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OF SAMPLE SIZE TO STRATA IN  
PROBABILITY PROPORTIONAL TO SIZE  
SAMPLING WITHOUT REPLACEMENT**

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# MODEL OPTIMUM ALLOCATION OF SAMPLE SIZE TO STRATA IN PROBABILITY PROPORTIONAL TO SIZE SAMPLING WITHOUT REPLACEMENT

SUNWOONG KIM<sup>1\*</sup>, STEVEN G. HEERINGA<sup>2</sup> AND SOHYUNG PARK<sup>1</sup>

*Dongguk University and University of Michigan*

## Summary

It is well-known that probability proportional to size (PPS) sampling methods without replacement, simply called  $\pi PS$  sampling, frequently provide more efficient sample estimates than simple random sampling or PPS sampling with replacement. We investigate methods of allocating sample size to strata using super-population regression models that may be beneficial to  $\pi PS$  sampling methods. This study focuses on Sampford's method, which is one of the more popular  $\pi PS$  sampling methods among practitioners. We present the true optimal allocation for his method under the assumption that the values of the characteristic under study are known. Based on general super-population regression models with the intercept term, overlooked in the previous studies, we derive new alternatives to the true optimal allocation that may be easily solved by convex mathematical programming algorithms. We illustrate this model allocation for finite populations generated from a hypothetical population.

*Key words:* convex mathematical programming algorithms; PPS sampling; Sampford's method; sample allocation; stratified sampling; super-population regression model

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\*Author to whom correspondence should be addressed.

<sup>1</sup>Survey and Health Policy Research Center and Department of Statistics, Dongguk University, 30 Pildong-ro, 1-gil, Jung-gu, Seoul, South Korea 04620  
e-mail: sunwk@dongguk.edu

<sup>2</sup>Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 426 Thompson Street, Ann Arbor, MI 48106, USA.

## 1. Introduction

In stratified sampling the finite population of  $N$  units is divided into  $h$  strata of sizes  $N_h$ ,  $h=1,2,\dots,H$ , and a sample of a chosen size  $n_h$  is selected within each stratum. The selections are made independently in distinct strata. Let  $y_{hi}$  be the value of the characteristic  $Y$  under study for unit  $i$  in stratum  $h$ . One of the important roles of the survey sampler is to determine the values of  $n_h$  in the respective strata, that is, sample allocation, which will result in the greatest precision for sample estimates of true parameter such as the population total

$$Y = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} y_{hi} \text{ or the population mean } \bar{Y} = Y/N.$$

Under stratified simple random sampling (SSRS) without replacement the following sample allocations are appeared in the introductory texts: (i) proportional allocation, suggested by Bowley (1926), and (ii) Neyman (1934) allocation. Proportional allocation simply assigns  $n_h$  in proportion to  $N_h$ , while Neyman allocation is given by the formula

$$n_h = nN_h S_{yh} / \sum_{h=1}^H N_h S_{yh}, \quad (1)$$

where  $n$  is the total sample size,

$$S_{yh}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} (y_{hi} - \bar{Y}_h)^2 / (N_h - 1), \quad (2)$$

and

$$\bar{Y}_h = \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} y_{hi} / N_h. \quad (3)$$

For SSRS with replacement  $S_{yh}$  in (1) is replaced by  $\sigma_{yh}$ , where

$$\sigma_{yh}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} (y_{hi} - \bar{Y}_h)^2 / N_h .$$

It is noted that Neyman allocation (1) is a *true optimal allocation* for minimizing the variance of sample estimates of  $Y$  or  $\bar{Y}$ . But this true optimal allocation is not available in practice, since the values of  $S_{yh}^2$  (or those of  $y_{hi}$ ) are often unknown.

In such cases what we call  $x$ -optimal allocation is an alternative to Neyman allocation. This method uses the values  $x_{hi}$  of  $X$ , a positive auxiliary characteristic assumed to be highly correlated with the characteristic  $Y$  under study. It substitutes  $S_{xh}$  for  $S_{yh}$  in (1), namely,

$$n_h = nN_h S_{xh} / \sum_{h=1}^H N_h S_{xh} \quad (4)$$

where  $S_{xh}^2$  and  $\bar{X}_h$  are calculated by the values of  $x_{hi}$  instead of those of  $y_{hi}$  in (2) and (3), respectively.

However, if the correlation between  $X$  and  $Y$  is not almost perfect, this allocation is not ‘optimal’, and furthermore, if there are substantial differences between  $S_{xh}$  and  $S_{yh}$ , it might result in lower precision for sample estimates compared to proportional allocation. Thus, the substitution of  $S_{xh}$  for  $S_{yh}$  without any valid justification should be avoided.

