

STOCHASTIC VERSIONS OF REARRANGEMENT INEQUALITIES¹

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This paper develops a unified way of obtaining stochastic versions of deterministic rearrangement inequalities. Rearrangement inequalities compare the value of a function of vector arguments with the value of the same function after the components of the vectors have been rearranged. The classical example of a rearrangement inequality is the well-known inequality of Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya for sums of products. They show that if $a_1 \geq \dots \geq a_n$ and $b_1 \geq \dots \geq b_n$ are positive numbers, then for every permutation $(\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n))$ of $(1, \dots, n)$ the inequalities $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_{\pi(i)} \geq \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_{n-i+1}$ hold.

The function $\sum xy$ is an example from a class of functions called arrangement increasing functions for which such rearrangement inequalities hold. Given two nonnegative random vectors \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} with joint density $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ we determine conditions on f for the stochastic rearrangement inequalities $g(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \stackrel{st}{\geq} g(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_{\pi(1)}, \dots, Y_{\pi(n)}) \stackrel{st}{\geq} g(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_n, \dots, Y_1)$ to hold for every permutation π and arrangement increasing function g . We present a number of examples of densities which satisfy the condition.

1. Introduction. The development of stochastic versions of deterministic concepts arising in mathematics has, in the past, led to important new results in probability and statistics. The subject of this paper is in this spirit.

Specifically, we obtain *stochastic versions of rearrangement inequalities*. Rearrangement inequalities compare the value of a function of vector arguments with the value of the same function after the components of the vectors have been rearranged.

The classical example of a rearrangement inequality involving a function of two vector arguments is the well-known inequality of Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya (1952) for sums of products. For vectors $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ and $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ of positive numbers, Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya show that the function $f(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$ takes its largest value when the components of each \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are arranged in increasing (or, equivalently, decreasing) order, and that f takes its smallest value when the components of one of the vectors are arranged in increasing order and those of the other vector are arranged in decreasing order. In symbols they show that if $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq \dots \geq a_n$ and $b_1 \geq b_2 \geq \dots \geq b_n$ (after relabelling, say) for every permutation $(\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n))$ of $(1, \dots, n)$, then the inequalities:

$$(1.1) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_{\pi(i)} \geq \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_{n-i+1}$$

hold.

The original idea which motivated this work was to obtain a stochastic version of the inequalities in (1.1). More explicitly, given two random vectors $\mathbf{X} \equiv (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ and $\mathbf{Y} \equiv (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$, we wished to determine conditions to impose on \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} to yield for every permutation π the stochastic inequalities:

$$(1.2) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i \stackrel{st}{\geq} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_{\pi(i)} \stackrel{st}{\geq} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_{n-i+1},$$

where $X \stackrel{st}{\geq} Y$ means $P(X \geq t) \geq P(Y \geq t)$ for all t .

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As it happens, it is not hard to obtain such a stochastic version of the Hardy–Littlewood–Pólya inequality. Sufficient conditions on \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} for (1.2) to hold can be easily stated. Suppose that \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are nonnegative random vectors having a joint density $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$. For a given vector \mathbf{x} we write $\mathbf{x} \geq^{tj} \mathbf{x}'$ if $i < j$, $x_i \leq x_j$, and \mathbf{x}' is obtained from \mathbf{x} by interchanging x_i and x_j and leaving the other components fixed. Then inequality (1.2) holds for \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} if for all pairs i, j , $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, f satisfies:

$$(1.3) \quad f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + f(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}') - f(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}') \geq 0,$$

where $\mathbf{x} \geq^{tj} \mathbf{x}'$ and $\mathbf{y} \geq^{tj} \mathbf{y}'$.

Since the work of Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya (1952), papers on inequalities involving rearrangements of vectors in \mathcal{R}^n have appeared widely in the literature. Marshall and Olkin (1979) present a unified approach to the study of deterministic rearrangement inequalities.

We develop a theory which offers a *unified approach* to the task of obtaining stochastic versions of rearrangement inequalities. Our work generalizes that of previous authors in that we obtain their deterministic inequalities as special cases. In this paper we *present an overview of the theory we develop and some applications to statistics*.

