

**Pairwise Inclusion Probability Formulas in Random-Order,
Variable Probability, Systematic Sampling**

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Abstract

Variable probability, systematic sampling combined with the Horvitz-Thompson estimator is a commonly used sampling strategy. Estimating the variance of the Horvitz-Thompson estimator requires calculating the pairwise inclusion probabilities for the variable probability design. For random-order, variable probability systematic sampling, these probabilities may be computationally burdensome, and require knowledge of the auxiliary variable, x , for all elements in the universe. An easy to compute approximation requiring only the sample values of x is described and compared to the exact pairwise inclusion probabilities and to a well-known approximation derived by Hartley and Rao (1962). The analytical and empirical properties of the new approximation compare favorably to the properties of exact pairwise inclusion probabilities and provide some advantages over the Hartley-Rao approximation.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Variable probability sampling designs permit each of the N elements in the finite universe to have a different probability of being selected in the sample of n elements.

The probability that element u will be selected in the sample, or the inclusion probability of element u , is given by

$\pi_u = \sum_{\{s:u \in s\}} p(s)$, where $p(s)$ is the probability of selecting sample

s , and the summation is over all samples in the sample space that contain element u . The pairwise inclusion probability of elements i and j ($i \neq j$) is given by $\pi_{ij} = \sum_{\{s:(i,j) \in s\}} p(s)$, where the summation is now over all samples containing elements i and j .

Variable probability sampling designs are most effective for precise estimation when the inclusion probabilities, π_u 's, are proportional to the x_u 's, where x_u is the value of an auxiliary variable for element u . Of the many variable probability designs (cf. Brewer and Hanif, 1983; Chaudhuri and Vos, 1988), random-order, variable probability systematic (random-order *vps*) sampling is one of the most practical designs guaranteeing π 's proportional to the x 's (Sunter, 1986). The Horvitz-Thompson estimator combined with random-order, *vps* sampling is a flexible, general sampling strategy.

In practice, a complication with this strategy is calculating the pairwise inclusion probabilities. Two commonly used estimators of the variance of the Horvitz-Thompson estimator, one due to Horvitz and Thompson (1952),

$$v_{HT} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y_i}{\pi_i} \right)^2 (1 - \pi_i) + \sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n \left(\frac{\pi_{ij} - \pi_i \pi_j}{\pi_{ij}} \right) \frac{y_i y_j}{\pi_i \pi_j},$$

the other due to Yates and Grundy (1953) and Sen (1953),

$$v_{YG} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n \left(\frac{\pi_i \pi_j - \pi_{ij}}{\pi_{ij}} \right) \left(\frac{y_i}{\pi_i} - \frac{y_j}{\pi_j} \right)^2,$$

require the pairwise inclusion probabilities. For random-order, *vps* sampling, Hidiriglou and Gray (1980) have written a FORTRAN program based on an algorithm provided by Connor (1966) for computing the π_{ij} 's. For large N, calculating the true π_{ij} 's can be computationally burdensome, and in some surveys, sufficient information is unavailable to compute the exact π_{ij} 's. For example, all population x's are needed to compute the exact π_{ij} 's, but in the National Stream Survey (Overton, 1985), only the sample x's were available.

Approximation of the pairwise inclusion probabilities is often necessary. An early approximation formula for the π_{ij} 's was derived by Hartley and Rao (1962). This formula has been used in practice (cf. Wolter, 1985, and Choudry *et al*, 1985), and Cumberland and Royall (1981) derived some model-based, theoretical properties of variance estimators computed with this approximation.

A new π_{ij} approximation formula is described that requires only the sample x's. The properties of the new approximation are compared to the exact π_{ij} 's and the Hartley-Rao formula, and relationships among the π_{ij} approximations are given. Several small populations are used to empirically assess the different π_{ij} formulas.

Definitions and Notation:

1. $\bar{\pi} = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i / N = n/N$ (population mean of the π 's)
2. $V(\pi) = \sum_{i=1}^N (\pi_i - \bar{\pi})^2 / (N-1)$ (population variance of the π 's)
3. $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i / N$ (population mean of the x 's)
4. $\bar{\pi}_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i / n$ (mean of the π 's in the sample)
5. $\bar{x}_s = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i / n$ (mean of the x 's in the sample)
6. $\pi_{ii} \equiv \pi_i$ (1)
7. For simple random sampling, $\pi_{ij} = n(n-1) / N(N-1)$ (2)
8. $T_x = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i =$ population total of the x 's
9. $\pi_{ix} =$ inclusion probability proportional to x

2. PROPERTIES AND RELATIONS

The following properties hold for general variable probability, fixed-size sampling designs (cf. Hanurav, 1962; Brewer and Hanif, 1983):

1. $\sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i = n$ (3)
2. $\pi_{ij} = \pi_{ji}$ (symmetry) (4)
3. $\pi_{ij} = \pi_i$ when $\pi_j = 1$ (5)
4. $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij} = (n-1)\pi_i$ (6)

$$5. \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij} = n(n-1) \quad (7)$$

$$6. E(\bar{\pi}_s) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 \quad (8)$$

Proof: $E(\bar{\pi}_s) = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i/n\right) = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2/n.$ □

$$7. \text{ For a } \pi \times \pi \text{ design, } E(\bar{x}_s) = nE(\bar{\pi}_s)/T_x = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2/T_x \quad (9)$$

$$8. \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 = (N-1)V(\pi) + n^2/N \quad (10)$$