As an alternative, model-assisted methods with practical advantages over  $x$ -optimal allocation have been studied. Hanurav (1965), Rao (1968), Reddy (1976), Rao (1977), Dayal (1985), and Gupt (2003) showed that a super-population regression model with respect to  $X$  and  $Y$  can be appropriately

used for the sample allocation in SSRS. This technique using a model is what we simply call *model allocation*, which may be applied to other sampling methods with efficiency better than simple random sampling (SRS).

It is well-known that under many situations sampling strategies with varying probabilities such as probability proportional to size (PPS) sampling with replacement or without replacement provide more efficient sample estimates than SRS.

There are a few studies on model allocation in stratified PPS sampling with replacement. For example, see Rao (1977) and Gupt & Rao (1997).

PPS sampling without replacement, simply called  $\pi PS$  sampling, is often more efficient than PPS sampling with replacement, as described in Rao & Bayless (1969) and Bayless & Rao (1970). But there are very few studies on model allocation in stratified  $\pi PS$  sampling. Rao's (1968) study, followed by Rao (1977), remains valuable. He suggested a model allocation approach using a super-population regression model without the intercept. The primary objective of his approach is to minimize the expected variance of the Horvitz & Thompson (H-T) (1952) estimator under the model. An interesting result is that his approach always gives the same sample allocation for all  $\pi PS$  sampling methods, as shown in Section 2.

However, his result raises a question: It may be desirable to introduce an intercept term into the super-population regression model. If the intercept is included in the model, is sample allocation still the same for any  $\pi PS$  sampling?

Though it is proved in Section 3, the presence of the intercept in the model leads to sample allocation problems that differ according to the chosen  $\pi PS$  sampling method. Thus one would like to pay attention to a specific allocation strategy appropriate for a given  $\pi PS$  sampling method, in particular, methods that are popular with samplers.

In fact, a host of  $\pi PS$  sampling methods have been developed to select samples of size equal to or greater than two. See Brewer & Hanif (1983). Most methods for the sample size greater than two are not easily applied in practice. Some of them may construct a good design for reducing the variance of sample estimates compared to alternative methods and achieve unbiased variance estimation. Among suggested methods, Sampford's (1967) method, which is the extension of Brewer's (1963) method and was discussed by Rao & Bayless (1969), Bayless & Rao (1970), Cochran (1977), Särndal (1996), Smith (2001), Rao (2005), Tillé (2006), Bondesson *et al.* (2006), and Haziza *et al.* (2008), is the better known to the samplers. His method is also called the Rao-Sampford method, since Rao (1965) developed the same procedure. Gabler (1981) proved that Sampford's method is always more efficient than PPS sampling with replacement. His method has not been widely used in the past due to its computational complexity, but it can be easily implemented with modern computing power. For example, it is available in the recent version of SAS or SPSS or R package "sampling" (<http://cran.r-project.org/>).

Accordingly, we may add a further question: If we use Sampford's (1967)  $\pi$ PS sampling method, what sample allocation strategy under the super-population regression model with the intercept would be followed?

In this paper, we attempt to answer the above two questions. We first begin by revisiting Rao's (1968) method in Section 2. In section 3, we show that under Sampford's sampling method the introduction of the intercept term into the model results in allocation problems looking complicated, but those that can be easily solved by optimization approaches. In section 4, we illustrate this model allocation for the finite population generated from a hypothetical population.

## 2. Rao's method

Let  $s$  be a sample of size  $n_h$  drawn from each stratum and let  $P(\cdot)$  denote a sampling design such that  $P(s)$  gives the probability of selecting  $s$  under the given sampling method. Let  $S$  be the set of all possible samples from each stratum. The total sample size  $n$  is:

$$n = \sum_{h=1}^H n_h . \quad (5)$$

Then the probability that the unit  $i$  in the stratum  $h$  will be in a sample, denoted  $\pi_{hi}$ , is given by

$$\pi_{hi} = \sum_{i \in s, s \in S} P(s), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N_h, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, H , \quad (6)$$

which are called the first-order inclusion probabilities.

Also, the probability that both of the units  $i$  and  $j$  in the stratum  $h$  will be included in a sample, denoted  $\pi_{hij}$ , is obtained by

$$\pi_{hij} = \sum_{i, j \in s, s \in S} P(s), \quad i \neq j = 1, 2, \dots, N_h, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, H. \quad (7)$$

These are termed the joint probabilities or the second-order inclusion probabilities.

As an estimator of the population total  $Y$ , consider the H-T estimator

$$\hat{Y}_{HT} = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{n_h} \frac{y_{hi}}{\pi_{hi}}, \quad (8)$$

where  $\pi_{hi} = n_h p_{hi}$ ,  $p_{hi} = x_{hi}/X_h$ ,  $X_h = \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}$ , and  $0 < \pi_{hi} < 1$ .

