

# Challenges and Strategies in Dealing with Non-Probability Survey Samples

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December 6, 2023 ISTAT Workshop

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- 3 Calibration and Doubly Robust Estimation
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# Non-Probability Survey Samples

- What is a non-probability sample?

**A sample with unknown participation/inclusion/selection mechanisms and an unknown sampled population**

- Examples of non-probability samples
  - Samples selected from web- or phone-panels
  - Volunteer based samples
  - Convenient samples
  - Incomplete administrative records
  - ... ..

# Non-Probability Survey Samples

- Probability survey samples with large nonresponse rates are essentially non-probability samples
- Xiao-Li Meng: in the discussion of Wu (2022)

*There is no such thing as probability sample in real life!*

- Responses from Wu (2022):

*For human populations, this is probably a defensible statement since any rigorous rules and precise procedures are almost surely as aspiration, not prescription.*

*Probability samples, however, do exist in other fields such as business and establishment surveys, agricultural surveys, and natural resource inventory surveys.*

# Non-Probability Survey Samples

- We heard of people talking ...

*Non-probability samples are biased samples. They are difficult to handle.*

- All non-iid samples are biased. Even probability samples are biased (unless it is a simple random sample).
- We are not worried about the biased nature of probability samples since the biases can be corrected by suitable weighting using the known sample inclusions probabilities.

## **The HT Estimator!**

J.N.K. Rao (2005): The NHT estimator. (Narain, 1951; Horvitz and Thompson, 1952)

# Non-Probability Survey Samples

- Three major challenges in dealing with non-probability samples:
  - the unknown sample participation/inclusion/selection mechanisms
  - the unknown sampled population
  - the dearth of auxiliary population information required for valid estimation and inference
- Where do we start? Assumptions, assumptions, ... ..

*All models are wrong, but some are useful.* – George Box

# The Two-Sample Framework

- The finite population  $\mathcal{U} = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$  consists of  $N$  labelled units; associated with unit  $i$  are
  - auxiliary variables  $\mathbf{x}_i$
  - study variable  $y_i$  (the variable of interest)

The goal is to estimate  $\mu_y = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$  for the study variable  $y$

- $\mathcal{S}_A$ : A non-probability sample of size  $n_A$  from  $\mathcal{U}$  with data

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i \in \mathcal{S}_A\}$$

- An existing reference probability sample  $\mathcal{S}_B$  containing information on  $\mathbf{x}$  (but not on  $y$ ) from the same target population

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, d_i^B), i \in \mathcal{S}_B\},$$

where  $d_i^B$  are the design weights for the sample  $\mathcal{S}_B$



# Two Statistical Models

- A model  $q$  for participation probabilities (propensity scores)
  - Let  $R_i = I(i \in \mathcal{S}_A)$  be the indicator variable for unit  $i$  being included in the non-probability sample  $\mathcal{S}_A$
  - The participation probabilities (propensity scores) are defined as

$$\pi_i^A = P(R_i = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, y_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

- The model  $q$  determines the joint distribution of  $\{(R_i, \mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$  over the target finite population
- A model  $\xi$  for the outcome regression of  $y$  given  $\mathbf{x}$ 
  - The first two moments of the model

$$m_i = E_\xi(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i), \quad v_i = V_\xi(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

- A semiparametric model with specified form  $m_i = m(\mathbf{x}_i, \beta)$
- A linear regression model:  $m_i = \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta$

# Two Key Assumptions for the participation Mechanism

- A1** The participation indicator  $R_i$  and the study variable  $y_i$  are independent given the set of covariates  $\mathbf{x}_i$ :

$$(R_i \perp\!\!\!\perp y_i) \mid \mathbf{x}_i$$

(The ignorability assumption: similar to “missing-at-random” (MAR) for missing data)

- A2** All units have non-zero participation probabilities:

$$\pi_i^A > 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

(The positivity assumption)

# A Data Integration Problem

- A non-probability sample with information on  $(\mathbf{x}, y)$

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i \in \mathcal{S}_A\}$$

- An existing reference probability sample with information on  $\mathbf{x}$

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, d_i^B) i \in \mathcal{S}_B\}$$

- The requirement that  $\mathbf{x}$  is observed for both  $\mathcal{S}_A$  and  $\mathcal{S}_B$  can be problematic

- Data integration for valid statistical inference:

