

# RANKED SET SAMPLING FOR ESTIMATING THE DIFFERENCE OF MEANS

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**ABSTRACT**

Ranked set sampling permits to use ancillary information to rank the units. The drawing of them using the ranks is at least equivalent to random sampling. In this paper this method is applied for deriving estimators of the difference.

**Key words:** ranked set sampling, accuracy, missing observations.

**RESUMEN**

El muestreo de conjunto previamente rankeado permite utilizar la información adicional para rankear las unidades. La selección de ellas es llevada a cabo usándoles y es cuando menos equivalente al uso del muestreo simple aleatorio. En este trabajo le usamos para obtener estimadores de la diferencia.

**Palabras clave:** muestreo de conjuntos, exactitud, observaciones perdidas.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The aims of the researcher are to observe a convenient sample. It must have units representing the expected different behaviors of the variable of interest  $Y$ . They look for a *representative sample*. Statisticians have modeled these aims by stratifying, clustering, assigning different probabilities to the units, etc. The economic aspect is characterized by the sampling costs which should match with a fixed budget. The use of a sub-sampling procedure is common. Then a large sample  $s$  is selected but only some of the selected units, a sub-sample, are used for measuring  $Y$ . A less costly variable  $X$  is measured in  $s$  and  $Y$  only in the smaller sub-sample  $s^*$ .

Ranked Set Sampling (rss) is based on the observation of a sub-sample  $m$  from a set of  $m$  independent samples of the same size.  $s = s_1 \cup \dots \cup s_m$  is the large sample. The sub-samples are selected independently by using Simple Random Sampling With Replacement (srswr) and their sizes are  $|s_i| = m$  for any  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . Therefore  $|s| = s^2$  and we have the measures of  $X$  as follows:

<i>Subsample</i>	<i>Variable</i>
1	$X_{11} \dots X_{1m}$
2	$X_{21} \dots X_{2m}$
⋮	⋮ ... ⋮
m	$X_{m1} \dots X_{mm}$

$X_{ij}$  is the value of  $X$  in the  $j$ -th-sampled unit in  $s_i$  and  $X_{i(t)}$  as the  $t$ -th order statistics (t-os). Then we may rearrange the samples as

<i>Subsample</i>	<i>Variable</i>
1	$\underline{X_{1(1)}} \underline{X_{1(2)}} \dots \underline{X_{1(m)}}$
2	$\underline{X_{2(1)}} \underline{X_{2(2)}} \dots \underline{X_{2(m)}}$
⋮	⋮ ... ⋮
m	$\underline{X_{m(1)}} \dots \underline{X_{m(2)}} \underline{X_{m(m)}}$

The units with the underlined of are included in the sub-sample and  $Y$  is measured in them. The obtained sample  $s^*$  is called Random set Sample and its size is  $m$ .

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McIntyre (1952) recommended this method. He analyzed the economy due to its use without a mathematical support for his ideas. It was used for estimating pasture yields. He ranked a set of plots on the basis of a previous visual inspection. The subjective evaluation (X) were used for ranking the plots before measuring the yield (Y). The assumption that the ranking was perfect establishes that to measure Y in the unit with X-rank t in  $s_t^*$  is the tos of Y in this sample. This procedure is used in r cycles independently. The size of m is small and the size of the complete sample is  $n = rm$ .

In Section 2 we will discuss the efficiency of rss in comparison with srswr. In Section 3 we will develop estimators for the difference. A rss procedure is proposed and it is compared with an estimator used by Ware-Cunia (1962). Ratio and regression based estimators are worked out. The estimators are compared in Section 4. A Monte Carlo experiment illustrated the practical performance of the alternative estimators of the difference of population means.

## 2. SIMPLE RANDOM SAMPLING AND RANKED SET SAMPLING

Ranked set sample is based on the selection of m samples of size m. The procedure of selecting the ranked set sample is repeated r times independently and the total sample size is rm. Let us denote the os  $Y_{(i)}$  in a cycle j as  $Y_{(i:m)j}$ . An estimator of the population mean  $\mu_Y$  is

$$\bar{Y}_{(m)r} = \frac{1}{mr} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^r Y_{(i:m)j} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m Y_{(i:m)} \quad (2.1)$$

Halls-Dell (1966) and Cobby **et al** (1985) have used this method in other studies of pasture yields.