Proof: $V(\pi) \equiv \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 - Nn^2/N^2 \right] / (N-1) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 - n^2/N \right] / (N-1),$

which implies $(N-1)V(\pi) = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 - n^2/N.$ □

$$9. \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N (\pi_i \pi_j - \pi_{ij}) = n - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 \quad (11)$$

Proof: $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_{ij} = n(n-1)$ by (7), and

$$\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i \pi_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i (n - \pi_i) = n - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 \text{ from (3).} \quad \square$$

$$10. \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_j \pi_{ij} = (n-1) \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 = n(n-1)E(\bar{\pi}_s) \quad (12)$$

Proof: $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_j \pi_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\left(\sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j \pi_{ij} \right) - \pi_i \pi_{ii} \right]$

using equation (1) and reversing the order of summation in the double sum,

$$= \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_j \pi_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_{ij} - \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^2$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j \left((n-2)\pi_j \right) - \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^2 \text{ by (6)}$$

$$= (n-1) \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^2 = n(n-1)E(\bar{\pi}_s) \text{ by (8).} \quad \square$$

11. For any π px design, $V(\pi) = n^2 V(x) / T_x^2 = n^2 [cv(x)]^2 / N^2$. (13)

Proof: $V(\pi) = V(n x_i / T_x) = n^2 V(x) / T_x^2$. □

The following theorem shows the intuitive result that the expected average of the sample π 's for a π px design is always greater than the expected average of the sample π 's for an equal probability sample.

Theorem 2.1 $E(\bar{\pi}_s) \geq \bar{\pi} = n/N$ for π px designs.

Proof: Expanding $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$ using (10) and (8), we obtain

$$E(\bar{\pi}_s) = (1/n) [(N-1)V(\pi) + n^2/N] = (N-1)V(\pi)/n + n/N \geq n/N, \text{ since}$$

$V(\pi) \geq 0$. Equality holds only if $\pi_i = n/N$ for all $i=1, \dots, N$. □

Corollary: $E(\bar{x}_s) \geq \bar{X}$.

Proof: Since $\bar{\pi}_s = n \bar{x}_s / T_x$, $E(\bar{x}_s) \geq \frac{T_x}{N} = \bar{X}$. □

3. APPROXIMATION FORMULAS

Several formulas for approximating pairwise inclusion probabilities are described in the following subsections. All of the approximations are derived for random-order, *vps* sampling.

3.1 Hartley-Rao Approximation

An approximation formula, based on an asymptotic theory of randomized systematic sampling for n fixed and $N \rightarrow \infty$, was derived by Hartley and Rao (1962):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi_{ij}^{hr} &= \frac{(n-1)}{n} \pi_i \pi_j + \frac{(n-1)}{n^2} (\pi_i^2 \pi_j + \pi_i \pi_j^2) - \frac{(n-1)}{n^3} \pi_i \pi_j \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^2 \\
 &+ \frac{2(n-1)}{n^3} (\pi_i^3 \pi_j + \pi_i \pi_j^3 + \pi_i^2 \pi_j^2) - \frac{3(n-1)}{n^4} (\pi_i^2 \pi_j + \pi_i \pi_j^2) \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^2 \\
 &+ \frac{3(n-1)}{n^5} \pi_i \pi_j \left(\sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^2 \right)^2 - \frac{2(n-1)}{n^4} \pi_i \pi_j \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^3.
 \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

Hartley and Rao claim this approximation is correct to $O(N^{-4})$.

A truncated version of (14) is often used in practice to simplify computations and derivation of analytical results (cf. Cumberland and Royall, 1981 and Wolter, 1985). This truncated form is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi_{ij}^{hrt} &= \frac{n(n-1)x_i x_j}{T_x \left[T_x - x_i - x_j + \sum_{k=1}^N x_k^2 / T_x \right]} \\
 &= \frac{(n-1) \pi_i \pi_j}{\left[n - \pi_i - \pi_j + \sum_{k=1}^N \pi_k^2 / n \right]}
 \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1) \pi_i \pi_j}{\left[n - \pi_i - \pi_j + E(\bar{\pi}_s) \right]} \tag{16}$$

Hartley and Rao report that v_{YG} calculated with π_{ij}^{hr} is correct to $O(N^0)$, while v_{YG} calculated with π_{ij}^{hrt} is correct to $O(N^1)$. In this paper, π_{ij}^{hrt} is used to derive analytic results, while π_{ij}^{hr} is used for empirical comparisons.

Some empirical assessment of the accuracy of the approximation π_{ij}^{hr} has been done. Choudry *et al* (1985) reported that the Hartley-Rao approximation values were close to the exact π_{ij} values when N was greater than 15 in their study of the Canadian Labor Force Survey, but recommended exact π_{ij} 's

for $N < 16$. Hartley and Chakrabarty (1967) examined π_{ij}^{hr} for small N ($N \leq 15$) and suggested some modification in the formulas for these small populations. When both π_i and π_j were large, π_{ij}^{hr} did not perform well. Hajek (1981) questioned the approximations used by Hartley and Rao in deriving their formula, and presented a counterexample to support his claim. He wrote "... there is hardly a hope for reasonable asymptotic expressions for π_{ij} for $n=2$ and $N \rightarrow \infty$." Joshi (1983) claimed Hajek's counterexample was invalid, while Iachan (1983) supported Hajek's general conclusion. Bellhouse (1988) further elaborated on this controversy.