This estimator is an unbiased estimator of  $Y$ , with variance:

$$\text{Var}(\hat{Y}_{HT}) = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} (\pi_{hi}\pi_{hj} - \pi_{hij}) \left( \frac{y_{hi}}{\pi_{hi}} - \frac{y_{hj}}{\pi_{hj}} \right)^2. \quad (9)$$

Rao (1968) considered the following super-population regression model without the intercept:

$$y_{hi} = \beta x_{hi} + \varepsilon_{hi}, \quad (10)$$

where  $E_{\xi}(y_{hi}|x_{hi}) = \beta x_{hi}$ ,  $V_{\xi}(y_{hi}|x_{hi}) = \sigma^2 x_{hi}^g$  and  $Cov_{\xi}(y_{hi}, y_{hj}|x_{hi}, x_{hj}) = 0$ . Here  $E_{\xi}$ ,  $V_{\xi}$  and  $Cov_{\xi}$  denote the model expectation, variance and covariance given  $x_{hi}$ 's respectively over all the finite populations that can be drawn from the super-population.  $\beta$ ,  $\sigma^2$  and  $g$  are super-population parameters with  $\sigma^2 > 0$  and  $1 \leq g \leq 2$ .

Then we have the following expected variance under the model (10):



$$E_{\xi} \text{Var}(\hat{Y}_{HT}) = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \left( \frac{1}{\pi_{hi}} - 1 \right) \sigma^2 x_{hi}^g. \quad (11)$$

To minimize (11) subject to the condition (5), using the Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda$ , consider

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \left( \frac{1}{n_h p_{hi}} - 1 \right) \sigma^2 x_{hi}^g + \lambda \left( \sum_{h=1}^H n_h - n \right). \quad (12)$$

Equating (12) to zero and differentiating with respect to  $n_h$ , we have

$$n_h = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{\sigma^2 x_{hi}^g}{p_{hi}}}. \quad (13)$$

Substituting  $n_h$  in (5), we have

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} = n / \sum_{h=1}^H \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{\sigma^2 x_{hi}^g}{p_{hi}}}. \quad (14)$$

Replacing  $1/\sqrt{\lambda}$  in (13) with (14), eventually we have the following model allocation in each stratum:

$$n_h = n \frac{\sqrt{X_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^{g-1}}}{\sum_{h=1}^H \sqrt{X_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^{g-1}}}. \quad (15)$$

With the assumption  $V_{\xi}(y_{hi} | x_{hi}) = v(x_{hi})$ , where  $v(\cdot)$  is a given function, Rao (1977) obtained a form different from (15). Note that if  $g = 2$ , (15) reduces to:

$$n_h = n \frac{X_h}{\sum_{h=1}^H X_h}, \quad (16)$$

which is called  $x$ -proportional allocation to the stratum.

Looking at the expected variance in (11) and the model allocation in (15), it does not involve the joint probabilities  $\pi_{hij}$  in each stratum. It indicates that under the model without the intercept (10) the specific sampling design properties of a given  $\pi PS$  sampling method that determine the  $\pi_{hij}$  are not reflected in the sample allocation, resulting in the same sample allocation for any  $\pi PS$  sampling. Hence the following issues, as mentioned in the Introduction, are of interest:

(a) The super-population regression model which one may wish to employ in many surveys will be:

$$y_{hi} = \alpha + \beta x_{hi} + \varepsilon_{hi}, \quad (17)$$

which is a general form and (10) is a special form of (17) when  $\alpha=0$ . Considering the intercept term  $\alpha$ , we need to reexamine the most appropriate sample allocation strategy for stratified  $\pi PS$  sampling.

(b) It will be shown in the following section that using (17) gives a sample allocation involving the joint probabilities  $\pi_{hij}$  depending on the chosen  $\pi PS$  sampling. If we focus on Sampford's (1967) method for  $\pi PS$  sampling, what sample allocation strategy would be appropriate?

Section 3 will address these issues of sample allocation.

### **3. Alternative sample allocations under stratified $\pi PS$ sampling**

As mentioned above, Neyman allocation (1) is the *true optimal allocation* for SSRS. Since Rao (1968) and Rao (1977) did not deal with what the *true optimal allocation* is for stratified  $\pi PS$  sampling, we describe it first.

### 3.1. True optimal allocation

Assume that the values of  $y_{hi}$  are known. Instead of (9) we consider the following form of the variance of the H-T estimator

$$\text{Var}(\hat{Y}_{HT}) = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{y_{hi}^2}{\pi_{hi}} - \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} y_{hi}^2 + 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \frac{\pi_{hij}}{\pi_{hi}\pi_{hj}} y_{hi} y_{hj} - 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} y_{hi} y_{hj} \quad (18)$$

Since the second and fourth terms in (18) are independent of  $n_h$ , the minimization of the variance of the H-T estimator in terms of  $n_h$  reduces to the minimization of

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{y_{hi}^2}{p_{hi}} + 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \frac{\pi_{hij}}{p_{hi} p_{hj}} y_{hi} y_{hj}. \quad (19)$$

Unfortunately, with the Lagrange's multiplier method or other simple methods, one cannot derive an allocation formula with respect to  $n_h$  for minimizing (19) under the condition (5), due to  $n_h^{-2}$  of the second term in (19). Moreover, the joint probabilities  $\pi_{hij}$  of the second term in (19) should be evaluated according to the chosen  $\pi PS$  sampling method.

