CLT FOR \textit{U}-STATISTICS WITH GROWING DIMENSION

By

Cyrus DiCiccio
Joseph P. Romano
Stanford University

Technical Report No. 2020-01
January 2020

Department of Statistics
STANFORD UNIVERSITY
Stanford, California 94305-4065

http://statistics.stanford.edu
The purpose of this paper is to present a general triangular array Central Limit Theorem for $U$-statistics, where the kernel $h_k(x_1, \ldots, x_k)$ and its dimension $k$ may increase with the sample size. Some motivating examples are presented which require such a general result. The examples include a class of Hodges-Lehmann estimators, subsampling estimators, and combining $p$-values through data splitting. A result for the so-called $M$-statistic is also presented, which is defined as the median of some kernel computed over all subsets of the data of a given size. The conditions in the theorems are verified in the motivating examples as well.

KEY WORDS: Data Splitting, Hodges-Lehmann Estimator, Hypothesis Testing, $P$-values, Subsampling, $U$-statistics.
1 Introduction

Suppose $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ are i.i.d. according to a distribution $P$. Consider the U-statistic

$$U_n(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = \binom{n}{k}^{-1} \sum h_k(X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_k})$$

where $h_k$ is a symmetric kernel of order $k = k_n$ (which may increase with $n$), and the sum is taken over all $\binom{n}{k}$ combinations of $k$ observations taken from the sample. We specifically allow the order $k = k_n$ of the kernel $h_{k_n}$ to depend on $n$, as does the kernel itself. For cleaner notation, we may just write $k$ and $h_k$ rather than $k_n$ and $h_{k_n}$, but we will allow $k$ to be fixed as well as $k \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$.

As is well-known, the asymptotic theory of $U$-statistics was developed in a landmark paper by Hoeffding (1948). The classical result assumes the kernel is fixed and $n \to \infty$, and $P$ is fixed as well. The present paper provides general conditions to show asymptotic normality in a general triangular array setup. The reason for such generality is to allow the kernel and its order to vary with the sample size, as necessitated by certain applications. A uniform in $P$ result is given in Romano and Shaikh (2012), where the kernel is fixed.

When $k$ is allowed to vary with $n$, so that $k = k_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$, sufficient conditions for asymptotic normality of such $U$-statistics appear in Mentch and Hooker (2016), who consider inference for random forests. Unfortunately, their conditions never hold because they assume conditions that cannot hold simultaneously (as will be explained later). We provide rigorous sufficient conditions which are shown to hold in a variety of examples.

In addition, as an alternative to $U_n$ in (1.1), we will also consider the median statistic $M_n$ defined by

$$M_n(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = \text{median} \{ h_k(X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_k}) \} ,$$

where the median is taken over all $\binom{n}{k}$ combinations of $k$ observations taken from the sample. (In this case, we may also allow the kernel to be asymmetric.)

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents four motivating examples for the results obtained. The main theorems are given in Section 3. The examples are revisited in Section 4, where the conditions are verified. A conclusion is provided in Section 5. Proofs are deferred to Section 6.

2 Some Motivating Examples

In this section, we mention some examples that will help fix ideas and to provide motivation for the need of a general result.
Example 2.1. [Maximin Tests] Assume $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ are independent (but not necessarily i.i.d.) normal, with $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, 1)$. The problem is to test the null hypothesis $H_0$ that all $\mu_i = 0$ against the (multi-directional) alternative that not all $\mu_i$ are zero. Of course, for this problem there is no UMP (uniformly most powerful) level $\alpha$ test, but there is a UMPI (uniformly most powerful invariant) level $\alpha$ test, which rejects for large values of $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2$. However, if it is believed that the indices $i$ for which $\mu_i \neq 0$ is sparse, one can outperform the UMPI test; see Arias-Castro et al. (2011). Indeed, one may wish to direct power against alternatives for which there are not too many nonzero $\mu_i$. One can formulate the problem as follows. Fix $\epsilon = \epsilon_n > 0$ and $k = k_n$, and determine the maximin level $\alpha$ test against alternatives where at least $k$ of the $\mu_i$ satisfy $\mu_i \geq \epsilon$. (Note we can similarly treat the case where these alternatives may satisfy $|\mu_i| \geq \epsilon$, but for expository reasons, we focus on the case of positive alternatives.) We can apply standard arguments to determine the maximin test, as in Lehmann and Romano (2005). Intuitively, the least favorable distribution places equal mass at the $\binom{n}{k}$ points in the alternative parameter space, where each point $(\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_n)$ satisfies exactly $k$ of the components are $\epsilon$ and the rest are zero. It is easily checked that the maximin test rejects for large values of the $U$-statistic given in (1.1), where

$$h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_k) = \exp(\epsilon \sum_{i=1}^k X_i) \ . \quad (2.1)$$

It is desired to study the asymptotic behavior of this test statistic (both for setting critical values and approximating power) in situations were possibly $k \to \infty$ and or $\epsilon \to 0$ (as well as letting the data distribution vary at time $n$).

Example 2.2. [Class of Hodges-Lehmann Estimators] Suppose $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ are i.i.d. according to a symmetric distribution on the real line. Based on robustness considerations, the classical Hodges-Lehmann estimator is defined as the median of all pairwise averages of observations. Evidently, the Hodges-Lehmann estimator is an $M$-statistic (1.2) (with $k = 2$). More generally, consider the statistic (1.2) with

$$h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_k) = k^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^k X_i \ .$$

Let $\hat{\theta}_{n,k} = k^{-1/2}M_n$. (Note, we could have equivalently defined the kernel with $k^{-1/2}$ replaced by $k^{-1}$ so that the estimator is just $M_n$, but it is convenient for purposes of applying our results to define the kernel as above so that it is of order one in probability.) As $k$ varies, one might consider this class of estimators as $k$ ranges from $k = 1$ (the usual sample median) to $k = n$ (the sample mean), and the choice would balance efficiency and robustness considerations. The purpose here is to provide a limit theorem for general $k$, while allowing the possibility that $k$ can increase with $n$. ■
Example 2.3. [Subsampling Distribution] Suppose \( X_1, \ldots, X_n \) are i.i.d. \( P \), where interest focuses on a real-valued parameter \( \xi(P) \). Assume \( \hat{\xi}_n = \hat{\xi}_n(X_1, \ldots, X_n) \) is an estimator of \( \xi(P) \). Fix \( 1 < k < n \) and let \( S_1, \ldots, S_N \) be the \( N = \binom{n}{k} \) subsets of size \( k \) taken without replacement from the data, ordered in any fashion. For a given hypothesized value of \( \xi \), say \( \xi_0 \), let \( J_n(t, P) \) be the true c.d.f. of \( \tau_n(\hat{\xi}_n - \xi_0) \), evaluated at some generic \( t \). Typically, \( \tau_n = \sqrt{n} \). Then, a subsampling estimator of \( J_n(t, P) \) is given by

\[
U_n(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} I \left\{ \tau_k(\hat{\xi}_k(S_i) - \xi_0) \leq t \right\}
\]  

