Generalised Regression Estimation Given Imperfectly Matched Auxiliary Data

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Generalised regression estimation allows one to make use of available auxiliary information in survey sampling. We develop three types of generalised regression estimator when the auxiliary data cannot be matched perfectly to the sample units, so that the standard estimator is inapplicable. The inference remains design-based. Consistency of the proposed estimators is either given by construction or else can be tested given the observed sample and links. Mean square errors can be estimated. A simulation study is used to explore the potentials of the proposed estimators.

Key words: Record linkage; incidence weights; reverse incidence weights.

1. Introduction

Let $\{y_i : i \in s\}$ be the values observed in a sample s from the population $U = \{1, \dots, N\}$. Design-unbiased estimation of the population total $Y = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$ can be achieved using the sample inclusion probabilities $\pi_i = \Pr(i \in s)$ for $i \in U$. Let x_i be the vector of known auxiliary values for each $i \in U$. By incorporating these auxiliary values, the *generalised regression (GREG)* estimator (e.g., Särndal et al. 1992) can often improve the efficiency of estimation. The GREG estimator of Y is given by

$$\hat{Y}_{GR} = \hat{Y} + (X - \hat{X})^\top b = X^\top b + \sum_{i \in s} (y_i - x_i^\top b) / \pi_i \quad (1)$$

where $\hat{Y} = \sum_{i \in s} y_i / \pi_i$ is the Horvitz-Thompson (HT) estimator of Y and first term is $\hat{X}$ that of $X = \sum_{i \in U} x_i$, and $b = (\sum_{i \in s} c_i x_i x_i^\top / \pi_i)^{-1} (\sum_{i \in s} c_i x_i y_i / \pi_i)$ is a weighted least-squares estimate of the coefficients of a linear regression model of estimate of the coefficients of a linear regression model of y_i on x_i . The constants c_i can be introduced given heterogeneous regression errors; it is also common to set $c_i \equiv 1$.

To calculate the GREG estimator (1), one needs the (x, y) -values for each sample unit. However, it may be impossible to match the sample and the auxiliary database perfectly, because one does not have a common, unique identifier in both sources. Record linkage based on *linking* variables (e.g., Fellegi and Sunter 1969; Herzog et al. 2007; Christen 2012; Harron et al. 2015), such as name and birth date, will be imperfect if some of them are incorrectly recorded in either source, so that any pair of (x, y) associated with a link

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may not actually refer to the same unit. This causes the problem for GREG estimation in situations where the auxiliary data cannot be perfectly matched.

While there exists a growing literature on linear regression analysis based on linked data sets (see e.g., Lahiri and Larsen 2005; Chambers 2009; Chambers and Da Silva 2020; and Zhang and Tuoto 2020) under the frequentist framework of inference, our perspective is different here. The interest is not the regression relationship itself. The aim is to utilise the auxiliary information to improve the efficiency of population total estimation, using an assisting linear model (Särndal et al. 1992), and the inference is based on the sampling design rather than the model. For instance, in regression analysis the auxiliary population total may be of little consequence, whereas it is of central importance to GREG estimation, and the ostensible total of the x -values in the auxiliary database, denoted by X_A over A , cannot be used directly when the matching between A and U is *incomplete*, that is, they are not one-one matched in truth.

To the best of our knowledge, Breidt et al. (2018) is the only previous work that addresses the problem from our perspective. In their motivating example, the population U consists of recreational fishing boat trips along the Atlantic Coast of South Carolina each year, and the y -value is the catch on each boat trip. The auxiliary database consists of the boat's logbook (including data of catch) required to be reported to the South Carolina Department of Natural Resources. The quality of record linkage is rather poor, and one cannot be sure that all the trips are reported in the logbooks. Breidt et al. (2018) consider a *difference* estimator, which makes use of multiple links for the sample trips. Although the estimator is biased, one is able to reduce the mean squared error (MSE) of estimation. The difference predictor is a special case of GREG predictor given fixed regression coefficients. As these authors point out, there is a need for developing methods that allow the predictor to be estimated from the sample actually observed.

We shall develop three types of GREG estimators and their approximate variance estimators, when the matching between the population and the auxiliary database is incomplete and record linkage between them is imperfect. The conditions for design-consistent estimators are specified. This can be tested given the observed sample and links, if the conditions cannot be verified directly based on linking the entire population and auxiliary database. Thus, the MSE of estimation can be estimated.

In Section 2 we outline the underlying linkage structure of the problem and the inference framework. The GREG estimators are developed in Section 3. A simulation study is used to study the relative merits of the proposed estimators in Section 4, also in comparison to the HT estimator which ignores the auxiliary information and the hypothetical ideal GREG estimator. Some conclusions and final remarks are given in Section 5.

2. Entity Ambiguity and Inference Framework

Imperfect matching between separate data files arises from the ambiguity surrounding the set of unique entities underlying these data files. Record linkage, or entity resolution, results in one or several *links* between a record in one file and the records in another. A link between a pair of records is a *match* if the records refer to the same entity, the link is *false* otherwise. False links and missed matches are caused by errors of the linking variables

used for record linkage, in the absence of a true identifier (i.e. a perfect linking variable). While the formulation can be extended to include duplicated records in the same file, we shall assume that duplicates are absent in the following.

Denote by $M = \{(i, \iota_i)\}$ the matches between the population U and the auxiliary database A , where ι_i in A is the matching record of i in U . Let $N_A = |A|$ be the size of A , which may differ to $N = |U|$, for example, if U and A are not one-one correspondent in terms of the matches. For each $i \in U$, let α_i contain the records in A , which are linked with it, that is, (i, ℓ) is a link for any $\ell \in \alpha_i \subset A$. Denote these links by $\{i\} \times \alpha_i$. Let $d_i = |\alpha_i|$ be the cardinality of α_i , or the number of links in $\{i\} \times \alpha_i$. Denote by L the population (set of) links between U and A , which is the union of $\{i\} \times \alpha_i$ for all $i \in U$.

The population of links (L) can also be given in the other direction. For each $\ell \in A$, let β_ℓ contain the records in U , which are linked with it, that is, (i, ℓ) is a link for any $i \in \beta_\ell \subset U$. Let $m_\ell = |\beta_\ell|$ be the cardinality of β_ℓ , or the number of links in $\beta_\ell \times \{\ell\}$. We have

$$L = \bigcup_{i \in U} \{i\} \times \alpha_i = \bigcup_{\ell \in A} \beta_\ell \times \{\ell\} \quad \text{and} \quad |L| = \sum_{i \in U} d_i = \sum_{\ell \in A} m_\ell$$

Notice that, insofar as U is the target population and A the auxiliary database, we can allow β_ℓ to be empty for some ℓ in A , although α_i is assumed to be non-empty for any i in U , that is, any population unit in U must have at least one linked record in A , but not all the records in the auxiliary database need to have links to the population units.

