A Permutation Test For Matching and its Asymptotic Distribution

SUMMARY -

We consider a permutation method for testing whether observations given in their natural pairing exhibit an unusual level of similarity in situations where any two observations may be similar at some unknown baseline level. Under a null hypotheses where there is no distinguished pairing of the observations, a normal approximation with explicit bounds and rates is presented for determining approximate critical test levels.

Key Words: Similarity, Normal Approximation, Stein’s Method

1 Introduction

The work in this paper was motivated by examples such as the following.

Example 1. Schiffman et. al (1978), with statistical assistance by one of the authors², studied the influence of a doctor’s prior probabilities of diseases on diagnosis. Statistical thinking, which can be formalized in Bayesian terms, suggests that given a set of symptoms, a doctor’s diagnosis or ranking of possible diagnoses should be influenced not only by the symptoms, but also by the disease prevalence at the time of diagnosis. Doctors’ information on prevalence may come, for example, from textbooks, articles, and personal experience. The goal of the study was to verify the influence of personal prior information or opinion on disease prevalence (henceforth referred to as “personal prior”) on diagnosis and help determine whether doctors need to be better educated to take prevalence into account, or if providing them with information on prevalence at the time of diagnosis is useful.

In this study each doctor in a sample produced first a ranking $X$ of the prevalence, or of the probability of various diseases from a given list; such a ranking represents the doctor’s personal prior. A compatible medical scenario was then presented to all doctors, and each one of them produced a ranked list $Y$ of possible diagnoses from the same given list. Rank correlations between $X$ and $Y$ for each doctor were then computed. To test the hypotheses that a doctor’s personal prior does not influence his diagnostic rankings, a null hypotheses of zero correlation between each doctor’s $X$ and $Y$ is not appropriate. Even with no such influence, one

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would expect that pairs of rankings would have some nonzero baseline correlation
due to the influence of other factors like common medical knowledge. The null hy-
pothesis of interest that there is no influence of personal prior is complex since the
baseline correlation is unknown. The presence of an unknown baseline correlation
raises the question of how high the within-doctor rank correlations need to be to
reject the null hypothesis and assert the claim that there is influence of personal
prior on diagnostic rankings.

Correlations are used here as a measure of similarity between ranked lists.
Henceforth we will talk about similarity in general, and the approach applies to
any measure of similarity or proximity defined on the sample space.

The main focus of this paper is on examples of the following kind:

**Example 2.** This example is somewhat artificial, but it is simpler and can clarify
the issue; it will also help in explaining the example that follows it which is
rather similar. Consider an instructor who wants to know if students are copying
from their neighbors in a class where students take an exam while seated in pairs.
Given a measure of similarity between exams, we expect any two exams to be simi-
lar even in the absence of copying. Common knowledge that all students hopefully
have would make their exams similar to a certain, unknown degree. Therefore, we
want to test if the similarity between seated pairs is unusual (due to copying) rel-
ative to some unknown baseline similarity. This example is different from the
first in that here a similarity score can be computed for any pair of exams \( X_i; X_j \),
wheras in the first example the correlations of interest are those between \( X \) and
\( Y \).

**Example 3.** Situations similar to Example 2 arise naturally in environmental
and medical studies, where subjects in a given study group are matched (paired) by
certain common background of interest, such as having lived in the same neighbor-
hood during a given period, having certain common medical conditions or having
certain variables in common (e.g., gender, age, weight, etc.). In order to assess
the influence of the background in question on a given set of certain medical con-
ditions (denoted by \( X \) for subject \( i \)), one should test whether matched pairs are
more similar than unmatched ones relative to the medical condition being studied.
The baseline similarity between unmatched pairs is again unknown, but a certain
degree of similarity must certainly exist due to common factors that all subject in
the particular study might have. More specifically, suppose we have an even num-
ber \( n \) of subjects and those indexed by \( 2i - 1 \) and \( 2i \) form the matched pairs for
\( i = 1; \ldots; n=2 \), and let \( X \) measure subject \( i \)'s medical condition. Our goal is to
test whether all \( X_{2i-1} \) and \( X_{2i} \), which arise from the matched pairs, exhibit more
similarity then \( X_i \) and \( X_j \) from unmatched pairs.
A related testing problem arises in the design of studies involving matching of subjects that are similar by some background criteria in order to reduce variability in other variables of interest. The matching process often requires a great effort. The question of whether it achieves its purpose in producing a higher level of similarity in the variables of interest than would be achieved at random, can be tested as described in this paper.

