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Change Detection and the Casual Impact of the Yield Curve

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Change Detection and the Causal Impact of the Yield Curve*

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Abstract

Causal relationships in econometrics are typically based on the concept of predictability and are established in terms of tests for Granger causality. These causal relationships are susceptible to change, especially during times of financial turbulence, making the real-time detection of instability an important practical issue. This paper develops a test for detecting changes in causal relationships based on a recursive rolling window, which is analogous to the procedure used in recent work on financial bubble detection. The limiting distribution of the test takes a simple form under the null hypothesis and is easy to implement in conditions of homoskedasticity, conditional heteroskedasticity and unconditional heteroskedasticity. Simulation experiments compare the efficacy of the proposed test with two other commonly used tests, the forward recursive and the rolling window tests. The results indicate that both the rolling and the recursive rolling approaches offer good finite sample performance in situations where there are one or two changes in the causal relationship over the sample period. The testing strategies are illustrated in an empirical application that explores the causal impact of the slope of the yield curve on output and inflation in the U.S. over the period 1985–2013.

Keywords: Causality, Forward recursion, Hypothesis testing, Inflation, Output, Recursive rolling test, Rolling window, Yield curve

JEL classification: C12, C15, C32, G17

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1 Introduction

Economic causality has typically relied on justifications from economic theory to support the direction of links between variables and to inform empirical testing of the causal hypotheses. In many situations, however, there is no relevant theoretical foundation for determining the empirical relationship between variables that appear jointly determined over time. Even in celebrated cases such as the debates over money-income causality there are difficulties in interpretation, test execution, and treatment of additional relevant variables. In such cases an empirical view of the concept of causality based on Granger (1969, 1988) has enjoyed widespread use in econometrics because of its eminent pragmatism. A variable X causes a variable Y in Granger’s sense if taking into account past values of X enables better predictions to be made for Y, other things being equal. The popularity of Granger causality stems in part from the fact that it is not specific to a particular structural model but depends solely on the stochastic nature of variables, with no requirement to delimit some variables as dependent variables and others as independent variables.

It is well known that, among other things, testing for Granger causality is sensitive to the time period of estimation. The most well studied problems in this area are the money-income relationship (Stock and Watson, 1989; Thoma, 1994; Swanson, 1998; Psaradakis et al., 2005) and the energy consumption and economic output relationship (Stern, 2000, Balcilar et al., 2010, and Arora and Shi, 2015), where causal links are found in various subsamples. In view of the increasing importance of the financial sector in economic modeling, there is now a growing literature concerned with the detection of changes in patterns of systemic risk. For example, Billio et al. (2012) and Chen et al. (2013) use Granger causality to explore the causal links between banks and insurance companies and show that banks are a source of systemic risk to the rest of the system while insurers are victims of shocks. Their approach necessarily requires that crisis periods be defined exogenously. Other empirical approaches to systemic risk are similarly hampered by the need to choose sample periods appropriately (Acharya et al., 2011; Diebold and Yilmaz, 2013). These limitations point to the need for an endogenous approach to determining and dating changes in Granger causality.

Several methods have been employed in the literature to deal with the time-varying nature of causal relationships. These methods include a forward expanding window version of the Granger causality test (Thoma, 1994, and Swanson, 1998), a rolling window Granger causality
test (Swanson, 1998, Balcilar et al., 2010, and Arora and Shi, 2015), and a Markov-switching Granger causality test (Psaradakis et al., 2005). The recent literature for detecting and dating financial bubbles\textsuperscript{1} recognises that, in order to be useful to policy makers, econometric methods for detecting periods of changes in economic and financial structures must have at least two qualities. These are a good positive detection rate, in order to ensure early and effective policy implementation, and a low false detection rate so that unnecessary interventions are avoided.

This paper proposes a new time-varying Granger causality test. The recursive method we implement was first proposed in Phillips, et al. (2015a, 2015b) for conducting real time detection of financial bubbles. The procedure involves intensive recursive calculations of the relevant test statistics\textsuperscript{2} for all subsamples in a backward expanding sample sequence in which the final observation of all samples is the (current) observation of interest. Inferences regarding the presence of Granger causality for this observation rely on the supremum taken over all the test statistic evaluations in the entire recursion. As the observation of interest moves forward through the sample, the subsamples in which the recursive calculations are performed accordingly move forward and the whole sequence of calculations rolls ahead. This procedure is therefore called a recursive rolling algorithm.

A second contribution of the paper is to derive the asymptotic distributions of the subsample Wald statistic process for forward and rolling window versions of these tests and the subsample sup Wald statistic process for the recursive rolling window procedure under the null hypothesis of no Granger causality. We first provide the limit theory under the assumption of conditional (and hence unconditional) homoskedasticity. To take potential influences of conditional heteroskedasticity and unconditional heteroskedasticity into account, heteroskedastic consistent versions of the Wald and sup Wald statistics are proposed. The asymptotic distributions of these test statistics are then derived under the assumption of conditional heteroskedasticity of unknown form and a general form of non-stochastic time-varying unconditional heteroskedasticity. The major result for practical work that emerges from this limit theory is that the heteroskedastic consistent test statistics have the same pivotal asymptotics under homoskedasticity, conditional heteroskedasticity, and unconditional heteroskedasticity.

Since the empirical performance characteristics of the aforementioned methods are presently


\textsuperscript{2}In the present setting the statistic is a Wald test for Granger causality. In the original context the relevant test statistics were right sided unit root tests for bubble detection.
unknown, a further contribution of the paper is to compare the finite sample performance of forward, rolling and recursive rolling approaches in the context of Granger causality testing. To keep the paper manageable, the data generating process employed in the simulations is a bivariate VAR model, so that third variable causal effects are not taken into account in the present study. Under the alternative hypothesis, one or more episodes of unidirectional Granger causality are specified. In the simulation study, we report the means and standard deviations of the false detection proportion under the null hypothesis and the successful detection rate as well as the estimation accuracy of the causality switch-on and switch-off dates under the alternative hypothesis. The false detection proportion is defined as the ratio between the number of false detections and the total number of hypotheses, while the successful detection rate is calculated as the proportion of samples finding the correct causality episode.

The simulation results suggest that the rolling window approach has the highest false detection proportion but also has the highest correct detection rate. In a single causal scenario, the performance of the recursive rolling approach is relatively balanced – both the false detection proportion and correct detection rates are satisfactory and fall in between those of the rolling window approach and the forward expanding window approach. Similar results are observed in the case where there are two causal episodes in the sample period, although in terms of correct detection rates, the rolling window procedure exceeds the recursive rolling window method by a larger extent than when there is only a single episode. The forward expanding window approach performs the worst of the three methods.

The new causality detection methods are used to investigate the causal impact of the yield curve spread on real economic activity and inflation in the United States over 1985 - 2013. The ability of the yield curve to predict real activity or inflation is a well-researched area in empirical macroeconomics. Some evidence of its predictive capability was first provided in the late 1980s and 1990s for various industrialized countries. The empirical literature also suggests that predictive relationships between the slope of the yield curve and macroeconomic activity have not been constant over time (among others, see Stock and Watson, 1999; Haubrich and Dombrosky, 1996; Dotsey, 1998; Estrella, Rodrigues and Schich, 2003; Chauvet and Potter, 2005; Giacomini and Rossi, 2006; Benati and Goodhart, 2008; Chauvet and Senyuz, 2009; Kucko and Chinn, 2009). A recent example of the instability of the relationship between the slope of the yield curve and output is given in Hamilton (2010). The test procedures developed in the present paper provide a natural mechanism for causal detection in which fragilities in
a causal relationship can be captured through intensive subsample data analysis of the type recommended here. Our empirical application of predictive links between the slope of the yield curve and real economic activity and inflation in the US illustrates the use of these procedures in detecting the changing pattern of causal relationships between these variables.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the concept of Granger causality and describes the forward expanding window, rolling window, and the new recursive rolling Granger causality tests. Section 3 gives the limit distributions of these test statistics under the null hypothesis of no causality and assumptions of conditional homoskedasticity, conditional heteroskedasticity, and unconditional heteroskedasticity. Section 4 reports the results of simulations investigating performance characteristics of the various tests and dating strategies. In Section 5, we apply the new procedures, the forward expanding window test, and the rolling window test to investigate the causal impact of the yield curve spread on US real economic activity and inflation over the last three decades. Section 6 concludes. Proofs are given in the Appendices.

2 Identifying Changes in Causal Relationships

Consider the bivariate \( p \)th-order Gaussian vector autoregression, VAR(\( p \)), given by

\[
y_{1t} = \phi_{10} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_{11,i} y_{1,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_{12,i} y_{2,t-i} + \varepsilon_{1t} \tag{1}
\]
\[
y_{2t} = \phi_{20} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_{21,i} y_{1,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_{22,i} y_{2,t-i} + \varepsilon_{2t}, \tag{2}
\]

where \( y_{1,t} \) and \( y_{2,t} \) are dependent variables, \( p \) is the lag length and \( \varepsilon_{1,t} \) and \( \varepsilon_{2,t} \) are finite variance, martingale difference disturbances. If \( y_{2,t} \) is important in predicting future values of \( y_{1,t} \) over and above lags of \( y_{1,t} \) alone, then \( y_{2,t} \) is said to cause \( y_{1,t} \) in Granger’s sense, and vice versa. In equation (1), the null (non causal) hypotheses of interest are

\[
H_0 : \ y_{2t} \not\rightarrow y_{1t} \quad \phi_{12,1} = \phi_{12,2} = \cdots = \phi_{12,p} = 0
\]
\[
H_0 : \ y_{1t} \not\rightarrow y_{2t} \quad \phi_{21,1} = \phi_{21,2} = \cdots = \phi_{21,p} = 0,
\]

where the symbol \( \not\rightarrow \) reads “does not Granger cause”.