Some explanations are needed for this set-up. In a situation where one is able to link U and A , it is possible to impose a restriction that any record $\ell \in A$ is linked to at least one unit in U as well. However, in practice, it is often the case that links can only be made between the sample units in s and A , for $s \subset U$, but not between $U \setminus s$ and A , because the linking variables are only observed in s but not $U \setminus s$. This is indeed the situation considered by Breidt et al. (2018). Thus, to ensure general applicability, we assume that the *direction* of linkage is from U to A , this is, for any given unit $i \in U$, one looks for records in A that can be linked to it, but one does not look for the units in U that can be linked to any given record $\ell \in A$. It follows that β_ℓ may be empty for some records in A . (Of course, the methods developed in this article remain applicable if all β_ℓ are non-empty.) Moreover, we shall assume that one makes sure each unit $i \in U$ is linked to at least one record in A , that is, $d_i \geq 1$ for all $i \in U$. We make this assumption mainly to simplify the exposition, and we notice that any of the proposed GREG estimators remains applicable, if one chooses to reject the implausible links (below a given threshold), and simply set $d_i = 0$ and $x_i = 0$ for these unlinked population units.

Given the population links L from U to A , α_i is fully observed for any sample unit in s , as well as the sample links $L_s = \bigcup_{i \in s} \{i\} \times \alpha_i \subset L$. Whereas β_ℓ for any $\ell \in A$ may not be fully observed in L_s , based on which one only observes $s_\ell = s \cap \beta_\ell$ for $\ell \in \alpha(s) = \bigcup_{i \in s} \alpha_i$. The example below provides an illustration.

2.1. Example

Let $N = 6$ and $N_A = 6$. The records in A are enumerated $\ell = 1, \dots, 6$ as they are known in A , and $\iota_1, \dots, \iota_5$ in parentheses according to their unknown matches in U , where the

matches are shown as dashed lines. Notice that U and A are not one-one correspondent in terms of the matches, despite $N = N_A$. The population unit $i = 6$ in U is an *unmatched* unit and the record $\ell = 6$ represents an unmatched entity in A . The population links L are given by the solid arrows.

Let the sample be $s = \{2, 3, 4\}$ from U . The sample links are

$$L_s = \{(2, \iota_1), (3, \iota_3), (3, \iota_4), (4, \iota_3), (4, \iota_4), (4, \iota_5)\}$$

such that $\alpha_2 = \{\iota_1\}$, $\alpha_3 = \{\iota_3, \iota_4\}$ and $\alpha_4 = \{\iota_3, \iota_4, \iota_5\}$. These are fully observed in L_s . Moreover, we observe s_ℓ for $\ell \in \alpha(s) = \{\iota_1, \iota_3, \iota_4, \iota_5\}$, where $s_{\iota_1} = \{2\}$, $s_{\iota_3} = s_{\iota_4} = \{3, 4\}$ and $s_{\iota_5} = \{4\}$. However, any observed s_ℓ can differ from β_ℓ , since it is possible for other units in $U \setminus s$ to be linked to the records in $\alpha(s)$, such as $\beta_{\iota_1} = \{1, 2\} \neq s_{\iota_1}$. Finally, for these sample units, the missing match is $(2, \iota_2)$ for $i = 2$; the false links are $(2, \iota_1)$ for $i = 2$, $(3, \iota_4)$ for $i = 3$, and $(4, \iota_3)$ and $(4, \iota_5)$ for $i = 4$.

Generally, in the presence of entity ambiguity, we have $L \neq M$, where the false links are $L \setminus M$, and the missing matches are $M \setminus L$. For the methods of GREG estimation given imperfectly matched auxiliary data and the associated uncertainty assessment, we shall treat (U, A) and all the associated the linking variables as *fixed*, whatever the underlying stochastic mechanism of the linking-variable errors and the chosen linkage method. Hence, the population links L are fixed as well. The expectation and variance of an estimator will be evaluated only with respect to the sampling design.

3. Estimators

We consider two settings: (I) linkage from U to A is possible and L is known, (II) linkage is only possible from s to A and one observes only L_s associated with s . Of the three types of GREG estimators below, the first type is only feasible under setting-I, while the other two types are applicable under both settings.

3.1. Setting-I: Given L

We observe fully β_ℓ for any $\ell \in \alpha(s)$, since L is known. Let $\omega_{i\ell}$ be the *incidence weights* that are non-negative constants of sampling, where $\omega_{i\ell} = 0$ for $i \notin \beta_\ell$, and

$$\sum_{i \in \beta_\ell} \omega_{i\ell} = 1. \quad (2)$$

In the special case of $\omega_{i\ell} \equiv 1/m_\ell$ for $i \in \beta_\ell$, the weights are referred to as the *multiplicity weights*. One can vary $\omega_{i\ell}$ subjected to the constraint (2), for example, based on the comparison scores used for record linkage (Fellegi and Sunter 1969). In any case, the weights are constants of sampling given U, A, L and the associated linking variables.

Let z_i be the constant auxiliary value for each $i \in U$, which is given by

$$z_i = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell$$

Notice that we have $Z = \sum_{i \in U} z_i = \sum_{\ell \in A} x_\ell = X_A$, if $m_\ell > 0$ for all $\ell \in A$, since

$$Z = \sum_{i \in U} z_i = \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell = \sum_{\ell \in A} x_\ell \sum_{i \in \beta_\ell} \omega_{i\ell} = X_A$$

by virtue of Equation (2). However, we do not assume this to be the case generally. For an illustration using the example in Subsection 2.1 earlier, given the sample $s = \{2, 3, 4\}$, we have $z_2 = \omega_{22}x_2$ for $i = 2$ where $\omega_{12} + \omega_{22} = 1$ for $\ell = 2$, and $z_3 = \omega_{33}x_3 + \omega_{34}x_4$ and $z_4 = \omega_{43}x_3 + \omega_{44}x_4 + \omega_{45}x_5$, where $\omega_{33} + \omega_{43} = 1$ and $\omega_{34} + \omega_{44} = 1$ and $\omega_{45} = 1$. In particular, the multiplicity weights are given by $\omega_{22} = \omega_{33} = \omega_{43} = \omega_{34} = \omega_{44} = 1/2$, since β_2 , β_3 and β_4 are all of size 2. The population total Z is given by $Z = \sum_{\ell=2}^6 x_\ell = X_A - x_1$.

