



MULTI-ATTEMPT SURVEY METHODS

by

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ABSTRACT

Surveys of households can be done by telephone or by mail or by personal visit, while numerous calls or mailings or visits may be required before getting a response. If only one method is used and if an attempt is conducted in a more or less standard way in all instances, then one can record results by the number of attempts required and see whether there is a trend in the variable of interest as more attempts have to be made. Such a trend can be used as a basis to extrapolate to an unlimited number of attempts and thus to correct for nonresponse caused by limiting attempts to just a few. We give details, for the telephone survey case, of eight sets of model assumptions and how to decide which one to work with. A further example of a mail survey is used to illustrate estimation of a median.

The method is designed to furnish estimates of population proportions. The population is defined as a large but finite realization under survey conditions of values in a row by column array. The rows represent telephone numbers and the columns represent minutes of the time period covered by the survey. The notion of realization covers assignment of interviewer and other chance aspects of the conduct of the survey. The values are whatever answer would have been produced by calling that number at that minute. The values in any row are called a temporal trajectory. Random numbers are used to select telephone numbers and haphazard enumerator availability selects the times. These random devices can then be expected to generate frequencies that will follow a multinomial distribution. The population proportion, being one of the parameters underlying this multinomial distribution, can thus be estimated.

Key Words: Multinomial models, Survey sampling, Temporal trajectory, Telephone survey

1. INTRODUCTION

The method being considered here was introduced in an earlier, rather wide-ranging, paper dealing with case nonresponse (Proctor 1978). Its possible application to telephone surveys was mentioned there, but not explored extensively. We propose here to consider more details of the telephone survey setting and to suggest how the method might fit into current practices. In brief, the method involves calling a random sample of telephone numbers and setting a rather low maximum number of callbacks -- for example, three calls. Data obtained from telephone conversations on the variables of interest are tabulated separately by call. Whatever association exists between no-answer proportion and level of the variable can thereby be detected and corrected by extrapolating to a larger number of calls. We also illustrate how the method could be used to estimate a median in a survey by mail. This second example shows the method's flexibility.

It may be helpful at the outset to alert readers that using the method will require strict adherence to uniformity of approach by the enumerators. While an enumerator will choose when to signal readiness to make a call, the telephone number to be called will be furnished at random from those in the sample to be called. The probabilities in the model derive from the random number tables and so long as the random numbers are honest and the enumerators adhere to instructions the model will be correct.

It was in such a finite population setting that Deming (1953) noted the serious biases that could arise from failure to obtain a response to mail and personal interview surveys. He suggested that an extrapolation approach

provided by Walter Hendricks (1949) might be adapted to reduce the bias by developing some "new type of estimate." This is essentially what the method of this paper affords.

Among the methods for handling case nonresponse that Cochran (1977) reviews, all seem to have certain operational drawbacks. The Hansen-Hurwitz (1946) follow-up method draws a subsample of nonrespondents to a first attempt and subjects this relatively small group to whatever extensive effort seems to be needed to secure a response. The drawbacks are the possibility of distorting the response by the effort required and the possibility of failing to get a response even after expending the effort. When carried to a successful completion, however, the estimate is unbiased.

Other methods such as recording times-at-home for use in weighting factors (Politz-Simmons, 1949) or doing just one callback with a "level playing field" by finding out for everyone when they are likely to be in (Bartholomew, 1961) depend on a degree of careful and truthful information being provided by informants that informants don't uniformly provide.

Other methods such as reassigning for interview in the present survey cases found to be case nonrespondents in earlier surveys (Kish and Hess, 1959) or using herculean efforts to reduce nonresponse (Dillman, 1978) are certainly going to reduce bias, but it is difficult to know by how much.

In my experiences with application of the multi-attempt approach the main difficulty was getting enumerators, or perhaps it was supervisors, to accept reassigning the telephone numbers to enumerators for each attempt. I'm not sure what is the source of the resistance. Perhaps the numbers could be dialed by a modem without the enumerator even knowing what they were. Even the rule

of waiting 5 minutes, then dialing again when a busy signal is detected, could also be incorporated into the attempt [see Groves and Lyberg (1988)]. Certainly, by varying the calling times one may be able to increase somewhat the answering rate, but this will come at the price of an unknown amount of bias. The size of the bias is quite likely small, but not knowing it is unacceptable -- at least I would find it so.