- Each of  $\mathcal{S}_A$  and  $\mathcal{S}_B$  alone does not lead to valid inference on  $\mu_y$
- Combine information from  $\mathcal{S}_A$  and  $\mathcal{S}_B$  for valid inference on  $\mu_y$

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# Inverse Probability Weighted (IPW) Estimators

- Let  $\hat{\pi}_i^A$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{S}_A$  be the estimated participation probabilities
- The IPW estimator of  $\mu_y$  is given by

$$\hat{\mu}_{yIPW} = \frac{1}{\hat{N}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{y_i}{\hat{\pi}_i^A}$$

where  $\hat{N} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} (\hat{\pi}_i^A)^{-1}$

- The IPW estimator is an application of the HT estimator and the Hájek estimator from survey sampling
- The performance of  $\hat{\mu}_{yIPW}$  depends on the behaviour of the estimated participation probabilities  $\hat{\pi}_i^A$

# Methods for Estimating Participation Probabilities

- Parametric methods
  - The pooled sample method (Valliant and Dever, 2011)
  - The pseudo maximum likelihood method (Chen, Li and Wu, 2020)
  - The two-step method (Wang, Valliant and Li, 2021)
- Nonparametric methods (Wu, 2022)
- Tree-based methods (Chu and Beaumont, 2019)

# The Method of Chen, Li and Wu (2020)

- Consider a parametric model  $\pi_i^A = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$
- An example: the logistic regression model

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha})} = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha})}$$

- The full-likelihood function

$$L(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \prod_{i=1}^N (\pi_i^A)^{R_i} (1 - \pi_i^A)^{1-R_i}$$

- The full log-likelihood function

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) &= \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ R_i \log \pi_i^A + (1 - R_i) \log (1 - \pi_i^A) \right\} \\ &= \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \log \left\{ \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})} \right\} + \sum_{i=1}^N \log \{ 1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \} \end{aligned}$$

# The Method of Chen, Li and Wu (2020)

- The pseudo log-likelihood function

$$\ell_1(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \log \left\{ \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})} \right\} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \log \{ 1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \}$$

- Under the probability sampling design,  $p$ , for sample  $\mathcal{S}_B$ :

$$E_p \left\{ \ell_1(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) \right\} = \ell(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

- The pseudo log-likelihood function  $\ell_1(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$  is valid replacement of the true log-likelihood function  $\ell(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$



# The Method of Chen, Li and Wu (2020)

- The pseudo score functions, defined as  $U_1(\alpha) = \partial \ell_1(\alpha) / \partial \alpha$ , are given by

$$U_1(\alpha) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\pi'_i(\alpha)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) \{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)\}} - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \frac{\pi'_i(\alpha)}{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)}$$

where  $\pi'_i(\alpha) = \partial \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) / \partial \alpha$

- The pseudo score functions are unbiased under the joint randomization of the participation model  $p$  and the survey design  $p$  (for  $\mathcal{S}_B$ ):

$$E_{qp}\{U_1(\alpha_0)\} = \mathbf{0}$$

where  $\alpha_0$  is the true value of the model parameters  $\alpha$

- Score functions are optimal among all unbiased estimating functions (Godambe, 1960)

# The Method of Valliant and Dever (2011)

- Consider the pooled sample:  $\mathcal{S}_A \cup \mathcal{S}_B$
- Model  $\{D_i, i \in \mathcal{S}_A \cup \mathcal{S}_B\}$  where

$$D_i = 1 \text{ if } i \in \mathcal{S}_A ; \quad D_i = 0 \text{ if } i \in \mathcal{S}_B$$

- Note: the participation model  $q$  does not lead to a meaningful model on the  $D_i$ 's
- The full log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \log\{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathcal{S}_A} \log\{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\}$$

- Estimate  $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathcal{S}_A} \log\{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\}$  using data from  $\mathcal{S}_B$

# The Method of Valliant and Dever (2011)

- The objective function of Valliant and Dever (2011)

$$\ell_2(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \log\{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} w_i \log\{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\}$$

where  $w_i$  are re-scaled from  $d_i^B$  such that  $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} w_i = \hat{N}_B - n_A$   
and  $\hat{N}_B = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B$

- The functions  $\mathbf{U}_2(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \partial \ell_2(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) / \partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}$  are given by

$$\mathbf{U}_2(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\pi'_i(\boldsymbol{\alpha})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})} - \left(1 - \frac{n_A}{\hat{N}_B}\right) \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \frac{\pi'_i(\boldsymbol{\alpha})}{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})}$$