Example 1 is a specific instance of a problem of the following type. Consider pairs of observations $(X_1; Y_1); \ldots; (X_n; Y_n)$, where $X_i$ and $Y_i$ take values in a space so that a proximity function $c(X; Y)$ is defined. This function may sometimes be obtained as a decreasing function of some metric. However, for the rankings of Example 1, the rank correlation is a relevant proximity function not derived from a metric. We want to test whether the natural pairing of $X_i$ to $Y_i$ exhibits a significantly higher level of proximity or similarity than an unknown baseline level. The null hypotheses that the level of proximity or similarity in the natural pairing is the same as the baseline level can be formulated as the hypothesis that the observations $(X_1; Y_{(1)}); \ldots; (X_n; Y_{(n)})$ are identically distributed for all $\mathcal{S}_n$, the permutation group of $n$ elements. Conditioning on the observed $f_{i,j} = c(X_i; Y_j)$, a permutation test which compares the value of

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{i, (1)}$$

for the special permutation $= \text{id}$ (the identity), against critical values of the distribution of $U$ when is uniform over $\mathcal{S}_n$ (the distribution assigning equal probabilities to every element in $\mathcal{S}_n$), can be used to test the null hypothesis.

The permutation distribution of $U$ for uniform over $\mathcal{S}_n$ was studied in numerous other statistical contexts. For a seminal reference which contains both theory and applications see Wald and Wolfowitz (1944). More recent articles which in turn contain further references include the following. In connection with linear rank statistics, Ho and Chen (1978) and Bolthausen (1984) computed bounds on the rate of convergence to normality. Bickel and van Zwet (1978) give more background and results on linear rank statistics for two-sample problems, including an Edgeworth expansion for a special case of (1). Diaconis, Graham and Holmes (1999) discuss similar statistics and also some subsets of permutations related to tests for independence. Kolchin and Chistyakov (1973) discuss the permutation distribution for the subset of permutations with one cycle. Below we discuss a rather different subset of permutations, in which the number of cycles is maximal. For general theory on permutation tests see, e.g., Pesarin (2001) and references
therein. Related work on normal approximations can be also be found in Stein (1986), whose ideas and methods have strongly influenced us and other authors. We will give a brief indication of some basic ideas of Stein’s method.

In this paper we focus on situations as described in Examples 2 and 3 where all pairings can be compared. We consider the following framework. Given an even number \( n \) of paired observations \((X_1; X_2); (X_3; X_4); \ldots; (X_{n-1}; X_n)\), with values in a space so that a proximity function \( c(X_i; X_j) \) is defined, we want to test whether the special pairing of \( X_{2i-1} \) with \( X_{2i} \) exhibits a significantly higher level of similarity than an unknown baseline level. The null hypotheses that the similarity level of the special pairing is the same as the baseline level is here formulated as the hypothesis that the variables \([X_i; X_{(i)}]; i \leq (i)\] are identically distributed for all \( 2 \leq n \) where

\[
\begin{align*}
n = f & \quad 2 \quad S_n : 2 = \text{id}; \quad (i) \neq i \quad \text{for all } i \\
\end{align*}
\]

The condition \( 2 = \text{id} \) reflects the fact that if \( i \) is paired with \( j \) then \( j \) is paired with \( i \), and the condition \( (i) \neq i \) the fact that no \( i \) can be paired with itself. The special pairing which we suspect may show a high similarity level corresponds to the permutation \( \sim 2 \quad n \) specified by the conditions \( \sim (2i-1) = 2i \) and \( \sim (2i) = \text{id} \). Conditioning on the set of values \( f_e_{ij} = c(X_{i}; X_{j}) \) we consider the permutation test which compares the value of \( U \) at the special permutation \( \sim \) against critical values of the distribution of \( U \) when \( \sim \) is uniform over \( n \).