To establish notation we write the unrestricted VAR(\( p \)) as

\[
y_t = \Phi_0 + \Phi_1 y_{t-1} + \Phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \Phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t, \tag{3}
\]
or in multivariate regression format simply as

$$ y_t = \Pi x_t + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, \ldots, T $$

(4)

where $y_t = (y_{1t}, y_{2t})'$, $x_t = (1, y_{t-1}', y_{t-2}', \cdots, y_{t-p}')'$, and $\Pi_{2 \times (2p+1)} = [\Phi_0, \Phi_1, \ldots, \Phi_p]$. The ordinary least squares (or unrestricted Gaussian maximum likelihood) estimator $\hat{\Pi}$ has standard limit theory under stationarity of the system (3) given by

$$ \sqrt{T} \left( \hat{\Pi} - \Pi \right) \xrightarrow{L} N(0, \Sigma_{\Pi}), $$

(5)

where the variance matrix (for row stacking of $\hat{\Pi}$) is $\Sigma_{\Pi} = \Omega \otimes Q^{-1}$, with $\Omega = E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t)$, and $Q = E(x_t x'_t)$. In (5) and the remainder of the paper we use $\xrightarrow{L}$ to signify convergence in distribution in Euclidean space. Let $\hat{\varepsilon}_t = y_t - \hat{\Pi} x_t$ be the regression residuals, $\hat{\Omega} = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_t \hat{\varepsilon}'_t$ be the usual least squares estimate of the error covariance matrix $\Omega$, and $X' = [x_1, \ldots, x_T]$ be the observation matrix of the regressors in (4).

The Wald test of the restrictions imposed by the null hypothesis $H_0 : y_{2t} \not\rightarrow y_{1t}$ has the simple form

$$ W = \left[ R \vec{\Pi} \right]' \left[ R \left( \hat{\Omega} \otimes (X'X)^{-1} \right) R' \right]^{-1} \left[ R \vec{\Pi} \right], $$

(6)

where $\vec{\Pi}$ denotes the (row vectorized) $2(2p+1) \times 1$ coefficients of $\hat{\Pi}$ and $R$ is the $p \times 2(2p+1)$ selection matrix

$$ R = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}. $$

Each row of $R$ picks one of the coefficients to set to zero under the non-causal null hypothesis.

In the present case these are the $p$ coefficients on the lagged values of $y_{2t}$ in equation (1), $\phi_{12.1} \cdots \phi_{12.p}$. Under the null hypothesis and assumption of conditional homoskedasticity, the Wald test statistic is asymptotically $\chi^2_p$, with degrees of freedom corresponding to the number of zero restrictions being tested.

As indicated in the introductory remarks, there is ample reason to expect causal relationships to change over the course of a time series sample. Any changes in economic policy, regulatory structure, governing institutions, or operating environments that impinge upon the variables $y_{1t}$ and $y_{2t}$ may induce changes in causal relationships over time. In the event of changes occurring, testing that is based on the entire sample using a statistic like (6) averages the sample
information and inevitably destroys potentially valuable economic intelligence concerning the impact of changes in policy or structures. Testing for Granger casualty in exogenously defined sub-samples of the data does provide useful information but does not enable the data to reveal the changes or change points. So, the ultimate objective is to conduct tests that allow the change points to be determined (and hence identified) endogenously in the sample data.

Thoma (1994) and Swanson (1998) provide early attempts to isolate changes in causal relationships using forward expanding and rolling window Wald tests. Let \( f \) be the (fractional) observation of interest and \( f_0 \) be the minimum (fractional) window size required to estimate the model. Both recursive tests suggest computing a Wald statistic of the null hypothesis \( H_0 : y_{2t} \not\rightarrow y_{1t} \) for each observation from \([Tf_0] \) to \( T \) obtaining the full sequence of test statistics. The difference between these two procedures lies in the starting point of the regression used to calculate the Wald statistics. The ending points of the regressions \( (f_2) \) of both procedures are on the observation of interest, \( f_2 = f \). For the Thoma (1994) procedure, the starting point of the regression \( (f_1) \) is fixed on the first available observation. As the observation of interest \( f \) moves forward from \( f_0 \) to 1, the regression window size expands (fractionally) from \( f_0 \) to 1 and hence is referred to as a forward expanding window Wald test. In contrast, the regression window size of the rolling procedure is a fixed constant. As the observation of interest \( f \) and hence \( f_2 \) rolls forward from \( f_0 \) to 1, the starting point follows accordingly, maintaining a fixed distance from \( f_2 \). A significant change in causality is detected when an element of the Wald statistic sequence exceeds its corresponding critical value, so that the origination (termination) date of a change in causality is identified as the first observation whose test statistic value exceeds (goes below) its corresponding critical value. The change point is then determined as a crossing time statistic.

The recursive Wald statistics computed in this fashion are able to document any subsample instability in causal relationships, but conclusions drawn on the basis of this approach may be incomplete. Drawing from the recent literature on dating multiple financial bubbles (Phillips, Shi and Yu, 2015a, 2015b), this paper proposes a test that is based on the supremum of a series of recursively calculated Wald statistics as follows. For each (fractional) observation of interest \( f \in [f_0, 1] \), the Wald statistics are computed for a backward expanding sample sequence. As above, the end point of the sample sequence is fixed at \( f \). However, the starting point of the samples extends backwards from \( (f - f_0) \), which is the minimum sample size to accommodate the regression, to 0. The Wald statistic obtained for each subsample regression is denoted by
We also propose heteroskedastic consistent Wald and sup Wald statistics in the next section. Both the forward expanding and rolling window procedures are special cases of the new procedure with \( f_1 \) fixed at value zero and \( f_1 = f_2 - f_0 \) respectively.\(^3\) Importantly, all three procedures rely only on past information and can therefore be used for real-time monitoring. The added flexibility obtained by relaxing \( f_1 \) allows the procedure to search for the ‘optimum’ starting point of the regression for each observation (in the sense of finding the largest Wald statistic). This flexibility accommodates re-initialization in the subsample to accord with (and thereby help to detect) any changes in structure or causal direction that may occur within the full sample.

Let \( f_e \) and \( f_f \) denote the origination and termination points in the causal relationship. These are estimated as the first chronological observation that respectively exceed or fall below the critical value. In a single switch case, the dating rules are giving by the following crossing times:

\[
\text{Forward}: \hat{f}_e = \inf_{f \in [f_0, 1]} \{ f : W_f (0) > cv \} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_f = \inf_{f \in [f_e, 1]} \{ f : W_f (0) < cv \},
\]

\[
\text{Rolling}: \hat{f}_e = \inf_{f \in [f_0, 1]} \{ f : W_f (f - f_0) > cv \} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_f = \inf_{f \in [f_e, 1]} \{ f : W_f (f - f_0) < cv \},
\]

\[
\text{Recursive Rolling}: \hat{f}_e = \inf_{f \in [f_0, 1]} \{ f : SW_f (f_0) > scv \} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_f = \inf_{f \in [f_e, 1]} \{ f : SW_f (f_0) < scv \},
\]

where \( cv \) and \( scv \) are the corresponding critical values of the \( W_f \) and \( SW_f \) statistics. Now suppose there are multiple switches in the sample period. We denote the origination and terminations of the \( i \)th causal relationship by \( f_{ie} \) and \( f_{if} \) for successive episodes \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, I \). The estimation of dates associated with the first episode \((f_{1e} \text{ and } f_{1f})\) are exactly the same as those for the single switch case. For \( i \geq 2 \), \( f_{ie} \) and \( f_{if} \) are estimated as follows:

\[
\text{Forward}: \hat{f}_{ie} = \inf_{f \in [f_{i-1} e, 1]} \{ f : W_f > cv \} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_{if} = \inf_{f \in [f_{ie}, 1]} \{ f : W_f < cv \},
\]

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\(^3\)Here, we assume the rolling window size equals \( f_0 \).
Rolling: \( \hat{f}_{ie} = \inf_{f \in [f_{i-1}, 1]} \{ f : W_f (f - f_0) > cv \} \) and \( \hat{f}_i = \inf_{f \in [f_i, 1]} \{ f : W_f (f - f_0) < cv \} \)

Recursive Rolling: \( \hat{f}_{ie} = \inf_{f \in [f_{ie-1}, 1]} \{ f : SW_f (f_0) > scv \} \) and \( \hat{f}_{ie} = \inf_{f \in [f_{ie}, 1]} \{ f : SW_f (f_0) < scv \} \).

\[ (11) \]

3 Asymptotic Distributions

The notation introduced in the previous section is used for the general multivariate case, where we now allow for changing coefficients in subsamples of the data and correspondingly changing (fractional) sample sizes, which appear in the asymptotics. Let \( \| \cdot \| \) denote the Euclidean norm, \( \| \cdot \|_p \) the \( L_p \)-norm so that \( \| x \|_p = (E \| x \|^{p})^{1/p} \), and \( F_t = \sigma \{ \varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1} \ldots \} \) be the natural filtration.

We consider an \( n \times 1 \) vector of dependent variables \( y_t \) whose dynamics follow the \( p \)th-order VAR,

\[ y_t = \Phi_0 + \Phi_1 y_{t-1} + \Phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \Phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t, \]

with constant coefficients over the subsample \( t = [T f_1, \ldots, T f_2] \). The sample size in this regression is \( T_w = [T f_w] \) where \( f_w = f_2 - f_1 \in [f_0, 1] \) for some fixed \( f_0 \in (0, 1) \).

Assumption (A0): The roots of \( |I_n - \Phi_1 z - \Phi_2 z^2 - \cdots - \Phi_p z^p| = 0 \) lie outside the unit circle.