We focus on Sampford's (1967) method. Under this method  $n_h$  units are selected with replacement in each stratum. The first unit in stratum  $h$  is selected with probability  $p_{hi}$  and all subsequent units with probabilities

$\lambda_{hi} / \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \lambda_{hi}$ , where  $\lambda_{hi} = p_{hi} / (\mathbf{1} - n_h p_{hi})$ . Any sample that does not contain  $n_h$

distinct units is rejected. It is noted that  $\pi_{hi} = n_h p_{hi}$  for his method.

Because the exact calculation of all  $\pi_{hij}$  for his method is complicated and computationally prohibitive, the following approximate expression correct to  $O(N_h^{-4})$  under the assumptions that (i)  $n_h$  is small relative to  $N_h$  and (ii)  $p_{hi}$  is of  $O(N_h^{-1})$  is useful:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{hij} = & n_h(n_h - 1)p_{hi}p_{hj} \left[ 1 + \left\{ (p_{hi} + p_{hj}) - \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 \right\} \right. \\ & + \left\{ 2(p_{hi}^2 + p_{hj}^2) - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^3 - (n_h - 2)p_{hi}p_{hj} \right. \\ & \left. \left. + (n_h - 3)(p_{hi} + p_{hj}) \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 - (n_h - 3) \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 \right)^2 \right\} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

This approximation was derived by Asok & Sukhatme (1976) based on an asymptotic theory.

When substituting (20) for  $\pi_{hij}$  in (19), we have

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{\mathbf{1}}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{y_{hi}^2}{p_{hi}} + 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left( \mathbf{1} - \frac{\mathbf{1}}{n_h} \right) (n_h \pi_{hij1} + \pi_{hij2}) y_{hi} y_{hj}, \quad (21)$$

where

$$\pi_{hij1} = (p_{hi} + p_{hj}) \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 - p_{hi}p_{hj} - \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 \right)^2 \quad (22)$$

and

$$\pi_{hij2} = 1 + \left\{ (p_{hi} + p_{hj}) - \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 \right\} + 2(p_{hi}^2 + p_{hj}^2) - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^3$$

$$+2p_{hi}p_{hj} - 3(p_{hi} + p_{hj}) \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 + 3 \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_h} p_{hk}^2 \right)^2 \quad (23)$$

From (21), we can derive the form (24) in terms of  $n_h$ , which is the objective function of the optimization problem (or nonlinear programming problem):

*Minimize*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{y_{hi}^2}{p_{hi}} + 2 \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \pi_{hij1} y_{hi} y_{hj} - 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \pi_{hij2} y_{hi} y_{hj} \quad (24)$$

subject to  $\sum_{h=1}^H n_h = n$  in (5).

The solution  $n_h$ ,  $h=1,2,\dots,H$ , to this optimization problem will be the *true optimal allocation* for minimizing the variance of the H-T estimator under Sampford's method for stratified sampling.

### 3.2. Model allocations

Because the values of  $y_{hi}$  are often unknown, the optimization problem defined above may not be applied in practice. Instead we assume two different super-population regression models involving an intercept term:

*Model I:*

$$y_{hi} = \alpha + \beta x_{hi} + \varepsilon_{hi}, \quad h=1,2,\dots,H, \quad i=1,\dots,N_h, \quad (25)$$

where  $\varepsilon_{hi}$  is numerically negligible, that is,  $x$  perfectly explains  $y$ .

*Model II:*

$$y_{hi} = \alpha + \beta x_{hi} + \varepsilon_{hi}, \quad h=1,2,\dots,H, \quad i=1,2,\dots,N_h \quad (26)$$

where  $E_{\xi}(y_{hi}|x_{hi}) = \alpha + \beta x_{hi}$ ,  $V_{\xi}(y_{hi}|x_{hi}) = \sigma^2 x_{hi}^g$ , and  $Cov_{\xi}(y_{hi}, y_{hj}|x_{hi}, x_{hj}) = 0$ .

*Model I* was used by Des Raj (1956). The model (10) is the special case of the *Model II*, where  $\alpha=0$ . *Model II* was assumed by Reddy (1976), Rao (1977) and Dayal (1985) for the sample allocation under SSRS. Assume that the values of  $x_{hi}$  and the super-population parameters are known for the two models.