The proposed two tests discussed above appear similar, as in both tests the observed similarity related to a special permutation is compared to critical values computed against a null distribution induced by the uniform distribution over a space of relevant permutations. For the first test that space is \( S_n \) and the special permutation is the identity (which matches \( X_{i} \) with \( Y_{i} \)), and for the second test the space of permutations is \( n \) and the special permutation is \( \sim \) (which matches \( X_{2i-1} \) with \( X_{2i} \)). We henceforth discuss only the second case and study the permutation distribution relative to \( n \). The methods used here apply to the permutation distribution over the whole of \( S_n \) mutatis mutandis.

For the null hypothesis to be true it is sufficient that the \( X_0^e \)s are exchangeable, but the null hypothesis is complex and does not specify the distribution of \( U \) nor the baseline similarity. In the absence of a null distribution, the above permutation test seems very natural.

We shall provide a normal approximation to the permutation distribution of \( U \) of \( U \) including bounds, rates, and explicit constants in order to determine approximate critical values for the permutation test.
Henceforth we suppress the dependence of $U$ in (1) on $g$. Furthermore, for values $g_{i,j}$ with $g_{i,i} = 0$, we set

$$
g_{i+} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{i,j} \quad g_{+j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{i,j} \quad g_{++} = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} g_{i,j} \quad \text{and} \quad g_{++} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{i+}.
$$

Note that the terms $e_{i,j}$ and $e_{j,i}$ always appear together in the sum $U$, and we may therefore assume without loss of generality that $e_{i,j} = e_{j,i}$. The diagonal terms $e_{i,i}$ never enter $U$ and we take them to be 0. Given such a collection of numbers $e_{i,j}$, define

$$
d_{i,j} = \left( e_{i,j} \right) \left( \frac{n(n-2)}{n(n-1)^2} \right) + \frac{e_{i+j} + e_{i-j}}{n(n-1)^2} \quad i \neq j.
$$

Bounds to the normal approximation for the permutation distribution of $U$ are contained in the following theorem. For convenience we assume without further comment that $n \geq 10$.

**Theorem 1** Let $U$ be given by (1), be uniform over $n$ and

$$
W = \frac{U}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(U)}} \quad \text{and} \quad = \sup_{W \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{P}(W \leq z) \quad (n \geq 10)
$$

where $z$ is the standard normal distribution function. Then

$$
E(U) = e_{+} = \frac{(n-1)}{n};
$$

$$
\text{Var}(U) = \frac{2}{(n-1)(n-3)} \left( \frac{X}{n} \right) + \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{e_{i,j}^2}{n-1} \right) + \frac{2}{n} \left( \frac{X}{n} \right) ;
$$

and there exist constants $c_1, c_2$ such that

$$
d_{i,j} = \left( \frac{n}{X} \right) \left( \frac{d_{i,j}^2}{(i-j)^2} \right) + \frac{c_2}{n} \left( \frac{X}{i-j-1} \right) \left( \frac{d_{i,j}}{i-j-1} \right)^2 ;
$$

If, for example, the constants $d_{i,j}$ are bounded then $\text{Var}(U)$ is bounded and $P_{d_{i,j}^2} = 0(n^2)$, so in view of (6), the bound above decays at the rate of $\text{Var}(U)^{1/2} = n^{1/2}$. Below a somewhat crude calculation gives the upper bounds of $c_1 = 86, c_2 = 243$. 

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2 Proof of Theorem 1

We compute the mean and variance of $U$ in Section 2.1 and establish the upper bound on the normal approximation in Section 2.2.

