

# Methods Supplementary Lecture 1: Survey Sampling and Design

Department of Government  
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- 1 Populations
  - Representativeness
  - Sampling Frames
  - Sampling without a Frame
- 2 Parameters and Estimates
- 3 Simple Random Sampling
- 4 Complex Survey Design
  - Cluster Sampling
  - Weights
- 5 Response Rates

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## 1 Populations

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# Inference Population

- We want to speak to a population
- But what population is it?

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- But what population is it?
- Example: “The UK population”

# Population Census

- All population units are in study

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- History of national censuses
  - Denmark 1769–1970 (sporadic)
  - U.S. 1790 (decennial)
  - India 1871 (decennial)



# Population Census

- All population units are in study
- History of national censuses
  - Denmark 1769–1970 (sporadic)
  - U.S. 1790 (decennial)
  - India 1871 (decennial)
- Other kinds of census
  - Citizen registry
  - Commercial, medical, government records
  - “Big data”

# Advantages and Disadvantages

- Advantages

- Disadvantages

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- Advantages
  - Perfectly representative
  - Sample statistics are population parameters
- Disadvantages

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## ■ Advantages

- Perfectly representative
- Sample statistics are population parameters

## ■ Disadvantages

- Costs
- Feasibility
- Need

# Representativeness

- What does it mean for a sample to be representative?

# Representativeness

- What does it mean for a sample to be representative?
- Different conceptions of representativeness:
  - Design-based: A sample is representative because of how it was drawn (e.g., randomly)
  - Demographic-based: A sample is representative because it resembles in the population in some way (e.g., same proportion of women in sample and population, etc.)
  - Expert judgement: A sample is representative as judged by an expert who deems it “fit for purpose”

# Obtaining Representativeness

- Quota sampling (common prior to the 1940s)

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- Simple random sampling



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- Quota sampling (common prior to the 1940s)
- Simple random sampling
- Advanced survey designs

# Convenience Samples

- What is a convenience sample?

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- Different types:
  - Passive/opt-in
  - Sample of convenience (not a sample per se)
  - Sample matching
  - Online panels

# Convenience Samples

- What is a convenience sample?
- Different types:
  - Passive/opt-in
  - Sample of convenience (not a sample per se)
  - Sample matching
  - Online panels
- “Purposive” samples (common in qualitative studies)

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# Sampling Frames

- Definition: Enumeration (listing) of all units eligible for sample selection
- Building a sampling frame
  - Combine existing lists
  - Canvass/enumerate from scratch (e.g., walk around and identify all addresses that people might live in)
- There might be multiple frames of the sample population (e.g., telephone list, voter list, residential addresses)
- List might be at wrong unit of analysis (e.g., households when we care about individuals)

# Coverage: A Big Issue

- Coverage: any mismatch between population and sampling frame
  - *Undercoverage*: the sampling frame does not include all eligible members of the population (e.g., not everyone has a telephone, so a telephone list does not include all people)
  - *Overcoverage*: the sampling frame includes ineligible units (e.g., residents of a country are not necessarily citizens so a list of residents has overcoverage for the population of residents)
- Coverage of a frame can change over time (e.g., residential mobility, attrition)

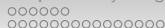
# Multi-frame Designs

- Construct one sample from multiple sampling frames
- E.g., “Dual-frame” (landline and mobile)
- Analytically complicated
  - Overlap of frames
  - Sample probabilities in each frame



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- Examples
  - Protest attendees

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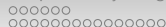
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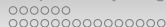
# Sampling without a Sampling Frame

- Sometimes we have a population that can be sampled but not (easily) enumerated in full
- Examples
  - Protest attendees
  - Streams (e.g., people buying groceries)
  - Points in time
- Population is the sampling frame



# Rare or “hidden” populations

- Big concern: coverage!



# Rare or “hidden” populations

- Big concern: coverage!
- Solutions?



# Rare or “hidden” populations

- Big concern: coverage!
- Solutions?
  - Snowball sampling
  - Informant sampling
  - Targeted sampling
  - Respondent-driven sampling

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# Inference from Sample to Population

- We want to know population parameter  $\theta$
- We only observe sample estimate  $\hat{\theta}$
- We have a guess but are also uncertain

# Inference from Sample to Population

- We want to know population parameter  $\theta$
- We only observe sample estimate  $\hat{\theta}$
- We have a guess but are also uncertain
- What range of values for  $\theta$  does our  $\hat{\theta}$  imply?
- Are values in that range large or meaningful?