(2.2)

(The usual subsampling estimator has \( \xi_0 \) in (2.2) replaced by \( \hat{\xi}_n \), though both are relevant depending on the ultimate goal; see Chapter 2 in Politis et al. (1999).) Evidently, for each \( t \), \( U_n(t) \) is a \( U \)-statistic of degree \( k \). In order to consistently estimate the true distribution \( J_n(t, P) \), it is generally required that \( k \to \infty \). Rather than consistency, we would like to determine the limiting distribution of \( U_n(t) - J_n(t, P) \), appropriately normalized.

Example 2.4. [Combining \( p \)-values Using Data Splitting] Data splitting, a technique which involves partitioning a data set into disjoint “splits” or subsamples which can then be used for various statistical tasks, has widespread application in the statistical literature. Typically, one portion of the data is used for some form of selection (such as model fitting, dimension reduction, or choice of tuning parameters), and then a second, independent portion of the data is used for some further purpose such as estimation and model fitting. In addition, data splitting can be used in prediction to assess the performance of models (where a portion of the data has been used to select and/or fit a model and the remainder is used to assess the performance of the selected model) or in inference to perform tests of significance after hypotheses or test statistics have been selected. Data splitting has become a useful remedy for data-snooping (giving valid inference after selection of a hypothesis), estimating nuisance parameters, and avoiding over-fitting in prediction problems. The main complaint about data splitting using one split of the data is that the choice of split is arbitrary (and random), and the resulting inference violates the sufficiency principle, which says that inference in i.i.d. problems should be invariant with respect to ordering. However, recent methods propose combining \( p \)-values over multiple splits of the data; see Ruschendorf (1982), Meinshausen et al. (2009), Vovk and Wang (2012) and DiCiccio and Romano (2019). For example, if \( \hat{p}_{n,i} \) is a \( p \)-value computed over some subsample \( S_i \) of the data, then one method of combining these \( p \)-values is to take their average \( \bar{p}_n \) (which is a \( U \)-statistic) or perhaps their median. Conservative methods that control the probability of a Type 1 error at level \( \alpha \) would compare the average \( p \)-value or median \( p \)-value with \( \alpha/2 \). These methods are quite conservative in nature in that the resulting rejection probability is way below the desired nominal level. The purpose here is to exploit the \( U \)-statistic nature of the average of \( p \)-values in order to
demonstrate an improved method over the conservative methods.

3 Main Results

In this section, the main asymptotic normality theorem is developed for $U$-statistics with growing kernel order, as well as the corresponding $M$-statistic.

3.1 A General U-statistic CLT Under Growing Kernel Order

Suppose $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ are i.i.d. $P$. Consider the U-statistic given in (1.1), where $h_k$ is assumed to be symmetric kernel of order $k = k_n$, and the sum is taken over all $\binom{n}{k}$ combinations of $k$ observations taken from the sample. We specifically allow the order $k = k_n$ of the kernel $h_{k_n}$ to depend on $n$, as does the kernel itself. For cleaner notation, we may just write $k$ and $h_k$ rather than $k_n$ and $h_{k_n}$, but we will allow $k$ to be fixed as well as $k \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. (Note that, if $h_k$ were not symmetric in its arguments, it can always be symmetrized by further averaging. So, for the purposes of the CLT, we will assume $h_k$ is symmetric.)

Define $\theta_k = E(h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_k))$, and

$$\zeta_{1,k} = \text{Var}(h_{1,k}(X)),$$

where

$$h_{1,k}(x) = E(h_k(x, X_2, \ldots, X_k)) - \theta_k.$$ 

All expectations and variance are computed under the probability distribution $P$ generating the data, noting that $P = P_n$ may also vary with $n$.

More generally, define for $1 \leq c \leq k$,

$$h_{c,k}(X_1, \ldots, X_c) = E[h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_k)|X_1, \ldots, X_c] - \theta_k$$

and

$$\zeta_{c,k} = \text{Var}(h_{c,k}(X_1, \ldots, X_c)), \quad (3.1)$$

so that $\zeta_{k,k}$ is the variance of the kernel based on a sample of size $k$ equal to the order of the kernel.

Sufficient conditions for asymptotic normality of such $U$-statistics are given in Mentch and Hooker (2016), but their result is not valid because their conditions can never hold simultaneously. In particular, they assume $\zeta_{1,k} \to 0$, which as we will see fails for our applications. Moreover, they assume the second moment of the kernel is uniformly bounded, so that $\zeta_{k,k} \leq C < \infty$. But, by Theorem 1 in Hoeffding (1948), it follows that $\zeta_{1,k} \leq \zeta_{k,k}/k \leq \frac{C}{k}$.
$C/k \to 0$. Therefore, the conditions $\zeta_{k,k} \le C$ and $\zeta_{1,k} \to 0$ are incompatible, and thus the conditions in their theorem can never apply.

In some of our applications, the kernel will be uniformly bounded (such as when it is some $p$-value), in which case the $\zeta_{c,k}$ are also uniformly bounded as $c$, $k$, and $n$ vary. In such case, $\zeta_{1,k}$ is of order $1/k$ and tends to zero. However, the conditions in our theorem nevertheless can be verified. As we will see in Corollary 3.1, the important condition is that $k\zeta_{1,k} \to 0$.

**Remark 3.1** (Simple Consistency). Under weak conditions, $U_n$ is consistent in the sense $U_n - \theta_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$. It suffices to show $\text{Var}(U_n) \to 0$. But, as is well-known, $\text{Var}(U_n) \le k\zeta_{k,k}/n$. So if the $\zeta_{k,k}$ are uniformly bounded (which follows if the kernels are uniformly bounded), and $k/n \to 0$, then consistency follows.

