

Chapter 5. Examples of Data on Permutations and Homogeneous Spaces

To fix ideas, as well as to make contact with reality, it is useful to have a collection of real data sets on hand.

A. PERMUTATION DATA.

- (1) Large sets of rankings are sometimes generated in psychophysical experiments (rank these sounds for loudness), taste testing experiments (rank these 5 types of coffee ice cream), or surveys. To give an example, in 1972, the National Opinion Research Center included the following question in one of their surveys: Where do you want to live? Rank the following 3 options: in a big city; near a big city (≤ 50 miles); far from a big city (> 50 miles). The data from 1439 respondents was

city	suburbs	country	#
1	2	3	242
1	3	2	28
2	1	3	170
3	1	2	628
2	3	1	12
3	2	1	359

Let us briefly discuss this data. The modal rank is $\frac{1}{3} \frac{2}{1} \frac{3}{2}$ — people prefer the suburbs, then country, then city. This is born out by simple averages: 270 people ranked city first, 798 ranked suburb first, 371 ranked country first.

The 2 small counts lead to an interesting interpretation. Both violate the unfolding hypothesis of Coombs (1964). To spell this out a bit, suppose people's rankings are chosen in accordance with the ideal distance from the city, different people having different preferences. Thus, one chooses the rank one location and then “unfolds” around it. In this model $(\frac{1}{1} \frac{2}{3} \frac{3}{2})$ is impossible since if one most prefers being in the city, one must prefer being close to the city to being far away. The number of permutations of the set $1, 2, \dots, n$ consistent with unfolding is about 2^{n-1} , so many arrangements are ruled out. Unfolding is a nice idea, but distance to the city might not determine things for someone who works in the suburbs and doesn't want to live where they work. If you ask people to rank order temperature for tea (hot, medium, cold), you don't expect the unfolding restriction to hold, but if you ask people to rank order sugar teaspoons $(0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$ you do expect the data to be consistent with unfolding.

Further analysis of the distance to cities data is in Chapter 8. Duncan and Brody (1982) discuss these data in some detail.

Ranked data often comes with other variables — rankings for men and women, or by income being examples. In the data on distance to cities, the actual dwelling place of the respondent is available. Methods for dealing with covariates are developed in Chapter 9.

It is worth pointing to a common problem not represented in the cities data. Because $n!$ grows so rapidly, one can have a fairly large data set of rankings and still only have a small proportion of the possible orders represented. For example, I am considering a data set in which 129 black students and 98 white students were asked to rank “score, instrument, solo, benediction, suite” from the least related to “song” to the most strongly related to “song.” Here, there cannot be very many repeats in each ranking. In another data set, quoted in Feigin and Cohen (1978), 148 people ranked 10 occupations for desirability. Clearly, the ratio of the sample size to $n!$ has a limiting effect on what kind of models can be fit to the data.

- (2) Pairs of permutations often arise as in “rank order the class on the midterm and final.” Similarly, small sets of rankings arise as in a panel of judges ranking a set of contestants. A large collection of examples appears in Chapter 7A.
- (3) *The Draft Lottery*. In 1970, a single “random” permutation in S_{365} was chosen. This permutation was used to fix the order of induction into the army. The actual permutation is shown in Table 1. For discussion of this data set, see the article by S. E. Fienberg (1971).

As Fienberg reports, it was widely claimed that the permutation tended to have lower order months Jan., Feb., . . . having higher numbers. The Spearman rank correlation coefficient is $-.226$, significant at the $.001$ level. Figure 2, based on Figure 1, shows the average lottery number by month. The evidence seems strong until we reflect on the problems of pattern finding in a single data source after aggressive data analysis.

Further analysis of this data is given in example 1 of Chapter 7A.

B. PARTIALLY RANKED DATA.

There are numerous examples in which people rank a long list only partially. For example, people might be asked to rank their favorite 10 out of 40 movies, a typical ranking yielding $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{10})$ with a_1 the name of the movie ranked first, etc. Alternatively people might be asked to choose a committee of 10 out of 40, not ranking within. Then a typical selection yields the set $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{10}\}$.

In each case the symmetric group S_{40} acts transitively on the partial rankings which may thus be represented as homogeneous spaces for S_{40} (see Chapter 3-F for definitions). For ranked 10 out of 40 the homogeneous space is S_{40}/S_{30} . For unranked 10 out of 40, the homogeneous space is $S_{40}/S_{10} \times S_{30}$.