A disadvantage of the Hartley-Rao approximation formula is the requirement that all population x 's must be known, so alternative approximation formulas are needed. It is also of interest that other approximations perform better than the Hartley-Rao formula under some circumstances.

3.2 New Approximation Formulas

Overton (1985) described an approximation to the pairwise inclusion probabilities, based on sampling with variable probability from a randomly ordered list. This approximation is derived by the following heuristic argument. On a line segment of length T_s , fixed points are located at intervals of length $k = T_s/n$, the sampling interval. Each point represents an "indicator", the position at which a sample element will be selected. The line segment is also partitioned by subsegments

of the length of the x_i , $i=1,2,\dots,N$. The approximate π_{ij} formula is then obtained by approximating the conditional probability, $\pi_{j \cdot i}$, and using the relation $\pi_{ij} = \pi_{j \cdot i} \pi_i$.

To approximate the conditional probability, locate unit i at the left end of the line segment, so that it occupies the length x_i from the origin. The first sample point thus identifies element i , and the remaining $n-1$ indicator points are uniformly spaced over $T_x - x_i$. Then the remaining $N-1$ population units are randomly permuted and placed end to end on the line segment. Clearly for a finite number of x 's placed along this line segment, some arrangements are not possible. We will ignore these irregularities caused by the discrete set of x 's in making this approximation. The left end of unit j cannot be located within x_j of the right hand end of the line segment, since it would then overlap the end of the line. The left end of unit j can then be placed anywhere on the line segment of length $T_x - x_i - x_j$. Thus the conditional probability that the part of the line segment covered by unit j contains a particular "indicator" point is approximated by $x_j / (T_x - x_i - x_j)$. There are $(n-1)$ remaining indicator points on the line segment, so the probability that the part of the line segment covered by unit j contains any indicator point is approximately $(n-1) [x_j / (T_x - x_i - x_j)]$. An approximate formula for π_{ij} is then

$$\pi_{ij}^* = \pi_{j \cdot i} \pi_i = \frac{(n-1)x_j}{(T_x - x_i - x_j)} \pi_i = \frac{(n-1)\pi_i \pi_j}{(n - \pi_i - \pi_j)}. \quad (17)$$

A simple adjustment to π_{ij}^* is made so that the

approximation gives the correct pairwise inclusion probability for a simple random sample. The adjusted approximation is:

$$\pi_{ij}^o = \frac{n(n-1)x_i x_j}{T_x \left(T_x - \frac{x_i + x_j}{2} \right)} \quad (18)$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)\pi_i \pi_j}{n - \frac{1}{2}(\pi_i + \pi_j)} \quad (19)$$

$$= \frac{2(n-1)\pi_i \pi_j}{2n - \pi_i - \pi_j} \quad (20)$$

Early in the investigation of the approximations, the adjustment to formula (18) from (17) was believed unnecessary. However, simulation studies showed far better behavior of the variance estimators using (18).

Although this derivation is based on list sampling, in which all the x's are known, the resultant formula (20) requires neither all the x's nor even T_x . Additionally, the symmetry property is satisfied. Both π_{ij}^o and π_{ij}^{hr} can be viewed as modifications of π_{ij}^* to satisfy symmetry (see equations 16, 17, and 19). The modification is incorporated into the denominator of π_{ij}^* : π_{ij}^o adds $(\pi_i + \pi_j)/2$ to the denominator of π_{ij}^* , while π_{ij}^{hr} adds $E(\bar{\pi}_i)$.

3.3 Alternative Approximation Formulas

Other pairwise inclusion probability approximation formulas can be easily constructed. Several are listed here as a matter of record. D. S. Robson suggested the following approximation:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{ij}^r &= \frac{n(n-1)x_i x_j}{2T_x} \left[\frac{1}{T_x - x_i} + \frac{1}{T_x - x_j} \right] \\ &= \frac{(n-1)\pi_i \pi_j}{\left[(n-\pi_i)(n-\pi_j) / (n - (\pi_i + \pi_j)/2) \right]} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)\pi_i \pi_j}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n-\pi_i} + \frac{1}{n-\pi_j} \right].\end{aligned}$$

This approximation satisfies equation (7) (see Lemma 4.4), but does not satisfy equation (6).

Another approximation, based on a modification of π_{ij}^{hr} , is

$$\pi_{ij}^{hr1} = (n-1)\pi_i \pi_j / \left[n - \pi_i - \pi_j + \frac{N(\pi_i^2 + \pi_j^2)}{n} \right].$$

This approximation estimates the term $\sum_{k=1}^N \pi_k^2$ in π_{ij}^{hr} from (15) by $N \cdot \text{average}(\text{of } \pi_i^2 \text{ and } \pi_j^2)$. Still another approximation based on π_{ij}^{hr} estimates the term $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$ in (16) unbiasedly by $\bar{\pi}_s$. Then, $\pi_{ij}^{hr2} = (n-1)\pi_i \pi_j / [n - \pi_i - \pi_j + \bar{\pi}_s]$.