Under assumption A0, \( y_t \) has a simple moving average (linear process) representation in terms of the past history of \( \varepsilon_t \)

\[ y_t = \Phi_0 + \Psi (L) \varepsilon_t, \]

where \( \Psi (L) = (I_n - \Phi_1 L - \Phi_2 L^2 - \cdots - \Phi_p L^p)^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i L^i \) with \( \| \Psi_i \| < C \theta^i \) for some \( \theta \in (0, 1) \) and \( \Phi_0 = \Psi (1) \Phi_0 \). The model can be written in regression format as

\[ y_t = \Pi_{f_1, f_2} x_t + \varepsilon_t, \]

in which \( x_t = (1, y'_{t-1}, y'_{t-2}, \ldots, y'_{t-p})' \) and \( \Pi_{f_1, f_2} = [\Phi_0, \Phi_1, \ldots, \Phi_p] \).

The ordinary least squares (or Gaussian maximum likelihood with fixed initial conditions) estimator of the autoregressive coefficients is denoted by \( \hat{\Pi}_{f_1, f_2} \) and defined as

\[ \hat{\Pi}_{f_1, f_2} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{t=[T f_2]}^{[T f_3]} y_t x_t' \\ \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} x_t x_t' \end{bmatrix}^{-1}. \]
Let $k = np + 1$ and $\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \equiv \text{vec} \left( \hat{\Pi}_{f_1, f_2} \right)$ denote the (row vectorized) $nk \times 1$ coefficients resulting from an OLS regression of each of the elements of $y_t$ on $x_t$ for a sample running from $[T f_1]$ to $[T f_2]$: 

$$\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\pi}_{1, f_1, f_2} & \hat{\pi}_{2, f_1, f_2} & \cdots & \hat{\pi}_{n, f_1, f_2} \end{bmatrix}',$$

where $\hat{\pi}_{i, f_1, f_2} = \left[ \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} y_{it} x_{it}' \right] \left[ \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} x_{it} x_{it}' \right]^{-1}$. We have

$$\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2} = \left( I_n \otimes \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} x_{it} x_{it}' \right) \left( \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \xi_t \right),$$

where $\pi_{f_1, f_2}$ denote the corresponding population coefficients and $\xi_t \equiv \varepsilon_t \otimes x_t$. The corresponding estimate of the residual variance matrix $\Omega$ is $\hat{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2} = T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \hat{\varepsilon}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t'$, where $\hat{\varepsilon}_t = [\hat{\varepsilon}_{1t}, \hat{\varepsilon}_{2t}, \ldots, \hat{\varepsilon}_{nt}]$ and $y_{it} = x_{it}' \hat{\pi}_{i, f_1, f_2}$.

In what follows, we will primarily be concerned with the null distribution of the Wald test for non-causality, in which event the coefficient matrix $\Pi_{f_1, f_2}$ will have constant coefficient form throughout the sample $[f_1, f_2]$. The null hypothesis for the non-causality test falls in the general framework of linear hypotheses of the form $H_0 : R \pi_{f_1, f_2} = 0$, where $R$ is a coefficient restriction matrix (of full row rank $d$). Given $(f_1, f_2)$, the usual form of the Wald statistic for this null hypothesis is

$$W_{f_2} (f_1) = \left( R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \right)' \left\{ R \left[ \hat{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2} \otimes \left( \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} x_{it} x_{it}' \right)^{-1} \right] R' \right\}^{-1} (R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2}).$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

The heteroskedasticity consistent version of the Wald statistic is denoted by $W_{f_2}^* (f_1)$ and defined as

$$W_{f_2}^* (f_1) = T_w (R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2})' \left[ R \left( \hat{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} \hat{W}_{f_1, f_2} \hat{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} \right) R' \right]^{-1} (R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2}),$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

where $\hat{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2} \equiv I_n \otimes \hat{Q}_{f_1, f_2}$ with $\hat{Q}_{f_1, f_2} \equiv \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} x_{it} x_{it}'$, and $\hat{W}_{f_1, f_2} \equiv \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \hat{\xi}_t \hat{\xi}_t'$ with $\hat{\xi}_t \equiv \hat{\varepsilon}_t \otimes x_t$. The heteroskedasticity consistent sup Wald statistic is

$$SW_f^* (f_0) := \sup \left\{ W_{f_2}^* (f_1) : f_1 \in [0, f_2 - f_0], f_2 = f \right\}.$$ 

As the fractions $(f_1, f_2)$ vary, the statistics $W_{f_2} (f_1)$ and $W_{f_2}^* (f_1)$ are stochastic processes indexed with $(f_1, f_2)$. 

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3.1 Homoskedasticity

In this instance, the innovations are stationary, conditionally homoskedastic martingale differences satisfying either of the following two conditions.

Assumption (A1): \( \{ \varepsilon_t, F_t \} \) is a strictly stationary and ergodic martingale difference sequence (mds) with \( \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' | F_{t-1}) = \Omega \) a.s. and positive definite \( \Omega \).

Assumption (A2): \( \{ \varepsilon_t, F_t \} \) is a covariance stationary mds with \( \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' | F_{t-1}) = \Omega \) a.s., positive definite \( \Omega \), and \( \sup_t \mathbb{E} \| \varepsilon_t \|^{4+c} < \infty \) for some \( c > 0 \).

Lemma 3.1 Given the model (13), under assumption A0 and A1 or A2 and the null (maintained) hypothesis of an unchanged coefficient matrix \( \Pi_{f_1,f_2} = \Pi \) for all (fractional) subsamples \( (f_1, f_2) \) we have

(a) \( \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \to a.s. \pi_{f_1,f_2} = \text{vec}(\Pi_{f_1,f_2}) \),

(b) \( \hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} \to a.s. \Omega \),

(c) \( \sqrt{T}(\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \Rightarrow [\mathbf{I}_n \otimes Q]^{-1} \left[ \frac{B(f_2) - B(f_1)}{f_w} \right] \),

where \( B \) is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix \( \Omega \otimes Q \), where \( Q = \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t') > 0 \), and \( \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \) and \( \hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} \) are the least squares estimators of \( \pi_{f_1,f_2} \) and \( \Omega \). The finite dimensional distribution of the limit in (c) for fixed \( f_2 \) and \( f_1 \) is \( N \left( \mathbf{0}, \frac{1}{f_w} \Omega \otimes Q^{-1} \right) \).

The proof of lemma 3.1 is given in the Appendix A. From part (c) and for fixed \( (f_1, f_2) \) the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of \( \sqrt{T}(\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi) \) is \( f_w^{-1}(\Omega \otimes Q^{-1}) \) and is dependent on the fractional window size \( f_w \). The limit in (c) may be interpreted as a linear functional of the process \( B(\cdot) \).

Note that under A2, the limit of the matrix \( \hat{W}_{f_1,f_2} \) that appears in the heteroskedastic consistent Wald statistic (16) would be given by \( \Omega \otimes Q \) and the asymptotic covariance matrix would simplify as follows

\[ \hat{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \hat{W}_{f_1,f_2} \hat{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \to a.s. (I_n \otimes Q)^{-1} (\Omega \otimes Q) (I_n \otimes Q)^{-1} = \Omega \otimes Q^{-1}. \]

In this case, therefore, the heteroskedasitic consistent test statistics, \( W_{f_2}^* (f_1) \) and \( SW_f^* (f_0) \), reduce to the conventional Wald and sup Wald statistics of \( W_{f_2} (f_1) \) and \( SW_f (f_0) \).
Proposition 3.1 Under A0 and A1 or A2, the null hypothesis \( R \pi_{f_1, f_2} = 0 \), and the maintained null of an unchanged coefficient matrix \( \Pi_{f_1, f_2} = \Pi \) for all subsamples, the subsample Wald process and sup Wald statistic converge weakly to the following limits

\[
W_{f_2} (f_1) \Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]
\]

\[
SW_f (f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_1 \in [0, f_2 - f_0], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right] \quad (17)
\]

\[
= \sup_{f_w \in [f_0, f_2], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_d (f_w)' W_d (f_w)}{f_w} \right] \quad (18)
\]

where \( W_d \) is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix \( I_d \) and \( d \) is the number of restrictions (the rank of \( R \)) under the null.

The proof of Proposition 3.1 is given in the Appendix A. The limit process that appears in (17) is a quadratic functional of the limit process \( W_d (\cdot) \). Its finite dimensional distribution for fixed \( f_1 \) and \( f_2 \) is \( \chi^2_d \), whereas the sup functional that appears in (18) and (19) involves the supremum of the continuous stochastic process \( \frac{W_d (f_w) W_d (f_w)}{f_w} \) taken over \( f_w \in [f_0, f_2] \) with \( f_2 = f \).

3.2 Conditional heteroskedasticity of unknown form

Assumption (A3): \( \{\varepsilon_t, \mathcal{F}_t\} \) is an mds satisfying the following conditions:

(i) \( \varepsilon_t \) is strongly uniformly integrable with a dominating random variable \( \varepsilon \) that satisfies

\[ E \left( \|\varepsilon\|^{4+c} \right) < \infty \text{ for some } c > 0; \]

(ii) \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T E (\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \to a.s. \Omega \) where \( \Omega \) is positive definite with elements \( \Omega = (\Omega_{ij}) \);

(iii) \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T E \left( \varepsilon_{i,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \varepsilon_{t-s} \to a.s. 0 \) and \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T E (\varepsilon_{i,t} \varepsilon_{j,t} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \varepsilon_{t-s} \varepsilon_{t-s}' \to a.s. \Omega_{ij} \Omega \) for \( i, j = 1, \cdots, n \) and \( s \geq 1 \).