# How Uncertain Are We?

- Our uncertainty depends on sampling procedures (we'll discuss different approaches shortly)
- Most importantly, *sample size*
  - As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , uncertainty  $\rightarrow 0$
- We typically summarize our uncertainty as the *standard error*

# Standard Errors (SEs)

- Definition: “The standard error of a sample estimate is the average distance that a sample estimate ( $\hat{\theta}$ ) would be from the population parameter ( $\theta$ ) if we drew many separate random samples and applied our estimator to each.”

# What affects size of SEs?

- Larger variance in  $x$  means smaller SEs
- More unexplained variance in  $y$  means bigger SEs
- More observations reduces the numerator, thus smaller SEs
- Other factors:
  - Homoskedasticity
  - Clustering
- Interpretation:
  - Large SE: Uncertain about population effect size
  - Small SE: Certain about population effect size

# Ways to Express Our Uncertainty

- 1 Standard Error
- 2 Confidence interval
- 3 p-value



# Confidence Interval (CI)

- Definition: Were we to repeat our procedure of sampling, applying our estimator, and calculating a confidence interval *repeatedly* from the population, a fixed percentage of the resulting intervals would include the true population-level slope.
- Interpretation: If the confidence interval overlaps zero, we are uncertain if  $\beta$  differs from zero

# Confidence Interval (CI)

- A CI is simply a range, centered on the slope
- Units: Same scale as the coefficient ( $\frac{y}{x}$ )
- We can calculate different CIs of varying *confidence*
  - Conventionally,  $\alpha = 0.05$ , so 95% of the CIs will include the  $\beta$

# p-value

- A summary measure in a hypothesis test
- General definition: “the probability of a statistic as extreme as the one we observed, if the null hypothesis was true, the statistic is distributed as we assume, and the data are as variable as observed”
- Definition in the context of a mean: “the probability of a mean as large as the one we observed . . . ”

# The p-value is not:

- The probability that a hypothesis is true or false
- A reflection of our confidence or certainty about the result
- The probability that the true slope is in any particular range of values
- A statement about the importance or substantive size of the effect

# Significance

- 1 Substantive significance
- 2 Statistical significance

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## 1 Substantive significance

- Is the effect size (or range of possible effect sizes) *important* in the real world?

## 2 Statistical significance

- Is the effect size (or range of possible effect sizes) larger than a predetermined threshold?
- Conventionally,  $p \leq 0.05$

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# Simple Random Sampling (SRS)

## ■ Advantages

- Simplicity of sampling
- Simplicity of analysis

## ■ Disadvantages

- Need sampling frame and units without any structure
- Possibly expensive

# Sample Estimates from an SRS

- Each unit in frame has equal probability of selection
- Sample statistics are unweighted
- Sampling variances are easy to calculate
- Easy to calculate sample size need for a particular variance

# Sample mean

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \quad (1)$$

where  $y_i$  = value for a unit, and  
 $n$  = sample size

$$SE_{\bar{y}} = \sqrt{(1 - f) \frac{s^2}{n}} \quad (2)$$

where  $f$  = proportion of population sampled,  
 $s^2$  = sample (element) variance, and  
 $n$  = sample size

# Sample proportion

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \quad (3)$$

where  $y_i$  = value for a unit, and  
 $n$  = sample size

$$SE_{\bar{y}} = \sqrt{\frac{(1-f)}{(n-1)} p(1-p)} \quad (4)$$

where  $f$  = proportion of population sampled,  
 $p$  = sample proportion, and  
 $n$  = sample size

# Estimating sample size

- Imagine we want to conduct a political poll
- We want to know what percentage of the public will vote for which coalition/party
- How big of a sample do we need to make a relatively precise estimate of voter support?

# Estimating sample size

$$Var(p) = (1 - f) \frac{p(1 - p)}{n - 1} \quad (5)$$

Given the large population:

$$Var(p) = \frac{p(1 - p)}{n - 1} \quad (6)$$

Need to solve the above for  $n$ .

(7)

# Estimating sample size

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Given the large population:

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Need to solve the above for  $n$ .

$$n = \frac{p(1 - p)}{v(p)} = \frac{p(1 - p)}{SE^2} \quad (7)$$

# Estimating sample size

Determining sample size requires:

- A possible value of  $p$
- A desired precision (SE)

If support for each coalition is evenly matched ( $p = 0.5$ ):

$$n = \frac{0.5(1 - 0.5)}{SE^2} = \frac{0.25}{SE^2} \quad (8)$$



# Estimating sample size

What precision (margin of error) do we want?