- We only have  $E_{qp}\{\mathbf{U}_2(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_0)\} \doteq \mathbf{0}$  under two scenarios
  - $\mathcal{S}_A$  is a simple random sample from the target population
  - The sampling fraction  $n_A/N$  is very small (i.e.,  $n_A/N = o(1)$ )

# The Method of Wang, Valliant and Li (2021)

- A method for correcting biases in Valliant and Dever (2011)
- Consider an augmented population:  $\mathcal{S}_A^* \cup \mathcal{U}$
- Model  $\{\delta_i, i \in \mathcal{S}_A^* \cup \mathcal{U}\}$  where

$$\delta_i = 1 \text{ if } i \in \mathcal{S}_A^* ; \quad \delta_i = 0 \text{ if } i \in \mathcal{U}$$

- The authors argue that  $\pi_i^A = p_i / (1 - p_i)$  where

$$\pi_i^A = P(i \in \mathcal{U}) \quad \text{and} \quad p_i = P(i \in \mathcal{S}_A^* \mid \mathcal{S}_A^* \cup \mathcal{U})$$

- Note: the participation model  $q$  does not lead to a meaningful model on the  $\delta_i$ 's

# The Method of Wang, Valliant and Li (2021)

- The objective function

$$\ell_3(\alpha) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \log \left\{ \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)}{1 + \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)} \right\} - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \log \{ 1 + \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) \}$$

- Note:  $E_p\{\ell_3(\alpha)\} \neq \ell(\alpha)$ , not a likelihood-based objective function
- The functions  $\mathbf{U}_3(\alpha) = \partial \ell_3(\alpha) / \partial \alpha$  are given by

$$\mathbf{U}_3(\alpha) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\pi'_i(\alpha)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) \{ 1 + \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) \}} - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \frac{\pi'_i(\alpha)}{1 + \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)}$$

- The result  $E_{qp}\{\mathbf{U}_3(\alpha_0)\} = \mathbf{0}$  holds for general cases
- Wang, Valliant and Li (2021) can be viewed as a special case of estimating equations based methods, among them the score functions are optimal (Godambe, 1960)

# Nonparametric Estimation of Participation Probabilities

- The participation probabilities

$$\pi_i^A = P(R_i = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = E_q(R_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

are the conditional mean function of  $R$  given  $\mathbf{x}$

- The “standard” Nadaraya-Watson kernel regression estimator of  $\pi(\mathbf{x})$  is given by

$$\tilde{\pi}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N K_h(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_j) R_j}{\sum_{j=1}^N K_h(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_j)}$$

- The nonparametric kernel regression estimator of the propensity scores is given by (Yuan et al., 2023)

$$\hat{\pi}_i^A = \hat{\pi}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{S}_A} K_h(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_j^B K_h(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)}, \quad i \in \mathcal{S}_A$$

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# Model-based Prediction (MP)

- Two “model-based prediction estimators” for  $\mu_y = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$

$$\tilde{\mu}_{yMP1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{m}_i, \quad \tilde{\mu}_{yMP2} = \frac{1}{N} \left\{ \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} (y_i - \hat{m}_i) + \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{m}_i \right\}$$

where  $\hat{m}_i$  is an estimate for  $m_i = E_{\xi}(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i)$

- Two “practical” model-based prediction estimators for  $\mu_y$

$$\hat{\mu}_{yMP1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \hat{m}_i, \quad \hat{\mu}_{yMP2} = \frac{1}{N} \left\{ \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} (y_i - \hat{m}_i) + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \hat{m}_i \right\}$$

The so-called Mass-Imputation estimators (Kim et al., 2021)

- Under a linear model (with an intercept), we have

$$\hat{m}_i = \mathbf{x}_i^T \hat{\beta} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} (y_i - \hat{m}_i) = 0$$



# Doubly Robust (DR) Estimators

- The IPW estimators are a general tool for any  $y$
- The MP estimators are  $y$ -specific, and require a model  $\xi$  on  $y \mid \mathbf{x}$
- The “standard” doubly robust estimator of  $\mu_y$

$$\tilde{\mu}_{DR} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{y_i - \hat{m}_i}{\hat{\pi}_i^A} + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{m}_i$$

- The doubly robust estimator of Chen et al. (2020)

$$\hat{\mu}_{DR2} = \frac{1}{\hat{N}^A} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{y_i - \hat{m}_i}{\hat{\pi}_i^A} + \frac{1}{\hat{N}^B} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \hat{m}_i$$