2. MULTI-ATTEMPT TELEPHONE SURVEY METHODS

The enumerators of the telephone survey are to make their calls with temporal spacings entirely dictated by their convenience. The telephone numbers they dial will be randomly assigned to them at each call without regard to who the enumerator is or to any other features. Suppose that four calls ($r=4$) is decided on. The n sampled numbers will all be called in some random order. The no-answers will be randomly reordered and all called. The remaining no-answer numbers will again be reordered randomly and all called and finally the three-time no-answers will be randomly reordered and called a fourth time, again in that re-randomized order. If, at any call, the enumerator arranges to call again at a more convenient time, the follow-up call is still considered part of the initial contact. If refusals are turned over to a supervisor who attempts to convert them to responses, the final result is attributed to the contact of the refusal.

The observed values obtained from the telephone conversations can be such categories as "one household member says Yes and two say No" or "one male of 35 years, registered to vote, and one female of 7 years." The survey objective will be taken to be estimation of the various proportions. The estimates of

such proportions can be furnished with an estimated covariance matrix and thus standard errors for estimates of conditional proportions or of medians or of other parameters based on the proportions can be calculated.

3. POPULATION NOTATION

The population subject to survey will be represented by a collection of all possible telephone numbers, with each having its temporal trajectory. The temporal trajectory of the i th number is denoted $Y_i(t)$ where t indexes, from $t = 1$, to $t = T^*$, all the minutes of those days during which the survey is being carried out. In general, $Y_i(t)$ for a given i will be a sequence of recorded values of the survey variables that would be obtained if a call to the i th telephone number were made at time t , for $t = 1, 2, \dots, T^*$. For illustration, consider the following possible values of $Y_i(t)$.

$Y_i(t) = "W,"$ or not working, if the manner of ringing or a recorded message from the telephone company indicates that the number is not connected.

= " \bar{A} ," or no answer, as when 10 rings go by, an unconverted busy signal sounds, or an answering machine comes on.

= "R" if a refusal is encountered.

= " \bar{E} " if the number is ineligible or not a member of the population of interest (such as a business if the survey is of residences).

= "aN" or someone answers "No" to the survey's query.

= "aU" or someone answers "Undecided."

= "aY" or someone answers "Yes."

In most surveys it is possible to ignore the \bar{W} 's and we will do so here. In this example there are five possible values of $Y_i(t)$ aside from \bar{A} . In the general model below, $K = 5$ and k indexes these categories.

If there are N possible working telephone numbers that can be dialed and if there are T^* minutes that are subject to survey, then NT^* is the size of the finite population subject to survey. That is, each value of each trajectory may be considered a separate population value. It is usually recognized that the proportion of refusals and of item nonresponse, as well as respondent burden, is likely to be high at nighttime and even in the mornings, so that a decision may be made to make calls only during certain most propitious times of certain non-holiday and non-weekend days. Let there be T such minutes during which the enumerators are working. The NT values of $Y_i(t)$ are the surveyed population.

Temporal trajectories, $Y_i(t)$, will be found to be a helpful conceptual device, although it is difficult to see how to establish them empirically in all their detail. Which people are at home at various times determines to a great extent when \bar{A} or R or even which answer will be recorded. The quality of interviewing and the care with which questions are worded, in particular, who is the enumerator, will determine the consistency of aY , aU and aN through time. We can see that it would require careful questioning to determine a complete temporal trajectory for any one telephone number. There are, however, many global features of such trajectories that can and probably should be investigated. Recording time of call, by which enumerator, along with the response, for example, could be made a routine feature of multi-attempt telephone survey practice. Also a subsample of numbers should be

reinterviewed, by a different or by the same enumerator, to ascertain response consistency. This kind of information is, however, entirely inessential to the operation of the multi-attempt method.

Notice that both the $Y_i(t)$ as well as the "stable" values, $Y_i(\sigma)$ to be defined below, are all random quantities. They are drawn from a hypothetical infinite population of survey realizations, or, to be a bit more explicit, of equivalent complete coverages. We may denote by μ the parameter of interest calculated from, say, the $Y_i(\sigma)$ -- from all N of them. Let's say μ is the proportion of aY's among these N quantities. A given realization would pair certain enumerators with certain telephone numbers, while eventually, over all possible realizations, all enumerators would appear as having worked on all telephone numbers. Considering the huge sizes of T and of N it is usually clear that any particular μ will be extremely close to $E(\mu)$ where the expectation is taken over all realizations.