- +/- 2 percentage points:  $SE = 0.01$

$$n = \frac{0.25}{0.01^2} = \frac{0.25}{0.0001} = 2500 \quad (9)$$

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What precision (margin of error) do we want?

- +/- 2 percentage points:  $SE = 0.01$

$$n = \frac{0.25}{0.01^2} = \frac{0.25}{0.0001} = 2500 \quad (9)$$

- +/- 5 percentage points:  $SE = 0.025$

$$n = \frac{0.25}{0.000625} = 400 \quad (10)$$

# Estimating sample size

What precision (margin of error) do we want?

- +/- 2 percentage points:  $SE = 0.01$

$$n = \frac{0.25}{0.01^2} = \frac{0.25}{0.0001} = 2500 \quad (9)$$

- +/- 5 percentage points:  $SE = 0.025$

$$n = \frac{0.25}{0.000625} = 400 \quad (10)$$

- +/- 0.5 percentage points:  $SE = 0.0025$

$$n = \frac{0.25}{0.00000625} = 40,000 \quad (11)$$

# Important considerations

- Required sample size depends on  $p$  and  $SE$

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# Important considerations

- Required sample size depends on  $p$  and  $SE$
- In large populations, population size is irrelevant
- In small populations, precision is influenced by the proportion of population sampled
- In anything other than an SRS, sample size calculation is more difficult
- Much political science research assumes SRS even though a more complex design is actually used



# Sampling Error

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- Definition? Reasons why a sample estimate may not match the population parameter
- Unavoidable!
- Sources of sampling error:
  - Sampling
  - Sample size
  - Unequal probabilities of selection
  - Non-Stratification
  - Cluster sampling

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- Need complete sampling frame
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# Stratified Sampling

- What is it? Random samples within “strata” of the population
- Why do we do? To reduce uncertainty of our estimates

# Stratified Sampling

- What is it? Random samples within “strata” of the population
- Why do we do? To reduce uncertainty of our estimates
- Most useful when subpopulations are:
  - 1 identifiable in advance
  - 2 differ from one another
  - 3 have low within-stratum variance

# Stratified Sampling

- Advantages



# Stratified Sampling

- Advantages
  - Avoid certain kinds of sampling errors
  - Representative samples of subpopulations
  - Often, lower variances (greater precision of estimates)

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- Avoid certain kinds of sampling errors
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## ■ Disadvantages

- Need complete sampling frame
- Possibly (more) expensive
- No advantage if strata are similar
- Analysis is more potentially more complex than SRS

# Outline of Process

- 1 Identify our population
- 2 Construct a sampling frame
- 3 Identify variables we already have that are related to our survey variables of interest
- 4 Stratify or subset or sampling frame based on these characteristics
- 5 Collect an SRS (of some size) within each stratum
- 6 Aggregate our results

## Estimates from a stratified sample

- Within-strata estimates are calculated just like an SRS
- Within-strata variances are calculated just like an SRS
- Sample-level estimates are weighted averages of stratum-specific estimates
- Sample-level variances are weighted averages of stratum-specific variances

# Design effect

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# Design effect

- What is it?
- Ratio of variances in a design against a same-sized SRS
- $d^2 = \frac{Var_{stratified}(y)}{Var_{SRS}(y)}$
- Possible to convert design effect into an *effective sample size*:
- $n_{effective} = \frac{n}{d}$



# How many strata?

- How many strata can we have in a stratified sampling plan?

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- How many strata can we have in a stratified sampling plan?
- As many as we want, up to the limits of sample size

# How do we allocate sample units to strata?

- Proportional allocation
- Optimal precision
- Allocation based on stratum-specific precision objectives

# Example Setup

- Interested in individual-level rate of crime victimization in some country
- We think rates differ among native-born and immigrant populations
- Assume immigrants make up 12% of population
- Compare uncertainty from different designs ( $n = 1000$ )

# SRS

- Assume equal rates across groups ( $p = 0.10$ )
- Overall estimate is just  $\frac{\text{Victims}}{n}$
- $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n-1}}$
- $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{0.09}{999}} = 0.0095$

# SRS

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- SEs for subgroups (native-born and immigrants)?