The theorem below applies in a triangular array setup, where $n$ observations are i.i.d. $P_n$. Then, quantities like $\zeta_{c,k}$ in (3.1) are computed under $P_n$. Let

$$\hat{U}_n = \frac{k_n}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{1,k}(X_i) .$$

(3.2)

**Theorem 3.1.** Assume the order $k = k_n$ of the kernel $h_k$ satisfies $k^2/n \to 0$. Further assume that $k\zeta_{k,k}/k\zeta_{1,k}$ is bounded.

(i) Then,

$$\frac{n\text{Var}(U_n)}{k^2\zeta_{1,k}} \to 1 .$$

(3.3)

(ii). Also,

$$\frac{(U_n - \theta_k) - \hat{U}_n}{\sqrt{\frac{k^2}{n} \zeta_{1,k}}} \xrightarrow{P} 0$$

(3.4)

and so

$$U_n - \theta_k = O_P \left( \frac{k^2}{n} \zeta_{1,k} \right) .$$

(iii) If, in addition, for all $\delta > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{\zeta_{1,k}} \int_{|h_{1,k}(x)| > \delta\sqrt{n\zeta_{1,k}}} h_{1,k}^2(x) dP_n(x) = 0 ,$$

(3.5)

then

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} (U_n(X_1,\ldots,X_n) - \theta_k)}{\sqrt{k^2\zeta_{1,k}}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1).$$

(3.6)

This result also holds for the “incomplete” $U$-statistic which is the average of the kernels computed over $B_n$ randomly and uniformly chosen subsamples of the data provided $n/B_n \to 0$. 

6
Corollary 3.1. Under the above notation, if \( k^2/n \to 0 \), the kernel \( h_k \) is uniformly bounded (both as \( k \) and the data vary), and \( k\zeta_{1,k} \to 0 \), then asymptotic normality (3.6) holds.

Remark 3.2. In some applications, the condition that \( k\zeta_{1,k} \to 0 \) holds because \( k\zeta_{1,k} \) is of strict order one. Of course, if \( k \) is fixed as in the classical case, all that is required for asymptotic normality is \( \zeta_{1,k} > 0 \).

3.2 Asymptotic Normality of the \( M \)-statistic

Suppose instead of using \( U_n \) as an estimator, where the kernel is averaged over all subsamples of size \( k \) of the data, we are interested in using the median of the values of the kernel computed on all subsamples of size \( k \), i.e. \( M_n \) defined in (1.2). which we refer to as an \( M \)-statistic. In this section, we do not assume \( h_k \) is symmetric, and so the median is taken over all \( n!/\left(n-k\right)! \) ordered indices \( i_1, \ldots, i_k \) taken without replacement from \( 1, \ldots, n \). We would like to prove a triangular array CLT for \( M_n \) when \( k = k_n \) varies with \( n \).

Suppose that \( h_k \) has a c.d.f. \( F_k \) and that \( \tilde{\theta}_k \) satisfies

\[
F_k(\tilde{\theta}_k) = 1/2.
\]

Define

\[
\tilde{h}_k(x_1, ..., x_k; t) := \frac{1}{k!} \sum I \left\{ h_k(x_{i_1}, ..., x_{i_k}) > \tilde{\theta}_k + t \right\},
\] (3.7)

where the average is taken over all permutations of \( 1, ..., k \). Also define

\[
\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(t) = \text{Var}[\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(X; t)]
\]

with

\[
\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(x; t) = E[\tilde{h}_k(x, X_2, ..., X_k; t)].
\]

We will assume that the sequence \( \{F_k\} \) is asymptotically (as \( k = k_n \to \infty \)) equidifferentiable relative to the sequence \( \tilde{\theta}_k \); that is, for any \( \epsilon_k \to 0 \),

\[
F_k(\tilde{\theta}_k + \epsilon_k) - F_k(\tilde{\theta}_k) = \epsilon_k F'(\tilde{\theta}_k) + o(\epsilon_k).
\] (3.8)

We will apply (3.8) with the particular choice \( \epsilon_k = \delta_k \) defined by

\[
\delta_k = \sqrt{\frac{\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(0)k^2}{n}}.
\]

Note that \( \tilde{\zeta}_{1,k} \) is bounded in \( k \), so that if we assume that \( k^2/n \to 0 \), then \( \delta_k \to 0 \). Then,

\[
E \left( \tilde{h}_k(X_1, ..., X_k; \delta_k) \right) = 1/2 - F'_k(\tilde{\theta}_k)\delta_k + o(\delta_k).
\] (3.9)

Finally, assume that \( F'_k(\tilde{\theta}_k) \to f(\bar{\theta}) \), which is just some positive constant. (Note, \( f \) and \( \bar{\theta} \) separately need not have meaning, but typically \( F'_k \) tends to some \( f \) and \( \tilde{\theta}_k \to \bar{\theta} \).)
Theorem 3.2. Under the above setup, also assume that, \( k^2/n \to 0 \), \( k\bar{\zeta}_1(0) \not\to 0 \) and for any fixed \( t \)

\[
\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(\delta_nt)/\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(0) \to 1
\] (3.10)

as \( n \to \infty \). Then,

\[
\sqrt{n/\zeta_{1,k}(0)k^2} \left( M_n - \tilde{\theta}_k \right) \overset{d}{\to} N(0, 1/f^2(\bar{\theta})) .
\]

### 4 Examples, revisited

Example 4.1. [Example 2.1, revisited.] Consider \( U_n \) given by (1.1) with \( h_k \) given by (2.1). We verify the conditions for asymptotic normality under \( H_0 \), though power can be studied similarly. Letting \( Z \) denote a standard normal variable,

\[
E(U_n) = E \left[ \exp(\epsilon^2 Z) \right] = \exp \left( \frac{\epsilon^2}{2} \right) .
\]

Also,

\[
E[h_k(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)|X_1] = \exp(\epsilon X_1)E[\epsilon(X_2 + \cdots + X_k)] = \exp(\epsilon X_1) \exp \left( \frac{\epsilon^2(k-1)}{2} \right) .
\]