2.1 Mean and Variance of $U$

To compute the mean and variance of $U = \prod_{i=1}^{n} e_{1}(i)$, where $e_{1}(i)$ is chosen uniformly from $[n]$, we have the following Lemma.

**Lemma 1** Let $g_{ij}$ satisfy $g_{ii} = 0$ and set

$$f_{ij} = \begin{cases} g_{ij} & i \neq j \\ 0 & i = j \end{cases}$$

Then with

$$V = \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{i1}(i)$$

we have

$$E g_{i1}(i) = g_{i1} \quad \text{and therefore} \quad E V = \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{i1}$$

and

$$\text{Var}(V) = \sum_{(i,j) \neq (i,j)} f_{ij}^2 + \sum_{(i,j) \neq (i,j)} f_{ij}f_{ji}^*.$$  

**Proof:** Since $(i)$ can be any $j \neq i$ with probability $1/n$, we have

$$E g_{i1}(i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j: j \neq i} g_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} g_{i1} = \overline{g}_{i1};$$

and so

$$\text{Var}(V) = \sum_{(i,j) \neq (i,j)} f_{ij}^2 + \sum_{(i,j) \neq (i,j)} f_{ij}f_{ji}^*.$$
Now note that the probability is \( \frac{1}{n} = 1 \) that \( (i) = j \), and therefore that \( (j) = i \). If \( (i) \neq j \), then \( i \neq j \); \( (i) \) and \( (j) \) are all distinct, and given any \( (i)j(k) ; k \neq j \) the probability that \( (i) = k \) and \( (j) = l \) is \( \frac{1}{(n - 1)(n - 3)} \). We therefore have

\[
\begin{align*}
E \frac{X}{i \neq j} f_i j = & \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{(n - 1)(n - 3)} \frac{1}{(n - 2)} \frac{1}{X} \\
\text{The first equality below follows by summing over } l \neq 2 \{ i, j, k \}, \text{ and using} \ f_{ij} = 0 \text{ and } f_{ji} = 0, \text{ and the second in a similar way by summing over } j \neq 2 \{ i, k \}. \\

d_i j + e_i j = d_j i = d_j i + e_j i = 0 \quad \text{(5)}
\end{align*}
\]

Since the distribution of \( U_d \) is a simple translation of that for \( U_e \) we study \( U_d = U_e \); henceforth we suppress the \( d \).

Applying Lemma 1 with \( g_{ij} = d_{ij} \), since \( d_{ij} = 0 \) we have \( f_{ij} = c_{ij} \) and therefore

\[
\begin{align*}
E U = 0; \\
\text{using also } c_{ij} = c_{ji}, \\
\text{Var} (U) = \frac{2}{(n - 1)(n - 3)} C_{ij}^2.
\end{align*}
\]

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In terms of the symmetric but otherwise arbitrary values $e_{ij}$ which may not satisfy (5), the variance in (3) is obtained by substituting (2) into (6).

### 2.2 Normal Approximation Upper Bound

We apply the following theorem, which is a special case of (1.10) of Theorem 1.2 of Rinott and Rotar (1997), when $R = 0$, using (1.12). The latter is based on Stein’s method (Stein 1986, pg 35), with an improvement on the rates under some condition.

**Theorem 2** Let $(\check{W}, \check{W}^\prime)$ be exchangeable with $E\check{W} = 0$ and $E\check{W}^2 = 1$ such that for $0 < \lambda < 1$ we have

$$E (\check{W} \check{W}^\prime) = (1 - \lambda) \check{W}.$$  

If

$$\check{W} \check{W}^\prime \leq A$$

for a constant $A$, then

$$E \check{W}^2 \leq \frac{12 \text{Var} (\check{W})}{\text{Var} (\check{W})^2} \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{12 + \frac{P}{32}}{12 + \frac{P}{32}} A^3.$$  

We briefly indicate the idea behind the proof of a theorem of this type. This discussion can serve as some introduction to Stein’s method for the interested reader, but it is not necessary for the rest of the paper.