Takahasi-Wakimoto (1968) developed mathematical aspects of rss. The improvement of the efficiency of the proposed procedure dor estimating the mean with respect to the srswr was established under the assumption that the X-ranking and the Y-ranking coincide.

As the variables with the i-th rank have  $E(Y_{(i:m)}) = \mu_{(i:m)}$ , the expectation of the i-os, and  $\text{Var}(Y_{(i:m)}) = \sigma_{(i:m)}^2$  is its variance. Then the unbiasedness of (2.1) follows easily, see Patil-Sinha-Taillie (1994), and

$$V(\bar{Y}_{(m)r}) = \frac{1}{m^2 r} \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_{(i:m)}^2 = \frac{1}{mr} \left( \sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^m (\mu_{(i:m)} - \mu)^2 \right)$$

As  $n = mr$  is the total sample size we have that the sampling error in srswr is

$$V(\bar{Y}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

(2.1) is more accurate. Takahasi-Wakimoto (1968) derived that rss and srswr are equivalent only if the distribution of the variable is uniform.

Dell-Clutter (1972) considered the case in which the ranking may be imperfect. They obtained that this estimator maintains its properties. Jonhson-Patil-Sinha (1993) applied rss to an important study of vegetation and Patil-Taillie (1993) discussed how related models permit to develop adequate inferences using rss. The interest in rss is close related with its usefulness in environmental surveys. Evaluating small sets of samples, which are ranked, diminishes the associated high costs, and an adequate representation of the existing units is achieved. Since the publication in the Volumen 12<sup>th</sup> of the Handbook of Statistics of the analysis of Patil-Sinha-Taillie (1994) on rss the number of publications on this subject has been increased considerably. We will cope with the problem of estimating the difference of two population means.

## 3. ESTIMATION OF THE DIFFERENCE

We are interested in estimating the difference between the means of two variables Y and Z. The auxiliary variable X permits to rank the units. An increase in X is related with an adequate response in Y and Z. This is a common situation in many applications. For example the ecologist wants to estimate the difference between the abundance of a pest after and before, a visual evaluation of the fields (X) permits to rank them, a

manager plans to estimate the consumption of his beverage in a population with respect to the competitor's results, X may be the overall sales of the stores, etc.

A sample s of size m is selected by srswr for estimating  $D = \mu_Y - \mu_Z$  and it is divided into three independent sub-samples

- s (1) = {j ∈ s | Y and Z are measured}, |s(1)| = m(1)
- s (2) = {j ∈ s | only Y is measured}, |s(2)| = m(2)
- s (3) = {j ∈ s | only Z are measured}, |s(3)| = m(3).

This model permits to reduce the sampling costs. Ware-Cunia (1962) derived a Minimum Variance estimator dealing with forest inventories. Pi-Erh Lin (1971) derived an optimal estimator of D when the variables are normal. We will use rss for estimating D and different estimators will be compared.

Take s as in Section 2 but each sub-sample s<sub>i</sub> is partitioned into three sub-samples s<sub>i(j)</sub>, j = 1,2,3, according with the above proposed scheme. For the first sample the ranking is made using an evaluation of the expected difference between Y and Z. For the other sub-samples the ranking is made as usual. Therefore we may compute for the sample where Y and Z are measured

$$d_1 = \bar{y}_{m(1)} - \bar{z}_{m(1)} = \frac{1}{m(1)r} \sum_{i=1}^{m(1)} \sum_{j=1}^r Y_{(i:m(1))j} - \frac{1}{m(1)r} \sum_{i=1}^{m(1)} \sum_{j=1}^r Z_{(i:m(1))j}$$

by using the structure of (2.1). It is unbiased for D and

$$V(d_1) = V(\bar{y}_{m(1)}) + V(\bar{z}_{m(1)}) + \text{Cov}(\bar{y}_{m(1)}, \bar{z}_{m(1)}) = V_{y(1)} + V_{z(1)} + \text{Cov}_{y,z(1)}$$