**Theorem 1.** *Under the Model I, the sample allocation problem for the minimization of the expected variance of the H-T estimator under any  $\pi$ PS sampling is equivalent to minimizing*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{A_h}{n_h^2} + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{B_h}{n_h}, \quad (27)$$

where

$$A_h = 2X_h^2 \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj})}{x_{hi}x_{hj}} \pi_{hij} \quad (28)$$

and

$$B_h = X_h \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{(\alpha + \beta x_{hi})^2}{x_{hi}} - \beta^2 X_h \right). \quad (29)$$

**Proof.** Consider the four terms in the right-hand side of expression (18) for the variance of the H-T estimator. The expected variance  $E_{\xi}Var(\hat{Y}_{HT})$  under the *Model I* is the sum of the expected values for those four terms. The expected values for the second and fourth terms in (18) are known values that do not involve  $n_h$ , and those for the other terms in (18) do depend on  $n_h$  and are given by:

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{(\alpha + \beta x_{hi})^2}{x_{hi}} + \left[ 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj})}{x_{hi}x_{hj}} \pi_{hij} + \beta^2 \sum_{h=1}^H X_h^2 - \beta^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h} \right], \quad (30)$$

which is derived from the fact that  $\sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \pi_{hij} = n_h(n_h - 1) / 2$ .

Since  $\beta^2 \sum_{h=1}^H X_h^2$  is also known, the quantity to be minimized in (30) is:

$$\left[ \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{(\alpha + \beta x_{hi})^2}{x_{hi}} \right] + \left[ 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj})}{x_{hi}x_{hj}} \pi_{hij} - \beta^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h} \right] \quad (31)$$

The proof follows from substitution of (28) and (29) in (31).

**Remark 1.** The minimization of the expected variance in terms of  $n_h$  under the *Model I* with the intercept term reduces to minimization of the function (27), which involves the joint probabilities  $\pi_{hij}$  in each stratum that in turn depend on the chosen  $\pi PS$  sampling method.

**Remark 2.** The minimization of (27) in terms of  $n_h$  under the condition (5) is a simple optimization problem because the  $A_h$  in (28) and the  $B_h$  in (29) are known values.

From (20) and (27) we obtain the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.** *Under the Model I, the sample allocation problem to minimize the expected variance of the H-T estimator under Sampford's method when using the joint probabilities, correct to  $O(N_h^{-4})$  given in (20) is equivalent to minimizing*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H C_h n_h + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{D_h}{n_h}, \quad (32)$$

where

$$C_h = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij1} \quad (33)$$

and

$$D_h = B_h - 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij2}. \quad (34)$$

**Proof.** Substituting  $\pi_{hij}$  from (20) in (28) for the first term of (27), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{A_h}{n_h^2} &= 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n_h} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} (n_h \pi_{hij1} + \pi_{hij2}) \\ &= 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} n_h \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij1} \\ &\quad + 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij2} \end{aligned}$$



(35)

$$\begin{aligned}
& -2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha \beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij1} \\
& -2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \frac{1}{n_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha \beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij2}.
\end{aligned}$$

Since the second and third terms in (35) are the known values, the minimization of (35) reduces to minimizing:

$$2 \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha \beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij1} - 2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha \beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij2}. \quad (36)$$

Adding  $\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{B_h}{n_h}$  in (27) to (36), we have the following minimization problem

corresponding to the minimization of (27):

$$\begin{aligned}
& 2 \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha \beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij1} \\
& + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \left[ B_h - 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \{ \alpha^2 + \alpha \beta(x_{hi} + x_{hj}) \} \pi_{hij2} \right].
\end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

This completes the proof.

**Remark 3.** The minimization of (32) under (5) is a simple allocation problem in terms of  $n_h$  because the  $C_h$  in (33) and the  $D_h$  in (34) are the known values.

**Remark 4.** We can define the following optimization problem with respect to  $n_h$ :

*Minimize*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H C_h n_h + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{D_h}{n_h} \quad (38)$$

subject to  $\sum_{h=1}^H n_h = n$  in (5).

In addition to (5), the following conditions can be added:

$$n_h \leq N_h, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, H \quad (39)$$

and

$$n_h \geq 2, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, H . \quad (40)$$

Also, other possible conditions will be:

$$n_h p_{hi} < 1, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N_h, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, H . \quad (41)$$

The optimization problem in Remark 4 may be easily handled by convex mathematical programming algorithms and the solution to the problem would provide an efficient sample allocation strategy under the *Model I* when using Sampford's sampling procedure.

We obtain the following theorems regarding the minimization of the variance of the H-T estimator in  $\pi PS$  sampling under the assumption of *Model II*, which is more practical than *Model I*.