Then \( \zeta_{1,k} \), the variance of this last quantity, is given by

\[
\zeta_{1,k} = \exp[\epsilon^2(k-1)]Var[\exp(\epsilon X_1)] = \exp[\epsilon^2(k-1)] \left[ E \exp(2\epsilon X_1) - (E \exp(\epsilon X_1))^2 \right] = \exp[\epsilon^2(k-1)](\exp(2\epsilon^2) - \exp(\epsilon^2)) = \exp(\epsilon^2k)[\exp(\epsilon^2) - 1] .
\]

Similarly,

\[
\zeta_{k,k} = Var \{ \exp(\epsilon X_1 + \cdots X_k) \} = E \left[ \exp(2\epsilon\sqrt{k}Z) \right] - \left\{ E \left[ \exp(\epsilon\sqrt{k}Z) \right] \right\}^2 = \exp(2\epsilon^2k) - \exp(\epsilon^2k) = \exp(\epsilon^2k)[\exp(\epsilon^2) - 1] .
\]

We need to verify that the ratio \( \zeta_{k,k}/(k\zeta_{1,k}) \) is bounded. But,

\[
\frac{\zeta_{k,k}}{k\zeta_{1,k}} = \frac{\exp(\epsilon^2k) - 1}{k[\exp(\epsilon^2) - 1]} .
\] (4.1)

Of course, if \( k = 1 \), then the ratio (4.1) is always one, so the condition holds. Certainly, if both \( k > 1 \) and \( \epsilon > 0 \) are fixed, then the ratio (4.1) is fixed. Also, if \( k \) is fixed but \( \epsilon = \epsilon_k \to 0 \), then by L’Hospital’s rule, the ratio tends to 1 and so the condition holds. If \( k \to \infty \) but \( \epsilon^2k \to 0 \) (so that also \( \epsilon^2 \to 0 \)), then by Taylor approximation to the numerator and denominator, it is easy to see that the condition holds as again the ratio tends to one. Actually, one just needs
\( \epsilon^2 k \) remains bounded. Indeed, the numerator in (4.1) is then bounded, and the denominator is easily seen to be bounded below by \( k \epsilon^2 \). If \( k \epsilon^2 \to 0 \), then we already treated that case, but if it is bounded away from 0 and \( \infty \), then the ratio (4.1) is bounded. Hence, it is only required that \( \epsilon^2 k \) is bounded from above (unless \( k = 1 \), in which case the condition holds regardless). Conversely, it is easy to check that if \( k > 1 \) and \( k \epsilon^2 \to \infty \), then the ratio (4.1) is not bounded. Note, that if we are trying to detecting an alternative where \( k \) of the \( \mu_i \) are equal to \( \epsilon \) and the rest are zero, then such alternatives are contiguous to the null. Finally, asymptotic normality holds as long as \( \epsilon_k \) stays bounded from above (and so it can tend to zero).

**Example 4.2.** [Example 2.2, revisited.] Consider the generalized Hodges-Lehmann estimators \( \hat{\theta}_{n,k} = k^{-1/2}M_n \), where \( M_n \) is defined by (1.2) with

\[
h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_k) = k^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i.
\]

For purposes of illustrating the Theorem, assume \( X_1, \ldots, X_n \) are i.i.d. normally distributed with mean 0 and variance 1. So, assume \( k > 1 \). We have \( \tilde{\theta}_k = 0 \) and

\[
\tilde{h}_k(x_1, \ldots, x_k; t) = I \left( \frac{x_1 + \cdots + x_k}{\sqrt{k}} > t \right).
\]

Note (3.9) holds with \( f(\tilde{\theta}) = \phi(0) = 1/\sqrt{2\pi} \), where \( \phi(\cdot) \) is the standard normal density. Then,

\[
\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(x, t) = P \left\{ \frac{x + X_2 + \cdots + X_k}{\sqrt{k}} > t \right\} = 1 - \Phi \left( t\sqrt{\frac{k}{k-1}} - \frac{x}{\sqrt{k-1}} \right),
\]

\[
\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(t) = \text{Var} \left[ \Phi \left( t\sqrt{\frac{k}{k-1}} - \frac{X}{\sqrt{k-1}} \right) \right]
\]

and

\[
\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(0) = \text{Var} \left[ \Phi \left( \frac{X}{\sqrt{k-1}} \right) \right] := \tau_k^2,
\]

where \( X \sim N(0, 1) \). Note that, by Taylor approximation, for large \( k \),

\[
\tau_k^2 \approx \text{Var} \left[ \frac{X}{\sqrt{k-1}} \right] \phi(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi(k-1)}.
\]

In fact,

\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} k \tau_k^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi}.
\]

Note that, since \( \tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(0) = O(1/k), \delta_k = O(\sqrt{k/n}) \). Similarly by Taylor approximation,

\[
\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(\delta_k t) = \text{Var} \left[ \Phi \left( \delta_k t\sqrt{\frac{k}{k-1}} - \frac{X}{\sqrt{k-1}} \right) \right]
\]
If $k$ is fixed, $\delta_k^2/k \to 0$ and (3.10) holds easily. If $k \to \infty$, then $k\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(\delta_k t) \to 1/(2\pi)$, since $kO(\delta_k^2/k) = o(1)$. Therefore, the condition (3.10) holds. Hence,

$$
\sqrt{n}\frac{\tau_{r,k}^2 M_n}{k^2} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 2\pi)
$$
or equivalently

$$
\sqrt{n}\frac{k^2}{k^2} \hat{\theta}_{n,k} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 2\pi).
$$

Therefore, when $k$ is fixed,

$$
\sqrt{n}\hat{\theta}_{n,k} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 2\pi k \tau_k^2).
$$

When $k \to \infty$ and $k^2/n \to 0$, since $k\tau_k^2 \to 1/(2\pi)$, we have

$$
\sqrt{n}\hat{\theta}_{n,k} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).
$$

In this case, $\hat{\theta}_{n,k}$ is asymptotically efficient.