Each of these approximations satisfies equations (2) and (4). All of these formulas have one of the advantages of π_{ij}^o in that only sample x 's are required. Undoubtedly, many other approximations could be derived using other *ad hoc* methods. Of the approximations listed in this section, only π_{ij}^r was subjected to further study.

4. PROPERTIES OF APPROXIMATIONS

In this section, some of the properties of the approximation formulas relative to those of the exact π_{ij} 's. The basis of the investigation will be the properties of the true π_{ij} 's given by equations (5), (6), and (7). Empirical

assessment of the approximations is based on the populations investigated by Rao and Singh (1973) described in Table 1.

Table 1 Description of Populations.

Popn	$E(\bar{\pi}_s)$	$Var(\pi)$	$\max\{\pi\}$
1	0.12	0.16	0.20
3	0.17	0.38	0.28
4	0.44	5.31	0.69
5	0.48	6.32	0.86
6	0.21	1.16	0.27
9	0.17	0.66	0.34
10	0.15	3.72	0.24
11	0.20	0.07	0.24
12	0.24	1.50	0.42
13	0.29	2.22	0.64
14	0.21	1.14	0.36
15	0.26	1.41	0.42
19	0.12	0.21	0.22
23	0.30	1.44	0.41
24	0.30	1.44	0.41
26	0.35	2.88	0.53
27	0.17	0.35	0.20
31	0.21	0.76	0.31

Key:

Popn - Population number given in Rao and Singh (1973).

$E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, $Var(\pi)$, and the maximum π are calculated for $n=2$.

From equation (5), if $\pi_i=1$, then $\pi_{ij}=\pi_j$. Hartley and Rao (1962) and Hartley and Chakrabarty (1967) stated that π_{ij}^{hr} would not provide an accurate approximation for large π_i . Result 4.1 shows the effect of a large π_i on the approximation π_{ij}^{hrt} .

Result 4.1 If $\pi_i=1$, then

- i) $\pi_{ij}^{hrt} < \pi_{ij}$ when $\pi_j > E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, and
- ii) $\pi_{ij}^{hrt} \geq \pi_{ij}$ when $\pi_j \leq E(\bar{\pi}_s)$.

Proof: If $\pi_i=1$, $\pi_{ij}^{hrt} = \frac{(n-1)\pi_j}{n-1-\pi_j+E(\bar{\pi}_s)} = \pi_j / \left[1 + \frac{E(\bar{\pi}_s) - \pi_j}{n-1} \right]$. □

The following result shows that when a large π_i is present, π_{ij}^o generally underestimates the true π_{ij} unless π_j is also relatively large.

Result 4.2 If $\pi_i=1$, then $\pi_{ij}^o \leq \pi_j \forall j$.

Proof: If $\pi_i=1$, $\pi_{ij}^o = \frac{(n-1)\pi_j}{\left[n - \frac{1-\pi_j}{2} \right]} = \pi_j \left[\frac{2(n-1)}{2n-1-\pi_j} \right] \leq \pi_j$. Equality holds if $\pi_j=1$. □

Note that π_{ij}^o does give the correct result when $\pi_i=\pi_j=1$. This indicates that the approximation is adequate when both π_i and π_j are large.

In practice, it is a simple matter to modify the definition of either π_{ij}^o or π_{ij}^{hr} so as to conform to equation (5) when $\pi_i=1$. The issue is what happens to the approximation when π_i is close to 1. To observe the numerical effect of a large π_i on the performance of the approximation formulas, two populations with a large π_i were included in the empirical study

Hartley and Rao (1962) claim π_{ij}^{hr} satisfies equation (6) to $O(N^{-4})$. Assessing π_{ij}^o relative to the property identified by equation (6), we obtain

$$\sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^o = (n-1)\pi_i \sum_{j \neq i}^N \frac{2\pi_j}{2n-\pi_i-\pi_j} = (n-1)\pi_i \sum_{j \neq i}^N \frac{\pi_j}{n-(\pi_i+\pi_j)/2}$$

Although a useful algebraic simplification for the above relationship has not been found, empirical results (Table 2) indicate:

- 1) $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^o > (n-1)\pi_i$ for $\pi_i < E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, and
- 2) $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^o < (n-1)\pi_i$ for $\pi_i > E(\bar{\pi}_s)$.

Table 2 Empirical Assessment of Property Defined by

$$\text{Equation (6): } \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij} = (n-1)\pi_i.$$

Note: Values reported in columns 2 through 4 are

$$\left[(n-1)\pi_i - \sum_{j \neq i}^N \hat{\pi}_{ij} \right] \times 10,000,$$

where $\hat{\pi}_{ij}$ is the appropriate approximation formula. Values in the table for the exact π_{ij} 's would be 0. Rows are ordered by increasing value of π_i .