- The estimator  $\hat{\mu}_{DR2}$  is consistent if one of the two models,  $q$  on  $(R_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i)$  and  $\xi$  on  $(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i)$ , is correctly specified
- The concept of double robustness is rooted in model-assisted estimation in survey sampling (Cassel et al., 1976)

# Calibration-based Methods

- The pseudo maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\alpha}$  for a parametric form  $\pi_i^A = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)$  is the solution to the pseudo score equations
- Estimating equations based approach with the assumed parametric form  $\pi_i^A = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)$ : The estimator  $\hat{\alpha}$  solves

$$\mathbf{G}(\alpha) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)} - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) = \mathbf{0}$$

with a user-specified  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)$

- The pseudo maximum likelihood method of Chen et al. (2020) corresponds to  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) = \pi'_i(\alpha) / \{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)\}$
- The method of Wang et al. (2021) corresponds to  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha) = \pi'_i(\alpha) / \{1 + \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha)\}$
- Consistency of estimating equations based estimator  $\hat{\alpha}$  is (loosely) argued through  $E_{qp}\{\mathbf{G}(\alpha_0)\} = \mathbf{0}$

# The Calibrated IPW Estimator

- The estimating functions based method becomes a calibration method if we choose  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \mathbf{x}_i$ :

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\mathbf{x}_i}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \mathbf{x}_i \quad \left( \text{or } \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  have the same dimensions

- The method leads to the so-called calibrated IPW estimator (Chen et al., 2020; Rao, 2021; Beaumont and Rao, 2021; Chen et al., 2023)

$$\hat{\mu}_{yIPW} = \frac{1}{\hat{N}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{y_i}{\hat{\pi}_i^A},$$

where  $\hat{\pi}_i^A = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}})$  and  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$  solves calibration equations in (1)

# The Calibrated IPW Estimator

- The calibrated IPW estimator is approximately model-unbiased under a linear regression model  $\xi$  with  $m_i = E(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\xi p} \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{y_i}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}})} \right\} &= E_p \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}})} \right\} \\ &= E_p \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \mathbf{x}_i \right)^T \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = E_{\xi}(\mu_y) \end{aligned}$$

- The calibrated IPW estimator is doubly robust under a linear regression model
- The calibrated IPW estimator does not require the estimation of the regression coefficients  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$

# The Calibrated IPW Estimator

- The “standard” two-sample framework requires all auxiliary variables  $\mathbf{x}$  be available in both  $\mathcal{S}_A$  and  $\mathcal{S}_B$
- A research problem:

How to combine auxiliary information from two (or more) reference probability samples as well as information from census?

- The calibration-based approach, with  $\hat{\alpha}$  solving

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\mathbf{x}_i}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \mathbf{x}_i \quad \left( \text{or } \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i \right),$$

allows components of the “population controls”  $\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i$  to be estimated from different reference probability samples or from census

# The Calibrated IPW Estimator

- Need an iterative procedure for solving

$$\mathbf{G}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{\mathbf{x}_i}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha})} - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

- Assume  $\pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = g(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha})$  for some monotone increasing smooth inverse link function  $g(\cdot)$
- The “Hessian matrix” is given by

$$\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}} \mathbf{G}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_A} \frac{g'(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{\{g(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha})\}^2} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^T,$$

- The matrix  $\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$  is negative definite, as long as  $\{\mathbf{x}_i, i \in \mathcal{S}_A\}$  is of full rank
- The Newton-Raphson procedure is guaranteed to converge

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# A Simple Scenario

- A major problem with IPW estimators: sensitive to small estimated participation probabilities
- Suppose  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$ , with  $x_1$  having two levels and  $x_2$  having three levels,
- There are a total of  $K = 2 \times 3 = 6$  subpopulations defined by  $\mathbf{x}$
- Within each subpopulation, the participation probabilities  $\pi_i = P(i \in \mathcal{S}_A | \mathbf{x}_i) = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i)$  are a constant
- More generally, the components of  $\mathbf{x}$  are all categorical or ordinal
- The  $\mathcal{S}_A$  can be poststratified into  $\mathcal{S}_A = \mathcal{S}_{A1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{S}_{AK}$  corresponding to the cross-classification of sampled units using the combinations of levels of the  $\mathbf{x}$  variables.
- Let  $n_k$  be the size of  $\mathcal{S}_{Ak}$  and  $N_k$  be the size of the corresponding subpopulation