**Example 4.3.** [Example 2.3, revisited.] Consider the subsampling estimator $U_n(\cdot)$ defined in (2.2). Fix $t$, and note $U_n = U_n(t)$ has expectation $\theta_k = J_k(t, P)$, where $J_k(t, P)$ is the true sampling distribution of $\tau_k(\hat{\xi}_k - \xi_0)$ based on a sample of size $k$. Typical subsampling arguments, as in Chapter 2 of Politis et al. (1999), show $U_n(t) - J_n(t, P) \xrightarrow{p} 0$. A more detailed result would be to find the order of error in the difference, or even its limiting distribution. To this end, we can simply write

$$
U_n(t) - J_n(t, P) = [U_n(t) - \theta_k] - [J_n(t, P) - J_k(t, P)].
$$

The bias term $[J_n(t, P) - J_k(t, P)]$ is nonrandom and can be analyzed separately (such as by Edgeworth expansions). The $U$-statistic theory applies to the first term $[U_n(t) - \theta_k]$, whose analysis we now illustrate via Corollary 3.1. We specialize as follows. Assume the $X_i$ are i.i.d. $N(\xi, 1)$ and $\hat{\xi}_n = n^{-1}\sum X_i$. Take $\xi_0 = 0$ and $\tau_n = \sqrt{n}$. The kernel, $h_k(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = I\{k^{-1/2}\sum_{i=1}^k x_i \leq t\}$ is clearly bounded. Then,

$$
h_{1,k}(x) = P\{k^{-1/2}(X_1 + \cdots + X_k) \leq t|X_1 = x\} - \Phi(t)
$$

$$
= \Phi\left(t\sqrt{\frac{k}{k - 1}} - \frac{x}{\sqrt{k - 1}}\right) - \Phi(t).
$$

Then,

$$
\zeta_{1,k} = Var\left[\Phi\left(t\sqrt{\frac{k}{k - 1}} - \frac{X}{\sqrt{k - 1}}\right)\right].
$$

10
As \( k \to \infty \), by Taylor approximation,
\[
\zeta_{1,k} = \text{Var} \left[ \phi(t) \frac{X}{\sqrt{k-1}} \right] + o(1/k) = \frac{\phi^2(t)}{k} + o(1/k).
\]

Note the condition \( k\zeta_{1,k} \not\to 0 \) easily holds as \( k\zeta_{1,k} \to \phi^2(t) > 0 \). Therefore, we conclude that if \( k^2/n \to 0 \) and \( k \to \infty \), then
\[
\sqrt{\frac{n}{k}}[U_n(t) - \Phi(t)] \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \phi^2(t)).
\]

**Example 4.4.** [Example 2.4, revisited.] Consider the average \( p \)-value, \( \bar{p}_n \), computed by averaging \( p \)-values computed on subsamples of size \( k \) of the data. We show how to use the basic results to derive its limiting distribution in a relatively simple example. We further derive the limiting distribution of \( \bar{p}_n \) under contiguous alternatives and compute the limiting local power function. Though the methodology is offered in a simplified setting, it shows the potential for such an approach more broadly. Specifically, we consider the context of testing for a single mean. Obviously, this is a toy example as these methods are not needed here. But this simple model admits simple expressions of asymptotic power, which facilitates comparisons of methods. Moreover, it specifically shows, by comparison, that conservative methods are way too conservative and result in tests with very low power.

Let \( X_1, \ldots, X_n \) be i.i.d. real-valued with unknown mean \( \mu \). The problem is to test the null hypothesis \( H_0 \) that the mean is 0 versus greater than 0. For the purposes here of studying the power of tests combining splits of the data, further assume the underlying distribution is \( N(\mu, 1) \).

Let \( \bar{X}_{n,k,i} \) be the average of the \( i \)th subsample of size \( k \). Also, let \( \hat{p}_{n,k,i} \) denote the \( p \)-value based on this subsample; that is, \( \hat{p}_{n,k,i} = 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{k} \bar{X}_{n,k,i}) \). The limiting power of the UMP level \( \alpha \) test against contiguous alternatives \( h/\sqrt{n} \) is
\[
1 - \Phi(z_{1-\alpha} - h)
\]
when using the full data, and
\[
1 - \Phi(z_{1-\alpha} - \sqrt{\tau}h)
\] (4.3)
when using a single subsample (or split) of size \( k \) satisfying \( k/n = \tau \). Assume \( k/n \to \tau \in (0,1) \), the fraction in the sample used for testing. Assume the number of splits or subsamples \( N = \binom{n}{k} \), so all possible splits are used. For \( r \in (0,1) \). Consider the conservative procedure (or family of procedures) which rejects \( H_0 \) if the proportion of \( p \)-values (computed over all splits) that are ≤ \( \alpha r \) is ≥ \( r \). (So, in the case \( r = 1/2 \), the procedure requires that at least half of the \( p \)-values are ≤ \( \alpha/2 \); equivalently, twice the median \( p \)-value must be ≤ \( \alpha \).). As show in DiCiccio and Romano (2019), this procedure is level \( \alpha \). This is the exact or finite
sample version of an asymptotic approach first suggested in Meinshausen et al. (2009). They did not present any analytical expressions for power. In DiCiccio and Romano (2019), the limiting power of this procedure for testing of $H_0 : \mu = 0$ against contiguous alternatives $h/\sqrt{n}$ was obtained and is given by

$$1 - \Phi \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\tau}} \left( z_{1-r\alpha} - z_{1-r} \sqrt{1-\tau} \right) - h \right]. \quad (4.4)$$

Note that (4.4) shows that, even asymptotically, the approach is conservative, i.e. when $h = 0$, the limiting rejection probability is below $\alpha$. It further implies that the limiting power for small positive $h$ can be less than $\alpha$ and loss of power results. By comparison, the limiting power against $h/\sqrt{n}$ of a single split sample test by taking one sample of size $k$ is given by (4.3). Even with $\tau < 1$, the test based on a single subsample of size $k$ has better limiting power for small $h$ than the conservative tests that combine $p$-values computed on many subsamples of size $k$. On the other hand, for large enough $h$, (4.4) will be larger than (4.3). In this case, the many split sample test is an improvement over the single sample test, even though it conservatively controls the Type 1 error. But, the power is only larger for values of the local parameter where the power is already near one.