a) Population 3

π_i	Approximation		
	π_{ij}^{hr}	π_{ij}^o	π_{ij}^r
0.07	-0.12	-18.74	-19.51
0.07	-0.14	-19.31	-20.09
0.09	-0.25	-19.74	-20.48
0.11	-0.28	-18.98	-19.69
0.11	-0.28	-18.26	-18.95
0.11	-0.28	-18.05	-18.74
0.11	-0.28	-17.83	-18.51
0.13	-0.24	-15.56	-16.19
0.14	-0.03	-10.52	-11.11
0.16	0.25	-6.05	-6.63
0.18	1.59	8.35	7.66
0.20	2.94	19.21	18.34
0.23	6.46	41.24	39.78
0.28	22.29	108.55	104.13

b) Population 5

π_i	Approximation		
	π_{ij}^{hr}	π_{ij}^o	π_{ij}^r
0.01	-0.00	-12.31	-16.11
0.02	-0.01	-24.38	-31.85
0.03	-0.10	-47.77	-62.26
0.04	-0.20	-59.07	-76.90
0.13	-4.97	-156.49	-201.85
0.17	-10.53	-193.15	-248.56
0.24	-24.60	-234.87	-303.12
0.24	-24.60	-234.87	-303.12
0.26	-27.93	-239.36	-309.70
0.86	1779.57	1899.55	1553.46

Table 2 (Continued)

c) Population 6

π_i	Approximation		
	π_{ij}^{br}	π_{ij}^o	π_{ij}^r
0.15	-0.21	-23.44	-23.93
0.17	0.01	-20.03	-20.41
0.17	0.10	-18.73	-19.08
0.18	0.64	-12.69	-12.95
0.20	1.98	-1.08	-1.27
0.20	1.98	-1.08	-1.27
0.21	2.29	1.17	0.97
0.21	2.62	3.51	3.30
0.24	5.73	22.45	22.03
0.27	12.41	53.81	52.63

d) Population 11

π_i	Approximation		
	π_{ij}^{hr}	π_{ij}^o	π_{ij}^r
0.16	0.02	-19.67	-19.99
0.17	0.34	-15.73	-15.97
0.18	0.47	-14.26	-14.47
0.19	1.15	-7.59	-7.73
0.20	1.60	-3.77	-3.89
0.20	1.60	-3.77	-3.89
0.20	2.13	0.38	0.26
0.21	2.76	4.87	4.74
0.24	6.95	29.37	28.92
0.24	7.58	32.55	32.03

e) Population 15

π_i	Approximation		
	π_{ij}^{hr}	π_{ij}^o	π_{ij}^r
0.06	-0.10	-33.19	-35.90
0.08	-0.29	-41.17	-44.36
0.09	-0.56	-46.80	-50.28
0.12	-1.10	-52.11	-55.76
0.19	-1.72	-45.09	-48.35
0.19	-1.72	-45.09	-48.35
0.25	1.40	-17.20	-20.19
0.27	5.12	3.01	-0.13
0.33	25.34	77.11	71.85
0.42	97.77	247.10	231.47

For all approximations, the magnitude of the deviation from equation (6) is very small, yet later results show the different approximations can result in very different behaviors of the variance estimators. A pattern evident from the populations examined is that the deviation from equation (6) for all approximations is related to the size of the inclusion probability of the unit. For the three approximations examined, $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \hat{\pi}_{ij} > (n-1)\pi_i$ for the smaller inclusion probabilities, and $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \hat{\pi}_{ij} < (n-1)\pi_i$ for larger π_i 's. Generally, π_{ij}^{hr} has the smallest deviation from (6), while π_{ij}^o and π_{ij}^r are similar to each other in absolute deviation from (6).

The following lemma provides a direct comparison of π_{ij}^o and π_{ij}^r :

Lemma 4.3 $\pi_{ij}^o \leq \pi_{ij}^r$.

Proof:
$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{ij}^r - \pi_{ij}^o &= \frac{(n-1)\pi_i\pi_j(2n-\pi_i-\pi_j)}{2(n-\pi_i)(n-\pi_j)} - \frac{2(n-1)\pi_i\pi_j}{2n-\pi_i-\pi_j} \\ &= (n-1)\pi_i\pi_j \left[\frac{2n-\pi_i-\pi_j}{2(n-\pi_i)(n-\pi_j)} - \frac{2}{2n-\pi_i-\pi_j} \right] \\ &= (n-1)\pi_i\pi_j \left[\frac{(2n-\pi_i-\pi_j)^2 - 4(n-\pi_i)(n-\pi_j)}{2(n-\pi_i)(n-\pi_j)(2n-\pi_i-\pi_j)} \right] \\ &= (n-1)\pi_i\pi_j \left[\frac{(\pi_i-\pi_j)^2}{2(n-\pi_i)(n-\pi_j)(2n-\pi_i-\pi_j)} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Since $\pi_i \leq 1 \forall i$, all terms in (21) are positive and the lemma follows. □

Lemma 4.3 leads to the obvious result that $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^o \leq \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^r$.

To complete this assessment, recall the property

identified by equation (7), $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_{ij} = n(n-1)$. The following lemma shows that π_{ij}^r satisfies (7):

Lemma 4.4 $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_{ij}^r = n(n-1)$.

Proof:
$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_{ij}^r &= \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N n(n-1) x_i x_j \frac{1}{2T_x} \left[\frac{1}{T_x - x_i} + \frac{1}{T_x - x_j} \right] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2T_x} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N x_i x_j \left[\frac{T_x - x_j + T_x - x_i}{(T_x - x_i)(T_x - x_j)} \right] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{T_x} \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{x_i x_j}{T_x - x_i} \right] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{T_x} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{x_i}{T_x - x_i} \sum_{j \neq i}^N x_j \right] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{T_x} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{x_i}{T_x - x_i} (T_x - x_i) \right] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{T_x} T_x = n(n-1). \end{aligned}$$
 □

Then for π_{ij}^o , we obtain

Theorem 4.5 $\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^o \leq n(n-1)$.