2. Deterministic Rearrangement Inequalities. A deterministic rearrangement inequality compares the value of a function of vector arguments with the value of the same function after the components of the vectors have been rearranged. In the case of two vectors, rearrangement inequalities have the form

$$(2.1) \quad f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{y}}) = f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq f(\check{\mathbf{x}}, \check{\mathbf{y}}) = f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{y}}),$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}$ ($\hat{\mathbf{z}}$) denotes the vector whose components are those of \mathbf{z} arranged in increasing (decreasing) order.

The classical rearrangement inequality is the inequality of Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya (1952) where $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum x_i y_i$. As we have noted above the inequality states that if $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \dots \geq x_n$ and $y_1 \geq y_2 \geq \dots \geq y_n$ are nonnegative numbers, then for every permutation π of the subscripts of \mathbf{y} , the inequalities

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_{\pi(i)} \geq \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_{n-i+1}$$

hold.

Rearrangement inequalities involving functions of vectors in \mathcal{R}^n have been widely studied in the literature. Jurkat and Ryser (1966) obtained rearrangement inequalities for functions of $\min(x, y)$. They show that for nonnegative n -tuples $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n \min(x_i, y_i) \geq \prod_{i=1}^n \min(x_i, y_{\pi(i)}) \geq \prod_{i=1}^n \min(x_i, y_{n-i+1})$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \min(x_i, y_i) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n \min(x_i, y_{\pi(i)}) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n \min(x_i, y_{n-i+1})$$

for all permutations π .

Minc (1971) obtained similar rearrangement inequalities for products and sums of $\max(x, y)$.

Rearrangement inequalities also hold for a number of well-known test statistics. An example is Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient given by

$$r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i,j} (x_i - x_j)(y_i - y_j) [\sum_{i,j} (x_i - x_j)^2 \sum_{i,j} (y_i - y_j)^2]^{-1/2}$$

Spearman's ρ and Kendall's correlation coefficient τ also yield rearrangement inequalities.

Rearrangement inequalities can be obtained for Blomquist's quadrant test. Blomquist (1950) proposed the following test for positive association:

$$\beta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n [a_1(x_i)b_1(y_i) + a_2(x_i)b_2(y_i)],$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a(x_i) &= 0, \text{ if } x_i \leq x_{\text{med}} \\ &= 1, \text{ if } x_i > x_{\text{med}}, \end{aligned}$$

$b(y_i)$ is similiary defined, $a_2 = 1 - a_1$, and $b_2 = 1 - b_1$.

3. The Arrangement Ordering and Arrangement Increasing Functions. All rearrangement inequalities, such as the ones just described, are examples of functions which are increasing in a partial ordering on $\mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{X}^n$. This partial ordering, implicit in the work of Hollander, Proschan, and Sethuraman (1977), is defined in Marshall and Olkin (1979). They refer to the partial ordering as the arrangement ordering. Using this ordering they obtain refinements of rearrangement inequalities involving many more comparisons than given in the examples in the previous section.

To define the arrangement ordering we need some terminology and notation.

Let S_n denote the group of all permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. An element of S_n will be denoted by $\pi \equiv (\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n))$. Let π and π' be elements of S_n . We say that π' is a *simple transposition* of π if there exist positive integers $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ such that $\pi(i) = \pi'(j) < \pi'(i) = \pi(j)$ and $\pi(k) = \pi'(k)$ for $k \neq i, j$. We write this as $\pi <^{ij} \pi'$. For π, π' in S_n we say that π' is a *transposition* of π , written $\pi \leq \pi'$, if $\pi = \pi'$ or if π' can be obtained from π by a sequence of simple transpositions.

For a vector \mathbf{x} in \mathcal{X}^n , we define $\mathbf{x}\pi$ to be the vector $(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(n)})$. Recall that we denote by $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ the vector obtained from \mathbf{x} by arranging the components of \mathbf{x} in increasing order. We say that \mathbf{x}' is a *transposition* of \mathbf{x} if $\mathbf{x} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}\pi$, $\mathbf{x}' = \bar{\mathbf{x}}\pi'$ where $\pi \leq \pi'$. We write $\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{x}'$. We note that this defines a partial ordering of \mathcal{X}^n . This partial ordering has been studied by Savage (1957), Lehmann (1966), and Hollander, Proschan, and Sethuraman (1977), among others.

Let $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{X}^n$. The *orbit* of (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is the set $O_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}} = \{(\mathbf{x}\pi, \mathbf{y}\sigma) : \pi, \sigma \in S_n\}$. For a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$ the orbit of \mathbf{x} is defined similarly.