First note that a random variable $\check{W}$ has the standard normal distribution if and only if

$$E f (\check{W}) = E \check{W} f (\check{W})$$

holds for all continuous and piecewise continuously differentiable functions $f$, for which the expectations in (10) exist. This motivates the differential equation (12) in the lemma below.

Set $h = E h (Z)$, where $Z$ is standard normal, and $h$ is a function for which the expectation exists. Also, for a real valued $h$, let $\|h\|_\infty$ denote the sup norm, that is, $\|h\|_\infty = \sup_x |h(x)|$. The lemma below is elementary, though the bounds in (13) require some calculations.

**Lemma 2** Let $h$ be a bounded piecewise continuously differentiable real valued function. The function

$$f (w) = e^{w^2/2} Z w \int_1^h (\alpha) h (\alpha) e^{-\alpha^2/2} d\alpha$$

holds for all continuous and piecewise continuously differentiable functions $f$, for which the expectations in (10) exist. This motivates the differential equation (12) in the lemma below.

Set $h = E h (Z)$, where $Z$ is standard normal, and $h$ is a function for which the expectation exists. Also, for a real valued $h$, let $\|h\|_\infty$ denote the sup norm, that is, $\|h\|_\infty = \sup_x |h(x)|$. The lemma below is elementary, though the bounds in (13) require some calculations.
solves the (first order linear) differential equation

\[ f^0(w) w f(w) = h(w) h; \quad (12) \]

and

\[ \begin{align*}
(a) & \quad j f(j) P_{2} j h(j) h; \\
(b) & \quad j f^0(j) 2j h(j) h; \\
(c) & \quad j f^0(j) 2j h^0(j) h; \quad (13)
\end{align*} \]

Now, exchangeability of \( \tilde{W}, \tilde{W} \) and (7) directly imply

\[ E f W f W g = \frac{E f W W f W f W g}{2}; \quad (14) \]

Together with (12) this implies

\[ E h(W) = E f W f W g \frac{E f W W f W f W g}{2}; \quad (14) \]

The first term in the Taylor expansion of \( f(W) f(W) \) is \( W W f^0(W) \), and the r.h.s. of (14) is bounded by \( d_{IJ} f f^0(W) \frac{W W}{2} f(W) f(W) g \) plus a remainder term which we now ignore. By (7) we have \( E(W W)^2 = 2 \); and (13) b) and the Cauchy Schwarz inequality readily yield

\[ E f f^0(W) \frac{W W}{2} f(W) f(W) g \frac{W W}{2} f(W) g \frac{W W}{2} f(W) g; \]

Using (14), an approximation of an indicator function of a half line by a smooth \( h \) yields a term similar to the first term on the r.h.s. of (9), and calculation of the remainder in the above Taylor expansion yields the second. To obtain the precise bound (9), a certain induction and further calculations are needed.

We shall apply Theorem 2 to \( \tilde{W} = U = \), but for convenience we first describe the coupling and compute the relevant quantities in terms of \( U \). Given a permutation chosen uniformly from \( n \) construct the permutation in \( n \) by choosing \( I; J \) distinct and uniformly, and imposing \( (I) = J \) and therefore \( (J) = I \), and \( (I) = (J) \). Let \( c_1; \ldots; c_k \) be the values of \( k \) for \( k \leq I; J \); \( (I) g \). With \( U = c_1 c_2 \ldots c_k \), let \( U = I c_1 c_2 \ldots c_k \).