Strong uniform integrability is commonly assumed in cases of conditional and unconditional heterogeneity (see, for instance, Phillips and Solo, (1971), Remarks 2.4(i) and 2.8 (i) and (ii)). Assumption A3 implies that \( \{\varepsilon_t\} \) is serially uncorrelated, unconditionally homoskedastic if \( E (\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t') = \Omega \) for all \( t \) (and hence covariance stationary in that case), but potentially conditionally heteroskedastic. A3 allows, among other possibilities, stable ARCH or GARCH errors.
Note that $A^3(i)$ is equivalent to assuming that
\[ \sup_t E \| \varepsilon_t \|^ {4+c} < \infty \text{ for some } c > 0, \]
a condition that is often used in work involving conditional and unconditional heteroskedasticity (see, for example, Boswijk et al. (2013) and Bodnar and Zabolotskyy (2010)). $A^3(iii)$ is required for Lemma 3.3(b), and is used by Hannan and Heyde (1972, Theorem 2), Gonçalves and Kilian (2004), and Boswijk et al. (2013).

**Lemma 3.2** *Under $A^0$ and $A^3$, for all $f_2, f_1 \in [0,1]$ and $f_2 > f_1$,*

(a) \[ T^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \rightarrow_{a.s} 0, \]

(b) \[ T^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' \rightarrow_{a.s} \Omega, \]

(c) \[ T^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_s' \rightarrow_{a.s} 0, \]

(d) \[ T^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} x_t \varepsilon_t' \rightarrow_{a.s} 0, \]

(e) \[ T^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} x_t x_t' \rightarrow_{a.s} Q, \] where $Q$ is defined as
\[ Q \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \Psi_1 \Omega \Psi_1' & \cdots & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Omega \Psi_i' \\ 1_p \otimes \Phi_0' & \Psi_1 \Omega' \Psi_1' & \cdots & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Omega' \Psi_i' \\ & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Omega' \Psi_{i+p-1}' & \Psi_i \Omega' \Psi_i' \end{bmatrix} \]

The proof of this Lemma is in Appendix B. In view of the covariance stationarity of $\varepsilon_t$, Lemma 3.2 holds for all possible fixed fractions of data with $f_2, f_1 \in [0,1]$ and $f_2 > f_1$. However, this is not in general true under global covariance stationary (Davidson, 1994) or nonstationary volatility settings, where the right hand side of the statements in Lemma 3.2 may depend on $f_1$ and $f_2$.

Next, we show next that \{\xi_t\} obeys a martingale invariance principle as in Theorem 3 of Brown (1971), for example. This invariance result requires the two conditions stated in Lemma 3.3 below.

**Lemma 3.3** *Under $A^0$ and $A^3$, the mds \{\xi_t, F_t\} satisfies the following Lindeberg and stability conditions:*
(a) For every $\delta > 0$

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \| \xi_t \|^2 : 1 \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T \delta} \right) \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right\} \overset{p}{\rightarrow} 0,$$

(20)

(b) $T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \{ \xi_t \xi'_t \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \} \rightarrow_{a.s.} W$, where $W = \{ W^{(i,j)} \}_{i,j \in [1,n]}$ with block partitioned elements

$$W^{(i,j)} = \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{ij} & 1_p \otimes \Omega_{ij} \hat{\Phi}'_0 \\ 1_p \otimes \Omega_{ij} \Phi_0 & I_p \otimes \Omega_{ij} \hat{\Phi}'_0 + \Xi^{(i,j)} \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\Xi^{(i,j)} \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix} \Psi_i \Omega_{ij} \Omega' \Psi_i' & \cdots & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Omega_{ij} \Omega' \Psi_i' \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Psi_i \Omega_{ij} \Omega' \Psi_{i+p-1} & \cdots & \Psi_i \Omega_{ij} \Omega' \Psi_i' \end{bmatrix}$$

The proof of this lemma is in Appendix B. Under Lemma 3.3, partial sums of $\{ \xi_t \}$ satisfy a martingale invariance principle, so that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=[Tf_2]}^{[Tf_2]} \xi_t \Rightarrow B^{(f_2)} - B^{(f_1)},$$

(21)

where the limit process in (21) is a linear functional of the vector Brownian motion $B(\cdot)$ with covariance matrix $W$. Here and elsewhere, we use the notation $\Rightarrow$ to signify weak convergence in the Skorohod space $D[0,1]$.

**Lemma 3.4** Under $A0$ and $A3$,

(a) $\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \rightarrow_{a.s.} \pi_{f_1,f_2},$

(b) $\hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} \rightarrow_{a.s.} \Omega,$

(c) $\sqrt{T_w}(\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} V^{-1} [B^{(f_2)} - B^{(f_1)}]$, where $V = I_n \otimes Q$ and $B$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $W$.

(d) $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} \hat{\xi}_t \hat{\xi}'_t \rightarrow_{a.s.} W$, where $\hat{\xi}_t \equiv \hat{\xi}_t \otimes x_{t-1}$.

**Proposition 3.2** Under $A0$ and $A3$, the null hypothesis $R \pi_{f_1,f_2} = 0$, and the maintained hypothesis of an unchanged coefficient matrix $\Pi_{f_1,f_2} = \Pi$ for all subsamples, the subsample heteroskedastic consistent Wald process and sup Wald statistic converge weakly to the following
limits

$$W^*_f (f_1) \Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]',$$

$$SW^*_f (f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_w \in [f_0, f_2], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_d (f_w)' W_d (f_w)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]',$$

where $W_d$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_d$ and $d$ is the number of restrictions (the rank of $R$) under the null.

If the presence of conditional heteroskedasticity in $y_t$ is ignored in the construction of the (conventional) test statistic (15), the Wald and sup Wald statistics have non-standard asymptotic distribution as detailed in the following result.

**Proposition 3.3** Under $A0$ and $A3$, the null hypothesis $R \pi_{f_1, f_2} = 0$, and the maintained hypothesis of an unchanged coefficient matrix $\Pi_{f_1, f_2} = \Pi$ for all subsamples, the subsample Wald process and sup Wald statistic converge weakly to the following limits

$$W_{f_2} (f_1) \Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]',$$

$$SW_{f_2} (f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_1 \in [0, f_2 - f_0], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]',$$

where $W_{nk}$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_{nk}$, $A = W^{1/2}V^{-1}R'$, and $B = R (\Omega \otimes Q) R'$.

### 3.3 Unconditional heteroskedasticity

We next consider an array error specification of the form $\varepsilon_t := G (t/T) u_t$, where the matrix function $G (\cdot)$ and error process $u_t$ are defined below in Assumptions $A4$ and $A5$. This framework involves a time evolving error variance matrix that allows for unconditional error heteroscedasticity.

**Assumption (A4):** The matrix function $G (\cdot)$ is nonstochastic, measurable and uniformly bounded on the interval $(-\infty, 1]$ with a finite numbers of points of discontinuity, and satisfies a Lipschitz condition except at points of discontinuity.
Assumption (A5): an additional subscript $T$ moving average representation of the process \( \{y_t\} \) satisfies

\[
E|\varepsilon_t| > 0 \quad \text{for some } c > 0 \quad \text{a.s.}
\]

Under Lemma 3.5, \( \{u_t, \mathcal{F}_t\} \) is an mds satisfying

(i) \( u_t \) is strongly uniformly integrable with dominating random variable \( u \) that satisfies

\[
E(\|u\|^{4+c}) < \infty \quad \text{for some } c > 0;
\]

(ii) \( E(u_t u'_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = I_n \) a.s.

A5 implies that \( \{u_t\} \) is serially uncorrelated and homoskedastic (both conditionally and unconditionally) and hence covariance stationary. Note that A5(i) implies that \( \sup_t E(\|u_t\|^{4+c}) < \infty \) for some \( c > 0 \). As in Phillips and Xu (2006) and Bodnar and Zabolotskyy (2010), it follows that \( E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = E(G(t/T)|u_t u'_t G(t/T)' | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = G(t/T)G(t/T)' \) and \( E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t) = G(t/T)G(t/T)' \). So, both conditional and unconditional variances of \( \{\varepsilon_t\} \) are nonstochastic and time-varying of the form \( G(t/T)G(t/T)' \). Unlike Phillips and Xu (2006) and Bodnar and Zabolotskyy (2010), we do not assume strong \((\alpha, \beta, \gamma)-mixing \) \( \{u_t\} \).

Lemma 3.5 Under A0, A4 and A5,

(a) \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[T_w]} \varepsilon_t \to a.s. 0; \)

(b) \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[T_w]} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t \to a.s. \Omega_{f_1, f_2} \equiv \int_{f_1}^{f_2} G(r) G'(r) dr; \)

(c) \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[T_w]} (y_{t-h} - \Phi_0) (y_{t-h-j} - \Phi_0)' \to a.s. \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_{j+1} G(r) G'(r)' \psi_j dr; \)

(d) \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[T_w]} x_t \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t \to a.s. 0; \)

(e) \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[T_w]} x_t x'_t \to a.s. Q_{f_1, f_2} \), where the \( n \times n \) matrix \( Q_{f_1, f_2} \) is defined as

\[
Q_{f_1, f_2} = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & \Theta_{f_1, f_2} \\
1_p \otimes \Phi_0 & 1_p \otimes \Phi_0 + \Theta_{f_1, f_2}
\end{bmatrix}
\]
The proof is given in Appendix C. Next, we show that partial sums of $\xi_t$ satisfy a martingale invariance principle, which is verified using the two conditions established in Lemma 3.6.