**Theorem 3.** *Under Model II, the sample allocation problem for minimizing the expected variance of the H-T estimator under any  $\pi PS$  sampling amounts to minimizing:*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{A_h^*}{n_h^2} + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{B_h^*}{n_h} , \quad (42)$$

where

$$A_h^* = 2\alpha X_h^2 \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} (x_{hj}^{-1} - x_{hi}^{-1}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij} \quad (43)$$

and

$$B_h^* = \sigma^2 X_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^{g-1}. \quad (44)$$

**Proof.** Consider a different form of (9) using  $\pi_{hi} = n_h p_{hi}$ :

$$\text{Var}(\widehat{Y}_{HT}) = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left( p_{hi} p_{hj} - \frac{\pi_{hij}}{n_h^2} \right) \left( \frac{y_{hi}}{p_{hi}} - \frac{y_{hj}}{p_{hj}} \right)^2. \quad (45)$$

By using

$$E_\xi y_{hi}^2 = \sigma^2 x_{hi}^g + \alpha^2 + \beta^2 x_{hi}^2 + 2\alpha\beta x_{hi} \quad (46)$$

and

$$E_\xi (y_{hi} y_{hj}) = \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta (x_{hi} + x_{hj}) + \beta^2 x_{hi} x_{hj}, \quad (47)$$

we obtain

$$E_\xi \left( \frac{y_{hi}}{p_{hi}} - \frac{y_{hj}}{p_{hj}} \right)^2 = 2\sigma^2 X_h^g p_{hi}^{g-2} + 2\alpha X_h^2 \frac{x_{hj} - x_{hi}}{x_{hi} x_{hj}} (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta). \quad (48)$$

Then we get:

$$\begin{aligned} E_\xi \text{Var}(\widehat{Y}_{HT}) &= \Delta_\xi + 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H X_h^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left( p_{hi} p_{hj} - \frac{\pi_{hij}}{n_h^2} \right) \frac{x_{hj} - x_{hi}}{x_{hi} x_{hj}} (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \right) \\ &= \Delta_\xi + 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} (x_{hj} - x_{hi}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

$$+2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} (x_{hj}^{-1} - x_{hi}^{-1})(\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij},$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_\xi &= 2\sigma^2 \sum_{h=1}^H X_h^g \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} p_{hi}^{g-2} \left( p_{hi} p_{hj} - \frac{\pi_{hij}}{n_h^2} \right) \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \frac{X_h^g}{n_h} (1 - n_h p_{hi}) p_{hi}^{g-1} \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \left( \frac{1}{n_h p_{hi}} - 1 \right) x_{hi}^g \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^{g-1} - \sigma^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^g. \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

Since the second term in (49) and the second term in (50) are independent of  $n_h$ , the minimization of the expected variance of (45) reduces to minimizing:

$$2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} (x_{hj}^{-1} - x_{hi}^{-1})(\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij} + \sigma^2 \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^{g-1}. \quad (51)$$

Since (51) equals (42), the proof is completed.

**Remark 5.** Under *Model II* with the intercept term the minimization of the expected variance in terms of  $n_h$  amounts to the minimization of the function (42) involving the joint probabilities, which differ according to the chosen  $\pi$ PS sampling method.

**Remark 6.** Since the  $A_h^*$  in (43) and the  $B_h^*$  in (44) are the known values, minimizing (42) in terms of  $n_h$  subject to the condition (5) is a simple optimization problem.

**Remark 7.**  $\Delta_\xi$  in (50) is an alternative form to (11), which is the expected variance of the H-T estimator under the model (10) without the intercept term. Hence the expected variance of the H-T estimator under *Model II* with the intercept term consists of (11) plus the additional terms, as shown in (49).

**Corollary 1.** *Under the Model II with  $\alpha = 0$ , the sample allocation problem for minimizing the expected variance of the H-T estimator under any  $\pi$ PS sampling is equivalent to minimizing:*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} x_{hi}^{g-1} . \quad (52)$$

**Proof.** When  $\alpha = 0$ , (49) in Theorem 3 reduces to simply  $\Delta_\xi$ , which is expressed as (50). The second term in (50) does not depend on  $n_h$ , and the minimization of (50) reduces to the one of (52). Hence, we have the corollary.

**Remark 8.** (52) does not depend on the joint probabilities.

**Remark 9.** It is interesting to note that when solving for  $n_h$  by using the Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda$  to minimize (52) subject to the condition (5), it gives

(15), which is the sample allocation under the model (10). This is because the model (10) is *Model II* with  $\alpha = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.** *Under Model II, the sample allocation problem for Sampford's sampling method in minimizing the expected variance of the H-T estimator, when using the joint probabilities (20) correct to  $O(N_h^{-4})$ , is equivalent to minimizing:*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H C_h^* n_h + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{D_h^*}{n_h}, \quad (53)$$

where

$$C_h^* = 2\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij1} \right\}, \quad (54)$$

and

$$D_h^* = B_h^* - 2\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij2} \right\}. \quad (55)$$