# SRS

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- $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n-1}}$
- $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{0.09}{999}} = 0.0095$
- SEs for subgroups (native-born and immigrants)?
- What happens if we don't get any immigrants in our sample?



# Proportionate Allocation I

- Assume equal rates across groups
- Sample 880 native-born and 120 immigrant individuals
- $SE(p) = \sqrt{Var(p)}$ , where
  - $Var(p) = \sum_{h=1}^H \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right)^2 \frac{p_h(1-p_h)}{n_h-1}$
  - $Var(p) = \left(\frac{0.09}{879}\right)(.88^2) + \left(\frac{0.09}{119}\right)(.12^2)$
  - $SE(p) = 0.0095$
- Design effect:  $d^2 = \frac{0.0095^2}{0.0095^2} = 1$

# Proportionate Allocation I

- Note that in this design we get different levels of uncertainty for subgroups
- $SE(p_{native}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{879}} = \sqrt{\frac{0.09}{879}} = 0.010$
- $SE(p_{imm}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{119}} = \sqrt{\frac{0.09}{119}} = 0.028$

# Proportionate Allocation IIa

- Assume different rates across groups (immigrants higher risk)
- $p_{native} = 0.1$  and  $p_{imm} = 0.3$  (thus  $p_{pop} = 0.124$ )
- $Var(p) = \sum_{h=1}^H \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right)^2 \frac{p_h(1-p_h)}{n_h-1}$
- $Var(p) = \left(\frac{0.09}{879}\right)(.88^2) + \frac{0.21}{119}(.12^2)$
- $SE(p) = 0.01022$

# Proportionate Allocation IIa

- $SE(p) = 0.01022$

- Compare to SRS:

- $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{0.124(1-0.124)}{n-1}} = 0.0104$

- Design effect:  $d^2 = \frac{0.01022^2}{0.0104^2} = 0.9657$

- $n_{effective} = \frac{n}{d^2} = 1017$

# Proportionate Allocation Ila

- Subgroup variances are still different

- $SE(p_{native}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{879}} = \sqrt{\frac{.09}{879}} = 0.010$

- $SE(p_{imm}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{119}} = \text{sqrt} \frac{.21}{119} = 0.040$

# Proportionate Allocation IIb

- Assume different rates across groups (immigrants lower risk)
- $p_{native} = 0.3$  and  $p_{imm} = 0.1$  (thus  $p_{pop} = 0.276$ )
- $Var(p) = \sum_{h=1}^H \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right)^2 \frac{p_h(1-p_h)}{n_h-1}$
- $Var(p) = \left(\frac{0.21}{879}\right)(.88^2) + \frac{0.09}{119}(.12^2)$
- $SE(p) = 0.014$

# Proportionate Allocation IIb

- $SE(p) = 0.014$
- Compare to SRS:
  - $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{0.276(1-0.276)}{n-1}} = 0.0141$
- Design effect:  $d^2 = \frac{0.014^2}{0.0141^2} = 0.9859$
- $n_{effective} = \frac{n}{sqrt(d^2)} = 1007$

# Proportionate Allocation IIa

- Subgroup variances are still different
- $SE(p_{native}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{879}} = \sqrt{\frac{.21}{879}} = 0.0155$
- $SE(p_{imm}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{119}} = \text{sqrt} \frac{.09}{119} = 0.0275$



# Proportionate Allocation IIc

- Look at same design, but a different survey variable (household size)
- Assume:  $\bar{y}_{native} = 4$  and  $\bar{Y}_{imm} = 6$  (thus  $\bar{Y}_{pop} = 4.24$ )
- Assume:  $Var(Y_{native}) = 1$  and  $Var(Y_{imm}) = 3$  and  $Var(Y_{pop}) = 4$
- $Var(\bar{y}) = \sum_{h=1}^H \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right)^2 \frac{s_h^2}{n_h}$
- $SE(\bar{y}) = \sqrt{\frac{12}{880}(.88^2) + \frac{32}{120}(.12^2)} = 0.0443$

# Proportionate Allocation IIc

- $SE(\bar{y}) = 0.0443$
- Compare to SRS:
  - $SE(\bar{y}) = \sqrt{\frac{s^2}{n}} = \sqrt{4/1000} = 0.0632$
- Design effect:  $d^2 = \frac{0.0443^2}{0.0632^2} = 0.491$
- $n_{effective} = \frac{n}{d^2} = 1427$

# Proportionate Allocation IIc

- $SE(\bar{y}) = 0.0443$
- Compare to SRS:
  - $SE(\bar{y}) = \sqrt{\frac{s^2}{n}} = \sqrt{4/1000} = 0.0632$
- Design effect:  $d^2 = \frac{0.0443^2}{0.0632^2} = 0.491$
- $n_{effective} = \frac{n}{d^2} = 1427$
- Why is  $d^2$  so much larger here?