# A Simple Scenario

- The participation probabilities

$$\pi_i^A = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i) = E_q(n_k)/N_k \quad \text{for } k \in \mathcal{S}_{Ak}$$

- The estimated participation probabilities  $\hat{\pi}_i^A = n_k/\hat{N}_k$  for  $i \in \mathcal{S}_{Ak}$ , where  $\hat{N}_k$  is an estimate of  $N_k$
- The IPW estimator  $\hat{\mu}_{yIPW}$  reduces to the poststratified estimator

$$\hat{\mu}_{yPST} = \frac{1}{\hat{N}^A} \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{Ak}} \frac{y_i}{\hat{\pi}_i^A} = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{W}_k \bar{y}_k$$

where  $\bar{y}_k = n_k^{-1} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{Ak}} y_i$ ,  $\hat{W}_k = \hat{N}_k/\hat{N}^A$  and  $\hat{N}^A = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{N}_k$

- Poststratify  $\mathcal{S}_B$  based on  $\mathbf{x}$ :  $\mathcal{S}_B = \mathcal{S}_{B1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{S}_{BK}$
- Use  $\hat{N}_k = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{Bk}} d_i^B$  and  $\hat{N}^A = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B$

# A General Procedure for Poststratification (Wu, 2022)

- The dimension of auxiliary variables  $\mathbf{x}$  is not low and/or some components of  $\mathbf{x}$  are continuous
- The first part of the procedure: Form homogeneous groups in  $\mathcal{S}_A$  in terms of participation probabilities
  - Compute the initial  $\hat{\pi}_i^A = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\alpha})$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{S}_A$  based on an assumed parametric model,  $q$ .
  - Choose  $K$  such that  $n_A = m_A K$ , where  $m_A$  is an integer
  - Order the initial estimated participation probabilities

$$\hat{\pi}_{(1)}^A \leq \hat{\pi}_{(2)}^A \leq \cdots \leq \hat{\pi}_{(n_A)}^A$$

- Let  $\mathcal{S}_{A1}$  be the set of the first  $m_A$  units in the sequence,  $\mathcal{S}_{A2}$  be the second  $m_A$  units in the sequence, and so on
- The poststratified estimator of  $\mu_y$  is computed as

$$\hat{\mu}_{yPST} = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{W}_k \bar{y}_k$$

# A General Procedure for Poststratification (Wu, 2022)

- The second part of the procedure: Obtain the estimated stratum weights  $\hat{W}_k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$  using the reference probability sample  $\mathcal{S}_B$

- Determine the strata boundaries as  $b_k = \max\{\hat{\pi}_i^A : i \in \mathcal{S}_{A_k}\}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K - 1$ , with  $b_0 = 0$  and  $b_K = 1$
- Compute  $\hat{\pi}_i = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\alpha})$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{S}_B$ .
- Define  $\mathcal{S}_{Bk} = \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{S}_B, b_{k-1} < \hat{\pi}_i \leq b_k\}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .
- Calculate  $\hat{N}_k = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{Bk}} d_i^B$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .

The estimated stratum weights  $\hat{W}_k = \hat{N}_k / \hat{N}^B$ ,  $\hat{N}^B = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_B} d_i^B$

- The choice of  $K$ :
  - The balance between homogeneity of the units within each post-stratum (in terms of participation probabilities) and the stability of the poststratified estimator (in terms of the stratum sample sizes)
  - When  $n_A$  is small:  $K = 5$
  - When  $n_A$  is not small: Choose  $K \geq 5$  to ensure that  $m_A \geq 30$

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# Undercoverage Problems

- Assumption **A1**:  $(R_i \perp\!\!\!\perp y_i) \mid \mathbf{x}_i$
- Assumption **A1** may be reasonable if:

All key factors and features that may characterize behaviours for participation in the survey are included in the sample data as part of the  $\mathbf{x}$  variables for  $\mathcal{S}_A$  (and are also available in the reference probability sample  $\mathcal{S}_B$ )

- Assumption **A2**:  $\pi_i^A = P(R_i = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, y_i) > 0$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$
- Violations of **A2** lead to undercoverage problems:

If  $\pi_i^A = 0$  for  $i \in \mathcal{U}_0$ , then the subpopulation  $\mathcal{U}_0$  is not represented in any way by the sample  $\mathcal{S}_A$ .

