

# Small Area Estimation

- 1** - Small area estimation problem
- 2** - Estimation for domains - **Direct estimators** – estimation for planned domains
- 3** – Coefficient of Variation and Minimum level of precision
- 4**- Estimation for unplanned domains and/or where the sample size is not enough for the minimum level of precision

# Recap

- Target parameters in the domain:
- Total of the study variable
- Mean of the study variable
- At risk of poverty rate
- Poverty gap

$$t = \sum_{k \in U} y_k$$

$$\bar{y} = \sum_{k \in U} y_k / N$$

$$P_0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I(y_i < z).$$

$$P_1 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{G_i}{z}.$$

# More on direct estimators for domains

There are more complex formulations of the direct estimator, other than HT estimator:

- ratio estimator
- regression estimator
- **calibration estimator**

These estimators are based on the use of **auxiliary** information, the HT estimator is based only on the  $y_i$  values of the sampled units

# Auxiliary information

*Auxiliary: providing supplementary or additional help and support to the estimation process.*

- The auxiliary information about the population in the domain may include one or more known variables to which the **variable of interest** is **approximately related**.
- Suppose that the population total for the X variable is known:  $t_x = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$

# Calibration estimators

we explain here the basic theory and use of calibration estimators proposed by Deville and Särndal (1992), which incorporate the use of auxiliary data

$$\{\mathbf{x}_i, i = 1, \dots, N\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{t}_x = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i$$

J.C. Deville and C.E. Särndal, *Calibration estimators in survey sampling*, Journal of the American Statistical Association **87** (1992), 376–382.

## Recap what learnt on the HT estimator

Suppose we are interested in estimating the population total  $t_y = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$ . We draw a sample  $s = \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \subset U$  using a probability sampling design  $P$ , where the first and second order inclusion probabilities are  $\pi_i = Pr(i \in s)$  and  $\pi_{ij} = Pr(i, j \in s)$  respectively. An estimate of  $t_y$  is the Horvitz-Thompson (HT) estimator

$$\hat{t}_{HT} = \sum_{i \in s} d_i y_i,$$

where  $d_i = 1/\pi_i$  is the sampling weight, defined as the inverse of the inclusion probability for unit  $i$ .<sup>1</sup> An attractive property of the HT estimator is that it is guaranteed to be unbiased regardless of the sampling design  $P$ . Its variance under  $P$  is given as

$$V_P(\hat{t}_{HT}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N (\pi_{ij} - \pi_i \pi_j) \frac{y_i}{\pi_i} \frac{y_j}{\pi_j}. \quad (1.1)$$

Note that we have seen different expressions of the variance of HT estimator, all derived by (1.1)

Please note that  $d_i$  and  $\frac{1}{\pi_i}$  are used interchangeably

# Calibration estimators

Ideally we would like that:

$$\sum_{i \in s} d_i x_i = t_x,$$

that is the survey **weights**  $d_i$  - positive values associated with the observations (rows) in your dataset (**sample**) - ensure that  $x_i$  sample values represent the  $X$  population total. But often times this is not true.

# Calibration estimators

The idea behind calibration estimators is to find weights  $w_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  close to  $d_i$  based on a *distance function* such that:

$$\sum_{i \in s} w_i x_i = t_x.$$

when applied to  $x_i$  sample values represent the X known population total  $t_x = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$ .



# Calibration estimators

In other words **calibrating** (rectifying the graduation of) the sampling weights on the basis of a **distance function**, we adjust sampling weights to meet benchmark constraints and range restrictions.

Assumption:  $t_x = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$  is known without error and it is a relevant constraint

# Calibration estimator of a total $t_y$

We wish to find weights  $w_i$  **similar** to  $d_i$  so as to preserve the *unbiasedness* of the HT estimator.

Once the  $w_i$  is found, the calibration estimator for  $t_y$  is:

$$\hat{t}_c = \sum_{i \in s} w_i y_i$$

How to find  $w_i$  and which is the appropriate distance function?