# Disproportionate Allocation I

- Previous designs obtained different precision for subgroups
- Design to obtain stratum-specific precision (e.g.,  $SE(p_h) = 0.02$ )
- $$n_h = \frac{p(1-p)}{v(p)} = \frac{p(1-p)}{SE^2}$$
- $$n_{native} = \frac{0.09}{0.02^2} = 225$$
- $$n_{imm} = \frac{0.21}{0.02^2} = 525$$
- $$n_{total} = 225 + 525 = 750$$

# Disproportionate Allocation II

- Neyman optimal allocation
- How does this work?
  - Allocate cases to strata based on within-strata variance
  - Only works for one variable at a time
  - Need to know within-strata variance

# Disproportionate Allocation II

- Assume big difference in victimization
- $p_{native} = 0.01$  and  $p_{imm} = 0.50$  (thus  $p_{pop} = 0.0688$ )
- Allocate according to:  $n_h = n \frac{W_h S_h}{\sum_{h=1}^H W_h S_h}$
- $\sum_{h=1}^H W_h S_h = (0.88 * 0.0099) + (0.12 * 0.25) = 0.0387$
- $n_{native} = 1000 \frac{0.0087}{0.0387} = 225$
- $n_{imm} = 1000 \frac{0.03}{0.0387} = 775$

# Disproportionate Allocation II

- $SE(p_{native}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{225}} = \sqrt{\frac{0.0099}{225}} = 0.00663$
- $SE(p_{imm}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{775}} = \sqrt{\frac{.25}{775}} = 0.01796$
- $Var(p) = \sum_{h=1}^H \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right)^2 \frac{p_h(1-p_h)}{n_h-1}$
- $Var(p) = \left(\frac{0.0099}{225}\right)(.88^2) + \left(\frac{0.25}{775}\right)(.12^2)$
- $SE(p) = 0.00622$

# Disproportionate Allocation II

- $SE(p) = 0.00622$

- Compare to SRS:

- $SE(p) = \sqrt{\frac{0.0688(1-0.0688)}{n-1}} = 0.008$

- Design effect:  $d^2 = \frac{0.00622^2}{0.008^2} = 0.6045$

- $n_{effective} = \frac{n}{sqrt(d^2)} = 1286$



# Final Considerations

- Reductions in uncertainty come from creating homogeneous groups
- Estimates of design effects are variable-specific
- Sampling variance calculations do not factor in time, costs, or feasibility

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# Cluster Sampling

- What is it?
- Why do we do?



# Cluster Sampling

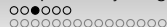
- What is it?
- Why do we do?
- Most useful when:
  - 1 Population has a clustered structure
  - 2 Unit-level sampling is expensive or not feasible
  - 3 Clusters are similar

# Cluster Sampling

## ■ Advantages

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- Advantages
  - Cost savings!
  - Capitalize on clustered structure



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- Disadvantages



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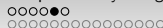
- Units tend to cluster for complex reasons (self-selection)
- Major increase in uncertainty if clusters differ from each other
- Complex to design (and possibly to administer)
- Analysis is much more complex than SRS or stratified sample





# Cluster Sampling

- Number of stages
  - One-stage sampling
  - Two- or more-stage sampling
- Number of clusters
- Sample size w/in clusters
- Everything depends on variability of clusters



# Sampling Variance for Cluster Sampling

- Sampling variance depends on *between*-cluster variation:

$$Var(\bar{y}) = \left(\frac{1-f}{a}\right)\left(\frac{1}{a-1}\right)(\sum_{\alpha=1}^a (\bar{y}_{\alpha} - \bar{y})^2)$$

- When *between*-cluster variance is high, *within*-cluster variance is likely to be low
  - “Cluster homogeneity”



