrsp)
```

Summary

- Ratio and regression estimation use an auxiliary variable that is highly correlated with the variable of interest to reduce the MSE of estimated population means or totals.
- The estimators in ratio and regression estimation come from models that we hope describe the data, but the randomization-theory properties of the estimators do not depend on these models.
- Ratio estimation is especially useful in cluster sampling as we shall see in the next sessions