**Proof.** Substituting (20) in the first term of (42) and using (22) and (23), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{A_h^*}{n_h^2} &= 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{X_h^2}{n_h^2} n_h (n_h - 1) \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hj}^{-1} - x_{hi}^{-1}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) p_{hi} p_{hj} (n_h \pi_{hij1} + \pi_{hij2}) \right\} \\ &= 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n_h} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) (n_h \pi_{hij1} + \pi_{hij2}) \right\} \\ &= 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij1} \right\} \\ &\quad + 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij2} \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (56)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& -2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij1} \right\} \\
& -2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij2} \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Since the second and third terms in (56) are independent of  $n_h$ , the minimization of (56) reduces to minimizing the other terms:

$$\begin{aligned}
& 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij1} \right\} \\
& -2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij2} \right\}.
\end{aligned} \tag{57}$$

Thus, the minimization of (42) with (43) and (44) amounts to minimizing

$$\begin{aligned}
& 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij1} \right\} \\
& -2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij2} \right\} \\
& + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{B_h^*}{n_h}.
\end{aligned} \tag{58}$$

Accordingly, the following reduced form from (58) can be obtained.

$$\begin{aligned}
& 2\alpha \sum_{h=1}^H n_h \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij1} \right\} \\
& + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{1}{n_h} \left[ B_h^* - 2\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} \sum_{j>i}^{N_h} \left\{ (x_{hi} - x_{hj}) (\alpha x_{hi}^{-1} + \beta) \pi_{hij2} \right\} \right]
\end{aligned} \tag{59}$$

Hence, we have proved the theorem.

**Remark 10.** Since the  $C_h^*$  in (54) and the  $D_h^*$  in (55) are the known values, the minimization of (53) subject to (5) is a simple allocation problem in terms of  $n_h$ .

**Remark 11.** In order to find a solution for  $n_h$ , we may define the following optimization problem:

*Minimize*

$$\sum_{h=1}^H C_h^* n_h + \sum_{h=1}^H \frac{D_h^*}{n_h} \quad (60)$$

*subject to*  $\sum_{h=1}^H n_h = n$  in (5).

The solution to this optimization problem easily solved by convex mathematical programming algorithms will provide an optimum sample allocation under *Model II* in using Sampford's method. As discussed in Remark 4, the conditions (39), (40) and (41) can be also used with preferences.

#### 4. Simulations

To examine sample allocation under Sampford's method, we considered the super-population *Model II* given in Hansen *et al.* (1983, p. 781): the positive auxiliary characteristic  $X$  has a gamma distribution with density function  $0.4x_{hi} \exp(-x_{hi}/5)$  and the characteristic  $Y$  under study, conditional on  $X$ , has a gamma distribution with density function  $1/(b^c \Gamma(c)) y_{hi}^{c-1} \exp(-y_{hi}/b)$  where  $b = 1.25x_{hi}^{3/2} (8 + 5x_{hi})^{-1}$  and  $c = 0.04x_{hi}^{-3/2} (8 + 5x_{hi})^2$ . Accordingly,



$$E_{\xi}(y_{hi} | x_{hi}) = 0.4 + 0.25x_{hi} \quad (61)$$

and

$$V_{\xi}(y_{hi} | x_{hi}) = 0.0625x_{hi}^{3/2}. \quad (62)$$

Finite populations with sizes 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, 180, 210, 240, 270, and 300 were generated from the super-population. The value of the characteristic  $X$  is assumed to be known for each unit in each finite population. Each finite population was divided into 3 strata and each stratum has the same size (e.g., 10, 10, and 10 for size 30). We considered two types of stratification: (A) The units in the finite population are arranged in increasing order of the value of  $X$  and the first  $N_1$  are considered as stratum 1 and the second  $N_2$  as stratum 2 and the remaining  $N_3$  as stratum 3; (B) The units in the finite population are randomly assigned to each stratum.

Before selection, the units in each stratum were arranged in increasing order of the value of  $X$ , so that  $x_{h1} \leq x_{h2} \leq \dots \leq x_{hN_h}$ . The total sample size  $n$  for each population is 10 percent of each population size, but for the three population sizes 30, 60 and 90,  $n = 10$ , which is to be allocated so that at least two units are to be chosen from each stratum.

The comparison between the true optimal allocation and the model allocation according to the type of stratification is given in the following tables. The true optimal allocation is the solution to the optimization problem given by the minimization of (24) subject to (5), while the model allocation is the solution to that given by the one of (60) under (5) in Remark 11. Those

solutions satisfying  $n_h p_{hi} < 1$  were obtained using ‘nonlinear programming (NLP) Procedure’ of SAS/OR running convex mathematical programming algorithms. See SAS/OR (2018).