We observe the population total $Z = \sum_{i \in U} z_i$ given L and $\{x_\ell : \ell \in A\}$. A *population incidence (PI)* GREG estimator can be given by Equation (1) based on z_i instead of x_i , that is,

$$\hat{Y}_z = \hat{Y} + (Z - \hat{Z})^\top b_z = Z^\top b_z + \sum_{i \in s} (y_i - z_i^\top b_z) / \pi_i \quad (3)$$

where $b_z = (\sum_{i \in s} c_i z_i z_i^\top / \pi_i)^{-1} (\sum_{i \in s} c_i z_i y_i / \pi_i)$. Let $B_z = (\sum_{i \in U} c_i z_i z_i^\top)^{-1} (\sum_{i \in U} c_i z_i y_i)$. The variance of the PI-GREG estimator is approximately given by that of

$$\hat{e}_z = \sum_{i \in s} e_{iz} / \pi_i \quad \text{where} \quad e_{iz} = y_i - z_i^\top B_z$$

The estimator (3) is design-consistent as $n, N \rightarrow \infty$, provided the ideal GREG estimator (1) is consistent. This is a main advantage that L and Z are known under setting-I.

3.2. Setting-II: Given L_s

Suppose only L_s is observed over $s \times \alpha(s)$, where $L_s \subset L$. Since we observe only s_ℓ but not necessarily β_ℓ for any $\ell \in \alpha(s)$, the incidence weights by Equation (2) are unknown. This is the situation considered by [Breidt et al. \(2018\)](#), who set $\omega_{i\ell}$ heuristically according to the assessed quality of the links in L_s . Now, provided $M \setminus L = \emptyset$, that is, all the matches are among the links in L although one does not know them all, one may let

$$\omega_{i\ell} = \Pr[(i, \ell) \in M | \beta_\ell \neq \emptyset]$$

be the probability that a link (i, ℓ) is the match for ℓ , so that the constraint (2) is satisfied. However, one still would not know the total Z of the corresponding $\{z_i : i \in U\}$, as long as L is unknown. Moreover, the probability above cannot be calculated correctly for all $i \in s_\ell$ without knowing the other links $(\beta_\ell \setminus s_\ell) \times \ell$, even if the error mechanism of the linking-variables were known. In short, this is not a viable option. Below we consider two types of estimators, where $\omega_{i\ell}$ is fully determined given the observed α_i for any $i \in s$.

3.2.1. Reverse Incidence Weights

Let the *reverse incidence weights* be such that, for each $i \in U$, we have

$$\sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} = 1 \quad (4)$$

While the incidence weights in (2) sum to one for any record ℓ in A with $m_\ell > 0$, the weights in (4) sum to one in the opposite direction over α_i for any unit $i \in U$. Hence, the adjective *reverse*. While the incidence weights require the knowledge of the population links L , the reverse incidence weights are always available given the sample links L_s .

Let $x_{i\omega} = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell$ be constructed x -value of $i \in U$ based on the reverse incidence weights. Again, one may define the weights according to the relative plausibility of the links in $\{i\} \times \alpha_i$ based on record linkage. The weights are then constants of sampling given U , A , L and the associated linking variables. Let $X_\omega = \sum_{i \in U} x_{i\omega}$. When L is known, a *population reverse incidence (PRI) GREG estimator* can be given as

$$\tilde{Y}_\omega = X_\omega^\top b_\omega + \sum_{i \in s} (y_i - x_{i\omega}^\top b_\omega) / \pi_i = \hat{Y} + (X_\omega - \hat{X}_\omega)^\top b_\omega$$

where $\hat{X}_\omega = \sum_{i \in s} x_{i\omega} / \pi_i$ and $b_\omega = (\sum_{i \in s} c_i x_{i\omega} x_{i\omega}^\top / \pi_i)^{-1} (\sum_{i \in s} c_i x_{i\omega} y_i / \pi_i)$. The variance of the PRI-GREG estimator is approximately given by that of

$$\hat{e}_\omega = \sum_{i \in s} e_{i\omega} / \pi_i \quad \text{where} \quad e_{i\omega} = y_i - x_{i\omega}^\top B_\omega \quad \text{and} \quad B_\omega = \left(\sum_{i \in U} c_i x_{i\omega} x_{i\omega}^\top \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i \in U} c_i x_{i\omega} y_i \right)$$

For the general case where X_ω is unknown because L is unknown. The *sample reverse incidence (SRI) GREG estimator* of Y is given as

$$\hat{Y}_\omega = N \bar{X}_A^\top b_\omega + \sum_{i \in s} (y_i - x_{i\omega}^\top b_\omega) / \pi_i = \hat{Y} + (N \bar{X}_A - \hat{X}_\omega)^\top b_\omega \quad (5)$$

where $\bar{X}_A = X_A / N_A$ is the mean of the x -values over A . Writing $\hat{Y}_\omega = \sum_{i \in s} \omega_i y_i$ as a linear estimator with the sample weights $\{w_i : i \in s\}$, we have $\sum_{i \in s} w_i x_{i\omega} = N \bar{X}_A$. The SRI-GREG estimator has the same approximate variance as the PRI-GREG estimator, since the first-order approximations of the two only differ by a constant $N (\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_\omega)^\top B_\omega$ where $\bar{X}_\omega = X_\omega / N$. However, insofar as $\bar{X}_\omega \neq \bar{X}_A$, the estimator (5) will be biased under repeated sampling. An additional assumption is needed for design-consistency, that is,

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\bar{X}_\omega - \bar{X}_A) = 0 \quad (6)$$

Intuitively, this assumption may seem reasonable, as long as the errors of the linking variables associated with U and A are unrelated to the x -values in A . A more detailed condition will be given later in Subsection 3.2.2. For the moment, notice that in practice the assumption can be tested based on the observed statistic $\hat{X}_\omega - \bar{X}_A$.