By deriving the limiting distribution of the average (or median) $p$-value, we can construct an asymptotically level $\alpha$ with greatly improved power. Indeed, we will see that the distribution of $\bar{p}_n$ is concentrated near 1/2 under $H_0$ and so an appropriate critical value (sequence) will be near 1/2 as well, in contrast to the conservative procedure which uses a critical value of $\alpha/2$ (based on either the mean or median $p$-value). Furthermore and perhaps surprisingly, tests exploiting the $U$-statistic structure achieve the optimal limiting local power function of the UMP level $\alpha$ test. The challenge is to derive the appropriate limiting distribution, so that a better or less conservative critical value may be used.

Define the average $p$-value taken over all subsamples of size $k$ to be

$$U_n(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = \bar{p}_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{p}_{n,k,i} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{k}X_{n,k,i}) \right],$$

with $N = \binom{n}{k}$. Evidently, $\bar{p}_n$ is a $U$-statistic of the form (1.1).

**Theorem 4.1.** Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ be i.i.d according to a normal distribution with mean $\mu$ and variance one.

(i) If $k$ is fixed and $\mu = 0$, then

$$\sqrt{\frac{n}{k}}(\bar{p}_n - \frac{1}{2}) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, k\zeta_{1,k}), \quad (4.5)$$

where

$$\zeta_{1,k} = Var \left[ \Phi \left( \frac{X}{\sqrt{2k} - 1} \right) \right]. \quad (4.6)$$
and \( X \sim N(0, 1) \) and \( \Phi(\cdot) \) is the standard normal c.d.f.

(ii) If \( k \to \infty \) and \( k/\sqrt{n} \to 0 \), then \( k\zeta_{1,k} \to 1/(4\pi) \). Moreover, under \( H_0 : \mu = 0 \),

\[
\sqrt{n} \left( \bar{p}_n - \frac{1}{2} \right) \overset{d}{\to} N(0, 1/4\pi) ,
\]

(iii). Consider the one-sided test which rejects \( H_0 \) if \( \sqrt{n}(\bar{p}_n - 1/2) < z_\alpha k\sqrt{\zeta_{1,k}} \). Its limiting power against contiguous alternatives \( h/\sqrt{n} \) is

\[
P(N(h, 1) > z_{1-\alpha}) = 1 - \Phi(z_{1-\alpha} - h) ,
\]

which is the same as the UMP level \( \alpha \) test. The same is true if \( k\sqrt{\zeta_{1,k}} \) is replaced by \( 1/4\pi \) in the construction of the critical value of the test.

**Remark 4.1.** If \( k \) is fixed, the average of the \( p\)-values computed over all splits of the data remains asymptotically normal; however, the overall test is less powerful asymptotically than the UMP test against local alternatives. A justification of this is implicit in the proof of Theorem 4.1.

Despite testing on small portions of the data, using the average \( p\)-value has the same limiting local power as the UMP test. Using the asymptotic normality of the \( p\)-value, the test rejects for an average \( p\)-value below \( 1/2 + z_\alpha \sqrt{k/(4\pi n)} \). By contrast, the conservative method rejects when the average or median \( p\)-value is below \( \alpha/2 \), which can be quite substantially lower than this threshold.

An asymptotically level \( \alpha \) test can also be performed based on the median of the \( p\)-values, by viewing the median \( p\)-value \( \tilde{p}_n \) as a median statistic \( M_n \) of the form (1.2). The power of this method is as follows.

**Theorem 4.2.** Suppose that \( X_1, \ldots, X_n \) are i.i.d. according to a normal distribution with mean \( \mu \) and variance one. Suppose \( k \to \infty \) in such a way that \( k/\sqrt{n} \to 0 \). Then, under a sequence of local alternatives \( h/\sqrt{n} \),

\[
\sqrt{2\pi n/k} (\tilde{p}_n - 1/2) \overset{d}{\to} N(h, 1) ,
\]

where \( \tilde{p}_n \) is the median \( p\)-value computed over all splits. Consider the test which rejects \( H_0 \) if \( \tilde{p}_n < 1/2 + z_\alpha \sqrt{k/n} \). Then, the limiting power of the one sided test of \( H_0 : \mu = 0 \) against \( h/\sqrt{n} \) is

\[
1 - \Phi(z_{1-\alpha} - h) .
\]

Note that the asymptotically level \( \alpha \) test rejects if the median is less than \( 1/2 + z_\alpha \sqrt{k/n} \), which can be substantially larger than \( \alpha/2 \). For example, if \( \alpha = .1, n = 100, \) and \( k = 10, 1/2 + z_\alpha \sqrt{k/n} = .0947 \) whereas \( \alpha/2 = .05 \). The asymptotic local power of this test based on the median \( p\)-value using an appropriate (not conservative) critical value achieves that of the optimal UMP test.
5 Conclusion and Further Questions

In this paper, we considered a $U$-statistic sequence where the kernel size is growing with the sample size. We developed conditions under which asymptotic normality results. At the same time, we also considered the corresponding $M$-statistic, defined as the median of the kernel computed over subsamples of the data. Other quantiles can be considered by similar arguments. By way of four examples, we have demonstrated the utility of such results, and verified the conditions. The problem was largely motivated by the problem of combining $p$-values obtained by data splitting, where previous conditions from Mentch and Hooker (2016) in the context of inference for random forests are too weak and do not apply. The toy example suggests the statistical approach may be quite promising. The results in this paper will allow further development of this area, where only conservative procedures are in use.

6 Proofs

Proof of Theorem 3.1. To prove (i), follow for example the argument in van der Vaart (1998), so that it suffices to show $\frac{\text{Var}(U_n)}{\text{Var}(\hat{U}_n)} \to 1$, where $\hat{U}_n$ is defined in (3.2). Indeed, Theorem 11.2 of van der Vaart (1998) applies not only for fixed $k$ but when $k = k_n \to \infty$. As is well-known (and argued in the proof of Theorem 12.3 of van der Vaart (1998)),

$$\text{Var}(U_n) = \sum_{c=1}^{k} \binom{n}{k}^{-1} \binom{k}{c} \binom{n-k}{k-c} \zeta_{c,k},$$

(6.1)

where

$$\zeta_{c,k} = \text{Cov} [h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_c, X_{c+1}, \ldots, X_k), h_k(X_1, \ldots, X_c, X_{k+1}, \ldots, X_{2k-c})],$$

(6.2)

the covariance between the kernel based on two data sets with exactly $c$ variables in common. By conditioning on $X_1, \ldots, X_c$, it is readily seen that (3.1) and (6.2) agree. First note that the $c = 1$ term in (6.1) divided by $\text{Var}(\hat{U}_n) = k^2 \zeta_{1,k}/n$ tends to one, i.e.