**Lemma 3.6** Under $A0$, $A4$ and $A5$, $\{\xi_t, F_t\}$ is an mds satisfying the following Lindeberg and stability conditions:

(a) $T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \left\| \xi_t \right\|^2 \right\} \mathbb{1} \left( \left\| \xi_t \right\| \geq \sqrt{T \delta} \right) \left| F_{t-1} \right| \xrightarrow{p} 0$, for all $\delta > 0$; and

(b) $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T/2]}^{[T/2]} \mathbb{E} \mathbb{1} \left( \left| F_{t-1} \right| \right) \left( \xi_t \xi'_t \right) =: \mathbb{W}_{f_1, f_2}$, where $\mathbb{W}_{f_1, f_2} = \left\{ \mathbb{W}^{(i,j)}_{f_1, f_2} \right\}_{i,j=1}^{[n]}$ with block partitioned form

$$
\mathbb{W}^{(i,j)}_{f_1, f_2} = \left[ \int_{F_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_i q (r) g_{jq} (r) \, dr \right] \mathbf{1}_p \otimes \int_{F_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_i q (r) g_{jq} (r) \, dr \tilde{\Phi}_0' + \mathbb{X}^{(i,j)}_{f_1, f_2},
$$

and

$$
\mathbb{X}^{(i,j)}_{f_1, f_2} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
\Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} & \cdots & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} & \cdots & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)}
\end{array} \right],
$$

$$
\Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} = \int_{F_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_i q (r) g_{jq} (r) \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \, dr.
$$

The proof is given in Appendix C. Under Lemma 3.6, partial sums of $\xi_t$ satisfy a martingale invariance principle, so that

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=[T/2]}^{[T/2]} \xi_t \rightarrow B^*(f_2) - B^*(f_1),
$$

(22)

where $B^*$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $\mathbb{W}_{f_1, f_2}$. Using (22) we find the limit behavior of the estimator process $\tilde{\pi}_{f_1, f_2}$ and the heteroskedasticity consistent Wald statistic process $\mathbb{W}_{f_2}^*(f_1)$. 

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Lemma 3.7 Under $A0, A4$ and $A5$, we have

(a) $\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \rightarrow \text{a.s.} \pi_{f_1, f_2}$,

(b) $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil T f_1 \rceil}^{\lceil T f_2 \rceil} \xi_t \xi_t' \rightarrow \text{a.s.} \Omega_{f_1, f_2}$,

(c) \( \sqrt{T_w} (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2}) \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} V_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} [B^* (f_2) - B^* (f_1)] \), where $V_{f_1, f_2} = I_n \otimes Q_{f_1, f_2}$ and $B^*$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $W_{f_1, f_2}$.

(d) $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=\lceil T f_1 \rceil}^{\lceil T f_2 \rceil} \hat{\xi}_t \hat{\xi}_t' \rightarrow \text{a.s.} W_{f_1, f_2}$, where $\hat{\xi}_t = \hat{\xi}_t \otimes x_{t-1}$.

Proposition 3.4 Under $A0, A4$ and $A5$, the null hypothesis $R \pi_{f_1, f_2} = 0$, and the maintained hypothesis of an unchanged coefficient matrix $\Pi_{f_1, f_2} = \Pi$ for all subsamples, the subsample heteroskedastic consistent Wald process and sup Wald statistic converge weakly to the following limits

\[ W_{f_2}^* (f_1) \Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{(f_2 - f_1)^{1/2}} \right], \]

\[ SW_f^* (f_0) \Rightarrow \sup_{f_w \in [f_0, f_2], f_2 \neq f} \left[ \frac{W_d (f_w)' W_d (f_w)}{f_w} \right], \]

where $W_d$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_d$ and $d$ is the number of restrictions (the rank of $R$) under the null.

The presence of nonstochastic and time-varying errors affects the limit behavior of the standard Wald statistic, which no longer has the limit (17). In consequence, use of the limit theory (19) for the sup Wald statistic may lead to invalid and distorted inference.

Proposition 3.5 Under $A0, A4$ and $A5$, the null hypothesis $R \pi_{f_1, f_2} = 0$, and the maintained hypothesis of an unchanged coefficient matrix $\Pi_{f_1, f_2} = \Pi$ for all subsamples, the subsample heteroskedastic consistent Wald process and the sup Wald statistic have the following limits

\[ W_{f_2} (f_1) \Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_{w_1/2}} \right]' A_{f_1, f_2} B_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} A_{f_1, f_2}' \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_{w_1/2}} \right], \]

\[ SW_f (f_0) \Rightarrow \sup_{f_w \in [f_0, f_2], f_2 \neq f} \left\{ \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_{w_1/2}} \right]' A_{f_1, f_2} B_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} A_{f_1, f_2}' \left[ \frac{W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)}{f_{w_1/2}} \right] \right\}, \]
where $A_{f_1,f_2} = W_{f_1,f_2}^{1/2} V_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} R'$, $B_{f_1,f_2} = R (\Omega_{f_1,f_2} \otimes Q_{f_1,f_2}) R$, and $W_{nk}$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_{nk}$.

### 3.4 Simulated Asymptotic Distributions

The limit theory shows that the heteroskedastic consistent test statistics remain unchanged for all three scenarios – homoskedasticity, conditional heteroskedasticity, and unconditional heteroskedasticity. The asymptotic distributions are the same as those of the Wald process and sup Wald statistic under the assumption of homoskedasticity, given in equations (17) and (19).

Figure 1 plots the 5% standard asymptotic critical values (estimated from 2,000 replications) of the test statistics (17) and (19) against the (fractional) observation of interest $f$. Wiener processes are approximated by partial sums of 2,000 standard normal variates. Panel (a) compares critical values of the Wald and sup Wald statistics with fixed values of $d$ and $f_0$ ($d = 2$ and $f_0 = 0.05$). It is clear that the critical values for the sup Wald statistic are well above those of the Wald statistic, which is distributed as $\chi^2_2$. In addition, one can see that the 5% critical value of the sup Wald statistic rises from 6.06 to 11.4 as the observation of interest $f$ increases from 0.05 to 1. Moreover, the distribution stretches out to the right as the search range $[f_0, f]$ expands with $f$. Panel (b) plots the 5% asymptotic critical value of the sup Wald statistic for various minimum window sizes $f_0$ ($f_0 \in \{0.01, 0.05, 0.10, 0.20\}$) and for $d = 2$. It is evident smaller values of $f_0$ lead to larger critical values for the sup Wald statistic. This result is consistent with expectations as the search range $[f_0, f]$ widens as $f_0$ decreases. Although the results are not reported here, the critical values of both the Wald and sup Wald statistics increase with the value $d$.

### 4 Simulation Experiments

There is significant evidence suggesting that Wald tests, including Granger causality tests, suffer from size distortion to an extent that makes small sample considerations important in empirical work (Guilkey and Salemi, 1982; Toda and Phillips, 1993, 1994). By its very nature the sup Wald test of the recursive rolling procedure involves the sustained use of small subsamples of data, thereby accentuating the importance of finite sample performance. This section therefore reports a series of simulation experiments designed to assess the finite sample characteristics of the causality tests.
Figure 1: Panel (a) shows the 5% asymptotic critical values of the Wald and sup Wald statistic with $d = 2$ and $f_0 = 0.05$. Panel (b) shows the 5% asymptotic critical value of the sup Wald statistic with $d = 2$ and $f_0 = \{0.01, 0.05, 0.10, 0.20\}$. These are estimated from 2,000 replications. The Wiener process is approximated by partial sums of 2,000 standard normal variates.

The prototype model used in the simulation experiments is the bivariate VAR(1) model:

$$
\begin{align*}
DGP: \quad & \begin{bmatrix} y_{1t} \\ y_{2t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{11} & \phi_{21} \\ 0 & \phi_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{1t-1} \\ y_{2t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{1t} \\ \varepsilon_{2t} \end{bmatrix} \\
\end{align*}
$$

where $\varepsilon_{1t}$ and $\varepsilon_{2t}$ are i.i.d. $N(0,1)$. Assumption A0 requires $|\phi_{11}| < 1$ and $|\phi_{22}| < 1$. For simplicity, the causal channel from $y_1$ to $y_2$ is shut down. Parameter $\phi_{21}$ controls the strength of the causal path running from $y_{2t}$ to $y_{1t}$. Under the null hypothesis of no causality, $\phi_{21} = 0$. Under the alternative hypothesis, causation runs from $y_{2t-1}$ to $y_{1t}$ for certain periods of the sample. Let $s_t$ be a causal indicator that takes the value unity for the causal periods and zero otherwise. The autoregressive coefficient $\phi_{21}$ is then defined as $\phi_{21} = \phi_{12}s_t$.

The next two subsections investigate the performance of the forward expanding, rolling and recursive rolling causality tests under this DGP with different parameter settings under the null and alternative hypotheses. Asymptotic critical values are obtained from simulating the distributions in Proposition 3.1 with 10,000 replications. The Wiener process is approximated by partial sums of standard normal variates with 2,000 steps. The lag length $p$ in the regression model is fixed at unity. The initial values of the data series ($y_{11}$ and $y_{21}$) are set to unity. Note that in all cases the fixed window size used in the rolling test procedure is taken to be the minimum window size, $f_0$. We replicate the experiments 2,000 times for each parameter.
constellation.

4.1 False Detection Proportion

For all three approaches, we compare the test statistic with its corresponding critical value for each observation starting from \( T_{f_0} \) to \( T \), so that the number of hypotheses tested, \( N \), equals \( T - \lfloor T_{f_0} \rfloor + 1 \). It is well known that the probability of making a Type I error rises with the number of hypotheses in a test, a phenomenon commonly referred to as *multiplicity*. Instead of examining the family wise error rate or size (probability of rejecting at least one true null hypothesis), therefore, we report the mean and standard deviation of the actual false detection proportion, which is defined as the ratio between the number of false rejections, \( F \), and the total number of hypotheses \( N \), given by \( F/N \). Notice that this ratio differs from the false discovery rate promoted by Benjamini and Hochberg (1995). They define the false discovery rate as the expected value of the proportion of false discoveries among all discoveries, or \( \mathbb{E}[F/\max(R,1)] \), where \( R \) is the total number of rejections. By construction, therefore, under the null hypothesis the false discovery rate takes the value of unity.

Table 1 reports the impact of the persistence parameters \( \{\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}\} \) (top panel), the minimum window size \( f_0 \) (middle panel), and the sample size \( T \) (bottom panel), respectively, on the switch detection rates of the three algorithms under the null hypothesis. The top panel of Table 1 shows the effects of different parameter settings of \( \{\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}\} \) with a fixed minimum window size and sample size (\( f_0 = 0.24 \) and \( T = 100 \)). The summary statistics that are reported refer to the means and standard deviations (in parentheses) of the false detection proportion.