A special case of the reverse incidence weights is worth mentioning. For each $i \in U$, let ℓ_i be the *best* link among all $\ell \in \alpha_i$. Let $\omega_{i\ell_i} = 1$ and $\omega_{i\ell} = 0$ for any other $\ell \in \alpha_i$. It

should be pointed out that this is not a special case of incidence weights (2), since ℓ_i is chosen among α_i not β_{ℓ_i} and it is possible for any given $\ell \in A$ to be the best link for more than one unit in U . Let $x_i^* = x_{\ell_i}$ be the best-link x -value of $i \in s$. This can be relevant for secondary users, who are only given these best-link auxiliary values, but have no access to the other links because the linkage is performed by another party.

Let $X^* = \sum_{i \in U} x_i^*$. The *sample best-link (SBL)* GREG estimator of Y is given as

$$\hat{Y}_b = N\bar{X}_A^\top b^* + \sum_{i \in s} (y_i - x_i^{*\top} b^*) / \pi_i = \hat{Y} + (N\bar{X}_A - \hat{X}^*)^\top b^* \quad (7)$$

where $\hat{X}^* = \sum_{i \in s} x_i^* / \pi_i$ and $b^* = (\sum_{i \in s} c_i x_i^* x_i^{*\top} / \pi_i)^{-1} (\sum_{i \in s} c_i x_i^* y_i / \pi_i)$. The variance of the SBL-GREG estimator is approximately given by that of

$$\hat{e}^* = \sum_{i \in s} e_i^* / \pi_i \quad \text{where} \quad e_i^* = y_i - x_i^{*\top} B^* \quad \text{and} \quad B^* = \left(\sum_{i \in U} c_i x_i^* x_i^{*\top} \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i \in U} c_i x_i^* y_i \right)$$

The estimator (7) is design-consistent, provided $X^*/N - \bar{X}_A \rightarrow 0$, as $N \rightarrow \infty$, and the assumption can be tested based on the observed statistic $\hat{X}^*/N - \bar{X}_A$.

3.2.2. GREG over L_s

Let $N_L = \sum_{i \in U} d_i = |L|$ be the number of links in L . Let $X_L = \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} x_\ell$ and $\bar{X}_L = X_L / N_L$ be the total and mean of x over L , respectively. Let B_L be a vector of coefficients of the same dimension as X_L . Let

$$\hat{Y}_L = \hat{Y} + N(\bar{X}_A - \hat{X}_L)^\top B_L$$

where $\hat{X}_L = \hat{X}_L / \hat{N}_L$, and $\hat{X}_L = \sum_{i \in s} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} x_\ell / \pi_i$ and $\hat{N}_L = \sum_{i \in s} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} 1 / \pi_i$. Clearly, $\hat{Y}_L$ is design-consistent for Y if $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\bar{X}_L - \bar{X}_A) = 0$, which can be tested based on the observed statistic $\hat{X}_L - \bar{X}_A$. Below we consider first this condition in more detail and then the estimation of B_L given the sample links L_s .

Let $\{\omega_{i\ell} : (i, \ell) \in L\}$ be the incidence weights (2) associated with L . Let A_L be the link-projection of U onto A , containing the N_{AL} linked records in A . Let $a_\ell = 1$ if $\ell \in A_L$ and 0 otherwise. We assume $N/N_L = O(1)$ and $N_{AL}/N_A = O(1)$, as $N \rightarrow \infty$. We say $\omega_{i\ell}$ and a_ℓ are *non-informative* of the x -values asymptotically, as $N \rightarrow \infty$, if

$$\begin{cases} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{(i, \ell) \in L} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell}{N_L} - \frac{\sum_{(i, \ell) \in L} \omega_{i\ell}}{N_L} \bar{X}_L = 0 \\ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{\ell \in A} a_\ell x_\ell}{N_A} - \frac{\sum_{\ell \in A} a_\ell}{N_A} \bar{X}_A = 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

In other words, as $N \rightarrow \infty$, the empirical covariance of $\omega_{i\ell}$ and x_ℓ over L tends to 0, as well as that of a_ℓ and x_ℓ over A . We have then $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (X_{AL}/N_{AL} - \bar{X}_L) = 0$, since $\sum_{(i, \ell) \in L} \omega_{i\ell} = N_{AL}$ and $\sum_{(i, \ell) \in L} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell = X_{AL} = \sum_{\ell \in A_L} x_\ell$ in the first part of Equation (8), and $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (X_{AL}/N_{AL} - \bar{X}_A) = 0$ due to the second part of Equation (8). It follows that $\bar{X}_L - \bar{X}_A \rightarrow 0$, as $N \rightarrow \infty$, and the estimator $\hat{Y}_L$ above is consistent.

Moreover, we have $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\bar{X}_\omega - \bar{X}_L) = 0$, if the first part of Equation (8) holds when $\omega_{i\ell}$ are the reverse incidence weights (4), where $\sum_{(i, \ell) \in L} \omega_{i\ell} = N$ and $\sum_{(i, \ell) \in L} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell = X_\omega$.

Thus, the condition (6) for the SRI-GREG estimator (5) is satisfied if the reverse incidence weights are non-informative of the x -values in addition to (8). Note that requiring the first part of Equation (8) to hold for both types of weights is essentially the same as requiring it to hold for either type of weights, since it is hard to imagine a real situation where the condition holds only for one type of weights but not the other type.

To reveal the estimator of B_L , we observe that

$$\tilde{Y}_L = N\bar{X}_A^\top B_L + \sum_{i \in s} \frac{1}{\pi_i} \left(\sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} y_i - \frac{N}{\hat{N}_L} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} x_\ell^\top B_L \right)$$

given any reverse incidence weights (4). Thus, B_L can be set according to GREG of $\omega_{i\ell} y_i$ on $x_\ell / \hat{r}$ over L_s , where $\hat{r} = \hat{N}_L / N$. A *sample link-set (SLS)* GREG estimator of Y is

$$\hat{Y}_L = N\bar{X}_A^\top b_L + \sum_{i \in s} (y_i - x_{iL}^\top b_L / \hat{r}) / \pi_i = \hat{Y} + N(\bar{X}_A - \hat{X}_L)^\top b_L \quad (9)$$

where $x_{iL} = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} x_\ell$, and $b_L = \hat{r} \left(\sum_{i \in s} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} c_{i\ell} x_\ell x_\ell^\top / \pi_i \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i \in s} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} c_{i\ell} x_\ell \omega_{i\ell} y_i / \pi_i \right)$, since π_i is the inclusion probability of a link (i, ℓ) in L_s . The target of b_L over sampling is $B_L = r \left(\sum_{i \in U} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} c_{i\ell} x_\ell x_\ell^\top \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i \in U} \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} c_{i\ell} x_\ell \omega_{i\ell} y_i \right)$, where $r = N_L / N$.