$$\frac{k^2}{\binom{n}{k} \binom{k}{k-1} \zeta_{1,k}} = \frac{(n-k)!(n-k)!}{(n-1)!(n-2k+1)!} \to 1.$$

The last limit uses $k^2/n \to 0$ and can be seen by applying Stirling’s formula, taking logs and using a Taylor’s expansion. What remains is to show that the sum from $c = 2$ to $c = k$ in (6.1) divided by $k^2 \zeta_{1,k}/n$ tends to 0. But,

$$\sum_{c=2}^{k} \frac{k}{\binom{n}{k} \binom{k}{c} \zeta_{c,k}} \leq \sum_{c=2}^{k} \frac{1}{c!} \left[ \frac{(n-k)!}{n!} \right]^{2} \frac{(n-k)!}{(n-2k+c)!} \zeta_{c,k} \leq \frac{k^2}{n} \zeta_{1,n}.$$
\[ \sum_{c=2}^{k} \frac{k^{2c}}{c!} \frac{1}{(n-k+1)^{c}} \zeta_{c,k} \leq \sum_{c=2}^{k} \frac{1}{c!} \epsilon_{n}^{c-1} \zeta_{c,k} / \zeta_{1,k}, \]  

(6.3)

where

\[ \epsilon_{n} = \frac{k^{2}}{n-k+1}. \]

Using the inequality \( \zeta_{c,k} \leq c \zeta_{k,k} / k \) (see Hoeffding (1948)) gives that (6.3) is bounded above by

\[ \frac{\zeta_{k,k}}{k \zeta_{1,k}} \sum_{c=2}^{k} \frac{1}{(c-1)!} \epsilon_{n}^{c-1} \leq \frac{\zeta_{k,k}}{k \zeta_{1,k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \epsilon_{n}^{j} = \frac{\zeta_{k,k}}{k \zeta_{1,k}} \frac{\epsilon_{n} - \epsilon_{n}^{k}}{1 - \epsilon_{n}}. \]

(6.4)

The second factor in the last expression for (6.4) tends to zero since \( \epsilon_{n} \to 0 \). Thus, as long as \( \zeta_{k,k} / k \zeta_{1,k} \) stays bounded, the result follows.

To prove (ii), note that the expression (3.4) has mean 0 and variance given by one minus the left hand side of (3.3). Apply Chebychev. The rest of the proof is then trivial. ■

**Proof of Corollary 3.1.** Since the \( h_{k} \) are uniformly bounded, so are the \( \zeta_{k,k} \). Hence, the condition in Theorem 3.1 \( \zeta_{k,k} / k \zeta_{1,k} \) is bounded, since \( k \zeta_{1,k} \to 0 \). Moreover, the Lindeberg condition (3.5) necessarily holds because \( n \zeta_{1,k} = (n/k) \cdot k \zeta_{1,k} \to \infty \), so that the region of integration in the integral is empty for large \( n \). ■

**Proof of Theorem 3.2:** For any fixed \( t \),

\[ P \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\zeta_{1,k}(0) k^{2}} \left( M_{n} - \tilde{\theta}_{k} \right) \leq t \right\} = P \left\{ M_{n} \leq \tilde{\theta}_{k} + \delta_{k} t \right\} \]

\[ = P \left\{ \left( \begin{array}{c} n \\ k \end{array} \right) \sum h_{k}(X_{i_{1}},...,X_{i_{k}};\delta_{k} t) \leq 1/2 \right\} \]

\[ = P \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{n}{\zeta_{1,k}(0) k^{2} n_{n}}} \left( \begin{array}{c} n \\ k \end{array} \right) \sum h_{k}(X_{i_{1}},...,X_{i_{k}};\delta_{k} t) - \left[ 1/2 F_{k}'(\tilde{\theta}_{k}) \delta_{k} + o(\delta_{k}) \right] \leq t F_{k}'(\tilde{\theta}_{k}) \right\} \]

Hence, this last expression has the same limit (if any) as

\[ P \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{n}{\zeta_{1,k}(0) k^{2} n_{n}}} \left[ U_{n}(t) - E(U_{n}(t)) \right] \leq t F_{k}'(\tilde{\theta}_{k}) \right\}. \]

(6.5)

where \( U_{n} = U_{n}(t) \) is a U-statistic with symmetric kernel \( h_{k}(\cdot; t) \) defined by

\[ U_{n}(t) = \left( \begin{array}{c} n \\ k \end{array} \right) \sum h_{k}(X_{i_{1}},...,X_{i_{k}};\delta_{k} t). \]

But, by Corollary 3.1,

\[ \sqrt{\frac{n}{k^{2} \zeta_{1,k}(\delta_{k} t)}} \left[ U_{n}(t) - E(U_{n}(t)) \right] \overset{d}{\to} N(0,1). \]
Using the assumption $\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(\delta_k)/\tilde{\zeta}_k(0) \to 1$ and Slutsky’s theorem gives that the limiting value of (6.5) is $\to \Phi \left( f(\tilde{\theta})t \right)$. ■

**Proof of Theorem 4.1.** We first apply Theorem 3.1 in the case where the order of the kernel $k$ is fixed. Define the kernel

$$h_k(X_1, ..., X_k) = 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{k} \bar{X}_k),$$

which is the $p$-value of a test of $H_0$ computed on a subsample of size $k$ and $\bar{X}_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i/k$.