# Design Effect for Cluster Sampling

- Cluster samples almost always less *statistically* efficient than SRS
- Design Effect depends on cluster homogeneity:
  - $d^2 = \frac{Var_{clustered}(y)}{Var_{SRS}(y)}$
  - $d^2 = 1 + (n_{cluster} - 1)roh$
- *roh* (*intraclass correlation coefficient*):
  - Proportion of unit-level variance that is between-clusters
  - Generally positive and small (about 0.00 to 0.10)

- 1 Populations
  - Representativeness
  - Sampling Frames
  - Sampling without a Frame
- 2 Parameters and Estimates
- 3 Simple Random Sampling
- 4 Complex Survey Design**
  - Cluster Sampling
  - Weights
- 5 Response Rates

# Goal of Survey Research

- The goal of survey research is to estimate population-level quantities (e.g., means, proportions, totals)
- Samples estimate those quantities with uncertainty (sampling error)
- Sample estimates are unbiased if they match population quantities

# Realities of Survey Research

- Sample may not match population for a variety of reasons:
  - Due to constraints on design
  - Due to sampling frame coverage
  - Due to intentional over/under-sampling
  - Due to nonresponse
  - Due to sampling error

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# Realities of Survey Research

- Sample may not match population for a variety of reasons:
  - Due to constraints on design
  - Due to sampling frame coverage
  - Due to intentional over/under-sampling
  - Due to nonresponse
  - Due to sampling error
- Weighting is never perfect
  - Limited to work with observed variables
  - Rarely have good knowledge of coverage, nonresponse, or sampling error
  - Weighting can increase sampling variance

# Three Kinds of Weights

- Design Weights
- Nonresponse Weights
- Post-Stratification Weights

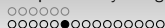


# Design Weights

- Address design-related unequal probability of selection into a sample
- Applied to *complex survey designs*:
  - Disproportionate allocation stratified sampling
  - Oversampling of subpopulations
  - Cluster sampling
  - Combinations thereof

# Design Weights: SRS

- Imagine sampling frame of 100,000 units
- Sample size will be 1,000
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- Design weight for all units is  $w = 1/p = 100$
- SRS is *self-weighting*



## Design Weights: Stratified Sample

- Imagine sampling frame of 100,000 units
  - 90,000 Native-born & 10,000 Immigrants
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  - 900 Native-born & 100 Immigrants
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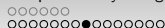
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- Proportionate allocation is *self-weighting*

## Design Weights: Stratified Sample

- Imagine sampling frame of 100,000 units
  - 90,000 Native-born & 10,000 Immigrants
- Sample size will be 1,000 (disproportionate allocation)
  - 500 Native-born & 500 Immigrants
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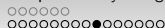


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  - $p_{Native} = \frac{500}{90,000} = .0056$
  - $p_{Imm} = \frac{500}{10,000} = .05$

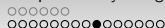
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  - $p_{Native} = \frac{500}{90,000} = .0056$
  - $p_{Imm} = \frac{500}{10,000} = .05$
- Design weights differ across units:
  - $w_{Native} = 1/p_{Danish} = 178.57$
  - $w_{Imm} = 1/p_{Imm} = 20$



# Design Weights: Cluster Sample

- Imagine sampling frame of 1000 units in 5 clusters of varying sizes
- Sample size will be 10 each from 3 clusters
- What is the probability that a unit in the sampling frame is included in the sample?
  - $p = n_{clusters} / N_{clusters} * 1 / n_{cluster} = \frac{3}{5} * 1 / n_{cluster}$

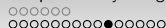


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- Design weights differ across units:
  - Clusters are equally likely to be sampled
  - Probability of selection within cluster varies with cluster size
- Cluster sampling is rarely *self-weighting*



# Nonresponse Weights

- Correct for nonresponse
- Require knowledge of nonrespondents on variables that have been measured for respondents
- Requires data are *missing at random*
- Two common methods
  - Weighting classes
  - Propensity score subclassification

# Nonresponse Weights: Example

- Imagine immigrants end up being less likely to respond<sup>1</sup>
  - $RR_{Native} = 1.0$
  - $RR_{Imm} = 0.8$

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<sup>1</sup>This refers to a lower RR in this particular survey sample, not in general.