Proof: Follows from Lemmas 4.3 and 4.4. □

Equation (7) is examined empirically for several small populations in Table 3. The results confirm Theorem 4.5, and also show that, at least for these populations, $\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_{ij}^{hr} < n(n-1)$. For all populations in Table 3, π_{ij}^o satisfies (7) more closely than does π_{ij}^{hr} , using the deviations from $n(n-1)$ as the measure of closeness. The magnitude of the deviation from (7) tends to increase with the population variance of the π 's. Although π_{ij}^{hr} satisfies condition (6) more closely than π_{ij}^o for most populations, the "errors" in π_{ij}^o tend to cancel when the

Table 3 Empirical Assessment of Property Defined by

$$\text{Equation (7): } \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_i^N \pi_{ij} = n(n-1).$$

Note:

- 1) Values reported in columns 2 and 3 are $\left[2 - \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_i^N \pi_{ij} \right] \times 1000$.
- 2) $\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij}^r = n(n-1)$, so tabled values for π_{ij}^r would be 0.
- 3) Values for exact π_{ij} 's are 0.
- 4) Rows are ordered by $\text{Var}(\pi)$ for the population.

Popn.	(2) π_{ij}^{hr}	(3) π_{ij}^o
11	2.46	0.24
6	2.75	0.39
1	0.92	0.51
19	1.18	0.68
27	1.72	0.39
10	0.54	0.24
3	3.16	1.43
9	6.04	3.16
31	5.47	2.24
14	9.82	5.20
15	12.41	4.66
24	11.94	3.09
23	11.94	3.09
12	19.25	9.47
13	64.50	28.81
26	27.00	8.72
4	71.46	26.07
5	168.66	69.73

summation in (7) is taken over all pairs of elements. Note also that π_{ij}^r is virtually identical to π_{ij}^o in (6), and has perfect cancellation in (7).

4.2 Assessment of "Weights"

The assessment of the properties of the π_{ij} formulas provides some insight into the relative accuracy of the approximations. To further investigate the effects on the variance estimators v_{HT} and v_{YG} of these differences in properties of the π_{ij} approximations, it is useful to define $a_{ij} = (\pi_i \pi_j - \pi_{ij}) / \pi_{ij}$ for the $(i, j)^{th}$ pair of population units.

Then,

$$v_{YG} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n a_{ij} \left(\frac{y_i}{\pi_i} - \frac{y_j}{\pi_j} \right)^2, \quad \text{and} \quad (22)$$

$$v_{HT} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y_i}{\pi_i} \right)^2 (1 - \pi_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n a_{ij} \frac{y_i y_j}{\pi_i \pi_j}. \quad (23)$$

By defining a_{ij} in this way, the cross-product terms in v_{YG} and v_{HT} are functions of the a_{ij} 's and ratios y_i/π_i and y_j/π_j . The a_{ij} 's will be called "weights", because they weight the contribution of the terms involving functions of the ratios y_i/π_i and y_j/π_j . Analogous weights a_{ij}^o and a_{ij}^{hrt} are defined by substituting π_{ij}^o and π_{ij}^{hrt} respectively for π_{ij} in the formula for a_{ij} . Then,

$$a_{ij}^o = \frac{1}{n-1} \left[1 - \frac{\pi_i + \pi_j}{2} \right], \quad \text{and} \quad a_{ij}^{hrt} = \frac{1}{n-1} \left[1 - \pi_i - \pi_j + E(\bar{\pi}_s) \right].$$

Theorem 4.6

- i) If $(\pi_i + \pi_j)/2 < E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, then $a_{ij}^{hrt} > a_{ij}^o$.
- ii) If $(\pi_i + \pi_j)/2 > E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, then $a_{ij}^{hrt} < a_{ij}^o$.

Proof: From $a_{ij}^{hrt} - a_{ij}^o = \frac{1}{n-1} \left[E(\bar{\pi}_s) - \frac{\pi_i + \pi_j}{2} \right]$, the theorem follows directly. □

Corollary 4.7 If $(\pi_i + \pi_j)/2 < n/N$, then $a_{ij}^{hrt} > a_{ij}^o$.

Proof: The corollary follows directly since $n/N \leq E(\bar{\pi}_s)$ by Theorem 2.1. □

Theorem 4.6 and its corollary show that when π_i and π_j are small relative to $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, $a_{ij}^{hrt} > a_{ij}^o$. Corollary 4.7 provides the more interpretable bound, since n/N is the inclusion probability for equal probability sampling. Corollary 4.7 states that for the (i, j) pairs in which the average of π_i and π_j is less than the inclusion probability for an equal probability sample, the Hartley-Rao approximation provides greater weight to those pairs than the weight provided by π_{ij}^o .

An immediate implication of Corollary 4.7 is the following. Suppose that for a particular sample, most of the sample π 's are small relative to $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$. By Corollary 4.7, we know that $a_{ij}^{hrt} > a_{ij}^o$. The effect on the variance estimators of using either π_{ij}^o or π_{ij}^{hrt} can be readily seen by examining (22) and (23). For example, v_{YG} calculated with π_{ij}^{hr} will be larger than v_{YG} calculated with π_{ij}^o if all sample π 's are less than $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$. Also, the contribution to the negative piece of v_{HT} in equation (23) will be much larger when a_{ij}^{hrt} is used than when a_{ij}^o is used, if the sample π 's are all less than $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$.

