BAYESIAN SUFFICIENCY IN SURVEY-SAMPLING*

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1. Introduction

If $p(x|\theta)$ is the frequency function of the random variate x which is known excepting for the unknown parameter θ , assuming for convenience that $x=(x_1,\dots,x_n)$ takes values in the *n*-dimensional Euclidian space X and $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ takes values in the k-dimensional Euclidian space Ω , we may ask the question: What part of the random variate x is relevant for inference concerning an arbitrarily specified (parametric) function ϕ on Ω , disregarding individual values $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$ excepting to the extent they determine the value of the function ϕ ? In other words, is there such a thing as a sufficient statistic t(x), for $\phi(\theta)$, different than a sufficient statistic for θ itself? Clearly this is a generalization of the situation of nuisance-parameter. The convertional sufficiency is defined for θ itself as such an alternative definition of sufficiency, for the nuisance-parameter situation, based on a (or the?) group-structural relationship between the random-variate x and the parameter θ , has been put forward by Barnard [1] and Sprott [10]. In the following we give yet another definition of sufficiency for an arbitrary parametric function ϕ , which seems appropriate for the situations when our prior knowledge concerning parameter θ , can be characterized by a class C of prior distributions ξ , on the parametric space Ω . This new sufficiency would be called Bayesian sufficiency for the reasons which would be evident later on. This paper discusses applications of Bayesian sufficiency primarily for the problem of estimation as it arises in surveysampling.

2. Preliminaries

With the same notation as above, for any prior distribution ξ on Ω

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we can write the posterior density (assuming it exists), of θ as

(2.1)
$$p_{\xi}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) = p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) / \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\xi$$
, for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in X$, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Omega$.

The posterior distribution of the parametric function ϕ on Ω can be obtained by integrating (2.1) on the set of relevant values of θ . We assume this posterior distribution of ϕ admits the density function,

(2.2)
$$p_{\varepsilon}(\phi | \mathbf{x})$$
, for all $\mathbf{x} \in X$, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Omega$.

DEFINITION 2.1. A (statistic) function t(x) on the (sample) space X, is said to be *Bayes sufficient* for the (parametric) function ϕ on Ω , with respect to a class C of prior distributions ξ on the (parameter) space Ω , if the posterior density $p_{\xi}(\phi|x)$ in (2.2) depends on x only through t(x) for all $x \in X$ and $\xi \in C$.

The motivation for a class of prior distributions in the above Definition 2.1 is as follows: In practice almost never the prior knowledge completely specifies a prior distribution. On most of the occasions the prior knowledge just characterizes a few properties (such as bell-shapedness etc.) of a possible prior distribution. These properties define a class, C say, of prior distributing. This idea was first utilized by the author in [3] and subsequently in [7], but not via Bayes theorem. The Bayesian Sufficiency above aims at defining the part of Bayesian inference that is common for all the prior distributions contained in the class C. A realistic illustration from survey-sampling is discussed in sections 4 and 5.

After the reduction of the data by application of Bayesian sufficiency in section 6 we have suggested application of the principle of invariance. In spirit it is analogous to the usual practice of reduction of data through (conventional) sufficiency and invariance.

It is easy to check that if we put

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = (\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})^{-n} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2 / \sigma^2\right\}$$

where

$$x=(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$
 and $\boldsymbol{\theta}=(\mu, \sigma^2)$,

and suppose $\phi(\theta) = \sigma^2$, then if $\overline{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i/n$ according to the above Definition $t(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$ is a Bayes sufficient statistic for $\phi(\theta) = \sigma^2$, for any class C of prior distributions ξ , such that μ and σ^2 when distributed as ξ , are independent, μ having uniform (degenerate) distribution over $(-\infty, \infty)$ and σ^2 having any arbitrary distribution over $(0, \infty)$.