Definition 3.1. Let (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) and $(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$ be two elements of $\mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{X}^n$ belonging to the same orbit. We say that (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is *more similarly arranged* than $(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$ if there exist $\pi, \sigma \in S_n$ such that $\mathbf{x}\pi = \mathbf{x}'\sigma = \bar{\mathbf{x}}$ and $\mathbf{y}\pi \leq \mathbf{y}'\sigma$. We write $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{a}{\geq} (\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$.

This partial ordering of $\mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{X}^n$ is referred to as the *arrangement ordering*. We write $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$ if $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{a}{\geq} (\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$ and $(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}') \stackrel{a}{\geq} (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the arrangement ordering when $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = (.5, 1, 3)$ and $\bar{\mathbf{y}} = (2, 3, 5, 4)$. An arrow in the diagram from an element $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y})$ to an element $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y}')$ means that $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{a}{\geq} (\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y}')$.

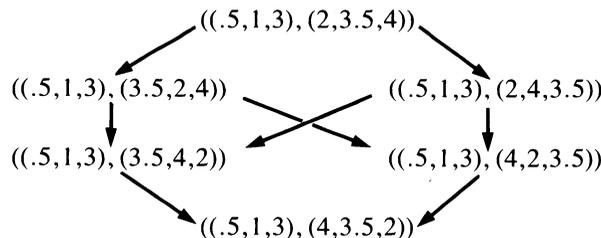


FIGURE 3.1. An Illustrative Arrangement Ordering

Remark. Let (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) denote the largest element of its orbit in the arrangement ordering, that is, $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{a}{\geq} (\mathbf{x}\pi, \mathbf{y}\sigma)$ for all $\pi, \sigma \in S_n$. Then it is easy to see that $(x_i - x_j)(y_i - y_j) \geq 0$ for all pairs i, j . In this case we say that \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are *similarly arranged*. (Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya (1952) use the expression “similarly ordered”.) We write $\mathbf{x} \stackrel{s}{\leq} \mathbf{y}$.

Functions which are order-preserving with respect to the arrangement ordering were introduced by Hollander, Proschan, and Sethuraman (1977).

Definition 3.2. A function f from $\mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$ into R is said to be *arrangement increasing* if $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{a}{\geq} (\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$ implies $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}')$ for all $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$.

Functions which are arrangement increasing play an important role in the theory we develop. Their properties and many useful applications were first studied by Hollander, Proschan, and Sethuraman (1977). In their 1977 paper they gave an alternative definition of an arrangement increasing function which they call a function “decreasing in transposition”. The present name is due to Marshall and Olkin.

PROPOSITION 3.3. (Marshall and Olkin (1979).) *A function f from $\mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$ into \mathcal{R} is arrangement increasing if and only if (i) $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}\pi, \mathbf{y}\pi)$ for $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$, $\pi \in S_n$, and (ii) $f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y}) \geq f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y}')$, where $\mathbf{y} \stackrel{t}{\geq} \mathbf{y}'$.*

A function satisfying (i) of Proposition 3.3 is called *permutation invariant*.

Hollander, Proschan, and Sethuraman (1977) give many examples of arrangement increasing functions including a number of well-known densities in statistics. Some of these examples are presented in Section 5.

4. Stochastic Rearrangement Inequalities. In this section we obtain stochastic versions of the rearrangement inequalities of Section 2. Specifically, we show the following. Let \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} be nonnegative random n -vectors with joint density f satisfying the conditions of Def. 4.1 below. Then for any arrangement increasing function g and permutation π we have

$$g(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \stackrel{st}{\geq} g(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_{\pi(1)}, \dots, Y_{\pi(n)}) \stackrel{st}{\geq} g(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_n, \dots, Y_1).$$

These stochastic rearrangement inequalities follow as a corollary to our main result presented in Theorem 4.3. The condition we need on the joint density of \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} to obtain stochastic rearrangement inequalities is defined as follows.

Definition 4.1. A function f from $\mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$ into \mathcal{R} is called a *positive set function in arrangement* (PSA) if $\mathbf{x} \geq^{i,j} \mathbf{x}'$ and $\mathbf{y} \geq^{i,j} \mathbf{y}'$ for any pair $i < j$ imply

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}) - f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}') + f(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}') \geq 0.$$

We note that a function f is arrangement increasing if and only if f is PSA and permutation invariant.