For this choice of kernel,

$$h_{1,k}(x) = 1 - E \left( \Phi(\sqrt{k} \bar{X}_k) \mid X_1 = x \right) = 1 - E\Phi\left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{k}} + Y \right),$$

where $Y \sim N(0, (k-1)/k)$. So, we can simplify

$$h_{1,k}(x) = 1 - E[I\{Z < \frac{x}{\sqrt{k}} + Y\}],$$

where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ and $Z$ is independent of $Y$. Therefore,

$$h_{1,k}(x) = 1 - \Phi \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \right)$$

and $\zeta_{1,k}$ is given in (4.6). By Theorem 3.1, it follows that, under $H_0$,

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{p}_n - \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{k}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [h_{1,k}(X_i) - \frac{1}{2}] + o_P(1) \quad (6.6)$$

and so (4.5) follows. To calculate the limiting distribution under the sequence of alternatives when the mean is $h/\sqrt{n}$, note that by contiguity, the approximation (6.6) holds as well; that is, the term that goes to 0 in probability under $h = 0$ does so under general $h$ as well. The linear term does not have mean $1/2$, but we can calculate by a Taylor expansion argument (and noting that the moments in the error term are bounded) that

$$E_h[h_{1,k}(X)] = 1 - E \left[ \Phi \left( \frac{Z + h/\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \right) \right],$$

where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$. Then

$$E_h[h_{1,k}(X)] = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{h/\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{2k-1}} E \left[ \phi \left( \frac{Z}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \right) \right] + O(1/n).$$

But, using that the moment generating function of $Z^2$ is $(1 - 2t)^{-1/2}$, one can calculate

$$E \left[ \phi \left( \frac{Z}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \right) \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{2k})^{1/2},$$

16
and so
\[ E_h[h_{1,k}(X)] = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{h}{\sqrt{4\pi kn}} + O(1/n). \]

Also, under \( \mu = h/\sqrt{n} \),
\[ \text{Var}_h[h_{1,k}(X)] = \text{Var} \left[ \phi \left( \frac{Z}{\sqrt{2k-1}} + \frac{h/\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \right) \right] = \zeta_{1,k} + o(n^{-1/2}). \]

By (6.6) and these calculations, it follows that, under \( h/\sqrt{n} \),
\[ \sqrt{n}(\bar{p}_n - \frac{1}{2}) \overset{d}{\rightarrow} N \left( -\frac{\sqrt{k}}{4\pi} h, k^2 \zeta_{1,k}, k \right). \]

It now follows that the test that rejects if \( \sqrt{n}(\bar{p}_n - \frac{1}{2}) < z_\alpha k \sqrt{\zeta_{1,k}} \) has limiting power or rejection probably under \( h/\sqrt{n} \) given by
\[ P_h\{\sqrt{n}(\bar{p}_n - \frac{1}{2}) < z_\alpha k \sqrt{\zeta_{1,k}}\} = 1 - \Phi \left( z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{h}{\sqrt{4\pi kn^2}} \zeta_{1,k} \right). \]

We now show \( k\zeta_{1,k} \rightarrow (4\pi)^{-1} \) as \( k \rightarrow \infty \). But,
\[ k\zeta_{1,k} = k\text{Var} \left[ \phi \left( \frac{Z}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \right) \right] = k\text{Var} \left[ \phi(0) + \frac{Z}{\sqrt{2k-1}} \phi(0) + r_k \right], \]
where the error term can be ignored because it has a variance of order \( 1/k^2 \). Hence,
\[ k\zeta_{1,k} = k \frac{1}{2\pi(2k-1)} + o(1) \rightarrow 1/4\pi. \]

Thus, as \( k \rightarrow \infty \), the limiting power tends \( 1 - \Phi(z_{1-\alpha} - h) \), the same as the UMP test.

In the case \( k \rightarrow \infty \) at the same time \( n \rightarrow \infty \), we can just apply Theorem 3.1 along with the same calculations for fixed \( k \). \( \blacksquare \)

**Proof of Theorem 4.2.** Here we follow the notation of Theorem 3.2 with
\[ h_k(X_1, ..., X_k; t) = I \left\{ 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{k}\bar{X}_k) > \tilde{\theta}_k + t \right\}. \]

Then, \( \tilde{\theta}_k \) is the median of the distribution of \( h_k \) under \( h/\sqrt{n} \), or the median of the distribution of \( 1 - \Phi(Z + h\sqrt{k/n}) \) when \( Z \) is standard normal. Thus, a trivial calculation gives \( \tilde{\theta}_k = 1 - \Phi(h\sqrt{k/n}) \). Then,
\[ \tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(x; t) = E[h_k(x, X_2, ..., X_k); t], \]
and
\[ \tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(t) = \text{Var}[\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(X; t)]. \]
Now,
\[\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(x; t) = P_h \{1 - \Phi(\sqrt{k}X_k) > 1 - \Phi(h\sqrt{k/n} + t)\}\]
\[= P\{\Phi(Y + x/\sqrt{k}) < \Phi(h\sqrt{k/n} - t)\} = P\{Y + x/\sqrt{k} < \Phi^{-1}[\Phi(h\sqrt{k/n} - t)]\},\]
where \(Y\) is normal with mean \((k - 1)h/\sqrt{nk}\) and variance \((k - 1)/k\). Hence,
\[\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(x; t) = \Phi\left[\frac{\Phi^{-1}[\Phi(h\sqrt{k/n} - t)] - x/\sqrt{k} - (k - 1)h/\sqrt{kn}}{\sqrt{k - 1}/k}\right]\]
Assume the null hypothesis \(h = 0\), in which case \(\tilde{\theta}_k = 1/2\). In this case,
\[\tilde{\phi}_{1,k}(x; 0) = 1 - \Phi\left(\sqrt{\frac{k}{k - 1}} \frac{x}{\sqrt{k}}\right)\]
\[= \frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{k}{k - 1}} \frac{x}{\sqrt{k}} \phi(0) \pm o(1/k) .\]
and so
\[\tilde{\zeta}_{1,k}(0) \to 1\]
as \(k \to \infty\). Similarly, one can show that
\[\zeta_{1,k}(t) = \frac{\phi^2(z_{1/2 - t})}{k} + o(1/k),\]
and so the conditions of Theorem 3.2 are met.
Therefore, we have that, under the null hypothesis
\[\sqrt{n} \tilde{M}_n - 1/2 \frac{d}{\sqrt{k(\phi(0))^2}} \to N(0, 1) .\]
Under the sequence of local alternatives, \(\mu = h/\sqrt{n}\), the median \(\tilde{\theta}_k\) is given by
\[\tilde{\theta}_k = 1 - \Phi\left(h\sqrt{k/n}\right) = 1/2 + \phi(0)h\sqrt{k/n} + o_p(1/\sqrt{n}) .\]
By similar arguments, the limiting local power of the test based on the median \(p\)-value is
\[1 - \Phi(z_{1 - \alpha} - h) .\]
References


**Acknowledgment:** We would like to thank David Ritzwoller for helpful comments.