where

$$V(\bar{y}_{(m)1}) = \frac{1}{rm(1)} \left( \sigma_y^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{m(1)} (\mu_{y(i:m(1))} - \mu_y)^2 \right) = \frac{1}{rm(1)} (\sigma_y^2 - \Delta_{ym(1)})$$

$$V(\bar{z}_{(m)1}) = \frac{1}{rm(1)} (\sigma_z^2 - \Delta_{zm(1)})$$

Hence

$$V(d_1) = \frac{\sigma_y^2 + \sigma_z^2}{rm(1)} - \frac{1}{rm(1)} (\Delta_{ym(1)} + \Delta_{zm(1)}) - 2\text{Cov}_{y,z(1)}$$

Because the existence of errors in the ranking do not affect the properties of (2.1).

In the unmatched samples we will use the corresponding estimators of  $\mu_y$  and  $\mu_z$ :

$$\bar{y}_{(2)} = \frac{1}{rm(2)} \sum_{i=1}^{m(2)} \sum_{j=1}^r Y_{(i:m(2))j}$$

and

$$\bar{z}_{(3)} = \frac{1}{rm(3)} \sum_{i=1}^{m(3)} \sum_{j=1}^r Z_{(i:m(3))j}$$

with variances

$$V(\bar{y}_{(2)}) = \frac{1}{rm(2)} \left( \sigma_y^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{m(2)} (\mu_{y(i:m(2))} - \mu_y)^2 \right) = \frac{1}{rm(2)} (\sigma_y^2 - \Delta_{ym(2)})$$

$$V(\bar{z}_{(3)}) = \frac{1}{rm(3)} \left( \sigma_z^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{m(3)} (\mu_{z(i:m(3))} - \mu_z)^2 \right) = \frac{1}{rm(3)} (\sigma_z^2 - \Delta_{zm(3)})$$

Then we estimate D by using

$$d_{r_{ss}} = d_1 + (\bar{y}_{(2)} - \bar{z}_{(3)})$$

with

$$V(d_{r_{ss}}) = \sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{1}{rm(1)} + \frac{1}{rm(2)} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{1}{rm(1)} + \frac{1}{rm(3)} \right) - \Delta - 2\text{Cov}_{zy(1)}$$

where

$$\Delta = \Delta_y \left( \frac{1}{rm(1)} + \frac{1}{rm(2)} \right) + \Delta_z \left( \frac{1}{rm(1)} + \frac{1}{rm(3)} \right)$$

Ware-Cunia (1962) proposed the estimator

$$d_{VC} = a_1 \bar{y}_1 + a_2 \bar{y}_2 + b_1 \bar{z}_1 + b_3 \bar{z}_3$$

the parameters are unknown but they must satisfy that  $a_1 + a_2 = -(b_1 + b_3) = 1$  for supporting the unbiasedness of it. Setting  $a_1 = a$  and  $b_1 = b$  the variance is

$$V(d_{VC}) = \frac{\sigma_y^2 (n_2 a^2 + n_1 (1-a)^2)}{n_1 n_2} + \frac{\sigma_z^2 (n_3 b^2 + n_1 (1-b)^2)}{n_1 n_2} + \frac{2ab \sigma_{yz}}{n_1}$$

The optimum values of a and b are obtained by looking for a minimum variance estimator.

They are

$$a_0 = \frac{\lambda n' \sigma_y + n_1 \rho \sigma_z}{\sigma_y (\lambda n' + n_1 \rho^2)} \quad (3.1)$$

$$b_0 = \frac{\lambda n'' \sigma_z + n_1 \rho \sigma_y}{\sigma_{yz} (\lambda n'' + n_1 \rho^2)} \quad (3.2)$$

where

$$\lambda = \frac{n_1}{n_2}, \quad n' = n_1 + n_2, \quad n'' = n_1 + n_3 \quad \text{and} \quad \rho = \sigma_{yz} / \sigma_y \sigma_z.$$

Using the approach based on Double Sampling and assuming that the ratios and regression coefficients are stable the knowledge of their values from previous experiences enables to develop ratio and regression estimators of D.