Similarly if we put $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = (\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})^{-(n_1+n_2)} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n_1}(x_i-\mu_i)^2+\sum_{i=1}^{n_1+n_2}(x_i-\mu_2)^2\right]\right/\sigma^2$ where $\mathbf{x}=(x_1,\cdots,x_{n_1+n_2})$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}=(\mu_1,\mu_2,\sigma^2)$ and suppose $\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta})=\sigma^2$, then if $\overline{x}_1=\sum_{i=1}^{n_1}x_i/n_i$ and $\overline{x}_2=\sum_{i=1}^{n_1+n_2}x_i/n_i$, according to the above definition $t(\mathbf{x})=\sum_{i=1}^{n_1}(x_i-\overline{x}_i)^2+\sum_{i=1}^{n_1+n_2}(x_i-\overline{x}_i)^2$ is a Bayes sufficient statistic for $\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta})=\sigma^2$, for any class C of prior distributions $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, such that μ_1, μ_2 and σ^2 when distributed as $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ are independent, μ_1, μ_2 having uniform (degenerate) distribution over $(-\infty,\infty)$ and σ^2 having some arbitrary distribution over $(0,\infty)$.

In the preceding example, the exponent in $p(x|\theta)$ can be written as

$$egin{aligned} &-rac{1}{2\sigma^2}\Big\{\sum\limits_{_1}^{n_1}(x_i - ar{x}_{_1})^2 + \sum\limits_{_{n_1+1}}^{n_1+n_2}(x_i - ar{x}_{_2})^2 + [A(\mu_1 + \mu_2) + B]^2 \ &+ C[(ar{x}_{_1} - ar{x}_{_2}) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)]^2\Big\} \end{aligned}$$

where $A^2=n_1+n_2$, $B=-\left\{n_1[\overline{x}_1-(\mu_1-\mu_2)]+n_2[\overline{x}_2(\mu_1-\mu_2)]\right\}/\sqrt{n_1+n_2}$ and $C=n_1n_2/n_1+n_2$. Hence for the same class C of the priors as before, by transferring (μ_1, μ_2) into $(\mu_1+\mu_2, \mu_1-\mu_2)$ in the posterior and then integrating out $\mu_1+\mu_2$ we have the result: A Bayes sufficient statistic for the parametric function $\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta})=[(\mu_1-\mu_2), \sigma^2]$ is given by $t(\boldsymbol{x})=\left[(\overline{x}_1-\overline{x}_2), \sum_{n_1+1}^{n_1+n_2}(x_i-\overline{x}_2)^2\right]$.

A some what striking reduction of the data is achieved by the application of Bayes sufficiency to an estimation problem arising in survey-sampling. This is shown in the following sections.

3. Survey-sampling

Let the survey population U, consist of N units, denoted by the integers $i=1, \dots, N$. If the variate value associated with the unit i is z_i , $i=1, \dots, N$, then,

$$(3.1) z=(z_1,\cdots,z_i,\cdots,z_N)$$

is a point in the N-dimensional Euclidian space R_N , and the population total T(z) is a function on R_N given by

$$(3.2) T(z) = \sum_{1}^{N} z_i.$$

Now in survey-sampling the word sample is used with some what different meaning than in the rest of statistical literature. We formally de-

fine a sample and a sampling design as follows:

DEFINITION 3.1. Any sub-set s of U (i.e. integers $1, \dots, N$) $s \subset U$ is a sample.

DEFINITION 3.2. If S denotes the set of all possible samples s, then any real function p on S such that $p(s) \ge 0$ and $\sum p(s) = 1$ for $s \in S$ is called a sampling design.

It has been repeatedly shown by the author [3], [4] that all survey-sampling designs such as simple random sampling, stratification, arbitrary probability sampling and the like are special cases of the sampling design p in the Definition 3.2 above.

Here a general problem of estimation is to estimate the *population* total given by (3.2) on the basis of a sample s, (Definition 3.1) and the values z_i , $i \in s$ where s is drawn with a specified sampling-design (Definition 3.2).

DEFINITION 3.3. Any function f(s, z) on $S \times R_N$ which depends on z in (3.1) only through those z_i for which $i \in s$ is called a *statistic*.