Before we state the main theorem, we introduce the notion of an arrangement preserving kernel.

Definition 4.2. A function K from $(\mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n) \times (\mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n)$ into \mathcal{R} is called an *arrangement preserving (AP) kernel* if: (i) $K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y})$ is permutation invariant in (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) and in (\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y}) , and (ii) For all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{R}^n$, $K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y})$ is PSA in (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) .

In our main result Theorem 4.3 below we state that the arrangement increasing property is preserved under an integral transform defined by an arrangement preserving kernel.

THEOREM 4.3. *Let $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ be arrangement increasing and let $K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y})$ be an arrangement preserving kernel. Then under mild conditions on the measure m and the assumption that the integral exists finitely, the function*

$$g(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \iint f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y}) m(d\mathbf{x}, d\mathbf{y})$$

is arrangement increasing.

A corollary to Theorem 4.3 yields stochastic versions of deterministic rearrangement inequalities.

COROLLARY 4.4. *Let (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) have a PSA density. Then for all arrangement increasing functions f and all permutations π we have*

$$f(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \stackrel{st}{\geq} f(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_{\pi(1)}, \dots, Y_{\pi(n)}) \stackrel{st}{\geq} f(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_n, \dots, Y_1).$$

Since the function $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum x_i y_i$ is arrangement increasing we have as a consequence of Corollary 4.4 a stochastic version of the Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya inequality, namely that

$$\sum X_i Y_i \stackrel{st}{\geq} \sum X_i Y_{\pi(i)} \stackrel{st}{\geq} \sum X_i Y_{n-i+1}.$$

A similar result holds for all the other rearrangement inequalities in Section 2.

5. Examples of PSA Functions and AP Kernels. The results in the previous section allow us to obtain stochastic versions of rearrangement inequalities for a large class of random vectors which contains those pairs (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) having PSA and AP densities. The purpose of this section is to show that many multivariate densities of interest in statistical practice fall into these two classes of functions.

A function ϕ is called a *positive set function* if

$$\phi(x_1, y_1) - \phi(x_1, y_2) - \phi(x_2, y_1) + \phi(x_2, y_2) \geq 0 \text{ for all } x_1 < x_2 \text{ and } y_1 < y_2.$$

Positive set functions can be used to construct AP kernels as we state in Theorem 5.1.

THEOREM 5.1. *Let ϕ be a positive set function and let g_1 and g_2 be arrangement increasing. Then $\phi(g_1(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}), g_2(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y}))$ is an AP kernel.*

Some examples of positive set functions are (i) $\phi(x, y) = xy$, (ii) $\phi(x, y) = F(x, y)$ where F is a c.d.f., and (iii) $\phi(x, y) = h(x-y)$ where h is concave.

As a consequence of Theorem 5.1 and the fact that the product xy is a positive set function we have the following important example showing how to construct AP kernels

Example 5.2. Let \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} be independent random vectors each having arrangement increasing density. Then the joint density of (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) is an AP kernel.

The following examples of AI densities can be used to construct AP densities. (See Holander, Proschan, and Sethuraman (1977) for proofs.)

5.3.a. Multinomial: $g_1(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = N! \prod_{i=1}^n (u_i^{x_i}/x_i!)$, where $0 < u_i < 1$, $x_i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, $\sum_{i=1}^n u_i = 1$, and $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = N$.

5.3.b. Negative multinomial:

$$g_2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\Gamma(N))^{-1} \Gamma(N + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) (1 + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i)^{-N - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \prod_{i=1}^n (u_i^{x_i}/x_i!),$$

where $u_i > 0$, $x_i = 0, 1, \dots$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, and $N > 0$.

5.3.c. Multivariate hypergeometric: $g_3(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \binom{u_i}{x_i} / \binom{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}$, where $u_i > 0$, $x_i = 0, 1, \dots$, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = N < \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$.

5.3.d. Dirichlet: $g_4(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\Gamma(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^n \Gamma(u_i))^{-1} \Gamma(\theta + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i) (1 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^{\theta-1} \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{u_i-1}$, where $u_i > 0$, $x_i \geq 0$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \leq 1$, and $\theta > 0$.