Taking  $R_1 = \mu_z / \mu_y$  and  $R_2 = \mu_y / \mu_z$

$$d_R = R_1(n_1\bar{y}_1 + n_2\bar{y}_2) - R_2((n_1\bar{z}_1 + n_3\bar{z}_3)) = R_1\bar{y}'_1 + R_2\bar{z}'_1$$

is unbiased because the involved means are unbiased. The variance is

$$V(d_R) = \frac{R_1^2\sigma_y^2}{n'} + \frac{R_2^2\sigma_z^2}{n''} - \frac{2R_1R_2\sigma_{yz}}{n'n''}$$

When the regression estimator is used

$$\bar{y}_r = \bar{y}_1 + B_1(\bar{z}_3 - \bar{z}_1)$$

$$\bar{z}_r = \bar{z}_1 + B_2(\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)$$

where  $B_1 = \rho\sigma_y/\sigma_z$  and  $B_2 = \rho\sigma_z/\sigma_y$  and

$$d_r = \bar{y}_r - \bar{z}_r$$

Again the unbiasedness of the estimator follows from the knowledge of the involved parameters. Arranging conveniently the terms of  $(d_r - D)^2$  after some algebraic manipulations we obtain that

$$V(d_r) = \frac{\sigma_y^2(n_3 + n'\rho^2)}{n_1n_3} + \frac{\sigma_z^2(n_2 + n''\rho^2)}{n_1n_2} - 2\frac{\sigma_{yz}(1 + \rho^2)}{n_1}$$

#### 4. COMPARISON OF THE ESTIMATORS

A theoretical comparison of the estimators is based on the analysis of their variances. The estimator  $d_{rss}$  is more accurate than  $d_{vc}$  when  $V(d_{rss}) - V(d_{vc}) < 0$ . Remembering that  $n_h = rm$  ( $h = 1,2,3$ ) we can write this difference as:

$$\sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{n' - n_2a^2 - n_1(1-a)^2}{n_1n_2} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{n'' - n_3b^2 - n_1(1-b)^2}{n_1n_3} \right) - 2 \left( \text{Cov}_{yz(1)} - \frac{n_1\sigma_{xy}}{n_1} \right) - \Delta$$

In this case the gain in accuracy of rss with respect to srswr is not expressed by a decomposition of the variance. The coefficients of the variance terms positive whenever  $a$  and/or  $b$  belong to  $]0,1[$ . That is the case when we use the optimal values of them. The covariance term should be small in many cases. Therefore the possible gain in accuracy due to the use of rss depends on  $\Delta$ .

A similar analysis of  $d_{rss}$  versus  $d_R$  yields the preference of the former when

$$V(d_{rss}) - V(d_R) = \sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{n'}{n_1n_2} - \frac{R_1^2}{n'} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{n''}{n_1n_3} - \frac{R_2^2}{n''} \right) - 2 \left( \text{Cov}_{yz(1)} - \frac{n_1\sigma_{xy}}{n'n''} \right) - \Delta < 0$$

It is sufficient that

$$R_1 > \frac{n'}{\sqrt{n_1n_2}}$$

and

$$R_1 > \frac{n''}{\sqrt{n_1n_3}}$$

for preferring  $d_{rss}$ . In other cases the value of  $\Delta$  must be analyzed.

The comparison with  $d_r$  establishes that if

$$V(d_{r_{SS}}) - V(d_r) = \sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{n'}{n_1 n_2} - \frac{n_3 + n' \rho^2}{n_1 n_3} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{n''}{n_1 n_3} - \frac{n_2 + n'' \rho^2}{n_1 n_2} \right) - 2 \left( \text{Cov}_{yz(1)} - \frac{\sigma_{zy}(1 + \rho^2)}{n_1} \right) - \Delta < 0$$

we must prefer  $d_{r_{SS}}$ . Whenever

$$\rho > \sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_3}{n_2 n'}}$$

and

$$\rho > \sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2}{n_3 n''}}$$

this decision is adequate. In other case the magnitude of  $\Delta$  should be taken into account. The use of  $d_{VC}$  must be preferred to  $d_R$  if

$$V(d_{VC}) - V(d_R) = \sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{n_2 a^2 + n_1 (1-a)^2}{n_1 n_2} - \frac{R_1^2}{n'} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{n_3 b^2 + n_1 (1-b)^2}{n_1 n_3} - \frac{R_2^2}{n''} \right) - 2 \sigma_{yz} \left( \frac{n_1}{n' n''} - \frac{ab}{n} \right) < 0$$