Now to obtain a Bayes sufficient *statistic* for the population total in (3.2) we note that in the present case the observation consists of s, $(z_i, i \in s)$. And the probability of s, $(z_i, i \in s)$ is completely determined by the sampling design p (Definition 3.2) and z in (3.1) as follows:

(3.3)
$$P[s, (z_i, i \in s) | z'] = \begin{cases} p(s) & \text{if } z' \in R_N(z_i, i \in s) \\ 0 & \text{if } z' \notin R_N(z_i, i \in s) \end{cases}$$

for all $s \in S$ and $z' \in R_N$, where $R_N(z_i, i \in s)$ is a sub-set of R_N , $R_N(z_i, i \in s) \subset R_N$, such that $z' = (z'_1, \dots, z'_i, \dots, z'_N) \in R_N(z_i, i \in s)$ if and only if $z'_i = z_i$ for all $i \in s$.

Remark. Thus here our sample-space X consists of all points s, $(z_i, i \in s)$ where $s \in S$ and $z_i, i \in s$ are any real numbers. The parametric space $\Omega = R_N$. For a specified sampling design p, (3.3) determines the probability distribution.

For a given prior ξ on R_N , the posterior distributions for z in (3.1) and T(z) in (3.2) are derived in the next section. These correspond to the posterior distributions in (2.1) and (2.2) respectively. Subsequently, a Bayes sufficient statistic for T(z) is obtained.

4. Posterior distribution of the population total

Without any loss of (statistical) generality we assume a discrete

prior distribution ξ on R_N . Then denoting by $P_{\xi}(\cdot)$ and $P_{\xi}(\cdot|\cdot)$, the corresponding probability and conditional probability respectively when ξ obtains and the sampling design by p in (3.3), we have

$$(4.1) P_{\epsilon}[z'|s, (z_{i}, i \in s)] = \frac{P_{\epsilon}[z', s, (z_{i}, i \in s)]}{P_{\epsilon}[s, (z_{i}, i \in s)]}$$

$$= \frac{\Psi_{\epsilon}[z', z_{i}, i \in s]p(s)}{P_{\epsilon}[z_{i}, i \in s]p(s)}$$

where p(s) is the same as in (3.3), $P_{\epsilon}[z_i \ i \in s]$ is the corresponding marginal probability obtained from $P_{\epsilon}(z')$ and

$$(4.2) \Psi_{\epsilon}[z', (z_i, i \in s)] = \begin{cases} P_{\epsilon}(z') & \text{for } z' \in R_N(z_i, i \in s) \\ 0 & \text{for } z' \notin R_N(z_i, i \in s) \end{cases}.$$

 $R_N(z_i, i \in s)$ being the same set as in (3.3). Now for samples s with $p(s) \neq 0$ we have from (4.1) and (4.2),

$$(4.3) \quad P_{\varepsilon}[z' | s, (z_i, i \in s)] = \begin{cases} P_{\varepsilon}(z') / P_{\varepsilon}(z_i, i \in s) & \text{for } z' \in R_N(z_i, i \in s) \\ 0 & \text{for } z' \notin R_N(z_i, i \in s) \end{cases}.$$

Now (4.3) clearly defines the posterior distribution of z' given the prior ξ , the observation s, $(z_i, i \in s)$ and the sampling design* (3.3). Next, from the posterior distribution of z in (4.3) we can obtain the posterior distribution T(z) in (3.2) in the usual manner by summing $P_{\xi}[z'|s, (z_i, i \in s)]$ over the relevant subset of R_N . An interesting simplification results by assuming ξ to be such that $z_1, \dots, z_i, \dots, z_n$ in (3.1) are mutually independent i.e.

$$(4.4) P_{\varepsilon}(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P_{\varepsilon}(z_i) .$$

Substituting (4.3) in (4.4) we have for samples s with $p(s) \neq 0$,

$$(4.5) \qquad P_{\varepsilon}[z'|s,(z_i,\ i\in s)] = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \prod\limits_{i\notin s} P_{\varepsilon}(z_i') & \text{for } z'\in R_N(z_i,i\in s) \\ 0 & \text{for } z'\notin R_N(z_i,\ i\in s) \end{array} \right.$$

Now the posterior probability that T(z) in (3.2) belongs to a set of values A is the same as $\sum_{i \notin S} z_i$ belongs to the set of values $A(\sum_{i \in S} z_i)$, where the set $A(\sum_{i \in S} z_i)$ is obtained from A by substracting from each element of A, $\sum_{i \in S} z_i$. Thus we have from (4.5)

^{*} Note the posterior distribution of z in (4.3) is independent of the sampling design p. But we would not discuss the problem of randomization in this paper. For a relevant commet see the Appendix.

