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Source: *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)*, Vol. 17, No. 2 (1955), pp. 269-278

Published by: Blackwell Publishing for the Royal Statistical Society

Stable URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2983963>

Accessed: 19/10/2008 12:29

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A UNIFIED THEORY OF SAMPLING FROM FINITE POPULATIONS

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[Received August, 1954]

SUMMARY

THE most general type of linear estimate is defined for a general sampling design. It is demonstrated that an unbiased linear estimate with least variance does not exist uniquely for the entire class of linear estimates. A slightly modified criterion for best estimate, with reference to certain given prior information is proposed. Some sampling designs have been analysed accordingly.

1. Introduction

Let x be a variate defined over a finite population of N individuals, x_λ being the value of x associated with the λ^{th} individual in the population ($\lambda = 1, \dots, N$). If it is proposed to estimate the total

$$T = \sum_{\lambda=1}^N x_\lambda$$

by making n successive random drawings, we get a very general type of sampling design when we allow the probabilities of drawing different individuals at any particular draw to depend upon the out-comes of the earlier draws. Thus let p be a function with arguments (q, s_{q-1}, λ) such that

$$p(q, s_{q-1}, \lambda)$$

is the probability of drawing the λ^{th} individual ($\lambda = 1, \dots, N$) at the q^{th} draw ($q = 1, \dots, n$) when s_{q-1} is the sequence of individuals that turn up in the first $q - 1$ draws, s_0 denoting the absence of earlier drawings.

Then we call p a sampling design. It is important to note that p is given *a priori*, i.e. before any drawing is made.

For instance if $n = 2$ and p is such that $p(1, s_0, \lambda) = 0$ for all $\lambda > N'$ and $p(2, s_1, \lambda) = 0$ for all $\lambda \leq N'$ and all s_1 , then p represents a sampling design of stratification, the first N' individuals forming one stratum and the remaining ones the other. Obviously almost all the known sampling designs could be expressed in a similar way.

We denote by s_n the sequence of individuals that turn up in n successive drawings, i.e. a sample, or by s simply. Once p is given, the probability of s turning up, P_s say, is also uniquely determined for all s . The total number of such s that could turn up logically (though perhaps not practically because of P_s being zero for some s) is N^n .

Conversely, however, if P_s is given for all s , p may or may not exist. Yet for a theoretical discussion it would sometimes be convenient to ignore the latter possibility and concentrate on P_s for all s .

For a given sampling design p there usually exists a wide class of linear, unbiased estimates of T . Only some of these estimates are practically serviceable. In the present paper a new criterion for the *bestness* of an estimate is suggested and some sampling designs have been investigated accordingly.

2. The Most General Type of Linear Estimate

Many of the usually employed linear estimates e_s based on s , i.e. based on the values of x associated with the different individuals that turn up in n successive drawings, constituting s ,

can be put into three classes (Horwitz and Thomson, 1952):

$$(i) \quad e_s = \sum_{\lambda \in s} \beta_\lambda x_\lambda$$

where $\sum_{\lambda \in s}$ stands for the summation over all the different individuals in s (these may be, in number, $\leq n$), β_λ being defined in advance for all $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$.

$$(ii) \quad e_s = \sum_{q=1}^n \beta_q x_q.$$

Here x_q is the value of x associated with the individual that turns up at the q^{th} draw, β_q being defined in advance for $q = 1, \dots, n$.

$$(iii) \quad e_s = \beta_s \sum_{\lambda \in s} x_\lambda.$$

In this case β_s is defined in advance for all s .

This classification can be illustrated as follows: When the population is stratified and in each stratum sampling is carried out with equal probabilities and without replacement the usual estimate of T ,

$$e_s = \sum_{\kappa} \frac{N(\kappa)}{n(\kappa)} \sum_{\lambda \in s(\kappa)} x_\lambda$$

where $s(\kappa)$ denotes the sample from the κ^{th} stratum, $N(\kappa)$ and $n(\kappa)$ being the sizes of the population and sample respectively in that stratum, clearly belongs to class (i). As a special case for a simple random sampling (from an unstratified population) without replacement and with equal probabilities of selection,

$$e_s = \frac{N}{n} \sum_{\lambda \in s} x_\lambda$$

also belongs to class (i). Again, if the sampling is carried out with equal probabilities but with replacement one can form an unbiased estimate of T which belongs to this class as

$$e_s = \sum_{\lambda \in s} x_\lambda \left/ \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{N} \right)^n \right] \right.$$

It is interesting to note that when sampling is carried out with equal probabilities and with replacement the usual estimate of T

$$e_s = \frac{N}{n} \sum_{q=1}^n x_q$$

belongs to class (ii) and not to class (i). Yet it is difficult to imagine that any practically important estimate could belong to class (ii) strictly. Even the estimate just now referred to is a special case of a more general type of estimate, which, as will be seen later, in its general form does not belong to class (ii).