The first-order Taylor expansion of the SLS-GREG estimator (9) is given by

$$\hat{Y}_L \doteq (\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_L)^\top b_L + \hat{Y} - r^{-1} \hat{X}_L^\top B_L + r^{-1} \bar{X}_L^\top B_L \hat{N}_L = (\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_L)^\top b_L + \sum_{i \in s} e'_{iL} / \pi_i$$

where $e'_{iL} = e_{iL} + d_i / r$, and $e_{iL} = y_i - x_{iL}^\top B_L / r$ is the sum of population link-set GREG residuals over a_i , for $i \in U$. The extra term d_i / r arises from the estimator $\hat{N}_L$. Given Equation (8), an approximate variance estimator can be that of $\sum_{i \in s} e'_{iL} / \pi_i$.

3.3. Relative Efficiency

Of the three types of GREG estimators above, the PI-GREG estimator (3) is based on the incidence weights (2), the SRI-GREG estimator (5) and the SLS-GREG estimator (9) are based on the reverse incidence weights (4); the first two are based on GREG over s , and the last one is based on GREG over L_s . A key factor to the relative efficiency is the covariance between the dependent and independent variables of the regression.

Consider the simple linear regression model as the assisting model, where the model covariance (y_i, x_i) is a scalar that is easy to comprehend. The PI-GREG estimator depends on the covariance between y_i and $z_i = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell$, the SRI-GREG estimator on that between y_i and $x_{i\omega} = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell$, and the SLS-GREG on that between $\omega_{i\ell} y_\ell$ and x_ℓ . For any given $i \in U$ and fixed choice of $\omega_{i\ell}$ over α_i , we have

$$\text{Cov}(y_i, \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell) = \text{Cov}(\omega_{i\ell} y_i, x_\ell) = \begin{cases} \omega_{i\ell} \text{Cov}(y_i, x_i) & \text{if } \ell = \iota_i \\ 0 & \text{if } \ell_i \neq \iota_i \end{cases}$$

where $\text{Cov}(y_i, x_i)$ refers to the model covariance between y_i and the matched x_i , and $\text{Cov}(y_i, x_j) = 0$ for two different units $i \neq j$. Thus, given the presence of false links and the fact that $\omega_{i\ell} \in [0, 1]$, the model covariance is reduced given imperfectly matched auxiliary

values, and the population GREG slope coefficient will be attuned towards 0 compared to that given matched auxiliary values. This is the main reason why GREG estimation given imperfectly matched auxiliary values will lose efficiency compared to the ideal situation where the matches are known.

Meanwhile, what is important in practice is whether using the constructed auxiliary values based on the sample links L_s can still improve the efficiency compared to the HT-estimator that ignores the auxiliary information altogether. It is possible to equate the HT-estimator with the GREG estimator that uses an intercept-only assisting model, where the covariance between y_i and the constant independent variable $x_i \equiv 1$ is zero by definition. Using either the incidence weights or the reverse incidence weights, we have

$$\text{Cov}(y_i, \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell) = \begin{cases} \omega_{i\ell} \text{Cov}(y_i, x_i) & \text{for } \ell = u_i \text{ given } u_i \in \alpha_i \\ 0 & \text{if } u_i \notin \alpha_i \end{cases}$$

Thus, even though one does not know which links are the matches, as long as the links can cover a certain amount of matches, GREG estimation that makes appropriate use of the auxiliary data via the links still has the capacity to improve the HT-estimator.

It is more difficult to draw general conclusions regarding the relative efficiency of the different types of GREG estimator. Take for instance the PI-GREG and the SRI-GREG estimators. The population GREG residual is $e_{iz} = y_i - z_i^\top B_z$ under the former, where $z_i = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell$; the residual is $e_{i\omega} = y_i - x_{i\omega}^\top B_\omega$ under the latter, where $x_{i\omega} = \sum_{\ell \in \alpha_i} \omega_{i\ell} x_\ell$. Although both z_i and $x_{i\omega}$ are weighted sums of x_ℓ over the same α_i , the weights sum to 1 for any ℓ in A for the former whilst they sum to 1 for i in U for the latter. The relative magnitude of the residuals cannot be determined generally for each $i \in U$ on its own, because it also depends on how the other units are linked. This makes it difficult to draw any general conclusions. In the next section, we shall use a simulation study to explore the relative efficiency of the different estimators.

4. Simulation Study

4.1. Set-Up

First, we generate a set of values $\{(y_i, x_i): i \in U\}$, where

$$y_i = 1 + 5x_i + \epsilon_i \quad \text{and} \quad x_i \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1) \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_i^2)$$

The model variance of ϵ_i is $\sigma_i = \sigma x_i^\gamma$ for $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$. We present the results under simple random sampling without replacement, where the sample size is n . Size-related unequal probability sampling does not yield any extra insight regarding the relative efficiency of the different estimators, because their relative merits are chiefly determined by how the population links L are distributed over $U \times A$, regardless the sampling design.

We let $A = U$, so that we can easily calculate the *ideal* GREG estimator (1). The population matches and links are generated according to the parameters below.

- Let p_d be the proportion of population units with $d_i = d$, where $d = 1, 2, 3$ and $\sum_d p_d = 1$. For example, if $p = (0.4, 0.3, 0.3)$, then 40% of the units in U have only one link to A , 30% of them have two links and the remaining 30% have three links.

- Let p_M be the proportion of units in U that have a match in A , where $p_1 < p_M < 1$. By setting $p_M < 1$, one can emulate the general situation where U and A are not one-one correspondent in terms of the matches, and the ideal GREG estimator that uses all $\{(y_i, x_i): i \in s\}$ is unattainable in reality even if one knew all the matches. We let all the unique links be matches, the other $N(p_M - p_1)$ units with matches are randomly selected, independently of whether a unit has two or three links. For each $i \in U$ with $d_i > 1$, all its false links are randomly selected from $A \setminus \{i\}$.
- Let p_{ML} be the proportion of units in N whose matches are identified as the best links, where $p_1 \leq p_{ML} \leq p_M$. Setting $p_{ML} = p_M$ implies that the best-link choice is perfect given (M, L) , in which case the SBL-GREG estimator (7) reaches its maximum potential. Setting $p_{ML} = p_1$ means that all the known correct links are presented as the unique links. Using the SBL-GREG estimator is then unlikely to be a good option, because one could have obtained additional correct links among the $N(p_M - p_1)$ units just by guessing randomly. Thus, the SBL-GREG estimator improves as p_{ML} varies from p_1 to p_M . Moreover, setting p_{ML} close to p_M signifies situations where one has good knowledge of the linkage quality, whereas setting p_{ML} closer to p_1 signifies the opposite. The $N(p_{ML} - p_1)$ units with $d_i > 1$ and correct best links are randomly chosen from the relevant $N(p_M - p_1)$ units. The best links for the rest $N(1 - p_{ML})$ units are randomly chosen among the relevant false links in the respective α_i .