Overall, the rolling window approach has the highest false detection proportion, followed by the recursive rolling algorithm, and then the forward expansion approach. For example, in the top panel of Table 1, when \( \{\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}\} = \{0.5, 0.8\} \), the false detection proportion is 20% using the rolling window approach – in contrast to 3% and 11% for the forward expanding and recursive rolling approaches. In addition, the results in the top panel reveal that there is a greater chance of drawing false positive conclusions when \( y_{2t} \) is more persistent (witness the case where \( \phi_{22} \) rises from 0.5 to 0.8 with \( \phi_{11} \) fixed at 0.5). The false detection proportion appears to decline when the persistence parameters \( \phi_{11} \) and \( \phi_{22} \) are of different signs, showing that differing autoregressive behavior in the two series can improve performance when the null is true.

The bottom panel of Table 1 shows that the problem of false identification is alleviated with longer data series. For example, with a minimum window size of 0.24 and autoregressive param-
Table 1: The mean and standard deviation (in parentheses) of the false detection proportion of the testing procedures under the null hypothesis based on the 5% asymptotic critical values. Parameter settings: \(y_{11} = y_{21} = 1\) and \(\phi_{12} = 0\). Calculations are based on 1,000 replications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Forward</th>
<th>Rolling</th>
<th>Recursive Rolling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>((\phi_{11}, \phi_{22})): (f_0 = 0.24) and (T = 100)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.5, 0.5))</td>
<td>0.02 (0.15)</td>
<td>0.14 (0.34)</td>
<td>0.08 (0.27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.5, 0.8))</td>
<td>0.03 (0.16)</td>
<td>0.20 (0.40)</td>
<td>0.11 (0.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((-0.5, 0.8))</td>
<td>0.02 (0.12)</td>
<td>0.11 (0.31)</td>
<td>0.06 (0.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.5, -0.8))</td>
<td>0.01 (0.09)</td>
<td>0.07 (0.26)</td>
<td>0.04 (0.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f_0: (\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}) = (0.5, 0.8)) and (T = 100)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.07 (0.25)</td>
<td>0.75 (0.43)</td>
<td>0.63 (0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.03 (0.16)</td>
<td>0.20 (0.40)</td>
<td>0.11 (0.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.02 (0.12)</td>
<td>0.07 (0.25)</td>
<td>0.04 (0.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.01 (0.13)</td>
<td>0.03 (0.18)</td>
<td>0.02 (0.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(T: (\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}) = (0.5, 0.8)) and (f_0 = 0.24)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.03 (0.16)</td>
<td>0.20 (0.40)</td>
<td>0.11 (0.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.01 (0.09)</td>
<td>0.06 (0.24)</td>
<td>0.02 (0.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>0.00 (0.04)</td>
<td>0.02 (0.13)</td>
<td>0.01 (0.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>0.00 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.01 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.00 (0.03)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When \(T\) expands from 100 to 1000, the false detection proportion decreases by 3%, 19% and 11% respectively for the forward, rolling, and recursive rolling approaches.

Importantly, as shown in the middle panel, the problem of false identification becomes dramatically less severe as the minimum window size increases. The false detection proportion reduces from 7% to 1%, from 75% to 3% and from 63% to 2% for the forward, rolling, and recursive rolling algorithms respectively when \(f_0\) rises from 0.12 to 0.48. The reduction is particularly obvious for the rolling and recursive rolling window approaches (72% and 61% reductions in the false detection proportion) where the minimum window size plays a more decisive role.

4.2 Causality Detection

The performance of the three algorithms under the alternative hypothesis is now investigated. We first consider the case when there is a single causality episode in the sample period, switching parameters of \(\{0.5, 0.8\}\), when \(T\) expands from 100 to 1000, the false detection proportion decreases by 3%, 19% and 11% respectively for the forward, rolling, and recursive rolling approaches.
on at \([f_e T]\) and off at \([f_f T]\). Specifically, let \(s_t\) in (23) be defined as

\[
s_t = \begin{cases} 
1, & \text{if } [f_e T] \leq t \leq [f_f T] \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Performance is evaluated from several perspectives: the successful detection rate (SDR), the mean and standard deviation (in parentheses) of the bias of the estimated fractional origination and termination dates of the switches \((\hat{f}_e - f_e\) and \(\hat{f}_f - f_f)\), as well as the average number of switches detected. Successful detection is defined as an outcome when the estimated switch origination date falls between the true origination and termination dates, that is \(f_e \leq \hat{f}_e \leq f_f\). The mean and standard deviation of the bias are calculated among those episodes that have been successfully detected.

Table 2 considers the impact of the general model parameters on test performance. Causal strength is fixed with the value \(\phi_{12} = 0.8\) and causality (from \(y_{2t} \rightarrow y_{1t}\)) switches on in the middle of the sample \((f_e = 0.5)\) and the relationship lasts for 20% of the sample with termination at \(f_f = 0.7\). We vary the autoregressive parameters \((\phi_{11}, \phi_{22})\) (top panel), the minimum window size \([f_0 T]\) (middle panel), and the sample size \(T\) (bottom panel) in the simulations. Table 3 focuses on the impact of causal characteristics, namely, causal strength \(\phi_{12}\) (top panel), causal duration, \(D\) (middle panel), and the location of the causal episode \(f_e\) (bottom panel).

It is apparent from the results reported in Tables 2 and 3 that the rolling window procedure has the highest successful detection rate, followed by the recursive rolling procedure. The detection rate of the forward expansion algorithm is the lowest among the three algorithms. For example, from the top panel of Table 2, when \((\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}) = (0.5, 0.8)\), the SDR of the rolling procedure is, respectively, 7.2% and 31.2% higher than those of the recursive rolling and forward expanding procedures. Notice that, relative to the forward expanding procedure, the difference in SDR between the rolling and recursive procedures is much less dramatic.

There is no obvious difference in the estimation accuracy of the causal switch-on date. For example, when \((\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}) = (0.5, 0.8)\) in the top panel of Table 2, the average delay in the detection of the switch-on date is 10 to 11 observations (with a standard deviation of 5 to 6 observations) for all three procedures. Importantly, the rolling window procedure provides a much more accurate estimator for the switch-off date in the sense that the quantity \(\hat{f}_f - f_f\) is of

---

1. \(\text{Let } stat\) denote the test statistic and \(cv\) be the corresponding critical values. A switch originates at period \(t\) if \(stat_{t-2} < cv_{t-2}, stat_{t-1} < cv_{t-1}, stat_t > cv_t\) and \(stat_{t+1} > cv_{t+1}\) and terminates at period \(t'\) if \(stat_{t'-1} > cv_{t'-1}, stat_{t'} < cv_{t'}, stat_{t'+1} < cv_{t'+1}\).
Table 2: The impact of general model characteristics on test performance based on 5% asymptotic critical values. Parameter settings: \( y_{11} = y_{21} = 1, \phi_{12} = 0.8, f_e = 0.5, \) and \( D = 0.2 \). Figures in parentheses are standard deviations. Calculations are based on 1,000 replications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \phi_{11}, \phi_{22} ): ( f_0 = 0.24 ) and ( T = 100 )</th>
<th>( \phi_{11}, \phi_{22} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( T = 100 )</th>
<th>( \phi_{11}, \phi_{22} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( f_0 = 0.24 )</th>
<th>( T = 100 )</th>
<th>( T = 200 )</th>
<th>( T = 400 )</th>
<th>( T = 1000 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( (0.5,0.5) )</td>
<td>( (0.5,0.8) )</td>
<td>( (-0.5,0.8) )</td>
<td>( (0.5,-0.8) )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 100 )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 200 )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 400 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( f_0 = 0.24 ) and ( T = 100 )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 100 )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 200 )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 400 )</td>
<td>( f_0 = 0.5 ), ( T = 1000 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( T = 100 )</td>
<td>( \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( T = 200 )</td>
<td>( \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( T = 400 )</td>
<td>( \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( T = 1000 )</td>
<td>( \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8 ) and ( T = 1000 )</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDR ( \hat{f}_e - f_e ) ( \hat{f}_f - f_f ) # Switches</td>
<td>SDR ( \hat{f}_e - f_e ) ( \hat{f}_f - f_f ) # Switches</td>
<td>SDR ( \hat{f}_e - f_e ) ( \hat{f}_f - f_f ) # Switches</td>
<td>SDR ( \hat{f}_e - f_e ) ( \hat{f}_f - f_f ) # Switches</td>
<td>SDR ( \hat{f}_e - f_e ) ( \hat{f}_f - f_f ) # Switches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.570 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.81 (0.68) 0.688 0.11 0.22 (0.11) 1.08 (0.64) 0.595 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.99 (0.62)</td>
<td>0.570 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.81 (0.68) 0.688 0.11 0.22 (0.11) 1.08 (0.64) 0.595 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.99 (0.62)</td>
<td>0.570 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.81 (0.68) 0.688 0.11 0.22 (0.11) 1.08 (0.64) 0.595 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.99 (0.62)</td>
<td>0.570 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.81 (0.68) 0.688 0.11 0.22 (0.11) 1.08 (0.64) 0.595 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.99 (0.62)</td>
<td>0.570 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.81 (0.68) 0.688 0.11 0.22 (0.11) 1.08 (0.64) 0.595 0.11 0.23 (0.11) 0.99 (0.62)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
smaller magnitude and has less variance. With the same parameter settings, the average delay in
the switch-off point detection is 12 observations (with a standard deviation of 7 observations)
for the rolling procedure, as opposed to 23 observations delay (with standard deviation of 10
and 11 observations) for the recursive rolling and forward expanding algorithms.