To verify (7), first note that

\[ U = 2 c_1 c_2 + c_1 c_2 + c_1 c_2 + c_1 c_2 + c_1 c_2 + c_1 c_2; \quad (15) \]

where the factor 2 accounts for the symmetry \( c_1 = c_2 \).
Letting $C$ be the event that $J \notin (I)$, we have $(U \ U) = (U \ U)1_C$ and therefore

$$E((U \ U)1_C) = E((U \ U)1_C1_J);$$

For the first two terms in (15), recalling $d_{++} = 0$, and using that $(I;J)$ is independent of and equals any of the $n(n-1)$ pairs $(i; j)$ for which $i \notin j$.

$$E(d_{I;J}1_C1_J) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} d_{i}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} X \cdot X \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} d_{i}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} U;$$

and similarly for the term $d_{(I;J)}$, as $(I;J)$ has the same distribution as $(I;J)$.

Now consider the third term on the right hand side in (15):

$$E(d_{I}1_{C \ j}) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} d_{i}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} X \cdot X \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} d_{i}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1 \ j \neq i}^{n} U;$$

By symmetry the same is true for the term $d_{J}1_{C \ j}$.

Collecting terms and using $F((U \ U)) = F((U \ U))$, where $F(X)$ denotes the sigma field generated by the random variable $X$, we have

$$E((U \ U)1_{C \ j}) = \frac{2}{n(n-1)} (2 + 2(n - 2))U = \frac{4U}{n};$$

Thus (15) holds with $\frac{4U}{n} = 4U$.

Now we consider the first term in the bound in Theorem 2 since $F((U \ U)) = F((U \ U));$

$$\text{Var}E((U \ U)^21_{C \ j}) \geq \text{Var}E((U \ U)^21_{C \ j});$$

(16)
From (15),

\[ E \left( \sum U^2 \right) = 4E \left( (d_{IJ} + d_{J I}) (d_{I I} + d_{J J}) \right) \]

When we expand the square we get the following types of terms; (i) the square terms from the first group of parentheses, (ii) mixed terms formed by taking one term from the first group with one term from the second, (iii) the square terms from the second group, (iv) mixed terms between values in the first group, and (v) mixed terms between values in the second group.

(i) The value of the conditional expectation for the square term \( E(d_{IJ}^2) \) clearly does not depend on \( \omega \), and therefore contributes a constant value which does not affect the variance. The same is true for \( E(d_{II}^2) \) because \( \omega = (I;J) \) range over all possible distinct pairs with equal probability so do \( (I;J) \).

(ii) Terms such as \( E(d_{IJ}d_{I J} + d_{II}d_{JJ}) \), evaluate to zero. In this particular case take expectation over \( J \) first and use \( d_{ij} = 0 \).

By tallying the contributions from terms (iii),(iv), and (v), we conclude that, up to an additive constant not depending on \( \omega \), and therefore not affecting the variance, (17) equals

\[ 8 \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ii}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij}d_{ji} \right)^2 : \tag{18} \]

We may write (18) as \( A_1 + A_2 + A_3 \) where

\[ A_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ii}^2 ; \quad A_2 = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1; j \neq i}^{n} d_{ij}d_{ji} ; \quad A_3 = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1; j \neq i}^{n} d_{ii}d_{jj} : \]

In view of (16), we now need to compute the variance of (18) with respect to a uniform \( \frac{2}{n} \). We have

\[ \text{Var}(A_1 + A_2 + A_3) = 8^2 - 3 \left( \text{Var}(A_1) + \text{Var}(A_2) + \text{Var}(A_3) \right) : \]

To calculate \( \text{Var}(A_1) \), apply Lemma [1] with \( g_{ij} = d_{ij}^2 \) to obtain

\[ \text{Var}(A_1) = \frac{1}{n^2(n-1)(n-3)} (2n^2 \sum f_{ij}^2 + \sum f_{ij}f_{ji}) : \]

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For the second term above, by Cauchy-Schwarz,
\[
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j} f_{ij} f_{ji} &= 2 f_{ij}^2 f_{ji}^2 \\
\sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 f_{ji}^2 &= 2 f_{ij}^4
\end{aligned}
\] (19)

Collecting terms we conclude
\[
\text{Var}(\mathcal{A}_1) = \frac{2 (n-2)}{n^2(n-1)(n-3)} X \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 = \frac{3 X}{n^3} \sum_{j} f_{ij}^4
\]

for \( n \geq 8 \).