THEOREM 4.1. For every prior ξ on R_N , such that z_1, \dots, z_N when distributed as ξ are mutually independent, the posterior distribution of the population total T in (3.2) conditional on $[s, (z_i, i \in s)]$, depends on $(z_i, i \in s)$ only through $\sum_i z_i$.

(4.6) $\begin{cases} \text{Further suppose } C \text{ is a class of priors } \xi \text{ on } R_N \\ \text{such that when } z_1, \dots, z_N \text{ are distributed as } \xi \text{ they are mutually independent, for all } \xi \in C. \end{cases}$

Then from Theorem 4.1, Definitions 2.1 and 3.3 we have

THEOREM 4.2. With respect to the class C in (4.6) of the prior distribution on R_N , the statistic $(s, \sum_{i \in s} z_i)$ is Bayes sufficient (Definition 2.1) for the population total T in (3.2).

The above theorem raises the following question: If as suggested by the theorem $(s, \sum_{i \in s} z_i)$ is the only *relevant* information in the data concerning the estimation of the population total T what is the logical meaning of the conventional standard errors of estimates of T? This question is not answered in this paper. However, the next section contains some related discussion.

5. A general discussion

The prior knowledge, characterized by a class C of the prior distributions in (4.6) implies that the variates z_1, \dots, z_N are causally independent. Now, the concept of causally independent variates is at the root of all physical sciences. The autonomy of a physical experiment is based on the assumption that the variates not controlled by the experiment are causally independent with the controlled variates. In fact one could probabilistically define the knowledge of causal independence of the variates z_1, \dots, z_N by any class C of prior distributions ξ on R_N such that $P_{\ell}(z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} | z_{j_1}, \dots, z_{j_l}) = P_{\ell}(z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R})$ where z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} and z_{j_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} are two non-intersecting subsets of the variates z_1, \dots, z_N . One may now raise the question as to whether under the hypothesis of causal independence any inference can be made about the unseen values z_{i} , \cdots, z_{i_R} on the basis of the observations z_{j_1}, \cdots, z_{j_R} . That such an inference is possible can be quickly illustrated in case the class C consists of all the prior distributions ξ such that z_1, \dots, z_N are independently and identically distributed. On the basis of the observations z_{j_1}, \dots, z_{j_R} one can have some estimate of ξ which can be used for inferring the unseen values z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} . Again the class C is a parametric family of distributions, and, we can estimate some of the parameters from the observed values. In general, we can say that in spite of the assumption of the causal independence of the variates z_1, \dots, z_N , observing some of these variates may sharpen our prior knowledge from class C of prior distributions to the class C^* where $C^* \subset C$. And this fact implies the possibility of inference concerning the unobserved values. The consideration of invariance discussed in the next section may suggest an alternative approach. Now in many cases of survey-sampling, the variates x_1, \dots, x_N are causally independent, in the sense described above, some possible exceptions being the situations where the populations are stratified.

6. Origin and scale invariance

Intuitively it is more appealing to do the reduction of the data first according to certain natural invariance properties of the model and then apply the sufficiency criteria for the further reduction. But in practice, generally, the reverse procedure is more convenient. An excellent reference in this direction is Hall, et al. [8].

In this section we consider the problem of finding a suitable point estimator for the population total T in (3.2). With slight change in the Definition 3.3, we have

DEFINITION 6.1. Any real function e(s, z) on $S \times R_N$, which depends on z only through those z_i for which $i \in s$, is called an estimator.

DEFINITION 6.2. Any estimator e is called a Bayes sufficient estimator for the population total T in (3.2) if e depends on $[s, (z_i, i \in s)]$ only through the Bayes sufficient statistic $[s, \sum_{i \in s} z_i]$ in Theorem 4.2.