5.3.e. Inverted Dirichlet:

$$g_5(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\Gamma(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^n \Gamma(u_i))^{-1} \Gamma(\theta + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i) \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{u_i-1} / ((1 + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^\theta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i),$$

where $u_i > 0, x_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, n$, and $\theta > 0$.

5.3.f. Negative multivariate hypergeometric:

$$g_6(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\prod_{i=1}^n x_i / \Gamma(N + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i))^{-1} N! (\sum_{i=1}^n u_i) \prod_{i=1}^n (\Gamma(x_i + u_i) / \Gamma(u_i)),$$

where $u_i > 0, x_i = 0, 1, \dots, N, \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = N$, and $N = 1, 2, \dots$.

5.3.g. Dirichlet compound negative multinomial: $g_7(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\prod_{i=1}^n x_i! / \Gamma(N) \Gamma(\theta) \Gamma(N + \theta + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i))^{-1} \Gamma(N - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \Gamma(\theta + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i) \Gamma(N + \theta) \prod_{i=1}^n (\Gamma(x_i + u_i) / \Gamma(u_i))$, where $u_i > 0, x_i = 0, 1, \dots, i = 1, \dots, n, \theta > 0$, and $N = 1, 2, \dots$.

5.3.h. Multivariate logarithmic series distribution:

$$g_8(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\log(1 + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i))^{-1} (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - 1)! (1 + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i)^{-\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \prod_{i=1}^n (u_i^{x_i} / x_i!),$$

where $u_i > 0, x_i = 0, 1, \dots, i = 1, \dots, n$.

5.3.i. Multivariate F distribution:

$$g_9(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (2 \prod_{i=0}^n \Gamma(\lambda_i) (\lambda_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i)^\lambda)^{-1} \Gamma(u) \prod_{i=0}^n (2u_i)^{u_i} \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{u_i-1},$$

where $u_i > 0, i = 0, 1, \dots, n, u = \sum_{i=0}^n \lambda_i, x_i \geq 0, i = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

5.3.j. Multivariate Pareto distribution: $g_{10}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (\prod_{i=1}^n u_i)^{-1} (\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^{-1} x_i - n + 1)^{-(a+n)}$, where $x_i > u_i > 0, i = 1, \dots, n$, and $a > 0$.

5.3.k. Multivariate normal distribution with common variance and common covariance:

$g_{11}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp(-1/2(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{u})\Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{u})^{-1})$, where Σ is the positive definite covariance matrix with elements σ^2 along the main diagonal and elements $\rho\sigma^2$ elsewhere, $\rho > -1/(n-1)$.

AP densities can also be constructed from independent TP_2 densities using the next result. Recall that f is TP_2 if

$$f(x_1, y_1) f(x_2, y_2) \geq f(x_1, y_2) f(x_2, y_1) \text{ for all } x_1 < x_2 \text{ and } y_1 < y_2.$$

THEOREM 5.4. Let f be TP_2 . Then $\Pi f(\theta_i, y_i)$ is arrangement increasing.

Some examples of TP_2 densities are (i) normal with variance 1, (ii) exponential, and (iii) Poisson.

In the next example we use a result of Karlin for TP_2 densities to obtain more PSA densities.

Suppose that components have lifelengths X with TP_2 density $g(\theta, x)$ and Y with TP_2 density $f(\theta, y)$. Further suppose that X and Y are independent and that θ depends on the environment with distribution $\pi(\theta)$. Then Karlin (1968) has shown that the joint distribution of X, Y given by $K(x, y) = \int f(\theta, y) g(\theta, x) d\pi(\theta)$ is TP_2 . From this result we get the following:

THEOREM 5.5. Let $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ be independent with TP_2 density. Then the joint density of $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = (X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ is arrangement increasing and hence PSA.

In the next two results we state that certain operations on pairs of random vectors which are PSA (AP) preserve the PSA (AP) property.

A vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}^n$ majorizes $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}^n$ if $\sum_{i=1}^k x_{[i]} \geq \sum_{i=1}^k y_{[i]}$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ where $x_{[1]} \geq \dots \geq x_{[n]}$. A function f is Schur-concave if $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{y})$ whenever \mathbf{x} majorizes \mathbf{y} . In Theorem 5.6 we show that Schur-concave densities can be used to construct PSA densities.