Here are some real examples of such data.

Example 1. American Psychological Association data. The American Psychological Association is a large professional group (about 50,000 members). To vote for a president, members rank order five candidates. A winner is chosen by the *Hare system*: Look at the first place votes for all five candidates. If there is no majority candidate ($\geq 50\%$) delete the candidate with the fewest first place votes. Ballots

Figure 1
The 1970 Random Selection Sequence by Month and Day

Day	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1	305	086	108	032	330	249	093	111	225	359	019	129
2	159	144	029	271	298	228	350	045	161	125	034	328
3	251	297	267	083	040	301	115	261	049	244	348	157
4	215	210	225	081	276	020	279	145	232	202	266	165
5	101	214	293	269	364	028	188	054	082	024	310	056
6	224	347	139	253	155	110	327	114	006	087	076	010
7	306	091	122	147	035	085	050	168	008	234	051	012
8	199	181	213	312	321	366	013	048	184	283	097	105
9	194	338	317	219	197	335	277	106	263	342	080	043
10	325	216	323	218	065	206	284	021	071	220	282	041
11	329	150	136	014	037	134	248	324	158	237	046	039
12	221	068	300	346	133	272	015	142	242	072	066	314
13	318	152	259	124	295	069	042	307	175	138	126	163
14	238	004	254	231	178	356	331	198	001	294	127	026
15	017	039	169	273	130	180	322	102	113	171	131	320
16	121	212	166	148	055	274	120	044	207	254	107	096
17	235	189	033	260	112	073	058	154	255	288	143	304
18	140	292	332	090	278	341	190	141	246	005	146	128
19	058	025	200	236	075	104	227	311	177	241	203	240
20	280	302	239	346	123	360	187	344	063	192	185	135
21	186	363	334	062	250	060	027	291	204	243	156	070
22	337	290	265	316	326	247	153	339	160	117	009	053
23	118	057	256	252	319	109	172	116	119	201	182	162
24	059	236	258	002	031	358	023	036	195	196	230	095
25	052	179	343	351	361	137	067	286	149	176	132	084
26	092	365	170	340	357	022	303	245	018	007	309	173
27	355	205	268	074	296	064	289	352	233	264	047	078
28	077	299	223	262	308	222	088	167	257	094	281	123
29	349	285	362	191	226	353	270	061	151	229	099	016
30	164		217	208	108	209	287	333	315	038	174	003
31	211		030		313		193	011		079		100

Figure 2

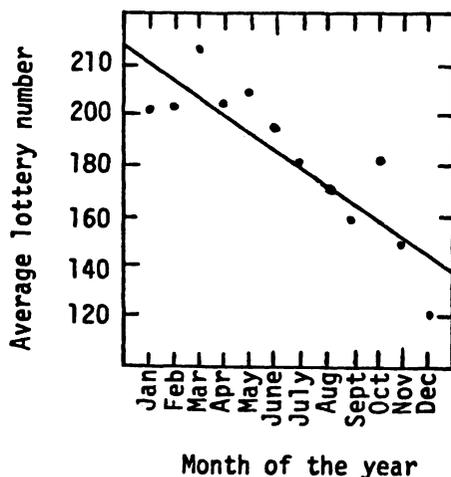


Fig. 2. Average lottery numbers by month. The line is the least squares regression line, treating the months as being equally spaced.

with this candidate are relabelled to have the remaining candidates in the same relative order. The procedure is now continued with the four remaining candidates. Fishburn (1973), Doran (1979), or Brams and Fishburn (1983) discuss the system and relevant literature.

A considerable number of voters do not rank all five candidates. For example, in the year being considered the number of voters ranking q of the candidates was

q	$\#$	
1	5141	}
2	2462	
3	2108	
5	5738	
	15,449	

Thus there were 5,738 complete rankings, but 5,141 only voted for their first choice. In all, more than half of the ballots were incomplete. It is assumed that people who rank 4 candidates meant to rank the 5th candidate last.

It is natural to inquire whether the partially ranked ballots are different from the restriction of the complete ballots (or vary with q). Such considerations should play a role in deciding on a final voting rule, and on deciding on ballot design and election publicity in following years.