A crude upper bound on the difference between a proportion μ and its expectation over realizations, $E(\mu)$, can be computed as $\sqrt{1/4N}$. Even when N counts only working numbers rather than all possible numbers, this difference should be found to be inconsequential in practice. Derivation of this bound may aid in understanding the method. The following illustration is constructed with unrealistically small values for T and N so as to increase the realism.

Suppose the population to be surveyed is one exchange of 10,000 numbers, and the time is one day from 2 p.m. to 8 p.m., so $T = 360$. Further suppose there is a staff of 100 enumerators working at consoles during the survey. Randomly permute the 10,000 numbers and as the enumerators signal they are ready to make a call, assign them the numbers in order of their signals. A

different realization would be obtained from a different permutation. If all that is recorded is: \bar{A} = no answer, aM = voice answering is judged as male or aF = voice answering is judged as female, then diligent enumerators may manage to get through all 10,000 numbers. We will suppose they did.

The proportion of aM among the 10,000 observations essentially constitutes μ . Actually only 1/360th of the population values have so far been obtained so the real μ 's will be somewhat less variable than the proportion (say \bar{y}) based on the 10,000 calls. For purposes of an upper bound we may roughly suppose the 10,000 observed values (the y_i say) were generated by an additive variance components model as:

$$y_i = \pi + \alpha_i + \beta_j + e_{ij} \quad , \quad (3.1)$$

where π is a grand mean, the α_i 's are household (telephone number) effects, the β_j 's are enumerator effects and e_{ij} are enumerator by household effects.

The total variance (say σ_y^2) as well as the variance components (say σ_α^2 , σ_β^2 and σ_e^2) are each bounded above by $.25 = 1/4$ since the range of y_i is from zero to one and none of the component's range would dare to exceed this. In fact we would definitely expect σ_α^2 to exceed zero and for most collections of enumerators so would σ_β^2 . A crucial finding is that, as realizations are varied, the α_i and the β_j stay roughly constant. That is, the β_j are enumerator biases and, although a particular run of easy or difficult calls may jar this bias a bit, it will not be much. The α_i 's derive from the single person households and others in which answering the phone is assigned to one person. Thus $V(\bar{y}) = \sigma_e^2/N$, and $V(\bar{y}) \ll 1/4N$, giving the above mentioned upper bound on $\mu - E(\mu)$, namely .005.

Oftentimes, there is a preferred method of measurement. It may involve record checks with personal visits and so forth. Let the parameter of interest when calculated from results of preferred measurement methods be denoted μ' . If the survey measurements are biased then this will produce discrepancy between μ and μ' .

It may also happen that the collection of persons reached through the N telephone numbers is larger or smaller than some collection of persons of interest. The survey times may also exclude nighttime hours that if included might reduce the cases of $Y_i(\tau) = \bar{A}$. We will define the quantity μ'' to include the notion of coverage of the so called target population as well as use of the preferred measurement method. Thus the difference $(\mu' - \mu)$ will reflect measurement bias while $(\mu'' - \mu')$ will represent coverage bias. These notions are introduced just to make clear the limitations of our multi-attempts method. It will not solve measurement biases nor coverage problems.

4. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE METHOD

A population parameter of interest could, perhaps, be described as the proportion of aY's, among the NT values of $Y_i(t)$, but some care needs to be taken here. One might suggest defining a summary value for each telephone number depending on which value predominated over the survey period. These values would constitute the vector $Y_i(\sigma)$, say (with σ standing for "stable"). Notice that there will also be some R and \bar{E} values among the $Y_i(\tau)$, as well as some \bar{A} only. Another approach would be simply to use the existing proportions of aY's, of aU's, etc. over the survey period as the summary values for the number. The vectors of proportions may be denoted $\underline{Y}_i(\tau)$ where

each vector has K components. The K proportions based on the $Y_i(\sigma)$ should be very close to the means of the $Y_i(\tau)$. A third, rather refined, approach would be to define the summary variable to be just aY , aN or aU , but to use any time trend there might be in the trajectory to predict the answer which would predominate in the month following the survey period. These quantities may be denoted $Y_i(\pi)$, say (with $\pi = \text{"projected"}$). We anticipate that the differences among such alternative population parameters would be insignificant in any practical sense, although it is also important to be aware of possible exceptions.