We now introduce the concept of the origin and scale invariant estimation for the population total as follows:

DEFINITION 6.3. Any estimator e(s, z) is said to be *origin invariant* for the population total T(z) if and only if for any real constant k, $(-\infty < k < \infty)$, $e(s, z + k\overline{z}) = e(s, z) + Nk$.

DEFINITION 6.4. Any estimator e(s, z) is said to be *scale invariant* for the population total T(z) if and only if for any real constant k, $(-\infty < k < \infty)$, $e(s, kz) = k \cdot e(s, z)$.

It seems that certain symmetries implied in some possible prior knowledge about the population may make the above properties of invariance intruitively appealing. Any way, it is interesting to note that Bayes sufficiency together with the concept of invariance introduced by Definitions 6.3. and 6.4 implys a unique point estimator $\bar{e}(s,z)=N\bar{z}$, \bar{z} being the usual sample mean. This is proved below.

By Definition 6.2 any Bayes sufficient estimator for the population

total T is given by $e(s, \sum_{i \in s} z_i)$. The origin invariance by Definition 6.3 inplies $e(s, \sum_{i \in s} (z_i + k)) = e(s, \sum_{i \in s} z_i) + Nk$ for all values of z_i , $i \in s$ and k. Putting $\sum_{i \in s} z_i = 0$, we have e(s, n(s)k) = e(s, o) + Nk for all k, n(s) being the number of individuals i, $(i = 1, \dots, N)$, such that $i \in s$. Hence, origin invariant Bayes sufficient estimator for the population total must be of the form:

(6.1)
$$e(s, z) = \operatorname{const.} + N\bar{z}(s)$$

where $\bar{z}(s) = \sum_{i \in s} z_i/n(s)$. Next it is easy to see that among the class of estimators obtained from (6.1) by giving "const." different values the only one which is *scale invariant* by Definition 6.4, is given by

$$(6.2) e(s,z) = N\bar{z}(s).$$

Hence we have the following,

THEOREM 6.1. The estimator $N\bar{z}(s)$ is uniquely the Bayes sufficient, origin and scale invariant (Definitions 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4) estimator for the population total T in (3.2).

On the other hand, if our prior knowledge about the population contains knowledge of some ancillary variate y taking values y_i , $i=1, \dots, N$ for different individuals i of the population, we may wish to find an estimator which is Bayes sufficient, origin invariant (Definitions 6.2, 6.3) and which assumes exactly the value T(y) at $z=y=(y_1, \dots, y_N)$ i.e. the estimator should be such that at the point z=y, e(s,z)=T(z). A unique estimator satisfying this condition is obtained from (6.1) as follows,

(6.3)
$$e(s, y) = \text{const.} + N\bar{y}(s)$$

where $\overline{y}(s)$ is the mean of y_i , $i \in s$. And since we have e(s, y) = T(y) we have from (6.3)

(6.4) const. =
$$T(y) - N\overline{y}(s)$$
.

Putting $T(y) = N\overline{Y}$, \overline{Y} denoting the population mean of y's, we have from (6.1), (6.3) and (6.4)

(6.5)
$$e(s, z) = N(\bar{z}(s) - \bar{y}(s)) + N\bar{Y}$$
.

This is what is conventionally known as the difference estimator for the population total. Thus we have the following,

THEOREM 6.2. The (difference) estimator, given by (6.5), is the unique Bayes sufficient, origin invariant (Definitions 6.2, 6.3) estimator which is exactly equal to the population total at z=y.

Now conventionally the estimator

(6.6)
$$e(s, z) = \frac{\overline{z}(s)}{\overline{y}(s)} T(y)$$

is called the ratio-estimator of the population total. Following arguments similar to those of Theorem 6.2, we have

THEOREM 6.3. The ratio-estimator given by (6.6) is the unique Bayes sufficient scale invariant (Definitions 6.2, 6.4) estimator which is exactly equal to the population total at z=y.

Evidently the Theorems 6.2 and 6.3 above would be relevant for the situations where we have a reason to believe that the values z_i , $i=1, \dots, N$ are obtained from some previously observed values y_i , $i=1,\dots,N$ by just changing the origin or scale of measurement and by adding to these changed values some *small* random fluctuations *independently* for each $i, i=1, \dots, N$.