Table 1 gives the complete data. The data are arranged as (rank, #) where rank is a five-digit number, whose i th digit represents the rank given to candidate i (a zero or blank means that this is a partial ranking, in which candidate i has not been ranked). For example, the first entry (1, 1022) indicates that candidate 5 was ranked first by 1022 people who didn't rank anyone else. The second entry (10, 1145) indicates that candidate 4 was ranked first by 1145 people (who didn't rank anyone else). The first 5 entries give the totals for singly ranked items. The next 20 entries give totals for people ranking 2 of the 5 candidates. For example 143 people ranked candidate 5 first and candidate 4 second (and didn't rank anyone else). These data are analyzed by Diaconis (1989).

Example 2. k sets of an n set. If people are asked to choose their favorite k of n , without ranking within (as in choosing a committee or set of invitees to a meeting), then the relevant homogeneous space is $S_n/S_k \times S_{n-k}$, where $S_k \times S_{n-k}$ is the subgroup of S_n allowing arbitrary permutations among $\{1, \dots, k\}$ and among $\{k + 1, \dots, n\}$. Approval voting, recommended by Brams and Fishburn (1983) yields such data.

Here is an example where large amounts of such data occur. The State of California has a state lottery game called 6/49 or Lotto. To play, you select a 6 set from $\{1, 2, \dots, 49\}$. Then, 6 of 49 numbered balls are chosen at random. The grand prize is divided between the people choosing this subset.

There are about 14 million subsets, and 11 million players per week in this game at present. Of course, people do not choose subsets at random — they play favorite combinations. One can get a distinct advantage in this game by avoiding popular numbers and subsets. After all, if you are the only person on the subset you don't have to split with anyone. This can actually overcome the “house take”

Table 1
American Psychological Association Election Data

Partial Ranking	# of Votes		Partial Ranking	# of Votes		Partial Ranking	# of Votes	
	Cast of This Type			Cast of This Type			Cast of This Type	
1	1022		23100	83	45213	24	24135	96
10	1145		20103	74	45132	38	23541	45
100	1198		132	19	45123	30	23514	52
1000	881		123	15	43521	91	23451	53
10000	895		2103	16	43512	84	23415	52
21	143		1302	15	43251	30	23154	186
12	196		1032	45	43215	35	23145	172
201	64		1320	17	43152	38	21543	36
210	48		1203	8	43125	35	21534	42
102	93		31002	38	42531	58	21453	24
120	56		31020	45	42513	66	21435	26
2001	70		31200	32	42351	24	21354	30
2010	114		21003	17	42315	51	21345	40
2100	89		21030	31	42153	52	15432	40
1002	80		1023	55	42135	40	15423	35
1020	87		1230	9	41532	50	15342	36
1200	51		21300	31	41523	45	15324	17
20001	117		10032	35	41352	31	15243	70
20010	104		10203	49	41325	23	15234	50
20100	547		10302	41	41253	22	14532	52
21000	72		10320	21	41235	16	14523	48
10002	72		13002	31	35421	71	14352	51
10020	74		13020	22	35412	61	14325	24
10200	302		13200	79	35241	41	14253	70
12000	83		10023	44	35214	27	14235	45
30021	75		10230	30	35142	45	13542	35
30201	32		12003	26	35124	36	13524	28
32001	41		12030	19	34521	107	13452	37
20031	62		12300	27	34512	133	13425	35
20301	37		54321	29	34251	62	13254	95
23001	35		54312	67	34215	28	13245	102
3201	15		54231	37	34152	87	12543	34
2301	14		54213	24	34125	35	12534	35
3021	59		54132	43	32541	41	12453	29
2031	50		54123	28	32514	64	12435	27
321	20		53421	57	32451	34	12354	28
231	17		53412	49	32415	75	12345	30
30012	90		53241	22	32154	82		
30210	13		53214	22	32145	74		
32010	51		53142	34	31542	30		
20013	46		53124	26	31524	34		
20310	15		52431	54	31452	40		
23010	28		52413	44	31425	42		
3012	62		52341	26	31254	30		
3210	18		52314	24	31245	34		
2310	21		52143	35	25431	35		
2013	54		52134	50	25413	34		
312	46		51432	50	25341	40		
213	16		51423	46	25314	21		
2130	17		51342	25	25143	106		
3120	26		51324	19	25134	79		
3102	16		51243	11	24531	63		
30102	47		51234	29	24513	53		
32100	57		45321	31	24351	44		
30120	15		45312	54	24315	28		
20130	39		45231	34	24153	162		

and yield a favorable game. Chernoff (1981) gives details for the Massachusetts lottery. In any case, the data must be analyzed.

While it is not possible to present such data here, the following smaller example shows that interesting analyses are possible.