For simplicity's sake we will suppose responses for any one trajectory are all aY , all aN or all aU . We also suppose a refusal for i will be a consistent case of $Y_i(t) = R$ for all t , and \bar{E} will also be consistent except when $Y_i(t) = \bar{A}$, of course. Remember there may still be some \bar{A} -only cases, the hard-core no-answer. The outcome of the survey, i.e., how many respond at each of the contacts and what they say, is determined basically by the differing relative frequencies of \bar{A} 's to answers among the $Y_i(t)$ values. One would ordinarily expect these relative frequencies not to change in any systematic way during the survey period. It will happen, however, that the telephone numbers with the relatively more inaccessible aN 's and aU 's and aY 's, as well as \bar{E} 's and R 's will be called more often as later waves focus on nonresponders, and this will be taken into account.

The time from $t = 1$ to $t = T_1$, say, during which all n first attempts are made will be denoted the first-calling period; that from $t = T_1$ to $t = T_2$ during which a second call is made to the no-answers is the second calling period, and so forth. There may be temporal shifts, say diurnal patterns, in

proportions of \bar{A} within the periods and this would not upset distributional assumptions since the random reordering of numbers assigned to be called will overcome this. If there are a few degrees of freedom left over from fitting the observed frequencies to the theoretical ones, departures from such assumptions can be detected if they are pronounced enough.

The many idiosyncratic events occurring to the enumerators, along with the random ordering of the numbers to be called, should insure that the actual times the calls are made will be roughly uniformly distributed over the surveyed times -- as well as equally distributed over the numbers for that wave. Both the total number of times T and the number of telephone numbers N are finite and thus, although we will be supposing the observed frequencies to have a multinomial distribution, the actual distribution is multivariate hypergeometric. The number of minutes in an interval, even in the last calling period from T_{r-1} to T_r , will generally be so large as to be effectively infinite. For example, in one month there are about 10,000 survey minutes. Sample sizes in most telephone surveys are but a very small proportion of the working numbers and so finite population correction factors (fpc's) will not be needed for N either. Since the actual population being sampled has TN values there will be no need to use an fpc.

Let P_1N be the population number of telephone numbers giving the answer aY, or "Yes," as based on $Y_i(\sigma)$. Also, suppose that α_1 is the proportion of no-answers (\bar{A} 's) among the P_1NT values of their corresponding $Y_i(t)$ quantities. Similarly, we define P_2 with α_2 and P_3 with α_3 to refer to those answering "Undecided" and "No," respectively, while P_4 with α_4 and P_5 with α_5 refer to Ineligibles and to Refusals, respectively. If $1 - P_1 - P_2 - P_3 - P_4 - P_5 = \gamma$,

say, is greater than zero, then there is a proportion γ of numbers that are consistent no-answers. The presence of nonworking numbers among the γN can be a problem, since a number where no one is ever at home during the survey period cannot be distinguished from a not-connected number that rings normally.

5. MODEL EQUATIONS

The observed frequencies appear as in the Figure for a case where the variable of interest is a trichotomy. Let us suppose the population number of nonworking numbers is indeed known and our initial sample was of size n_I . We can thus ignore the number of known nonworking numbers and deal with a sample of size $n = n_I - n_W$.

The population can now be visualized as an N by T matrix with entries aY , aU , aN , \bar{E} , R or \bar{A} . In a given row all non \bar{A} 's are the same and are equal to $Y_i(\sigma)$. The data collection process begins by the random selection of a sample of n rows, say $i_1 i_2 \dots i_n$, from the N . Next a selection of n times (columns) $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$ is made in the interval 1 to $t_n = T_1$, and finally a random permutation of the selected n rows say $i(1), i(2) \dots i(n)$ is merged with the times and the values $Y_{i(\ell)}(t_\ell)$, $\ell = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are recorded. From these data the frequencies in Figure 1 can be obtained by tally.

It should be clear by now how the realism of a multinomial model for the frequencies depends not only on the honesty of the random numbers used to sample rows (telephone numbers) but also on the independence of selections of columns (times) from selection of rows achieved by random ordering of the numbers to be called.

In a preliminary fashion we first suppose that, in any row where $Y_i(\sigma) =$ the k th category, the proportion of the T times showing \bar{A} is α_k . The probability

underlying the frequency at the j th attempt in response category k , $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$, is then given by the expression:

$$\pi_{jk} = P_k(1 - \alpha_k)\alpha_k^{j-1}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, r. \quad (5.1)$$

Although this multinomial model provides an interesting special case, it will be strictly correct only if all trajectories in category k have α_k as their proportion of \bar{A} 's.