THEOREM 5.6. *Let (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) have a PSA (AP) density. Let \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{Z} be mutually independent and independent of (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) each having a Schur-concave density. Then $(\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{Z})$ has a PSA (AP) density.*

Marshall and Olkin (1974) give a number of interesting examples of Schur-concave densities. We list some of them in Example 5.7 below.

Example 5.7. The following multivariate densities are Schur-concave:

5.7.a. Multivariate normal: Let X_1, \dots, X_n be exchangeable and jointly normally distributed. Then the joint density of \mathbf{X} is Schur-concave.

5.7.b. Multivariate "t" distribution: Let U_1, \dots, U_n be exchangeable and jointly normally distributed. Let Z^2 be chi-square distributed for $Z \geq 0$. Then $\mathbf{X} = (U_1/Z, \dots, U_n/Z)$ has a Schur-concave density.

5.7.c. Multivariate beta distribution: Let U_1, \dots, U_n be independent, identically distributed chi-square random variables and let Z be a chi-square random variable, independent of U_1, \dots, U_n . Then $\mathbf{X} = (U_1/(\sum U_i + Z), \dots, U_n/(\sum U_i + Z))$ has a Schur-concave density.

5.7.d. Multivariate "F" distribution: Let U_1, \dots, U_n each have a chi-square distribution with $r \geq 2$ degrees of freedom, and let Z have a chi-square distribution with s degrees of freedom. Then $\mathbf{X} = (U_1/Z, \dots, U_n/Z)$ has a Schur-concave density.

For random variables X_1, \dots, X_n , denote by R_i the rank of X_i among X_1, \dots, X_n . The random vector $\mathbf{R} \equiv (R_1, \dots, R_n)$ is called the *rank order* of (X_1, \dots, X_n) . We have the following useful result for the rank orders of PSA (AP) random vectors (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) .

THEOREM 5.8. *Let (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) be PSA (AP). Let \mathbf{R} be the rank order of \mathbf{X} and let \mathbf{S} be the rank order of \mathbf{Y} . Then the random vectors (\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{S}) are PSA (AP).*

6. Applications to Statistics. The theory of stochastic rearrangement inequalities has applications in a number of areas in statistics. In this section we present two of these applications.

In the first example we show how the stochastic version of the Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya inequality may be applied to reliability theory. This generalizes a result of Derman, Lieberman, and Ross (1972) in the case of two vectors.

Application 6.1. Suppose that we have two stockpiles of n components each, stockpile one of type 1 components, stockpile two of type 2 components. From these stockpiles we are to construct n systems, each composed of a component of type 1 and a component of type 2 arranged in series. A component i of type j has a random reliability p_i^j , $j = 1, 2$; $i = 1, \dots, n$. We assume that $\mathbf{P}^1 \equiv (P_1^1, \dots, P_n^1)$ and $\mathbf{P}^2 \equiv (P_1^2, \dots, P_n^2)$ are independent, each having an AI density with parameters $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_n$ and $\beta_1 \leq \dots \leq \beta_n$, respectively. Then, as we have seen in Section 4, $(\mathbf{P}^1, \mathbf{P}^2)$ is AP.

For the assembly which pairs the i -th component of type 1 with the $\pi(i)$ -th component of type 2, the average reliability of the n system is $1/n \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^1 p_{\pi(i)}^2$.

Thus by the stochastic Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya inequality, the optimal assembly, in terms of average reliability of the n systems, is achieved when the i -th component of type 1 is paired with the i -th component of type 2. \square

Let (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) be AP with parameters (α, β) . Let α_0 be a fixed vector of \mathcal{X}^n in the orbit of α . The theory we have developed can be used to study the problem of testing the hypothesis

$$(6.1) \quad H_0: \beta \stackrel{s}{=} \alpha_0 \quad \text{against } H_a: \beta \stackrel{s}{\neq} \alpha_0.$$

Let f be an AI function and define the test T_f by

$$(6.2) \quad T_f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) < v_\alpha \\ \gamma, & \text{if } f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = v_\alpha \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The null hypothesis is rejected with probability $T_f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ if (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is observed. Note that the numbers v_α and $(0 < \gamma < 1)$ are determined to give size α to the test.

Let $B_{T_f}(\alpha, \beta)$ be the power function of the above test against alternatives (α, β) , that is,

$$B_{T_f}(\alpha, \beta) = ET_f(X(\alpha), Y(\beta)).$$

We shall need the following definition (see Barlow, Bartholomew, Bremner, and Brunk (1972), Chapter 6).