# Nonresponse Weights: Example

- Imagine immigrants end up being less likely to respond<sup>1</sup>
  - $RR_{Native} = 1.0$
  - $RR_{Imm} = 0.8$
- Using weighting classes:
  - $w_{rr,Native} = 1/1 = 1$
  - $w_{rr,Imm} = 1/0.8 = 1.25$
- Can generalize to multiple variables and strata

---

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  - Divide sample and population into strata
  - Weight units in each stratum so that the weighted sample stratum contains the same proportion of units as the population stratum does
- There are numerous other related techniques

# Post-Stratification: Example

- Imagine our sample ends up skewed on immigration status and gender relative to the population

Group	Pop.	Sample	Rep.	Weight
Native, Female	.45	.5		
Native, Male	.45	.4		
Immigrant, Female	.05	.07		
Immigrant, Male	.05	.03		

- PS weight is just  $w_{ps} = N_I/n_I$

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Native, Female	.45	.5	Over	0.900
Native, Male	.45	.4	Under	1.125
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Native, Female	.45	.5	Over	0.900
Native, Male	.45	.4	Under	1.125
Immigrant, Female	.05	.07	Over	0.714
Immigrant, Male	.05	.03	Under	

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- Strata must be large ( $n > 15$ )
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- Only useful if stratifying variables are related to key constructs of interest
- This is the basis for inference in non-probability samples
  - Probability samples make design-based inferences
  - Non-probability samples post-stratify to obtain descriptive representativeness

# Weighted Analyses

- We can analyze data that *should be* weighted without the weights, but they are no longer mathematically representative of the larger population
- Using the weights is the way to make population-representative claims from survey data
- Most statistics can be modified to use weights, e.g.:
  - Unweighted mean:  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$
  - Weighted mean:  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i * w_i$

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# Response Rates

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- Sample size calculations (and design effects) are based on completed interviews
- Cost, time, and effort

# Response Rates

- Imagine we need  $n = 1000$
- How many attempts to obtain that sample:

Response Rate	Needed Attempts
1.00	1000
0.75	1333
0.50	2000
0.25	4000
0.10	10,000

# Response Rate

- Interviews divided by eligibles
- $RR = \frac{I}{E}$
- Challenges
  - Unknown eligibility
  - Partial interviews
  - Non-probability samples
  - Complex survey designs
- Cooperation Rate (I's divided by contacts)

# Disposition Codes

Every attempt to interview someone needs to be categorized into a “disposition code”. The usual codes fall into four broad categories:

- Interviews
- Refusals
- Unknowns
- Ineligibles

# Disposition Codes

- Complete Interview (I)
- Partial Interview (P)
- Non-interviews
  - Refusal (R)
  - Non-contact (NC)
  - Other (O)

# What is a refusal?

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- When can we try to convert an apparent refusal?

# What is a refusal?

- “I don’t want to participate.”

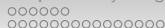


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- “Go f’ yourself.”

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- How do we determine ineligibility?
- What do we do with “unknowns”?

# Response Rates<sup>2</sup>

Without accounting for eligibility of unknowns:

$$\blacksquare RR1 = \frac{I}{(I+P)+(R+NC)+U}$$

$$\blacksquare RR2 = \frac{I+P}{(I+P)+(R+NC)+U}$$

Accounting for eligibility of unknowns:

$$\blacksquare RR3 = \frac{I}{(I+P)+(R+NC)+(e*U)}$$

$$\blacksquare RR4 = \frac{I+P}{(I+P)+(R+NC)+(e*U)}$$

■  $e$  is estimated  $\Pr(\text{eligible})$  among unknowns

---

<sup>2</sup>Note: Simplified slightly

# Refusal Rates

- Related to response rate

- Numerator is refusals

- E.g.,  $REF1 = \frac{R}{(I+P)+(R+NC)+U}$

# Complex Survey Designs

- Stratified Sampling (unequal allocation)
  - Sums of codes weighted by  $\frac{1}{p}$
  - $p$  is probability of selection
  - May want to report stratum-specific rates
- Multi-stage sampling (e.g., cluster sampling)
  - RR is product of cluster cooperation and within-cluster response rate

# Internet Surveys

- For *probability-based samples*, RR is a product of:
  - Recruitment Rate (RR for panel enrollment)
  - Completion Rate (RR for specific survey)
  - Profile Rate (in some cases)
  - E.g., if Recruitment Rate is 30% and Completion Rate is 80%,  $RR = 0.3 * 0.8 = 24\%$
- For *non-probability samples*, RR is undefined
  - No sampling involved (so no denominator)
  - If from panel, report Completion Rate
  - If fully opt-in, there's nothing you can do