We now turn to \( \text{Var}(\mathcal{A}_2) \). With
\[
I = f I = (i; j; k; l; i_0; j_0; k_0; l_0) : i < j < k < l < n; g;
\]
it can be shown that when \( I \) is uniform over \( n \), the probability of a given \( I \) satisfying \( \sum f_{ij} = s \) is
\[
\mathbb{P}(I) = \frac{1}{[n]_s}; \quad s = 2, 4, 6, 8, \ldots, \text{where } [n]_s = (n-1)(n-3) \ldots (n-s+1);
\]

For \( I = (i; j; k; l; i_0; j_0; k_0; l_0) \) \( 2 \) \( I \) set \( d_I = d_{ij} d_{kl} d_{i_0 j_0} d_{k_0 l_0} \). We then have
\[
\text{Var} \left( \sum_{j} f_{ij} d_I \right) = \frac{1}{[n]_s} X \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^4
\]

where \( I \) are all those \( I \) with \( \sum f_{ij} = s \).

Consider first the case of \( s = 8 \). Since \( d_{ik} = 0 \), summing over \( I \) \( f_{ij} k; l; i_0 j_0 k_0 l_0 \) we have
\[
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j} f_{ij} d_I &= \frac{1}{[n]_s} X \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^4 \\
&= \frac{1}{[n]_s} X \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^2 \sum_{j} f_{ij}^4
\end{aligned}
\] (21)

Applying Cauchy Schwarz to each of the six terms in the inner sum, the absolute value of the expression is bounded by
\[
6 (n-2)_5 X \sum_{j} f_{ij}^4 \]

for \( n \geq 8 \).
where \( (n)_s = n(n-1) \cdots (n-s+1) \):

For \( s \geq 2 \), apply Cauchy Schwarz to

\[
\sum_{i,j} c_{ij} d_{i0} d_{j0} \leq \left( \sum_{i,j} c_{ij}^2 \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{i,j} d_{i0}^2 d_{j0}^2 \right)^{1/2}
\]

to obtain the bound

\[
(n-2)_{s+2} \sum_{i,j} c_{ij}^4 ;
\]

Therefore

\[
\text{Var}(A_2) \leq 0 + \frac{1}{(n(n-1))^2} \left[ \frac{6(n-2)^2}{n^3} + \frac{(n-2)^2 A}{n^3} \sum_{i,j} d_{ij}^4 \right]
\]

where the latter bound holds for \( n \geq 10 \) and follows by elementary calculations.

Although \( A_3 \) and \( A_2 \) are not identically distributed, it is easy to see that the variance of \( A_3 \) can be bounded in exactly the same manner.

We obtain from (18) and the above discussion that

\[
\text{Var}(A_2) \leq \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i,j} d_{ij}^4 ;
\]

We now apply Theorem 2 to \( W = U = U = U = U = W = W = W \). From (6) we conclude that

\[
\text{Var}(U) \leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i,j} d_{ij}^2 ;
\]

It follows from (22),

\[
\text{Var}(W) \leq \frac{2}{4n} \sum_{i,j} d_{ij}^4 \leq \frac{17}{4n} \left( \sum_{i,j} d_{ij}^4 \right); \quad (23)
\]

With

\[= \text{max} \sum d_{ij}^2 .\]
we have \( j U j 4 \), and hence

\[
\frac{1}{jWj} - \frac{1}{jWj} - \frac{1}{jWj} - \frac{1}{jWj} = \frac{4}{2} \sum_{i,j \leq n} d_{ij}^2 = A.
\]

Applying Theorem 2 with this \( A \), \( 4 = n \) and using expression (23), we have

\[
86n^{1/2} \left( \sum_{i,j \leq n} d_{ij}^4 \right) = 243 n^{5/2} \left( \sum_{i,j \leq n} d_{ij}^2 \right)^{3/2}.
\]

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