Definition 6.2. Let $(\alpha_0, \beta_0) \in \mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$ be given. A test T has *isotonic power* against alternative $(\alpha, \beta) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0)$ (with respect to the ordering “ $\stackrel{a}{\leq}$ ”) if for any (α_1, β_1) and (α_2, β_2) in $\mathcal{R}^n \times \mathcal{R}^n$ such that

$$(\alpha_2, \beta_2) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\alpha_1, \beta_1) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0),$$

we have

$$B_T(\alpha_2, \beta_2) \geq B_T(\alpha_1, \beta_1).$$

Remark 6.3. It is a consequence of Definition 6.2 that any test T which is isotonic with respect to the “ $\stackrel{a}{\leq}$ ” ordering is unbiased for testing

$$(6.3) \quad \begin{aligned} H_0: (\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{=} (\alpha_0, \beta_0) & \quad \text{against} \\ H_a: (\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{\neq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0), (\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0). \end{aligned}$$

Note that by the remark in Section 3, the hypotheses in (6.3) are equivalent to those in (6.1).

It follows from Theorem 4.3, that tests of the form given in (6.2) are isotonic with respect to the arrangement ordering and, consequently, by Remark 6.3 that such tests will be unbiased for testing H_0 against H_a . We state this formally in Theorem 6.4.

THEOREM 6.4. *Let (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) be SSA like (α_0, β) . Consider testing the hypothesis*

$$H_0: (\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{=} (\alpha_0, \beta_0)$$

against

$$H_a: (\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{\neq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0), (\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0).$$

Let f be an AI function and let T_f be the test given in (6.2). Then the test T_f has isotonic power against alternatives $(\alpha_0, \beta) \stackrel{a}{\leq} (\alpha_0, \beta_0)$. Consequently, a test based on T_f is unbiased for testing $H_0: \alpha_0 \stackrel{s}{=} \beta$ against $H_a: \alpha_0 \stackrel{s}{\neq} \beta$.

A number of well-known statistics, including those given in Section 2 such as Spearman’s ρ and Kendall’s τ are AI functions and hence can be used to test the hypotheses in (6.1).

Remark 6.5. In Theorem 5.8 we showed that if (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) is PSA (AP) then its rank order (\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{S}) is PSA (AP). Thus Theorem 6.4 also holds for test statistics T_f based on the rank order of (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) . A useful application of the above remark arises in testing for the existence of positive dependence between two time series. An example is described below.

Application 6.6. Studies of air pollution have shown that automobile exhaust is the

major source of lead elemental air pollution in many urban areas. It is believed that automobile exhaust is also the major source of bromine pollution in the atmosphere. For a particular city, we wish to determine whether automobile exhaust is the predominant source of both of these two pollutants or, alternatively, whether other sources are responsible for bromine pollution. Suppose that λ_i , the concentration of lead at time i , $i = 1, \dots, n$, is known. Let $\lambda_0 = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$.

To help in distinguishing between the two alternative hypotheses, we test $H_0: \lambda_0 \stackrel{s}{=} \beta$ against $H_a: \lambda_0 \not\stackrel{s}{=} \beta$, where β_i is the true concentration of bromine at time i , $i = 1, \dots, n$, and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$. Rejection of H_0 would indicate that sources other than automobile exhaust contribute to the bromine pollution.

Observations \mathbf{L} on lead and \mathbf{B} on bromine are assumed to be governed by a joint AP density with parameters (λ_0, β) . By Theorem 6.4 we conclude that a test using an AI test statistic based on the ranks of \mathbf{L} and the ranks of \mathbf{B} is isotonic and is consequently unbiased against H_a .

Remark 6.7. Suppose that the measurements \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{B} are subject to errors \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} with $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma(\rho_1))$ and $\mathbf{Y} \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma(\rho_2))$, where

$$\Sigma(\rho) = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & & & \rho\sigma^2 \\ & \cdot & & \\ & & \cdot & \\ \rho\sigma^2 & & & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

for $0 \leq \rho \leq 1$. Since the density of each of \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} is Schur-concave by Theorem 5.6, $(\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{Y})$ is PSA (AP) and, as before, a test using an AI test statistic based on the ranks of $\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{X}$ and of $\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{Y}$ is isotonic.

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