TABLE 1  
*Comparison of true optimal allocation and model allocation  
for Stratification Type A*

$N$	$n$	True Optimal Allocation			Model Allocation			R.E.
		$n_1$	$n_2$	$n_3$	$n_1$	$n_2$	$n_3$	
30	10	2	3	5	2	3	5	1.0000
		(1.64)	(3.29)	(5.07)	(2.13)	(3.12)	(4.75)	
60	10	2	3	5	2	3	5	1.0000
		(1.57)	(3.36)	(5.07)	(2.06)	(3.05)	(4.89)	
90	10	2	3	5	2	3	5	1.0000
		(1.63)	(3.19)	(5.18)	(1.85)	(2.87)	(5.28)	
120	12	2	4	6	2	4	6	1.0000
		(1.97)	(3.79)	(6.24)	(2.28)	(3.40)	(6.32)	
150	15	2	5	8	3	4	8	1.0011
		(2.41)	(4.43)	(8.16)	(2.90)	(4.26)	(7.84)	
180	18	3	5	10	4	5	9	1.0232
		(2.93)	(5.20)	(9.87)	(3.42)	(5.16)	(9.42)	
210	21	3	6	12	4	6	11	1.0102
		(3.29)	(5.71)	(12.00)	(3.95)	(5.97)	(11.08)	
240	24	4	7	13	5	7	12	1.0189
		(3.85)	(6.83)	(13.32)	(4.70)	(6.91)	(12.39)	
270	27	4	8	15	5	8	14	1.0026
		(4.36)	(8.05)	(14.59)	(5.27)	(7.76)	(13.97)	
300	30	5	9	16	6	9	15	1.0092
		(4.98)	(9.01)	(16.01)	(5.94)	(8.60)	(15.46)	

Note: Figures in parentheses are unrounded values and R.E. is the relative efficiency calculated as the variance (9) for model allocation divided by that for true optimal allocation.

Table 1 for stratification type A shows that for the first four populations, the true optimal allocation and model allocation coincide, and for the other populations, the two allocations are very similar, resulting in the relative

efficiency (R.E.), defined as the variance of the H-T estimator for model allocation over that for true optimal allocation, being equal to 1 or very close to 1. Table 2 shows that for stratification type B the model allocation for the first two populations is slightly different from the true optimal allocation, and for the others the two allocations are equal. Accordingly, it shows that the model allocation is a good alternative to the true optimal allocation.

TABLE 2  
*Comparison of true optimal allocation and model allocation  
for Stratification Type B*

$N$	$n$	True Optimal Allocation			Model Allocation			R.E.
		$n_1$	$n_2$	$n_3$	$n_1$	$n_2$	$n_3$	
30	10	3	4	3	3	3	4	1.1082
		(2.52)	(4.11)	(3.37)	(2.82)	(3.51)	(3.67)	
60	10	3	3	4	3	4	3	1.0386
		(3.50)	(2.97)	(3.53)	(3.27)	(3.50)	(3.23)	
90	10	3	3	4	3	3	4	1.0000
		(3.13)	(3.24)	(3.63)	(3.26)	(3.16)	(3.58)	
120	12	4	4	4	4	4	4	1.0000
		(4.15)	(3.56)	(4.29)	(4.18)	(3.86)	(3.96)	
150	15	5	5	5	5	5	5	1.0000
		(5.16)	(4.48)	(5.36)	(5.23)	(4.81)	(4.96)	
180	18	6	6	6	6	6	6	1.0000
		(5.59)	(5.99)	(6.42)	(5.96)	(5.99)	(6.05)	
210	21	7	7	7	7	7	7	1.0000
		(7.26)	(6.67)	(7.07)	(6.84)	(7.29)	(6.87)	
240	24	8	8	8	8	8	8	1.0000
		(7.57)	(8.02)	(8.41)	(8.29)	(7.70)	(8.01)	
270	27	9	9	9	9	9	9	1.0000
		(8.42)	(9.37)	(9.21)	(9.11)	(8.96)	(8.93)	
300	30	10	10	10	10	10	10	1.0000
		(9.65)	(10.08)	(10.27)	(10.45)	(9.68)	(9.87)	

Note: See Table 1

## 5. Concluding remarks

We have addressed the topic of efficient sample allocation in stratified samples using more general super-population regression models than those investigated by Rao (1968). Under more general models that include an intercept term, we have developed several theorems that are useful for deciding sample allocation in  $\pi PS$  sampling designs. Also, through the theorems we have shown how to apply this sample allocation theory for Sampford's (1967) sampling method, one of the more common  $\pi PS$  sampling designs used in survey practice.

Based on the theorems developed in this paper, the optimization problem with respect to the stratum sample sizes can be solved by using software involving convex mathematical programming algorithms. This is a straightforward approach for sample allocation when using more efficient  $\pi PS$  sampling methods.

Also, although we assumed that the super-population parameters are known for the two models, they can be estimated in practice. Including Harvey (1976), Godfrey *et al.* (1984), and Särndal & Wright (1984), there would be many useful references for estimation of model parameters.

In addition to Sampford's sampling, the approach can be applied to a variety of  $\pi PS$  sampling without replacement designs. In future work, it will be important to extend the theory and methods described here to allocation problems under more complicated super-population models and situations where the super-population model can vary across strata. The approach may

also be useful in implementing more sophisticated survey designs such as responsive designs, suggested by Groves and Heeringa (2006), to achieve higher quality statistics.

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