There are various gadgets sold to generate a six-element subset of $\{1, 2, \dots, 49\}$. These are used to help players pick combinations for the California state Lotto game.

One such gadget is pictured in Figure 1. There are 49 numbered holes and six balls enclosed by a plastic cover. One shakes the balls around and uses the six set determined by their final resting place.

Figure 1.

PICK 6			LOTTO				& WIN	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
10	11	12	13		14	15	16	17
o	o	o	o		o	o	o	o
18	19	20	21		22	23	24	25
o	o	o	o		o	o	o	o
26	27	28	29		30	31	32	33
o	o	o	o		o	o	o	o
34	35	36	37		38	39	40	41
o	o	o	o		o	o	o	o
42	43	44	45		46	47	48	49
o	o	o	o		o	o	o	o

This gadget seems at first like other classical devices to generate random outcomes: if vigorously shaken, it should lead to random results. Further thought suggests that the outer, or border numbers might be favored over the inner numbers.

To test this, 100 trials were performed. The gadget was vigorously shaken and set down on a flat surface. The results are given in Table 2.

Following each six set is X — the number of balls falling on the outer perimeter in that 6-set. For example, the first 6-set $\{10, 11, 13, 25, 36, 42\}$ had 3 outside numbers — 10, 25, 42 — so $X = 3$. There are 25 outside numbers out of 49.

Table 2
100 6-sets of {1, 2, ..., 49}

10,11,13,25,36,42/3	5,10,21,26,42,46/5	4,17,18,22,32,41/4	1,17,22,25,29,31/3
25,27,34,39,45,46/4	16,23,37,41,43,45/3	6, 9,10,12,16,32/3	2,13,23,24,26,30/2
3, 5,18,20,33,39/4	8,10,13,34,43,49/5	2, 5,17,19,36,40/3	2, 6,15,18,32,37/3
3,10,23,26,45,49/5	2,10,11,12,13,15/2	2, 6,10,25,33,38/5	2,14,15,17,18,35/3
3, 7,15,19,26,34/4	10,13,15,22,26,43/3	3,17,29,40,41,45/4	4,10,20,31,32,37/2
4,15,32,33,36,49/3	15,19,22,30,32,39/0	4, 7,11,23,35,36/2	7,13,17,27,31,44/2
10,11,23,33,43,46/4	2,15,22,25,29,48/3	1,18,31,33,34,46/5	19,22,28,32,42,44/2
1, 6, 7,18,26,34/6	6, 7,10,11,17,31/3	11,13,15,28,34,39/1	7,13,19,33,47,48/4
6,11,15,19,26,46/3	6,17,24,29,42,43/4	4, 7,15,18,31,33/4	1, 2, 4,15,19,40/3
1,11,15,18,26,29/3	2, 9,21,36,43,45/4	1, 3,12,15,20,41/3	2, 5,25,26,30,39/4
10,11,19,31,36,42/2	7,12,18,35,42,44/4	4, 9,12,22,39,41/3	
6,15,25,27,42,47/4	5,16,18,33,36,39/3	3,10,12,28,34,39/3	
17,18,33,36,43,46/5	2, 6, 7,11,31,47/4	2, 7,12,27,34,35/3	
1, 2,32,36,43,48/4	18,22,28,36,42,47/3	1, 4, 7,12,20,43/4	
16,20,30,35,45,46/2	4,18,29,35,39,46/3	5, 7,14,16,18,31/3	
16,20,26,37,42,49/3	3, 6,16,25,29,42/4	6,23,28,34,36,40/2	
3,18,27,30,42,43/4	1,28,31,37,42,43/3	2, 5, 9,15,23,27/3	
9,10,27,42,43,45/5	1,18,23,27,42,43/4	2, 3,19,34,39,44/4	
6,23,32,39,42,46/3	4, 5, 7, 8,40,42/5	6,12,14,16,23,39/1	
5,19,36,39,42,44/3	6, 7, 9,12,39,49/4	2,12,15,26,38,43/3	
7,18,20,29,35,43/3	12,13,18,19,22,36/1	5, 7,12,17,29,35/3	
12,14,23,29,41,48/2	4, 7, 8,10,33,49/6	4, 9,16,23,27,42/3	
4, 6,17,20,33,48/5	7, 9,31,32,41,46/4	2,13,15,20,21,48/2	
4,18,27,30,43,49/4	9,12,14,37,46,48/3	1, 5,34,42,44,46/6	
6,10,18,30,35,45/4	7, 9,16,29,41,46/4	15,16,17,24,27,30/1	
26,27,38,42,43,44/4	14,19,21,28,33,42/2	8,15,18,21,30,39/2	
6, 8,19,38,43,49/4	6,14,15,17,31,49/3	6,15,21,23,32,47/2	
1,20,25,42,43,49/5	8,33,35,41,45,47/5	5, 7, 8,19,23,49/4	
4,34,27,39,43,46/4	2, 8,25,29,42,47/5	7, 8, 9,14,20,22/3	
3, 4,11,33,46,49/5	8,11,24,25,37,48/3	10,15,29,34,46,49/4	