In order to accommodate to some heterogeneity of trajectories, α_k will be replaced by a three-point distribution with probabilities, W , $1-2W$ and W on corresponding values $\alpha_k - \Delta$, α_k and $\alpha_k + \Delta$. Now (5.1) can be extended to:

$$\pi_{jk} = P_k[W(\alpha_k - \Delta)^{j-1}(1 - \alpha_k + \Delta) + (1-2W)\alpha_k^{j-1}(1 - \alpha_k) + W(\alpha_k + \Delta)^{j-1}(1 - \alpha_k - \Delta)]. \quad (5.2)$$

The value of Δ is set as the minimum, over k , of the smaller of $.95\alpha_k$ or $.95(1 - \alpha_k)$. The quantity $.95$ has been varied from $.50$ to $.99$ for a number of examples and the estimates appear to be unaffected.

The probability underlying the number of no-answers at the last call is just one minus the sum of probabilities in (5.2), namely

$$\pi_{r,K+1} = \sum_{k=1}^K P_k [W(\alpha_k - \Delta)^r + (1-2W)\alpha_k^r + W(\alpha_k + \Delta)^r] + \gamma. \quad (5.3)$$

There are $Kr+1$ observed frequencies and, in addition to the value of n , there are $2K+1$ parameters (K α 's, $(K-1)$ P 's, γ and W) to use in fitting to the frequencies. Any method for fitting a multinomial model that seems convenient may be used. The results should include estimates of the parameters, a goodness of fit statistic, an estimated covariance matrix for the parameter estimates, and a comparison of observed to fitted frequencies.

6. CALCULATION PROCEDURES

The program that was used in the following examples does iterative fitting to a multinomial model in accord with Fisher scoring. First derivatives of the π_{jk} are calculated numerically -- adding and subtracting 10^{-5} from each parameter value in turn and then multiplying the difference in proportions from (5.3) by 5×10^4 . Starting values for the class proportions are obtained as observed proportions after pooling the data over all calls. The corresponding starting values for nonresponse proportions come from the ratio of class frequencies at the second call divided by those at the first call.

Let's just outline the basic calculations to be programmed, and for simplicity we take the case where W has been set to zero. Start with a column vector of $(rK+1)$ observed frequencies, \underline{n} . Put the probability quantities, the π_j , in the $(rK+1)$ -by-1 column vector $\underline{\pi}$. Their first derivatives appear in the $(rK+1)$ -by- $2K$ matrix D . The $2K$ parameters are in θ . The efficient scores are obtained as $s = (n \#/\pi)'D$ where $\#/"$ means to divide termwise. The entries of the information matrix B are obtained as

$$b_{ie} = n(d_i \#/\pi)' * d_e, \quad (6.1)$$

where d_i and d_e are columns of D . The inverse of B becomes the covariance matrix $V = B^{-1}$.

We use the superscript (m) to refer to the m th step of iteration. For the starting values one uses $m = 0$. We have already described how to obtain $\theta^{(0)}$ and thus how to calculate $\pi^{(0)}$, $D^{(0)}$, $s^{(0)}$, $B^{(0)}$ and $V^{(0)}$. The m th iteration step is

$$\theta^{(m)} = \theta^{(m-1)} + V^{(m-1)} * s^{(m-1)}, m = 1, 2, \dots, M. \quad (6.2)$$

The iteration proceeds until $\theta^{(m)}$ and $\theta^{(m-1)}$ agree as closely as machine rounding allows. Say this occurs at the Mth iteration.

A goodness of fit statistic, say χ^2 , is calculated by squaring and adding the quantities:

$$(n - n\pi^{(M)}) \# / (n\pi^{(M)})^{1/2}, \quad (6.3)$$

which are themselves a species of standardized residual and can serve to point to lack of fit of various types. The statistic χ^2 is referred to the chi-squared distribution on $K(r-2)$ degrees of freedom. The diagonal entries of $V^{(M)}$ are estimated variances of the parameter estimates.

Suppose we denote the first K entries in $\theta^{(M)}$ as p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K , and also suppose there is interest in the estimate $p_{C1} = p_1 / (p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$. In our example, this is the estimated proportion of Yeses among Yeses, Undecided and Noes. To find an estimated standard error we extract the upper-left 3-by-3 submatrix of $V^{(M)}$ -- as V_1 say. Next compute a 3-component coefficient vector C with entries the derivatives of p_{C1} : $(p_1 - 1) / (p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$, $p_1 / (p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$ and $p_1 / (p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$ and finally calculate $C'V_1C$ as an estimated variance for p_{C1} .