The properties of the approximate weights can also be evaluated in a manner analogous to the procedure employed to

assess the π_{ij} approximations that used equations (6) and (7). Starting first with a property analogous to equation (7), define

$$\bar{a} = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i}^N a_{ij} / N(N-1) \quad (24)$$

to be the average weight over all population pairs. \bar{a}^{hrt} and \bar{a}° are defined similarly substituting a_{ij}^{hrt} and a_{ij}° for a_{ij} in equation (24). The following lemmas lead to the result that $\bar{a}^{hrt} > \bar{a}^\circ$.

Lemma 4.8 $\bar{a}^{hrt} = \frac{1}{n-1}[1-n/N] + \frac{1}{(n-1)}[E(\bar{\pi}_s) - n/N].$

Proof: First note the following relationships,

$$\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i (N-1) = n(N-1), \quad \text{and} \quad (25)$$

$$\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N (n - \pi_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N (n - \pi_i) = nN - n = n(N-1). \quad (26)$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{a}^{hrt} &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i}^N a_{ij}^{hrt} / N(N-1) \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\frac{\pi_i \pi_j}{(n-1) \pi_i \pi_j / [n - \pi_i - \pi_j + E(\bar{\pi}_s)]} - 1 \right] / N(N-1) \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N [n - \pi_i - \pi_j + E(\bar{\pi}_s) - n + 1] / (n-1) N(N-1) \\ &= \frac{1}{(n-1)} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N [1 - \pi_i - \pi_j + E(\bar{\pi}_s)] / N(N-1) \end{aligned}$$

using (25) and (26) and combining like terms,

$$= \frac{1}{(n-1)} [(1 + E(\bar{\pi}_s)) - 2n/N].$$

Lemma 4.9 $\bar{a}^\circ = \frac{1}{(n-1)} [1 - n/N].$

Proof: $\bar{a}^\circ = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\pi_i \pi_j (2n - \pi_i - \pi_j)}{2(n-1) \pi_i \pi_j} - 1 \right)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_i^N \left(\frac{2n - \pi_i - \pi_j - 2n + 2}{2(n-1)} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(n-1)2N(N-1)} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_i^N (2 - \pi_i - \pi_j) \\
 &= \frac{2N(N-1) - 2n(N-1)}{2N(n-1)(N-1)} \quad \text{using (25) and (26)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The lemma follows after algebraic simplification. □

Theorem 4.10 For any π x design, $\bar{a}^{hrt} > \bar{a}^o$.

Proof: From Lemmas 4.8 and 4.9, $\bar{a}^{hrt} > \bar{a}^o$ if $E(\bar{\pi}_s) > n/N$. This condition is always true by Theorem 2.1. □

No closed form expression has been found for \bar{a} , but empirical results from the populations examined in Table 4 indicate the following relationships:

- 1) $\bar{a} > \bar{a}^o$ in all populations, and
- 2) \bar{a} may be greater or less than \bar{a}^{hr} .

Theorem 4.6 established that for small π_i and π_j , $a_{ij}^{hrt} > a_{ij}^o$.

Theorem 4.10 shows that the population average weight for a_{ij}^{hrt} is greater than the population average weight for a_{ij}^o .

Moreover, the average weight for a_{ij}^o is smaller than the average weight for the exact a_{ij} 's. Once again the influence of the population average weights on the variance estimators is best seen by examining equations (22) and (23).

Since the a_{ij} 's enter the sample with unequal probability, we could also consider a weighted population average, where the a_{ij} 's are weighted by their sample inclusion probability, π_{ij} . That is, define

Table 4. Comparison of Average Population a_{ij} 's ($n=2$):

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i=1}^N a_{ij}}{N(N-1)}.$$

Note:

- 1) Values reported are the average weight times 100.
- 2) Rows are ordered by $\text{Var}(\tau)$ of the populations.

Popn.	\bar{a}	\bar{a}^{hr}	\bar{a}^o
11	80.41	80.58	80.00
6	80.62	80.82	80.00
1	91.71	91.72	90.00
19	92.28	92.27	90.00
27	87.29	86.92	84.62
10	91.60	91.61	88.24
3	88.75	88.73	85.71
9	93.65	93.47	87.50
31	88.23	88.37	83.33
14	101.11	99.08	88.24
15	88.40	87.86	80.00
24	82.51	81.26	75.00
23	82.51	81.26	75.00
12	100.81	101.68	87.50
13	123.52	111.62	87.50
26	86.35	87.68	75.00
4	135.19	110.36	80.00
5	210.65	123.14	80.00

$$\bar{a}_w = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} a_{ij}}{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij}} = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} a_{ij}}{n(n-1)}.$$

Weighted averages of a_{ij}^{hrt} and a_{ij}^o could be defined similarly,

substituting a_{ij}^{hrt} or a_{ij}^o for a_{ij} in the above equation. These

weighted averages have another interpretation. Note that

$$E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n a_{ij} \right] = \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N a_{ij} \pi_{ij} = n(n-1) \bar{a}_w.$$

Thus the comparison of weighted population average weights,

for any of a_{ij} , a_{ij}^o , and a_{ij}^{hrt} , would be equivalent to comparison

of the expected value of the sum of the sample weights. These

expected values are the same for the exact π_{ij} 's and the

approximations π_{ij}^o and π_{ij}^{hrt} .