On the other hand, as mentioned earlier, the rolling and recursive window procedures have
more significant size distortion than the forward expanding window approach. This observation
is reflected in the estimated average number of switches reported in Tables 2 and 3. The true
number of switches in the simulation is unity. It can be seen from Tables 2 and 3 that the
rolling and recursive rolling window procedures tend to detect more causal episodes than there
are. In addition, the upward bias in the estimator for the rolling window procedure is higher
than that of the recursive rolling procedure. The forward expanding algorithm underestimates
the number of switches when the sample size is 100 and overestimates the statistic (at a lesser
magnitude than the rolling and recursive rolling procedures) when the sample size increases to
200 and 400 (bottom panel of Table 2).

Taking a closer look at Table 2, in the top panel, we see that for all three approaches the SDR
increases when the persistence level of $y_{2t}$ ( $\phi_{22}$ ) increases from 0.5 to 0.8, with $f_0 = 0.24$, $T = 100$
and $\phi_{11}$ fixed at 0.5. Successful detections are generally higher when the persistent parameters
$\phi_{11}$ and $\phi_{22}$ are of different signs. No obvious difference is observed in the estimation accuracy
of the switch-on and -off dates. For the middle panel, we set $(\phi_{11}, \phi_{22}) = (0.5, 0.8)$, $T = 100$, and
let the minimum window size vary from 24 to 48 observations. The minimum window size does
not have any impact on the correct detection rate of the forward expanding procedure. However,
we observe significant reductions in SDR for the rolling and recursive rolling procedures when
the minimum window size increases. As a case in point, there is a 10.8% and 10.2% drop in SDR,
respectively, for the former and the latter when $f_0$ rises from 0.24 to 0.36. However, these falls
are not as extensive as the declines in the false detection rates (23.8% and 21.5% respectively).

In the bottom panel of Table 2, we increase the sample size from 100 to 1000, keeping
$(\phi_{11}, \phi_{22})$ and $f_0$ fixed at (0.5, 0.8) and 0.24. It is clear from the results in this panel that for all
tests, the successful detection rate and the estimation accuracy of the switch-on date increases
with the sample size, whereas the estimation accuracy of the switch-off date deteriorates. Notice
that the SDR of the forward expanding procedure rises rapidly and exceeds those of the rolling
and recursive rolling approaches when the sample size reaches 1000. Nevertheless, the SDR of
all three approaches are above 90% when the sample size is larger than 400.
Table 3: The impact of causal characteristics on test performance based on 5% asymptotic critical values. Parameter settings: $y_{11} = y_{21} = 1, \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8, T = 100$. Figures in parentheses are standard deviations. The minimum window has 24 observations. Calculations are based on 1,000 replications.

| Causality strength $\phi_{12}$: $\mathcal{D} = 0.2, \bar{f}_{e} = 0.5$ | | | | Causality Duration $\mathcal{D}$: $\phi_{12} = 0.8, \bar{f}_{e} = 0.5$ | | | | Causality Location $\bar{f}_{e}$: $\phi_{12} = 0.8, \mathcal{D} = 0.2$ | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Forward | | Rolling | | Recursive Rolling | | | | | | | |
| SDR | $\hat{f}_{e} - f_{e}$ | $\hat{f}_{f} - f_{f}$ | # Switches | SDR | $\hat{f}_{e} - f_{e}$ | $\hat{f}_{f} - f_{f}$ | # Switches | SDR | $\hat{f}_{e} - f_{e}$ | $\hat{f}_{f} - f_{f}$ | # Switches |
| $\phi_{12} = 0.2$ | 0.139 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.13 (0.15) | 0.41 (0.70) | 0.456 | 0.12 (0.06) | 0.02 (0.09) | 1.38 (1.00) | 0.315 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.08 (0.13) | 1.01 (0.92) |
| $\phi_{12} = 0.8$ | 0.570 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.23 (0.11) | 0.90 (0.74) | 0.882 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.12 (0.07) | 1.62 (0.85) | 0.810 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.23 (0.10) | 1.37 (0.72) |
| $\phi_{12} = 1.5$ | 0.781 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.27 (0.08) | 1.04 (0.60) | 0.921 | 0.08 (0.05) | 0.15 (0.06) | 1.55 (0.76) | 0.890 | 0.09 (0.05) | 0.26 (0.08) | 1.33 (0.61) |

| $\mathcal{D} = 0.1$ | 0.234 | 0.05 (0.03) | 0.24 (0.16) | 0.60 (0.81) | 0.500 | 0.06 (0.03) | 0.11 (0.08) | 1.58 (0.98) | 0.380 | 0.05 (0.03) | 0.19 (0.15) | 1.30 (0.92) |
| $\mathcal{D} = 0.2$ | 0.570 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.23 (0.11) | 0.90 (0.74) | 0.882 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.12 (0.07) | 1.62 (0.85) | 0.810 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.23 (0.10) | 1.37 (0.72) |
| $\mathcal{D} = 0.3$ | 0.777 | 0.15 (0.08) | 0.18 (0.05) | 1.02 (0.58) | 0.918 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.11 (0.06) | 1.47 (0.76) | 0.900 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.18 (0.05) | 1.28 (0.61) |

| $\bar{f}_{e} = 0.3$ | 0.649 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.34 (0.19) | 1.00 (0.79) | 0.887 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.12 (0.07) | 1.66 (0.85) | 0.830 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.31 (0.18) | 1.35 (0.78) |
| $\bar{f}_{e} = 0.5$ | 0.570 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.23 (0.11) | 0.90 (0.74) | 0.882 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.12 (0.07) | 1.62 (0.85) | 0.810 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.23 (0.10) | 1.37 (0.72) |
| $\bar{f}_{e} = 0.7$ | 0.500 | 0.11 (0.06) | 0.09 (0.02) | 0.77 (0.71) | 0.885 | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.08 (0.04) | 1.65 (0.84) | 0.789 | 0.11 (0.05) | 0.09 (0.03) | 1.40 (0.77) |
Table 3 focuses on the characteristics of the causal relationship. For all tests, SDR increases with the strength of the causal relationship (captured by the value of $\phi_{12}$). One can see that when $\phi_{12}$ rises from 0.2 to 1.5, the SDR increases from 13.9% to 78.1%, from 45.6% to 92.1%, and from 31.5% to 89% for the forward expanding, rolling and recursive rolling algorithms, respectively. Notice that the gap between the SDRs of the rolling and recursive rolling procedures narrows as causality strengthens. Moreover, as the causal relationship gets stronger, there is some mild improvement in the estimation accuracy of the switch-on date using those three approaches, whereas for all three tests the accuracy of the estimates of the switch-off date deteriorates. For example, for the rolling test, when $\phi_{12}$ rises from 0.2 to 1.5, the bias of the switch-on date reduces from 12 observations to 8 observations, while the bias of the switch-off date increases from 2 observations to 15 observations. The dramatic increase in the estimation bias of the switch-off date is mainly due to situations in which a switch is detected but the termination date of this switch is not found until the end of the sample. If this situation eventuates, a termination date of $\hat{\tau}_f = 1$ is imposed at the cost of significant bias in the estimates. The proportion of samples for which this occurs increases as the causal relationship gets stronger.

In the middle panel of Table 3, the causal relationship is switched on at the 50th observation and the causal episode is defined to last for 10%, 20%, and 30% of the sample, respectively. The SDR of all tests rises dramatically as the duration, $D$, of the causal relationship increases. The SDR increases from 50% to 91.8% (from 38% to 90%) for the rolling (recursive rolling) algorithm as the duration expands from 10 to 30 observations. Interestingly, it is also clear that the biases of the estimated origination dates also increase with longer causal duration. As for the termination dates, while the estimation accuracy improves slightly for the forward expanding approach, no obvious change patterns are observed for the rolling and recursive rolling approaches.

The bottom panel of Table 3 focuses on the location parameter $f_e$, which takes the values $f_e = \{0.3, 0.5, 0.7\}$. For the first scenario, causality is switched on at the 30th observation and lasts for 20 observations. The second and third scenarios are assumed to originate from the 50th and 70th observations respectively and also last for the same length of time. The performance is better (with higher SDR and smaller bias in the switch-on date estimate) for the forward expanding approach and slightly better for the recursive rolling approach when the change in causality happens early in the sample. In contrast, the location of the switch does not have an obvious impact on the performance of the rolling algorithm. Notice that the bias of the
termination date estimates declines significantly as the causal episode moves towards the end of the sample period. This bias is mainly due to the truncation that is imposed in the estimation. Specifically, when the causal effect terminates at the 90th data point, due to the delay bias in estimation, the procedure may not detect the switch-off date until the end of the sample. In these cases, the estimated termination date is set to be the last observation of the sample, a strategy which results in a bias of 0.10 for the estimated of $f_f$ and which reduces both the bias and the variance of the estimate.

### 4.2.1 Multiple Episodes

Suppose there are two switches in the sample period, where the first period of causality runs from $f_{1e}$ to $f_{1f}$ and the second from $f_{2e}$ to $f_{2f}$. This situation is denoted as follows:

$$s_t = \begin{cases} 
1, & \text{if } \lfloor f_{1e}T \rfloor \leq t \leq \lfloor f_{1f}T \rfloor \text{ and } \lfloor f_{2e}T \rfloor \leq t \leq \lfloor f_{2f}T \rfloor \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}$$

The strength of the first and second episodes are denoted by $\phi_{12}^1$ and $\phi_{12}^2$ respectively. The durations are $D_1 = f_{1f} - f_{1e}$ and $D_2 = f_{2f} - f_{2e}$. We set the sample size to be 200 and the minimum window size $f_0 = 0.24$. In the top panel of Table 4, we fix the location of the switches at the 25th and 75th observations respectively ($f_{1e} = 0.25, f_{2e} = 0.75$) and the causality strength of both episodes is set to 0.8 ($\phi_{12}^1 = \phi_{12}^2 = 0.8$). The durations of the causal episodes are varied, using $\{D_1 = 0.1, D_2 = 0.1\}$, $\{D_1 = 0.1, D_2 = 0.2\}$ and $\{D_1 = 0.2, D_2 = 0.1\}$. In the bottom panel, with the causality duration fixed at $\{D_1 = 0.1, D_2 = 0.1\}$, we extend the causal strength of the second episode $\phi_{12}^2$ from 0.8 to 1.5 (first section) and move the second episode further towards the end of the sample period so that these two episodes are further apart, i.e. $f_{2e} = 0.85$ (second section).