7. NUMERICAL ILLUSTRATION

The following data are from a telephone survey that was done to inquire about the effects of 4-H club membership among the US adult population. The sample of telephone numbers was furnished by a survey research firm, Survey Sampling, Inc., and the interviewing and tabulations were done at Texas A and M University. The survey was sponsored by the USDA and the author served as

statistical consultant. Three telephone attempts were made and the telephone numbers were re-randomized among interviewers at each calling.

Before examining the responses to the various questionnaire items we first looked at a basic three-way breakdown into Refusals, Non 4-H households, and 4-H households by the three calls. This was done separately by four regions of the US. There were sizeable differences in parameter estimates among the regions. The frequencies and parameter estimates are in Table 1 while fit statistics are in Table 2.

Each set of frequencies is fit by eight models, designated as Model 1 to Model 8. The first four cases use a single response propensity, while the last four permit a separate response propensity (α_k) for each category. Models 1 and 2 as well as Models 5 and 6 set the proportion of consistent no-answers equal to zero ($\gamma = 0$) while the other four models permit there to be some such. The odd numbered models have the heterogeneity weight set at zero ($W=0$) and the even numbered ones permit the three-point distribution of response propensity. The chi-square goodness of fit statistics for each model and for the four sets of data appear in Table 2. The results show that Model 6 with heterogeneity but no consistent no-answers fits the best. We may believe there to be a few consistent no-answers but getting a reasonable fit with $\alpha = 0$ suggests there are only a few.

It can be seen from the fit statistics, and also from common sense, that the assumption of response propensity heterogeneity is an alternative to the assumption of the presence of consistent no-answers. That is, the presence of consistent no-answers implies that the response rates will decline from

call to call. The presence of heterogeneity implies that the relatively more accessible cases will respond earlier and that later calls will also see a declining response rate. This relationship of alternatives between the two parameters explains the poor showing of Models 4 and 8 in which both parameters are allowed to vary. It may happen that one parameter is forced to its lower boundary at zero. Our program shows poor fit whenever this occurs. It also may occur that a locally best fit inside parameter space may turn out not to be as good as one on a boundary.

Notice in Table 2 the higher no-answer propensity among the Refusals than among the Non 4-H in all regions and also among the 4-H members in the South and Northeast regions. Heterogeneity is highest in the North Central and lowest in the South Region. These findings are consistent with the nature of regional differences that I would have expected. People who are harder to contact may well be found in greater abundance among the refusers. Heterogeneity is a mark of there being some appreciable number of always-answer cases as well as fairly frequent never-answer cases. The South tends to avoid these extremes. I visualize more housewives there but they are not always at home.

Although these findings are encouraging for the reasonableness of the model they were not the purpose of using the method. Our real interest was to correct any bias in estimated proportions of questionnaire item response. The frequencies in Table 3 and 4 show two of these items and the proportions are estimated both by applying the model (Model 6, that is) estimates of response propensities and also by ignoring such differences. The main finding is how little difference there is between the raw sample percentages and the model estimated percentages for the questionnaire item response categories.

These results also serve to point out where are the major difficulties caused by no-answering. The refusals and the did-not-answer-the-question cases are numerous and are projected to be relatively a bit more numerous if calling was to continue forever. About 27% of the called telephone numbers would produce refusals and about 15% would not answer these questions. The smaller, sample unadjusted percentages corresponding to these two are 24% and 14% so, even here, the change is relatively small. These findings of small biases (if a 1% or 2% change can be called "small") are most welcome for this survey since expanding the sample cases to give population estimates will be tedious enough without having to carry along a correction for noncontacts.

If biases due to nonanswering cases are, in some survey, found to be rather pronounced and the sample is from a complex design, then we would suggest incorporating a simple multiplicative adjustment to the raising factors. That is, each observation would be carrying whatever raising factor (or weight) is needed to reflect the sample design. The additional multiplier would be computed as the ratio of the estimated percentage from the model to the percentage based on sample unweighted frequencies. Consider as an example the conditional percentages for the first three answer categories for question 2G2 of Table 4. The model percentages would be 10.5, 35.4 and 53.1 with sample percentages of 11.8, 33.3 and 54.8 so the multipliers are .89, 1.06 and .97. These would be applied to the sample design raising factors to get the final raising factors. Notice that the adjustment applies only to the one item. To adjust a cross classification one would obtain separate multipliers for each cell.