We conclude this paper by just raising a question: Are the concepts of *origin* and *scale* invariance discussed above logically equivalent to choosing some special class of prior distributions in (4.6)?

(The relationship of the above Theorems 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3 with the author's previous results ([7], Theorem 4.1) is obvious).

7. Stratification

The case of what is conventionally called a stratified sampling is specially interesting. Clearly the usual estimator

$$\sum N_{\mathbf{k}}\bar{\mathbf{z}}_{\mathbf{k}}$$
,

 $(\bar{z}_k \text{ being the sample mean and } N_k \text{ the number of units, in the } k \text{ th stratum } k=1,2,\cdots)$ for the population total T in (3.2) is not a function of the statistic $(s,\sum_{i\in s}z_i)$ referred to the Theorem 4.2.

To understand the above situation one should note that stratification invariably is based on some kind of $prior\ knowledge$ concerning the variate values z_i associated with different units $i=1,\cdots,N$. On the basis of this prior knowledge we expect the variate values z_i , associated with some of the units to be larger or smaller than these associated with some other units in the population. (Thus broadly speaking, a stratum consists of units i which we expect to have more or less equal variate values z_i). Clearly such a prior knowledge implies some prior distribution ξ on R_N so that different coordinates of $z=(z_i,\cdots,z_N)$ in (3.1), are probabilistically dependent. That is, $P_{\xi}(z)$ would not satisfy the equation (4.4). This situation therefore is not covered by the Theorems 4.1 and 4.2.

On the other hand, the situations described in the section 5 were different. These are generally characterized either by more or less complete absence of any prior knowledge concerning the variate values associated with different units or when the prior knowledge provides the values y_i for units $i=1, \dots, N$, of some auxiliary variate. The prior knowledge of y_i , $i=1, \dots, N$ suggests a prior distribution ξ on R_N such that

(7.1)
$$P_{\varepsilon}(z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} | z_{j_1}, \dots, z_{j_l}; y_1, \dots, y_N) = P_{\varepsilon}(z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} | y_1, \dots, y_N)$$

where z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_R} and z_{j_1}, \dots, z_{j_l} denote any two non-interesting subsets of the variates z_1, \dots, z_N in (3.1). And (7.1) implies

(7.2)
$$P_{\epsilon}(z|y_1, \dots, y_N) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P_{\epsilon}(z_i|y_1, \dots, y_N).$$

According to (7.2), the prior distribution ξ on R_N is such that conditioned on the values (y_1, \dots, y_N) , z_1, \dots, z_N are probabilistically independent. Hence, we get the validity of Theorems 4.1 and 4.2.

Now the absence of any auxiliary variate values y_i , $i=1, \dots, N$, as is generally the case in connection with stratified sampling, may some times mean that our prior knowledge implies some distribution on the values y_1, \dots, y_N . With respect to this distribution we may integrate out y_1, \dots, y_N in (7.2). Usually the resulting distribution $P_{\varepsilon}(z)$ would be such that z_1, \dots, z_N are probabilistically dependent. This case as stated before, is not covered by Theorems 4.1 and 4.2.

Of course the Theorems 4.1 and 4.2 could clearly be applied for each stratum separately on the assumption that we have no prior knowledge to distinguish between the values of the components of z belonging to any given stratum. This condition is usualy fulfilled when stratification is carried out to the fullest extent.

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Appendix

As we have already said (foot-note, p. 367) the problem of randomization is not discussed in this paper. But to make this paper self-contained

the following interpretation (suggested by Joshi (ref. Godambe [6])) and Beran [2], of random sampling as means of validating the assumption of independence in (4.6) may suffice. Consider a possibility (and this can happen in many practical situation) of z_1, \dots, z_N , the realized values of the random variates satisfying (4.6), being arraged in some order by an intelligent agency before a 'sample' is drawn. Clearly this arrangement may offset the assumption of probabilistic independence in (4.6) on which all the subsequent analysis is based. A simple way to restore this independence is through random permutations of the units $(1, \dots, N)$, before the sample is drawn. But this is logically equivalent to a simple random sampling.

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