Theorem 4.11 $E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n a_{ij} \right] = E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n a_{ij}^o \right] = E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n a_{ij}^{hrt} \right] = n - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2.$

Proof:

i) $E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n a_{ij} \right] = \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N a_{ij} \pi_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i}^N (\pi_i \pi_j - \pi_{ij}) = n - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2$ by equation (11).

ii) $E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{i \neq j}^n a_{ij}^o \right] = \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} \left(\frac{2 - \pi_i - \pi_j}{2(n-1)} \right)$

$$= \frac{1}{2(n-1)} \left[2 \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i \sum_{j \neq i}^N \pi_{ij} - \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} \right]$$

using equations (7) and (3) on the first two terms inside

the brackets and using equation (12) on the last term

yields

$$= \frac{1}{2(n-1)} \left[2n(n-1) - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i (n-1) \pi_i - (n-1) \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2(n-1)} \left[2n(n-1) - 2(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 \right] = n - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{iii) } E \left[\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{s \neq i}^n a_{ij}^{hrt} \right] &= \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{s \neq i}^N \pi_{ij} \left(\frac{1 - \pi_i - \pi_j + E(\bar{\pi}_s)}{n-1} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} [1 + E(\bar{\pi}_s)] \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{s \neq i}^N \pi_{ij} - \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{s \neq i}^N (\pi_i + \pi_j) \pi_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

using (7) to simplify the first double sum, and (6) and (12) to simplify the second double sum

$$\begin{aligned} &= n [1 + E(\bar{\pi}_s)] - \frac{1}{n-1} \left[2(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 \right] \text{ using (8) for } E(\bar{\pi}_s) \\ &= n + \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2 = n - \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i^2. \end{aligned}$$

From Theorem 4.11, the approximations a_{ij}^o and a_{ij}^{hrt} have the appealing property that the expected sum of their sample weights equals the expected sum of the sample weights for the exact π_{ij} 's. An empirical verification of Theorem 4.11 is given in Table 5.

Table 5 shows $E(\sum_{j \neq i}^n \sum_{s \neq i}^n a_{ij})$ and the corresponding expected values using a_{ij}^o and a_{ij}^{hr} . The expected values for a_{ij} and a_{ij}^o are nearly the same, but in all populations, the expected value for a_{ij}^{hr} exceeds that of a_{ij} . A possible explanation is that π_{ij}^{hrt} was used in Theorem 4.11, while the more complicated formula π_{ij}^{hr} was used in calculating the values in Table 5. Thus it appears that Theorem 4.11 does not apply to the Hartley-Rao form of equation (14).

Theorems 4.6, 4.10, and 4.11 provide the following qualitative picture:

- 1) when π_i and π_j are small relative to $E(\bar{\pi}_s)$, $a_{ij}^{hr} > a_{ij}^o$, and the inequality reverses when π_i and π_j are large;

Table 5. Comparison of Weighted Averages of a_{ij} 's ($n=2$):

$$\bar{a}_w = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} a_{ij}}{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij}} = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i}^N \sum_{i \neq j}^N \pi_{ij} a_{ij}}{n(n-1)}.$$

Note:

- 1) Values reported are 100x(average weight).
- 2) Rows ordered by $\text{Var}(\pi)$ of the population.

Popn.	\bar{a}_w	\bar{a}_w^{hr}	a_w^o
11	79.67	79.89	79.67
6	79.47	79.71	79.47
1	88.48	88.57	88.49
19	87.99	88.09	87.99
27	82.53	82.67	82.53
10	85.26	85.44	85.26
3	83.22	83.48	83.22
9	82.58	83.03	82.58
31	79.12	79.56	79.12
14	79.11	79.88	79.13
15	73.67	74.57	73.67
24	69.97	70.88	69.97
23	69.97	70.88	69.97
12	76.25	77.59	76.25
13	70.83	73.63	70.83
26	64.94	66.71	64.94
4	56.09	60.16	56.09
5	51.56	56.22	51.56

- 1) the unweighted average over all population pairs of the a_{ij}^{hr} 's is larger than the unweighted average of the a_{ij}^o 's;
- 3) the discrepancies between both approximations and the true a_{ij} 's average out over the set of all population pairs when the unequal probability of selecting an (i, j) pair is taken into consideration; while individual weights based on the approximations are not exactly equal to the true weights, there is a cancellation of errors so that the overall average weight is correct.

5. SUMMARY

Empirical and analytical investigation of several pairwise inclusion probability approximation formulas revealed that the properties of π_{ij}^o , compared favorably with those of π_{ij}^{hr} . That π_{ij}^o requires only the sample x 's is a major advantage for variance estimation because obtaining all the x 's in the universe is often impractical, particularly if sampling from a map or area frame. The variance estimators v_{HT} and v_{YG} calculated with π_{ij}^o possess good theoretical properties and have performed well in empirical studies (Stehman and Overton, 1987ab, 1989). The advantageous characteristics of π_{ij}^o greatly diminish the problem of estimating the variance of the Horvitz-Thompson estimator for random-order, variable probability systematic sampling.

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