If the six sets were chosen at random, X would have a hypergeometric distribution $H\{X = j\} = \frac{\binom{25}{j}\binom{24}{6-j}}{\binom{49}{6}}$. These numbers are given in Table 3 which also shows the empirical counts from Table 2.

Table 3
Hypergeometric and Empirical Probabilities for X .

j	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
$H\{X = j\}$.013	.091	.250	.333	.228	.016	.010
Empirical	.01	.04	.14	.35	.30	.13	.03

The differences are *not* overwhelming visually. They do show up in two straightforward tests.

A first test was based on $p = H\{X = 4, 5, 6\} = .353$ versus the empirical ratio $\hat{p} = .46$. Then $(\hat{p} - p)/\sqrt{p(1 - p)/100} = 2.23$. This difference, more than two standard deviations, is convincing evidence against uniformity.

Colin Mallows suggested using the average, \bar{X} , as a statistic. Under the null distribution, $E(\bar{X}) \doteq 3.06$, $SD(\bar{X}) \doteq 0.116$. The observed \bar{X} is 3.40. This yields a standardized (z value) of 2.92.

Remarks.

- 1) As is well known, the omnibus chi-square test is to be avoided for these kinds of problems. Because it tries to test for all possible departures from uniformity, chi-square only works well for large deviations or sample sizes. Interestingly, here it *fails* to reject the null (10.23 on six degrees of freedom

with all 7 categories or 9.01 on five degrees of freedom with the first and last categories combined).

- 2) Other questions can be asked of these data. To begin with, the central numbers

20, 21, 22, 23
28, 29, 30, 31

presumably occur less often. More generally, a test that looks at all numbers, but takes into account the distance from the edge, could be constructed. A preliminary graphical analysis was *not* instructive.

Interesting questions arise about the corners and about individual numbers. With more data, some second order questions can be entertained.

- 3) It seems clear that this style of randomization mechanism is badly flawed. Possible physical explanations can be entertained to explain these flaws. The balls lose most of their energy on impact with the sides, and then “trickle back” to the edge. A slight tilt draws the balls toward an edge.
- 4) One practical application of this kind of testing problem comes in the actual lottery. A quick test to detect marked departures is needed for a pre-game screening (someone might have switched for loaded balls during the night).

Example 3. Q sort data. The General Social Survey lists thirteen qualities a child could possess. From this list, respondents are asked to choose the most desirable quality, the two next most desirable qualities, the least desirable quality and the next two least desirable qualities. In an obvious way, this is data on $S_{13}/S_1 \times S_2 \times S_7 \times S_2 \times S_1$. More generally, if λ is a partition of n , so $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$ with $\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_m = n$, one can consider data of the form: choose the first λ_1 objects (but do not order between), choose the next λ_2 objects, etc., finishing with λ_m objects ranked last. Such a scheme is called *Q sort data* in psychology experiments. It is not unusual to ask for a list of 100 items to be ranked for its degree of concordance or similarity with a fixed object. For example, the object might be a person (spouse, national leader) and the items might be descriptive levels of aggression. Suppose 9 categories of similarity are used, ranging from 1 - “most uncharacteristic,” through 5 “neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic,” up to 9 - “most characteristic.” To aid in different rates, a forced distribution is often imposed. For $n = 100$, the numbers permitted in each category are often chosen from binomial considerations as 5, 8, 12, 16, 18, 16, 12, 8, 5. A novel application and references to the older literature may be found in L. E. Moses et al (1967). For more recent discussion see Heavlin (1980).

Example 4. Other actions of S_n . The symmetric group acts on many other combinatorial objects, such as the set of partitions or labelled binary trees. It follows that there is a wide variety of objects to which the analysis of this and succeeding chapters may be applied.