To the class (iii) belongs the well known ratio estimate. If y is a correlated variable the corresponding estimate of T is

$$e_s = \left(\sum_{\lambda=1}^N y_\lambda \right) \frac{\sum_{\lambda \in s} x_\lambda}{\sum_{\lambda \in s} y_\lambda}.$$

In this case

$$\beta_s = \frac{\sum_{\lambda=1}^N y_\lambda}{\sum_{\lambda \in s} y_\lambda}.$$

* The β_s in this case are not known in advance as required by the definition of class (iii), because $\sum_{\lambda \in s} y_\lambda$ are not listed before sampling. However, the logical possibility of their being known in advance is enough for the theoretical discussion.

Now suppose $\bar{\beta}$ exists. Then for a given x and $\lambda \in s$ we have

$$\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_{s\lambda}} V(e_s) - \mu_\lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_{s\lambda}} \sum_{s \supset \lambda} \beta_{s\lambda} P_s \right\} \bar{\beta} = 0$$

where μ_λ is a Lagrangian Multiplier. It follows that

$$2 x_\lambda \{e_s\}_{\bar{\beta}} = \mu_\lambda$$

for all $s \supset \lambda$ and where $P_s \neq 0$. Moreover this must hold for all x since $\bar{\beta}$ is supposed to give minimum for all x . That is for any s_1 and $s_2 \supset \lambda$; P_{s_1}, P_{s_2} being $\neq 0$

$$\{e_{s_1}\}_{\bar{\beta}} = \{e_{s_2}\}_{\bar{\beta}}$$

for all x . In particular, putting $x_\lambda = 1$ and $x_{\lambda'} = 0$ for all $\lambda' \neq \lambda$ we get

$$\bar{\beta}_{s\lambda} = \bar{\beta}_\lambda.$$

In addition, from (2)

$$\bar{\beta}_{s\lambda} = \bar{\beta}_\lambda = 1 / \sum_{s \supset \lambda} P_s = 1/P(\lambda) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (4)$$

for all s and λ , $P(\lambda)$ being the probability of λ^{th} individual being included in sample at least once. Hence if $\bar{\beta}$ exists it must necessarily be given by (4). Conversely $\bar{\beta}$ in (4) is the one minimizing $V(e_s)$ for all x if and only if it satisfies

$$\{e_{s_1}\}_{\bar{\beta}} = \{e_{s_2}\}_{\bar{\beta}}$$

for all $s_1, s_2 \supset \lambda$; P_{s_1}, P_{s_2} being $\neq 0$. Obviously $\bar{\beta}$ in (4) cannot satisfy this condition. Thus the conclusion that $\bar{\beta}$ does not exist.

This result can be illustrated. Let p be given by

$$p(q, s_{q-1}, \lambda) = p_\lambda$$

for $q = 1, \dots, n$ and $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$, i.e. the usual sampling design where sampling is done with replacement, p_λ ; $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$ being the probability of selection for the λ^{th} individual at different draws $q = 1, \dots, n$. Thus in p the probability of the λ^{th} individual being selected in a sample at least once is

$$P(\lambda) = 1 - (1 - p_\lambda)^n.$$

Now we have two linear unbiased estimates of T viz.

$$e_s = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{q=1}^n x_q / p_q$$

and

$$e'_s = \sum_{\lambda \in s} x_\lambda / P(\lambda), \text{ i.e. } = \sum_{\lambda \in s} x_\lambda / \{1 - (1 - p_\lambda)^n\}.$$

Further according to (4) if a linear, unbiased and least variance estimate of T exists uniquely, in p it should be given by e'_s , i.e.

$$V(e'_s) \text{ should be less than } V(e_s)$$

for whatever x . This however is not the case* for in particular putting $p_\lambda = 1/N$ we have

$$V(e'_s) = \frac{(1 - 1/N)^n - (1 - 2/N)^n}{\{1 - (1 - 1/N)^n\}^2} \sum_{\lambda=1}^N x_\lambda^2 - \frac{(1 - 1/N)^{2n} - (1 - 2/N)^n}{\{1 - (1 - 1/N)^n\}^2} T^2$$

and

$$V(e_s) = N^2 \left\{ \sum_{\lambda=1}^N x_\lambda^2 - T^2/N \right\} / nN.$$

* This result is also evident since $V(e_s) = 0$ and $V(e'_s) > 0$ when $p_\lambda \propto x_\lambda$.

Now it can be seen that in fact

$$V(e'_s) > V(e_s)$$

if the coefficient of variation of x in the population is sufficiently small. This proves the non-existence of a unique linear, unbiased and least variance estimate for whatever x .