Given each sample s , we calculate the following estimates and their variance estimates.

- The HT-estimator, and the ideal GREG estimator (1), or simply Ideal.
- The *subsample* GREG estimator, or simply Sub, which is only based on the sample units with $d_i = 1$, that is, with known correct links. This is a practical option, because in most applications of record linkage one can identify a subset of unique links that are virtually error-free, no matter how large or small this subset is in a given situation.
- The PI-GREG estimator (3) with multiplicity weights $\omega_{i\ell} = 1/m_\ell$ or unequal incidence weights as explained below, designated as PI- m and PI- q , respectively.
- The SBL-GREG estimator (7), or simply SBL, and the SRI-GREG estimator (5) with reverse incidence weights as explained below and designated as SRI- q .
- The SLS-GREG estimator (9), or simply SLS, with the same weights as SRI- q .

For SRI- q , the reverse incidence weight (4) assigned to the best link is $\omega_{i\ell_i} = q$ in cases of $d_i > 1$, where $0 < q < 1$, and $\omega_{i\ell} = (1 - q)/(d_i - 1)$ for the other links in $i \times \alpha_i$.

- For a unit with $d_i = 2$, setting $q = 0.5$ would mean that one has no plausible guess which of the two links is more likely to be correct; for a unit with $d_i = 3$, the indifferent choice would be $q = 1/3$. For an easy presentation without unnecessary finesse, we simply set $q = 0.4$ whether of $d_i = 2$ or 3, which refers to a choice where the weights are more or less indifferent over the multiple links of unit i in U .
- Of course, in cases where p_{ML} is much higher than p_1 , it is no longer reasonable to set $q = 0.4$. To take advantage of the knowledge of linkage quality, one can raise the

value of q , in accordance with the proportion of units with correct best link given $d_i > 1$, which is $(p_{ML} - p_1)/(1 - p_1)$. For example, if $(p_1, p_{ML}) = (0.2, 0.8)$, then setting q around $(0.8 - 0.2)/(1 - 0.2) = 0.75$ would not be an unnatural choice in practice.

For the incidence weights (2), the multiplicity weight $1/m_\ell$ is the indifferent choice. For unequal weights of PI- q when $m_\ell > 1$, we proceed as follows: if the matched population unit is in β_ℓ , assign the value q to the match, where $0 < q < 1$, and $(1 - q)/(m_\ell - 1)$ to the other links in $\beta_\ell \times \ell$; otherwise, assign q to a randomly selected link, and $(1 - q)/(m_\ell - 1)$ to the others. The value of q can be large, if one has good knowledge of the linkage quality, such as when $p_{ML} = p_1$. Setting a lower value of q , for example, $q = 0.4$, emulates a situation where one has only vague ideas about the linkage quality. Given how the population links L are generated above, the range of m_ℓ over A is greater than that of d_i over U , although a large majority of the records in A would have m_ℓ between 0 and 3.

Finally, based on K independent samples, the Monte Carlo expectation and variance of an estimator, generically denoted by $t_{(k)}$ for $k = 1, \dots, K$, are given by

$$\bar{t} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K t_{(k)} \quad \text{and} \quad v(t) = \frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{k=1}^K (t_{(k)} - \bar{t})^2$$

We obtain the MSE of the estimator accordingly. Moreover, the Monte Carlo expectation of the associated variance estimator, denoted by $v_{(k)}$ for $k = 1, \dots, K$, is given as

$$\bar{v}(t) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K v_{(k)}$$

4.2. Results

The population values of y_i are generated with $\sigma_i \equiv 1.5$, where $N = 5,000$. The sample size is $n = 100$. Let the population mean $\bar{Y}$ be the target of estimation.

For the results in all the tables, SE is the square root of $v(t)$ of the corresponding estimator and ESE the square root of $\bar{v}(t)$. The variance estimator of an estimator works well, if its SE and ESE are close to each other. The relative efficiency (RE) of an estimator is given by the ratio between its variance and that of the HT-estimator, whereas RMSE designates the ratio of their MSEs. The bias of an estimator is small compared to its variance if its RMSE and RE are close to each other.

The columns in all the tables refer to the different estimators by their shorthands given above. We simply set $c_i \equiv 1$ for GREG over s , and $c_{i\ell} \equiv 1$ for GREG over L_s .

4.2.1. Low Linkage Quality

Table 1 provides a set of results in a situation where the linkage quality is very low. We have $p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4)$, such that one is only confident about 20% of the units whose links are matches. Next, we have $p_M = 0.4$, such that the matches are missed from the relevant links for 60% of the population units. The choice of the best link deteriorates as p_{ML} decreases from p_M to p_1 . We set $q = 0.4$ for all the results in **Table 1**, which is not unreasonable given the low linkage quality here.

Table 1. Results given low linkage quality, $N = 5,000$, $n = 100$, $K = 5,000$.

$p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4), p_M = 0.4, p_{ML} = 0.4, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.204	0.148	0.328	0.204	0.204	0.197	0.198	0.201
ESE	0.203	0.146	0.327	0.201	0.201	0.194	0.195	0.199
RE	1	0.525	2.595	1.002	1.001	0.930	0.939	0.968
RMSE	1	0.525	2.596	1.002	1.001	0.931	0.940	0.968
$p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4), p_M = 0.4, p_{ML} = 0.3, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.205	0.148	0.332	0.205	0.205	0.203	0.199	0.203
ESE	0.204	0.146	0.325	0.202	0.202	0.198	0.195	0.200
RE	1	0.522	2.623	0.999	1.001	0.977	0.943	0.977
RMSE	1	0.522	2.625	0.999	1.001	0.979	0.944	0.978
$p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4), p_M = 0.4, p_{ML} = 0.2, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.202	0.146	0.332	0.202	0.202	0.201	0.194	0.198
ESE	0.203	0.147	0.325	0.201	0.201	0.200	0.194	0.199
RE	1	0.522	2.691	1.000	0.998	0.984	0.924	0.959
RMSE	1	0.522	2.692	1.000	0.998	0.985	0.924	0.960

First, since HT and Ideal do not depend on L , their Monte Carlo variance and MSE all have the same expectations in Table 1, such that the variations across the three blocks reflect directly the magnitudes of the Monte Carlo simulation errors. It is seen that the results are reliable within a range of 10^{-2} . Although the variation is greater for Sub, as it is only based on about 20 sample units, it is clearly the least efficient estimator here.