8. SECOND ILLUSTRATION

The following case illustrates a use of the multi-attempt model in the sample design phase of a mail survey that also involves a parameter other than the basic proportions. In studies of ratios of the recorded value of taxable property to sale value there is interest in the median of the distribution. The median is a reasonable choice of central value here in view of the rather extreme swings that can be seen in this ratio. The model of multi-attempts can be used to estimate proportions in classes of the ratio. The median would then be calculated by straight line interpolation from the estimated cumulative distribution function, while the standard error of the estimate can be judged from the covariance matrix of the class proportions.

From past experiences, it was judged that nonresponse propensities of 80% or 90% would not be unusual. A survey form is mailed to a sample of business addresses and just the goodwill of the business determines if there will be a forthcoming report on any sales of taxable property items. We also introduced some inequalities in these propensities and furnished some evidence of a slowing down of response rate by mailing. For a mail survey an attempt is called a mailing and is defined by a time period such as three weeks. Addresses not returning in three weeks are sent another questionnaire. Our hypothetical data are in Table 5, where the total sample size was taken to be 1000. Class limits would generally be chosen so that the median falls into a rather narrowly defined middle class, while the other two proportions would be that above and that below these limits.

If the class limits are denoted a and b while the proportions are P_1 , P_2 , and $1 - P_1 - P_2$, then the estimator of the median is

$$M = \left[(\hat{P}_2 + \hat{P}_1 - .5)a + (.5 - \hat{P}_1)b \right] / \hat{P}_2 \quad (8.1)$$

From knowledge of the variances and covariances of the estimated proportions we can obtain, from a Taylor's series expansion, a variance for M . For the normal distribution and random sampling this variance is found to be $(\pi\sigma^2/2n)$. The distribution of ratios will be fairly well approximated by the normal in the neighborhood of the median. The variances of \hat{P}_1 and \hat{P}_2 , however, will not be given by the familiar "pq/n" formula as for random sampling, but will be given by the multi-attempts model. In the random sampling or binomial case one should perhaps use, as a value of sample size, the number of responses, which is 257 in our example, rather than the initial sample size of $n = 1000$ in our example.

When Model 6 is fitted to the data of Table 5 the estimated variances for $\hat{P}_1 = .432$ and $\hat{P}_2 = .417$ are .000953 and .000946 respectively. The corresponding pq/n quantities with $n = 257$ are .000955 and .000946 which shows an almost exact agreement. The unadjusted proportions are $p_1 = .230$ and $p_2 = .486$ so the estimates $\hat{P}_1 = .432$ and $\hat{P}_2 = .417$ would be expected to be less biased. When Model 8 is fitted then the estimated proportion of hard core nonrespondents is .09 and there may be some question as to the presence of such cases.

Judging from past experiences we can expect the standard deviation of the central or non-outlier distribution of ratios to be about 50% of the median itself. This implies a 4% sampling coefficient of variation for M in the present case. That is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{SE(M)}{E(M)} &= \text{Sample CV of } M = \text{Population CV} \sqrt{\pi/2n} \\
 &= 50 \sqrt{\pi/2} \times 257 \\
 &= 3.9 \quad .
 \end{aligned}$$

A most conservative viewpoint on the 9% of hard core nonrespondents would be to suppose they would all be above or all be below the observed median. This proportion ($\gamma = .09$ in this case) could affect the position of the median by the amount $\gamma\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma$ or, relative to the median itself, by $\gamma\sqrt{2\pi} \times 50\% = 11.3\%$. Notice that this latter uncertainty is most unpalatable in that it does not diminish as sample size increases, as well as being three times larger than sampling uncertainty.

9. PARTING COMMENTS ON EFFICIENCY

In the 4-H survey cited above three attempts were made. This is the minimum number required in order to estimate the parameters of the model. Whether three or four or even more attempts should be made depends, of course, on survey costs and on the model parameters. As in many such problems of sampling design the optimum is flat. For example, four attempts may give least variance for fixed cost but three or five or even six, seven, or eight will not be much worse.

To illustrate these considerations we used the parameter estimates for the data in Table 3 to project what would have been observed if four attempts had been made. From these projected frequencies it can be determined that a sample of size 8306 with four attempts rather than the actual 8636 with three attempts, would have furnished the same total number of respondents to the item

--namely 709. Equating this frequency for the two designs is tantamount to equating variances of the estimators.