4. Markoff Theorem and the Theory of Efficient Estimators

The existing theory of the best (i.e. unbiased and least variance) linear estimates is generally based on Markoff's Theorem on least squares (Neyman, 1934; David, 1938). For instance to get the best linear estimate of the population mean \bar{x}_N in a simple random sampling design, which consists of n drawings with equal probability and without replacement we proceed as follows. The expectation of the q^{th} draw $E(x_q)$, equals \bar{x}_N and the variance of x_q is $\sigma^2 (= \sum_{\lambda} (x_{\lambda} - \bar{x}_N)^2 / N$,

$\lambda = 1, \dots, N$). Then according to Markoff's Theorem the best linear estimate of \bar{x}_N is \hat{x}_N for which $\sum_q (x_q - \hat{x}_N)^2, q = 1, \dots, n$ is minimum (Sukhatme, 1954).

Evidently the class of linear estimates considered above, while choosing the best estimate is one identical with the sub-class (ii) in section (2) of the *entire* class of linear estimates defined in equation (1). Incidentally the best linear estimate \hat{x}_N obtained above is also the best linear estimate in sub-classes (i) and (iii) of section (2) (Horwitz and Thomson, 1952). Similarly in case of stratified random sampling design the best linear estimate is obtained from a sub-class of linear estimates (Neyman, 1934). The ratio estimate is also found to be the best linear estimate in a sub-class of linear estimates (Cochran, 1953; Sukhatme, 1954). The estimate employed by Horwitz and Thomson (1952) $\sum_{\lambda \in s} x_{\lambda} / P(\lambda)$ is the only unbiased and hence the best linear estimate of sub-class (i).

Thus in the earlier theory simple *sub-classes* of (1) were considered to find the best linear estimate and in fact, as shown in section (3), best linear estimate does not exist uniquely for the *entire* class of linear estimates. However in section (5) we will define another criterion of *bestness* for the *entire* class of linear estimates and in later sections we shall prove that most of the frequently employed linear estimates are in this sense best estimates. This provides further justification for the existing practice.

5. Unbiasedness and Least Expected Variance

Now when for a given sampling design the attempts to secure a unique (i.e. for all x) linear, unbiased estimate with least variance fail, the next best thing that we can do is to search for a procedure of estimation which when employed repeatedly would secure on the average a least variance.

Intuitively some such criterion is quite frequently employed when the statistician expects some estimate to be efficient for one population and some other estimate for a different population. An exact statistical explanation for the above intuitive criterion in many of the situations usually arising may be as follows:

On the basis of past experience regarding several factors which influence the value of the variate under study (x in the present case), or because of the knowledge of the distribution of one or more correlated variates, the statistician often may have certain expectations of the values of x associated with different individuals in the population. The calculations of these expectations is a matter of statistical skill, in addition their *sharpness* (Bross, 1954) depends upon the degree of relevant knowledge on the part of the statistician.* These expectations are *a priori* expectations in the sense that they exist before any drawing is made for the present sample. Moreover these admit simple interpretations in terms of *a priori* probabilities, the corresponding interpretation in terms of frequency being mean values (Carnap, 1950).

Let us denote by

$$\varepsilon(x_1), \dots, \varepsilon(x_N) \quad \dots \quad (5)$$

* A similar idea derived from the device of regarding the finite population (conditioned by ancillary variable) as a sample from an infinite one occurs in Yates (1950) and Cochran (1939).

$$\lambda = 1, \dots, N.$$

$$\mu_\lambda = 2 \left\{ \varepsilon(T) \varepsilon(x_\lambda) + \frac{\varepsilon(T)}{n} \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)} \right\} . \quad (13)$$

for $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$ (to verify results (12), (13) use equation (6)). Hence for all $p \in D^n$ the best linear estimate of T is given by

$$e_s[p \in D^n] = \frac{\varepsilon(T)}{n} \sum_{\lambda \in s} \frac{x_\lambda}{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)}. \quad (14)$$

Further from (11) and (13)

$$\varepsilon V[p \in D^n] = \frac{\varepsilon(T)}{n} \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)} - v(T).^* \quad (15)$$

8. An Optimum Property of Sampling Designs $p \in D^n$

In any sampling design p the variance of an unbiased estimate e_s ,

$$V(e_s) = \sum_s e_s^2 \cdot P_s - T^2.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon V(e_s) &= \sum_s \varepsilon(e_s^2) \cdot P_s - \varepsilon(T^2) \\ &= \sum_s \varepsilon^2(e_s) P_s + \sum_s v(e_s) \cdot P_s - \varepsilon(T^2) \end{aligned}$$

Further since from (6), for all $\lambda \neq \lambda'$

$$\varepsilon(x_\lambda \cdot x_{\lambda'}) = \varepsilon(x_\lambda) \varepsilon(x_{\lambda'})$$

we have

$$\varepsilon V(e_s) = \sum_s \varepsilon^2(e_s) \cdot P_s + \sum_{\lambda=1}^N v(x_\lambda) \sum_{s \ni \lambda} \beta_{s\lambda}^2 P_s - \varepsilon(T^2). \quad (16)$$