Next, as can be expected, the performance of SBL worsens as p_{ML} decreases. Its RE is about 1 when $p_{ML} = p_1 = 0.2$. However, since p_{ML} is unlikely to be as low as p_1 in practice, one can still expect it to be slightly more efficient than HT.

Given constant $q = 0.4$ in Table 1, only small variations of the results can be detected across the three blocks, regarding the variance and MSE of each of the other estimators. It follows that the population variations of (M, L) and best links across the blocks do not affect the following conclusions based on these results. Using the incidence weights, PI- m and PI- q do not yield any gains over HT, although they are more difficult and costly to implement because they require the knowledge of L . Between SRI- q and SLS, both based on the reverse incidence weights, the former is somewhat more efficient. In particular, SRI- q is able to improve HT, even when p_{ML} is as low as p_1 , whereas it is about as efficient as SBL when $p_{ML} = 0.4$ and the latter is at its best.

Comparing RE and RMSE, one can see that the bias is negligible compared to the variance of SBL, SRI- q and SLS that only require the sample links L_s . Finally, comparing SE and ESE, one can see that the variance estimators work well in all the cases.

Table 2 provides another set of results, where p remains the same but p_M is increased to 0.8, such that 80% of the population units now have their matches included in the links, although one can only be confident that about 20% of the sample units are linked correctly.

Table 2. Results given low linkage quality, $N = 5,000$, $n = 100$, $K = 5,000$.

$p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4), p_M = 0.8, p_{ML} = 0.8, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.206	0.149	0.333	0.199	0.198	0.171	0.186	0.192
ESE	0.204	0.146	0.324	0.194	0.194	0.168	0.183	0.190
RE	1	0.524	2.622	0.933	0.932	0.691	0.818	0.876
RMSE	1	0.524	2.624	0.933	0.932	0.691	0.822	0.878

$p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4), p_M = 0.8, p_{ML} = 0.8, q = 0.7$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.206	0.149	0.325	0.198	0.193	0.172	0.174	0.191
ESE	0.204	0.146	0.326	0.195	0.189	0.169	0.172	0.190
RE	1	0.519	2.481	0.924	0.872	0.694	0.716	0.861
RMSE	1	0.519	2.482	0.924	0.873	0.697	0.719	0.861

$p = (0.2, 0.4, 0.4), p_M = 0.8, p_{ML} = 0.2, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.206	0.149	0.333	0.199	0.199	0.205	0.186	0.194
ESE	0.204	0.147	0.328	0.195	0.195	0.201	0.182	0.191
RE	1	0.519	2.599	0.931	0.930	0.983	0.815	0.883
RMSE	1	0.519	2.604	0.931	0.930	0.983	0.818	0.884

This provides a scenario where one can possibly have good knowledge of the linkage quality, although the available linking variables are rather noisy. Sub cannot improve given the same p_1 . SBL is much better when $p_{ML} = p_M$, where it uses correctly matched auxiliary data for 80% of the units, and its RE is about 0.69 in Table 2 compared to 0.93 in Table 1 when $p_{ML} = p_M$. But the gain easily evaporates as p_{ML} decreases towards p_1 . Although the results for PI- m and PI- q are better than before, they are still dominated by SRI- q and SLS based on the reverse incidence weights, and the same pattern as before remains of the relative merits of the latter two. Again, the bias is negligible compared to the variance and the variance estimators work well in all the cases.

It is worth noting the second block of results in Table 2. Now that $p_{ML} = 0.8$ is much higher than $p_1 = 0.2$, it is no longer reasonable to set $q = 0.4$, where the weights are more or less indifferent over the multiple links. To take advantage of the good knowledge of linkage quality, one can raise the value of q . Setting $q = 0.7$ is not hard to justify here, given $(p_{ML} - p_1)/(1 - p_1) = 0.75$. While this clearly improves the results for SRI- q , where the RE is 0.71 against 0.82 given $q = 0.4$ in the first block, it does not have any noteworthy effect for SLS. In the case of SLS, GREG is over L_s instead of s , and it seems more difficult to assign the unequal weights sensibly for this estimator. PI- q is also clearly better given larger q , where its RE is 0.87 compared to 0.93 in the first block where $q = 0.4$, although the improvement is not as large as for SRI- q .

Finally, GREG estimation is much more efficient than the HT-estimator, at least in these results, even when one can only be certain that about 20% of the sample units are correctly matched, as long as L covers a large part of M . For instance, the SRI-GREG estimator achieves about 20% variance reduction in the last block, only based on more or less indifferent reverse incidence weights for the units with multiple links.

4.2.2. Better Linkage Quality

Two more sets of results are given in Table 3, given better linkage quality than above. For the first two blocks of results, we have $p = (0.4, 0.3, 0.3)$ and $p_M = 0.9$, such that 90% of the population units have matches among the links, although one is only certain about nearly half of them. This will be referred to as the *medium* linkage quality scenario. For the last two blocks, we have $p = (0.8, 0.1, 0.1)$ and $p_M = 0.98$, such that only 2% of the population units have missing matches in L , and nearly 80% of the matches are given as unique links. This will be referred to as the *high* linkage quality scenario.

The following features are essentially the same as the results in Tables 1 and 2 given low linkage quality. In all the cases, the bias is negligible compared to the variance and the variance estimators work well. PI- m and PI- q using incidence weights are still largely dominated by SRI- q and SLS using reverse incidence weights. For the former two estimators, PI- q can improve PI- m given good knowledge of the linkage quality, that is, when $p_{ML} = p_M$; for the latter two estimators, SRI- q is still better than SLS.

Table 3. Results given medium-high linkage quality, $N = 5,000$, $n = 100$, $K = 5,000$.