# Undercoverage Problems

- Violation of **A2** leads to invalid IPW-based estimation methods even if **A1** holds
- A basic result on inverse probability weighting for finite populations:

The Horvitz-Thompson estimator

$$\hat{\mu}_{yHT} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{y_i}{\pi_i}$$

is design-unbiased for  $\mu_y$  if and only if  $\pi_i > 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

# Undercoverage Problems

- Violation of **A2** also leads to invalid model-based prediction methods even if **A1** holds
- Assumption **A1**,  $(R_i \perp\!\!\!\perp y_i) \mid \mathbf{x}_i$ , implies that

$$E_{\xi}(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, R_i = 1) = E_{\xi}(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i) \quad (2)$$

so the model parameters  $\beta$  in  $m_i = E_{\xi}(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = m(\mathbf{x}_i, \beta)$  can be estimated using  $\{(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i), i \in \mathcal{S}_A\}$  (with  $R_i = 1$ )

- However, equation (2) implicitly requires  $P(R_i = 1) > 0$ , which also requires  $P(R_i = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i) > 0$

# Undercoverage Problems

- The severity of undercoverage depending on
  - (i) the size of the uncovered subpopulation  $\mathcal{U}_0$
  - (ii) the difference between  $\mathcal{U}_0$  and the rest of the population
- Two possible scenarios of undercoverage (Chen et al., 2023):
  - (i) stochastic undercoverage
  - (ii) deterministic undercoverage
- The calibrated IPW estimator can be a useful tool for dealing with undercoverage if
  - (i) a linear outcome regression model is suitable (no need to estimate  $\beta$ )
  - (ii) population controls of auxiliary variables are reliable
- Post-stratification can also be a useful tool



# Undercoverage - A Proposed Solution (Chen et al., 2023)

- Any full solutions to undercoverage problems require
  - A correct identification of

$$\mathcal{U}_0 = \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{U} \text{ and } \pi_i^A = 0\}, \quad \mathcal{U}_1 = \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{U} \text{ and } \pi_i^A > 0\}$$

- Additional information from  $\mathcal{U}_1$  on  $y$
- The concept of (an unspecified) accessibility function  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ , a convex function to equivalently define (through an unknown cut-off value,  $c$ ) (Chen et al., 2023)

$$\mathcal{U}_0 = \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{U} \text{ and } \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \leq c\}, \quad \mathcal{U}_1 = \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{U} \text{ and } \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) > c\}$$

- Identify  $\mathcal{U}_0$  and  $\mathcal{U}_1$  through a convex hull partition of  $\mathcal{S}_B$

$$\mathcal{S}_B = \mathcal{S}_{B,0} \cup \mathcal{S}_{B,1}$$

- A new subsample from  $\mathcal{S}_{B,0}$  with information on  $y$

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# “Survey Design” for Non-Probability Samples

- Yes, “design” is part of a non-probability survey
- The first major design question: What types of auxiliary variables to be included for data collection

Variables which might play a role in participation behaviour or have certain prediction power for the study variable need to be included. For human populations, demographic variables and social-economic indicators should be considered.

- The second major design question: What are the existing (large scale) probability survey samples from the same target population with information on auxiliary variables
- Quality and relevance of auxiliary variables are the keys to the success of a non-probability survey sample

# Inferential Procedures: *Validity* vs *Efficiency*

- Statistical analysis with non-probability samples:
  - *Validity* refers to the consistency of the point estimators (or to a lesser extent: approximate unbiasedness)
  - *Efficiency* is measured by the asymptotic variance
  - *Validity* is the primary goal; *efficiency* is secondary
- Non-probability samples may have a very large sample size
- Large sample sizes are a double-edged sword:
  - When the inferential procedures are valid, large sample sizes lead to more efficient inference
  - When the estimators are biased, large sample sizes make the bias even more pronounced
  - Will a non-probability survey sample with a 80% sampling fraction always provide better estimation results than a small probability sample? (Meng, 2018)

# Do We Still Need Probability Surveys?

- Non-probability samples do not fit into the traditional design-based or model-based inferential frameworks for probability survey samples
- Design-based theory for probability survey samples, however, plays a crucial role in the development of methodologies and strategies in dealing with non-probability samples
- The newfound role of probability survey samples:

*Valid and efficient statistical inference with non-probability samples requires auxiliary information from the target population. A few high quality national probability surveys with carefully designed survey variables can play a pivotal role in analysis of non-probability survey samples.*

– Wu, C. (2022)

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  - Chapter 9: Validity and efficiency for missing data analysis
  - Chapter 17: Analysis of non-probability survey samples

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