Now subject to the condition

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_s e_s P_s &= T \\ \sum_s \varepsilon^2(e_s) P_s &\geq \varepsilon^2(T) \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

and subject to the condition

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{s \ni \lambda} \beta_{s\lambda} P_s &= 1 \\ \sum_{s \ni \lambda} \beta_{s\lambda}^2 P_s &\geq 1 / \sum_{s \ni \lambda} P_s = 1/P(\lambda). \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

$\lambda = 1, \dots, N$. From (16), (17) and (18) it follows that for any sampling design p

$$\varepsilon V[p] \geq \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} - v(T) \quad (19)$$

$P(\lambda)$ as before being the probability of including λ^{th} individual $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$, in the sample drawn with sampling design p .

The inequality (19) can be illustrated. Let $n = 1$ and p be such that the probability of drawing λ^{th} individual is p_λ which in this case is also equal to $P(\lambda)$; the only unbiased estimate of T then is $x_\lambda/P(\lambda)$ and hence

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon V[p] &= \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} - \varepsilon(T) \right\}^2 P(\lambda) + \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} - v(T) \\ &\geq \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{V(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} - v(T) \end{aligned}$$

* (15) can also be obtained from $V(\hat{T})$ given by Horwitz and Thomson ((1951) eq. (8) pp. 670). Calculate $\varepsilon V(\hat{T})$ putting therein $P(u_i) = n \varepsilon(x_i)/\varepsilon(T)$ and $\varepsilon(x_i \cdot x_j) = \varepsilon(x_i) \varepsilon(x_j)$. It is interesting that $\varepsilon V(\hat{T})$ then is independent of $P(u_i, u_j)$. (Note: $\sum_{i \neq j} P(u_i, u_j) = n(n-1)$.)

Moreover the lower bound of $\varepsilon V[p]$ established in equation (19) is in fact attained for all the sampling designs $p \in D^n$. This is evident from equation (15). Or otherwise from equations (9) and (10) we have in any sampling design p

$$\varepsilon\{x_\lambda(e_s)\bar{p}_s\} - \frac{\mu_\lambda}{2} = 0$$

for all $\lambda \in s$ and all s having $P_s \neq 0$ which because of equation (6) is equivalent to

$$\varepsilon(x_\lambda)\varepsilon(e_s)\bar{p}_s + v(x_\lambda)\bar{p}_{s\lambda} - \frac{\mu_\lambda}{2} = 0$$

Multiplying this equation by P_s and summing over all $s \supset \lambda$ and subsequently over all λ , $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$, we have

$$\sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} \sum_{s \supset \lambda} \varepsilon(e_s)\bar{p}_s P_s + \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} \sum_{s \supset \lambda} \bar{p}_{s\lambda} P_s - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \mu_\lambda = 0$$

and from equations (9) and (11)

$$\varepsilon V[P] = \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} \sum_{s \supset \lambda} \varepsilon(e_s)\bar{p}_s P_s + \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{P(\lambda)} - \varepsilon(T^2)$$

Now for any unbiased estimate e_s

$$\sum_{\lambda=1}^N \sum_{s \supset \lambda} \varepsilon(e_s)P_s = n \sum_s \varepsilon(e_s)P_s = n\varepsilon(T)$$

and when $p \in D^n$, $P(\lambda) = n\varepsilon(x_\lambda)/\varepsilon(T)$ which gives the necessary result

$$\varepsilon V[p \in D^n] = \frac{\varepsilon(T)}{n} \sum_{\lambda=1}^N \frac{v(x_\lambda)}{\varepsilon(x_\lambda)} - v(T) \quad (20)$$

i.e. the lower bound of $\varepsilon V[p]$ in equation (19) is attained for all the sampling designs $p \in D^n$.

Further it can be seen by minimizing the right-hand side of the inequality (19) for all the variations of $P(\lambda)$, $\lambda = 1, \dots, N$ subject to the condition

$$\sum_{\lambda=1}^N P(\lambda) = n$$

and from equation (20), that in case of all the populations fulfilling the condition

$$v(x_\lambda) \propto \varepsilon^2(x_\lambda) \quad (21)$$

$\lambda = 1, \dots, N$, for whatever sampling design p' consisting of n drawings without replacement

$$\varepsilon V[p \in D^n] \leq \varepsilon V[p'].$$

This provides a justification for employing sampling designs $p \in D^n$ in case of populations satisfying or approximately satisfying the condition (21).

Acknowledgments

I am very grateful to Professor M. G. Kendall from London, and Dr. A. R. Kamat from Fergusson College, Poona for their useful suggestions. I must also thank Miss Pednekar for carrying out the typing work.

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