$p = (0.4, 0.3, 0.3), p_M = 0.9, p_{ML} = 0.9, q = 0.7$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.205	0.149	0.232	0.194	0.183	0.160	0.164	0.184
ESE	0.203	0.146	0.233	0.191	0.181	0.157	0.160	0.181
RE	1	0.532	1.278	0.900	0.800	0.612	0.638	0.805
RMSE	1	0.532	1.279	0.901	0.800	0.615	0.641	0.806
$p = (0.4, 0.3, 0.3), p_M = 0.9, p_{ML} = 0.65, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.204	0.147	0.229	0.191	0.192	0.183	0.173	0.184
ESE	0.203	0.146	0.233	0.190	0.191	0.181	0.173	0.183
RE	1	0.519	1.262	0.878	0.891	0.804	0.723	0.810
RMSE	1	0.519	1.263	0.879	0.892	0.804	0.723	0.811
$p = (0.8, 0.1, 0.1), p_M = 0.98, p_{ML} = 0.98, q = 0.9$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.201	0.145	0.164	0.174	0.155	0.148	0.149	0.162
ESE	0.204	0.146	0.165	0.175	0.155	0.149	0.150	0.164
RE	1	0.526	0.667	0.753	0.593	0.547	0.548	0.651
RMSE	1	0.526	0.675	0.753	0.593	0.549	0.549	0.651
$p = (0.8, 0.1, 0.1), p_M = 0.98, p_{ML} = 0.89, q = 0.4$								
	HT	Ideal	Sub	PI- m	PI- q	SBL	SRI- q	SLS
SE	0.205	0.149	0.166	0.179	0.182	0.162	0.158	0.165
ESE	0.204	0.146	0.165	0.174	0.178	0.160	0.156	0.164
RE	1	0.532	0.660	0.763	0.793	0.625	0.596	0.652
RMSE	1	0.532	0.666	0.764	0.794	0.626	0.596	0.654

Some additional points are worth noting. Sub becomes more efficient than HT given high linkage quality where $p_1 = 0.8$. However, just like Ideal, it is infeasible in reality, because one cannot be sure if the auxiliary total X_A is equal to $\sum_{i \in U} x_i$. We have set $A = U$ here to ensure the two are equal, only so that these two estimators can be easily calculated, in order to provide references for the performance of the GREG estimators developed in this article. In the high linkage quality scenario, the RE is about 0.66 for Sub, so that it is dominated by SBL and SRI- q , because they use the additional auxiliary information for the population units with multiple links. Moreover, the RE of SBL and SRI- q are 0.55 when $p_{ML} = p_M = 0.98$ and $q = 0.9$, which is about the same as 0.53 for Ideal, suggesting that the auxiliary information is almost fully utilised.

The settings $(p_M, p_{ML}) = (0.4, 0.65)$ and $(0.8, 0.89)$ emulate random selection of the best link among the available links, where $p_{ML} = p_1 + p_2/2 + p_3/3$ in the first case and approximately so in the second case. For either case, the reverse incidence weights given $q = 0.4$ are also more or less indifferent over the available links. The RE is 0.72 for SRI- q against 0.80 for SBL in the medium quality scenario, and it is 0.60 for SRI- q against 0.63 for SBL in the high quality scenario. Thus, it is possible to improve the simplistic SBL-GREG estimator through the choice of reverse incidence weights, even though one has no precise knowledge about the correct link given multiple links.

As discussed before, when $p_{ML} = p_M$ and the choice of best link is perfect for the given (M, L) , it is reasonable to use a higher value of q . The choice of $q = 0.7$ is not unnatural in the medium quality scenario where $(p_{ML} - p_1)/(1 - p_1) = 0.83$, and similarly for $q = 0.9$ in the high quality scenario where $(p_{ML} - p_1)/(1 - p_1) = 0.9$. The RE is 0.64 for SRI- q against 0.61 for SBL in the medium quality scenario, and it is 0.55 for SRI- q against 0.55 for SBL in the high quality scenario. This suggests that it is not difficult for SRI- q to make the most out of the good knowledge of linkage quality, characterised as $p_{ML} = p_M$, by assigning appropriate reverse incidence weight to the best link accordingly.

Meanwhile, changing the value of q has basically no effect on SLS in either scenario, indicating again that it may be more difficult to assign unequal weights sensibly for this estimator. Raising the value of q does much good for PI- q , where its RE is improved from 0.89 to 0.80 in the medium quality scenario, and from 0.79 to 0.59 in the high quality scenario. Nevertheless, it is dominated by SRI- q and SBL. We notice that m_e varies more over A than d_i over U , due to directional linkage from U to A , where one can easily control the range of d_i but not m_e . Thus, when it is possible to link the entire U and A , one may be able to improve PI- q by adopting a two-way linkage method.

5. Conclusions and Final Remarks

Three types of GREG estimators are developed given imperfectly matched auxiliary data, where the standard GREG estimator is inapplicable. Simulation results show that they can improve the estimation efficiency, compared to the HT-estimator that ignores the auxiliary information, even when the linkage quality is as low as that given for Table 1. Other simulations, omitted here to save space, yield results that are consistent with those reported in Subsection 4.2, as the sample size varies between $n = 30$ and $n = 1,000$, or when the regression model variance is as heterogenous as $\sigma_i = 2x_i$.

The first type of PI-GREG estimator (3) is design-consistent, but costly or impossible to implement, because it is based on the incidence weights (2) that require one to link the entire population and auxiliary database. While it lacks efficiency compared to the other two types of GREG estimators in the simulation study, one may be able to improve it by adopting a two-way linkage method, provided one can obtain good knowledge of the linkage quality, as discussed at the end of Subsection 4.2.

The other two types of GREG estimators are practical, as they are based on the reverse incidence weights (4), for which one only needs to link the sample to the auxiliary database. A special case is the simplistic best-link estimator (7) that may be relevant for secondary users who have no access to the auxiliary database or the record linkage procedure. The additional assumptions for these estimators to be design-consistent can be tested given the observed sample and links, and MSE can be used as the uncertainty measure instead of sampling variance if the bias is not negligible. The simulation study demonstrates that the SRI estimator (5) can more easily be made efficient, compared to the SLS estimator (9), through the weights assigned to the best links.

In summary, the SRI-GREG estimator is easy to implement and, at this stage, seems often the most efficient given sensible choices of the reverse incidence weights. Future research will hopefully provide better theoretical insights to the relative efficiency of the estimators, and it will be intriguing whether the PI-GREG and SLS-GREG estimators can be made more competitive, or if there are potentially other effective approaches to devising GREG estimators given imperfectly matched auxiliary data.

6. References

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