As illustrative cost coefficients, we supposed 10 enumerator minutes would be required to obtain a response (No or Yes) or an item nonresponse (enumerators don't give up easily) while an ineligible or refusal would require 5 minutes and a no-answer was charged for 2 minutes. The survey as done with three attempts would then cost 58,487 enumerator minutes and the survey using four attempts has a cost of 59,746 enumerator minutes. The survey with four attempts should perhaps also be charged with a time delay in furnishing data for analysis, but it is only 2% more expensive in enumerator time than the survey with three attempts.

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Figure. Notation for Frequencies and Population Parameters

Call	Known Not Working	Yes	Undecided	No	Refusal	Not Eligible	No-Answer
1	$n_{\bar{w}}$	n_{11}	n_{12}	n_{13}	n_{14}	n_{15}	n_{16}
2	0	n_{21}	n_{22}	n_{23}	n_{24}	n_{25}	n_{26}
r	0	n_{r1}	n_{r2}	n_{r3}	n_{r4}	n_{r5}	n_{r6}
Population Proportions		P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5	
No-answer Proportions		α_1	α_2	α_3	α_4	α_5	

Table 1. Sample Frequencies by First, Second or Third Attempt for Three Basic Types of Answer to a Telephone Interview with Parameter Estimates for a Model of Multi-Attempt Surveys

Telephone Answer Type	Sample Frequencies by Attempt			Parameter Estimates		
	1	2	3	Estimated Percent, $100p_k$	No-answer Proportion $\hat{\alpha}_k$	Heterogeneity Weight, W
<u>Northeast</u>						
4-H	253	74	48	23.3	.52	
Non 4-H	813	170	95	51.3	.30	.23
Refused	344	98	54	25.4	.39	
No Ans.		292				
<u>South</u>						
4-H	292	115	57	27.9	.50	
Non 4-H	617	156	90	43.9	.35	.15
Refused	339	89	76	28.1	.45	
No Ans.		294				
<u>North Central</u>						
4-H	383	79	33	24.1	.27	
Non 4-H	755	158	73	48.8	.29	.31
Refused	312	83	48	27.0	.45	
No Ans.		238				
<u>West</u>						
4-H	308	88	31	22.1	.33	
Non 4-H	767	197	63	51.6	.29	.25
Refused	298	67	45	26.3	.48	
No Ans.		244				

Table 2. Fit Statistics for Eight Models Fitted to Data of Table 1.

	Case	DF	Northeast	South	North Central	West
	1	6	164.6	106.3	178.6	152.0
Equal α	$w \neq 0$ 2	5	16.3	29.3	9.4	14.1
	$\gamma \neq 0$ 3	5	57.0	53.5	42.8	23.0
	$\gamma \neq 0; w \neq 0$ 4	4	193.7	247.6	9.4	11.7
	5	4	106.0	82.8	108.4	115.2
Unequal α	$w \neq 0$ 6	3	11.9	22.9	2.2	6.1
	$\gamma \neq 0$ 7	3	43.6	42.7	30.5	16.4
	$w \neq 0; \gamma \neq 0$ 8	2	64.1	145.4	8.9	6.4
Sample Size			1141	2125	2162	2108

Table 3. Responses to Question 2D by First, Second or Third Call

Did you complete a 4-H Project?	<u>Frequencies by Contact</u>			<u>Estimated Percentages</u>	
	1	2	3	Ignoring Model	Under Model
No	115	42	15	2.3	2.3
Yes	382	108	47	7.1	6.9
No Answer to Question	739	206	107	13.9	14.5
Non 4-H	2952	681	321	52.2	49.1
Refused	1293	337	223	24.5	27.2
No Answer to Telephone		1068			

Table 4. Response to Question 2G2 by First, Second or Third Call

Rate Usefulness of Your Experi- ences with People in 4-H:	<u>Frequencies by Contact</u>			<u>Estimated Percentages</u>	
	1	2	3	Ignoring Model	Under Model
Some	64	12	8	1.1	1.1
Useful	160	55	23	3.1	3.4
Extremely	273	83	31	5.1	5.1
Question Not Answered	739	206	107	13.9	14.8
Non 4-H	2952	681	321	52.2	49.4
Refused	1293	337	223	24.5	26.3
Telephone Not Answered		1068			

Table 5. Hypothetical Data for Planning a Survey to Estimate the Median of Ratios

Class Limits	Contact			Estimated Parameters for Case 6 Model		
	1	2	3	\hat{p}_k	α_k	W
Zero to a	21	20	18	.432	.951	
a+ to b	50	40	35	.417	.881	.226
b+	35	20	18	.152	.779	
No response		743		$(\chi^2 = .715)$		