C. THE d -SPHERE S^d .

Sometimes data are collected on the circle – which way do birds leave their nests. Data are also collected on the sphere – for example, in investigating the

theory of continental drift, geologists looked at magnetization direction of rock samples on two “sides” of a purported boundary. Roughly, small pieces of certain kinds of rocks have a given magnetic orientation giving points on the sphere in \mathbb{R}^3 . This leads to two-sample and other data analytic problems. Such considerations led Fisher (1953) to invent his famous family of distributions on the sphere.

Here is an example of data on higher dimensional spheres: consider testing whether measurement errors are normal. Samples of size p are available from a variety of different sources. Say sample i is normal with parameters μ_i, σ_i^2 :

$$\begin{aligned}(X_{11}, \dots, X_{1p}) & \text{ i.i.d. } n(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \\(X_{21}, \dots, X_{2p}) & \text{ i.i.d. } n(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2) \\(X_{n1}, \dots, X_{np}) & \text{ i.i.d. } n(\mu_p, \sigma_p^2).\end{aligned}$$

Think of p small (say 10) and n large (say 50). All samples are assumed independent. Let \bar{X}_i and S_i be the i th sample mean and standard deviation.

$$Y_i = \left(\frac{X_{i1} - \bar{X}_i}{S_i}, \dots, \frac{X_{ip} - \bar{X}_i}{S_i} \right).$$

The spherical symmetry of the normal distribution implies that Y_i are randomly distributed over a $p - 2$ dimensional sphere. Standard tests for uniformity thus provide tests for normality.

The group of $n \times n$ orthogonal matrices $O(n)$ acts transitively on the n sphere. The subgroup fixing a point (say the north pole $(1, 0, \dots, 0)$) is clearly $O(n - 1)$. Thus the sphere can be thought of as $O(n)/O(n - 1)$ and the rich tools of harmonic analysis become available.

Further introductory discussion is in Chapter 9B. Mardia (1972) and Watson (1983) give motivated, extensive treatments of data on the sphere.

D. OTHER GROUPS.

Many other groups occur. For example binary test results (e.g. right/wrong on the i th question $1 \leq i \leq k$) lead to data on Z_2^k . Here, for $x \in Z_2^k$, $f(x)$ is the number of people answering with pattern x . In *panel studies* a subject is followed over time. For example, 5,000 people may be followed for a year, each month a one or zero is recorded as the person is employed or not. This leads to data on Z_2^{12} .

There is a curious data set for $Z_{365} \times Z_{365}$ connected to the birthday-deathday question. Some researchers claim famous people tend to die close to the date of their birth. See Diaconis (1985) for a review of this literature.

Data on yet other groups arises in testing Monte Carlo algorithms for generating from the uniform distribution. Such group valued random variables are useful in doing integrals over groups. Testing a generator leads to a sample on the group in question. I have looked at data for the orthogonal and unitary groups in this regard.

It seems inevitable that data on other groups and homogeneous spaces will arise naturally in applications. One final example: with many scatterplots, one

has many covariance matrices. The set of positive definite 2×2 matrices is usefully represented as GL_2/O_2 . Several other examples are given in the following chapters.

E. STATISTICS ON GROUPS.

The examples described above suggest a wealth of statistical problems. In classical language, there is

- Testing for uniformity (is the sample really random?)
- Two sample tests (is there a difference between men and women's rankings?)
- Assessing association (is husband's ranking close to wife's?)
- Model building (can this huge list of data be summarized by a few parameters?)
- Model testing

More inclusively, there is the general problem of data analysis: how to make sense of this type of data; how to discover structure and find patterns.

The next four chapters offer three different approaches to these problems. Chapter 6 develops measures of distance on groups and homogeneous spaces. These are used to carry all sorts of familiar procedures into group valued examples.

Chapter 8 develops an analog of the spectral analysis of time series for group valued data. This is explored in the examples of partially ranked data. These examples make full use of the representation theory of the symmetric group. Chapter 7 is devoted to a self-contained development of this theory.

Chapter 9 uses representation theory to develop a natural family of models. In familiar cases, these reduce to models introduced by applied workers. The theory shows how to go further, and gives a unified development for all groups at once.

Of course, there is no substitute for trying things out in real examples, where special knowledge and insight can be brought to bear. There has not been much Bayesian work on these problems that I know of. The problems of developing natural prior distributions with respect to invariance seem fascinating. Consonni and Dawid (1985) or Fligner and Verducci (1988) offer steps in this direction.