A sufficient condition for preferring  $d_{VC}$  is that

$$R_1 > \sqrt{\frac{a^2 n'^2 - (2a+1)n' n_1}{n_1 n_2}}$$

and

$$R_2 > \sqrt{\frac{b^2 n''^2 - (2b+1)n'' n_1}{n_1 n_3}}$$

in any case the covariance term is always negative.

The evaluation of the accuracy of  $d_{VC}$  with respect to  $d_r$  is based on the difference

$$V(d_{VC}) - V(d_R) = \sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{n_2 a^2 + n_1 (1-a)^2}{n_1 n_2} - \frac{n_3 + n' \rho^2}{n_1 n_3} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{n_3 b^2 + n_1 (1-b)^2}{n_1 n_3} - \frac{n_2 + n'' \rho^2}{n_1 n_2} \right) - 2 \sigma_{yz} \left( \frac{ab - 1 - \rho^2}{n_1} \right)$$

It is smaller than zero if

$$\rho > \sqrt{\frac{n_3 (n_1 (1-2a) + n' a^2 - n_2)}{n' n_2}}$$

and

$$\rho > \sqrt{\frac{n_2 (n_1 (1-2b) + n'' b^2 - n_3)}{n'' n_3}}$$

Note that the covariance term is positive.

The comparison of the two estimators based on Double Sampling principle yields that  $d_R$  should be preferred to  $d_r$  if

$$V(d_R) - V(d_r) = \sigma_y^2 \left( \frac{n_1 n_3 R_1^2 - n' n_3 \rho^2}{n' n_1 n_3} \right) + \sigma_z^2 \left( \frac{n_1 n_2 R_2^2 - n' n_2 \rho^2}{n' n_1 n_2} \right) - 2\sigma_{yz} \left( \frac{n_1}{n' n'} \frac{1 - \rho^2}{n_1} \right)$$

is negative. Hence  $d_R$  is more accurate if

$$\rho > \sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_3 R_1^2 - n' n_3}{n'^2}}$$

and

$$\rho > \sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2 R_2^2 - n' n_3}{n'^2}}$$

because the term in covariance is expected to be generally negative.

In practice the parameters involved in the calculation of  $a_0$ ,  $b_0$ ,  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are unknown. We will use the proposal of Bouza-Prabhu-Ajgaonkar (1993) for analyzing the behavior of  $d_{VC}$ ,  $d_R$  and  $d_r$  by plugging in estimators of the parameters. The counterparts are

$$d'_{VC} = a' \bar{y}_1 (1 - a') \bar{y}_2 + b' \bar{z}_1 + (1 - b') \bar{z}_3$$

where  $a'$  and  $b'$  are calculated by substituting the variances and the coefficient of correlation in (3.1) and (3.2) by

$$S_{y(j)}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_j} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_j)^2}{n_j - 1} \quad \text{if} \quad j = 1, 2$$

$$S_{z(j)}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_j} (z_{ij} - \bar{z}_j)^2}{n_j - 1} \quad \text{if} \quad j = 1, 3$$

$$\rho' = \frac{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (y_{i1} - \bar{y}_1)(y_{i1} - \bar{z}_1)}{n_1 - 1}}{S_{y(1)} S_{z(1)}} = \frac{S_{yz(1)}}{S_{y(1)} S_{z(1)}}$$

For  $d_R$  we use instead of the population ratios

$$R'_1 = \frac{\bar{z}_1}{\bar{y}_1}$$

and

$$R'_2 = \frac{1}{R'_1}$$

then

$$d'_R = R'_1 \bar{y}' - R'_2 \bar{z}'$$

The Minimum Least Squares estimators estimate the regression coefficients

$$B'_1 = s_{xy} / S_y^2 \text{ and } B'_2 = s_{xy} / S_z^2 \text{ and } d'_r = (\bar{y}_1 + B'_r(\bar{z}_3 - \bar{z}_1)) - (\bar{z}_1 + B'_2(\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1)).$$

Note that the use of rss does not depend on unknown parameters.