# Distance functions

Recall our constraint,  $\sum_{i \in S} w_i x_i = t_x$ .

we want to find  $w_i$  close to  $d_i$  based on a distance function  $D(w, d)$  subject to the constraint. This is an optimization problem where we wish to minimize  $Q$   
Using the method of Lagrange multipliers

$$Q(w_1, \dots, w_n, \lambda) = \sum_{i \in S} D(w_i, d_i) - \lambda \left( \sum_{i \in S} w_i x_i - t_x \right)$$

Sum of the distances

Sum of the differences

# Distance function

	$D(w, d)$
1. Chi-squared distance	$(w - d)^2 / 2qd$
2. Modified minimum entropy distance	$q^{-1}(w \log(w/d) - w - d)$
3. Hellinger distance	$2(\sqrt{w} - \sqrt{d})^2 / q$
4. Minimum entropy distance	$q^{-1}(-d \log(w/d) + w - d)$
5. Modified chi-squared distance	$(w - d)^2 / 2qw$

The choice of distances depends on the statistician and on the problem. It is unimportant for large samples.

A common choice is Chi-squared distance  
 $q$  is a tuning that can be manipulated to obtain an optimal minimum of  $Q$

# Generalized REGression Estimator

The resulting calibration estimator of  $t_y$ , differentiating with respect to  $w_i$ , is

GREG estimator

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{t}_c &= \sum_{i \in s} w_i y_i \\ &= \hat{t}_{y_{HT}} + \sum_{i \in s} d_i q_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{T}_s^{-1} (\mathbf{t}_x - \hat{\mathbf{t}}_{x_{HT}}) y_i \\ &= \hat{t}_{y_{HT}} + \hat{\mathbf{B}} (\mathbf{t}_x - \hat{\mathbf{t}}_{x_{HT}}),\end{aligned}$$

Where  $\hat{\mathbf{B}} = \mathbf{T}_s^{-1} \sum_{i \in s} d_i q_i \mathbf{x}_i y_i$  and  $\mathbf{T}_s = \sum_{i \in s} q_i d_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^T$

slope of regression line  $\text{cov}(y,x)/\text{var}(x)$

# Confidence Interval for *GREG*

$\hat{t}_c$  is an approximately designed-unbiased estimator of  $t_y$

its variance is estimated by:

$$v(\hat{t}_c) = \sum_{i \in s} \sum_{j \in s} \frac{\pi_{ij} - \pi_i \pi_j}{\pi_{ij}} \left( d_i (y_i - \hat{B}x_i) \right) \left( d_j (y_j - \hat{B}x_j) \right)$$

Approximate 100(1-a)% confidence interval based on t student tables is obtained on the estimated variance

$$\hat{t}_c \pm t_{(n-1, a/2)} \cdot \sqrt{v(\hat{t}_c)}$$

# Remarks

There are three major **advantages of calibration** approach in survey sampling.

1 - the **calibration** approach leads to consistent **estimates**.

2 - it provides an important class of technique for the efficient combination of data sources.

3 - **calibration** approach has computational **advantage** to calculate **estimates**.

# Remarks

There are also **limitations of calibration** approach in survey sampling.

1 - a limitation of the calibration estimator is that it relies on an **implicit linear relationship** between the study variable,  $y$ , and the auxiliary variable  $x$  (all calibration estimators are asymptotically equivalent to the GREG)

2 - if there exists a **non-linear relationship** between  $y$  and  $x$ , the calibration estimator does not perform as well as the HT estimator, that is, if we ignore the auxiliary variable altogether

3 - another limitation of the calibration estimator previously mentioned is that the **weights can take on negative and/or extremely large values**.

Deville and Särndal recognized this issue and showed how to restrict the weights to fall within a certain range.



- Examples of application of the calibration estimator during the R lab