A simulation experiment was performed for evaluating the behavior of the estimators.

Three sample sizes  $n = 30, 90$  and  $300$  were used and the sub-sample's size were equal to  $n/3$ . Both variables were generated using the same distribution. The distribution functions were an uniform in  $(0,2)$ ,  $U(0,2)$ , an exponential with  $\lambda = 1, E(1)$  and a Normal,  $N(1,1)$ . They have the same mean. The relative accuracy of the estimators was measured by

$$RP_t = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^H |\hat{D}_t - D|_h}{HD}$$

$H = 1000$  was the number of generated samples and  $t$  denotes the estimator. The number of cycles was  $r = 100$ .

The results for  $U(0,2)$  are given in Table 4. They suggest that  $d_{rss}$  was the best estimator but  $d'_R$  and  $d'_r$  have a similar behavior when the correlation is small. Note that the equivalence between (2.1) and the mean in srs derived by Takahasi. Wakimoto (1968) does not hold in this case. The increase in the correlation and the sample size have not a significant effect in the behavior of  $d_{rss}$  but it permits to obtain better estimates if  $d'_{VC}$  is used.

**Table 4.1.** Relative Accuracy of the estimators for a  $U(0,2)$ .

$\hat{D}$	0.1	N = 30		0.1	N = 90		0.1	N = 300	
		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9
$d_{rss}$	0.035	0.045	0.042	0.061	0.057	0.053	0.021	0.023	0.024
$d'_{VC}$	0.121	0.118	0.109	0.105	0.097	0.098	0.093	0.084	0.076
$d'_R$	0.056	0.057	0.051	0.063	0.067	0.060	0.076	0.069	0.064
$d'_r$	0.045	0.067	0.072	0.070	0.084	0.082	0.078	0.075	0.066

Table 4.2 presents the results of the Monte Carlo experiments for the  $E(1)$ . The estimator based on rss is again the best alternative. The use of srs is the second best. The sample size plays an important role in the accuracy of the estimators. The ratio and regression estimators have a similar behavior.

**Table 4.2.** Relative Accuracy of the estimators for a  $E(1)$ .

$\hat{D}$	0.1	N = 30		0.1	N = 90		0.1	N = 300	
		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9
$d_{rss}$	0.081	0.080	0.079	0.067	0.070	0.064	0.058	0.055	0.060
$d'_{VC}$	0.094	0.096	0.093	0.079	0.077	0.078	0.069	0.065	0.058
$d'_R$	0.104	0.098	0.094	0.100	0.098	0.087	0.091	0.086	0.082
$d'_r$	0.106	0.100	0.098	0.099	0.084	0.085	0.081	0.076	0.072

When the variables are normal  $d_{VC}$  is the best alternative but  $d_{rss}$  and  $d'_r$  are close to it.



**Table 3.** Relative Accuracy of the estimators for a N(1,1).

$\hat{D}$	0.1	N = 30			N = 90			N = 300	
		$\rho$ 0.5	0.9	0.1	$\rho$ 0.5	0.9	0.1	$\rho$ 0.5	0.9
$d_{RSS}$	0.063	0.065	0.057	0.041	0.060	0.054	0.033	0.036	0.031
$d_{VC}$	0.008	0.008	0.013	0.012	0.012	0.009	0.007	0.004	0.004
$d'_R$	0.087	0.087	0.089	0.061	0.063	0.089	0.087	0.083	0.082
$d'_t$	0.064	0.066	0.067	0.072	0.081	0.080	0.079	0.075	0.068

Therefore  $d_{RSS}$  seems to be the best alternative when the distribution is unknown and  $d_{VC}$  under the normality of the variables.

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