Three general observations may be made on the results reported in Table 4. First, in all of the reported scenarios, the correct detection rates of the rolling procedure for both episodes are generally the highest of the three procedures, followed by the recursive rolling window procedure – except for the case of $\{D_1 = 0.2, D_2 = 0.1\}$ where the detection rate of the first episode of the recursive rolling window method is the highest. Second, location plays a decisive role in the success of the detection procedures for multiple causality episodes. This result is particular true for the forward and recursive rolling window procedures and is partially due to the low estimation accuracy in the causal termination date. As mentioned, when using the forward and
Table 4: Test performance in the presence of two causal episodes based on 5% asymptotic critical values. Parameter settings: $y_{11} = y_{21} = 1, \phi_{11} = 0.5, \phi_{22} = 0.8, f_0 = 0.24, T = 200$. Figures in parentheses are standard deviations. Calculations are based on 1,000 replications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First Episode</th>
<th></th>
<th>Second Episode</th>
<th></th>
<th># Switches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDR</td>
<td>$\hat{f}<em>{1e} - f</em>{1e}$</td>
<td>$\hat{f}<em>{1f} - f</em>{1f}$</td>
<td>SDR</td>
<td>$\hat{f}<em>{2e} - f</em>{2e}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_{1e} = 0.25$, $f_{2e} = 0.75$, $\phi_{12}^1 = \phi_{12}^2 = 0.8$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D_1 = 0.1$, $D_2 = 0.1$</td>
<td>Forward</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.36 (0.27)</td>
<td>0.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rolling</td>
<td>0.633</td>
<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.14 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recursive Rolling</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.06 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.32 (0.25)</td>
<td>0.423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D_1 = 0.1$, $D_2 = 0.2$</td>
<td>Forward</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.36 (0.27)</td>
<td>0.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rolling</td>
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<td>0.14 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.938</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.06 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.32 (0.25)</td>
<td>0.633</td>
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<tr>
<td>$D_1 = 0.2$, $D_2 = 0.1$</td>
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<td>0.862</td>
<td>0.09 (0.05)</td>
<td>0.47 (0.17)</td>
<td>0.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rolling</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>0.08 (0.04)</td>
<td>0.16 (0.06)</td>
<td>0.601</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.08 (0.04)</td>
<td>0.47 (0.16)</td>
<td>0.125</td>
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<tr>
<td>$D_1 = 0.1$, $D_2 = 0.1$</td>
<td>Forward</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.36 (0.27)</td>
<td>0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.14 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.773</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.06 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.32 (0.25)</td>
<td>0.545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_{1e} = 0.25$, $f_{2e} = 0.85$, $\phi_{12}^1 = \phi_{12}^2 = 1.5$</td>
<td>Forward</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.35 (0.26)</td>
<td>0.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rolling</td>
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<td>0.05 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.14 (0.07)</td>
<td>0.786</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.06 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.30 (0.24)</td>
<td>0.603</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
recursive rolling window approaches, the termination dates are not found until the end of the sample period for a significant proportion of replications. It is, therefore, impossible to detect the second episode of causality for those sample replications. Third, the correct detection rates of all procedures increase with causal strength and the distance between two episodes.

There are also a number of more specific results. For causal episodes of the same causal strength and duration, the detection rate is higher for the episode occurring first. As a case in point, when $D_1 = 0.1, D_2 = 0.1$, the detection rates of the first and second episodes are 63.3% and 60.1%, respectively, using the rolling window approach. The detection rates of the second episode using the forward and recursive rolling window algorithms are 37.8% and 42.3%, which are 13.7% and 17.8% lower than those for the first episode.

It is also easier for all procedures to detect episodes with longer duration. For example, when $D_1 = 0.1, D_2 = 0.2$, the detection rate of the second episode is, respectively, 6.4%, 30.5%, and 3.2% higher than that of the first using the forward, rolling and recursive rolling algorithms. Combining the above two factors (location and duration), it is expected that the detection rates are low when the duration of the second bubble is shorter than the first one. This expectation is realized when moving from the case of $\{D_1 = 0.1, D_2 = 0.2\}$ to $\{D_1 = 0.2, D_2 = 0.1\}$. Specifically, when $\{D_1 = 0.2, D_2 = 0.1\}$, the detection rates of the second episode of the forward, rolling and recursive rolling window procedures decline from 57.9% to 15.1%, from 93.8% to 60.1%, from 63.3% to 12.5%, respectively. Notice that the detection rates of the second episode of the forward expanding and recursive rolling procedures for this case are around 15%. This result is partially due to the inaccuracy of these two procedures in estimating the termination date of the first episode. The average delay $\hat{f}_{1f} - f_{1f}$ of these two procedures is 0.47.

Next, it is obvious from the bottom panel that SDR increases with causal strength and the distance between two episodes. The successful detection rate of the second episode of the forward, rolling and recursive rolling methods rises 13.4%, 17.2% and 12.2% respectively when $\phi_{12}^2$ rises from 0.8 to 1.5. When moving the second episode from the 75th observation to the 85th observation, we see a slight increase in the detection rates (0.3%, 1.3%, and 5.8%, respectively, for forward, rolling and recursive rolling approaches).

Finally, the estimated average numbers of switches for all three algorithms are reported in the last column of Table 4. The rolling window procedure tends to overestimate the number of causal episodes whereas the forward approach tends to underestimate the number.
4.3 Asymptotic versus Finite Sample Critical Values

In practical work, the residual based bootstrap method is often used to generate small sample critical values with the intent to improve finite sample performance characteristics. See, for example, Balcilar et al. (2010) and Arora and Shi (2015). We repeat the calculations for the family-wise false positive detection rate (size) and successful detection rates with tests based on 5% bootstrap critical values using 1,000 replications. Similar conclusions to those reported above are drawn with regard to the relative performance of the forward, rolling and recursive rolling algorithms, although for the sake of brevity, all the results are not reported here.

There are some reductions in both sizes and successful detection rates for all algorithms, as the finite sample critical values are generally higher than the corresponding asymptotic critical values (especially when the sample size is small). As an example, Table 5 reports differences in the sizes and the successful detection rates between using the bootstrap and asymptotic critical values for a typical set of parameters. Specifically, $y_{11} = y_{21} = 1$ and $\phi_{11} = 0.5$, $\phi_{22} = 0.8$, $\lfloor f_0 T \rfloor = 0.24$, $f_c = 0.5$ and $f_f = 0.7$, and $\phi_{12} = 0$ under the null and 0.8 under the alternative. The sample size varies from 100 to 400.

Overall, the bootstrap critical values do not lead to dramatic reductions in the successful detection rates of the three algorithms and in the false positive detection rate of the forward expanding approach. However, there are substantial reductions in the false positive rates of the rolling and recursive rolling procedures when the sample size is small. For example, when $T = 100$, the false positive detection rates of the rolling and recursive rolling window procedure drop 17% and 15% respectively when replacing the asymptotic critical values with the bootstrap critical values. This reduction becomes significantly smaller and almost negligible when the sample size increases to 400. Putting these together, the results suggest a strategy of using the residual based bootstrap method for the rolling and recursive rolling window algorithms when the sample size is smaller and using the asymptotic critical values for all other cases.

The residual bootstrap method is computationally intensive. For example, it takes around 380 hours to finish a simulation with 1,000 replications for the case of $T = 400$ by doing parallel computing on a 16-core high performance machine. Due to limitations in available computing power, we do not conduct simulations using the residual based bootstrap method for the case of $T = 1000$. 

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Table 5: The differences in false detection proportion and SDRs of the testing algorithms using 5% asymptotic and bootstrap critical values. Calculations are based on 1,000 replications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Difference in false detection proportion</th>
<th>Difference in SDRs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Forward Rolling Recursive Rolling</td>
<td>Forward Rolling Recursive Rolling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>-0.03 -0.17 -0.15</td>
<td>-0.05 -0.02 -0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>-0.02 -0.10 -0.12</td>
<td>-0.03 -0.00 -0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>-0.03 -0.01 -0.05</td>
<td>-0.00 -0.01 -0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 The Predictive Power of the Slope of the Yield Curve

The slope of the yield curve (usually defined as the difference between zero-coupon interest rates on 3-month Treasury bills and 10-year Treasury bonds) has traditionally been regarded as a potentially important explanatory variable in the prediction of real economic activity and inflation (see, for example, Harvey (1989)). The term structure of interest rates embodies market expectations of the behaviour of the future short-term interest rate (the expectations theory) and contains a term premium component that compensates for the risk of holding longer-term securities (the liquidity premium theory). The link between the slope of the yield curve and macroeconomic activity which is founded on the expectations theory is now widely accepted, whereas the contribution of the term premium to the prediction of output growth and inflation is less well established.⁶

As discussed in the Introduction, empirical affirmation of the ability of the slope of the yield curve to forecast macroeconomic activity, including real economic growth or recessions, was provided in the 1980s and 1990s for several countries by many authors (e.g., Stock and Watson (1989); Estrella and Hardouvelis (1991); Estrella and Mishkin (1998); Dotsey (1998); Estrella and Mishkin (1997); Plosser and Rouwenhorst (1994)). The slope of the yield curve was also found to be a significant predictor of inflation (Mishkin, 1990a; 1990b; 1990c; Jorion and Mishkin, 1991). More recent work in the context of predicting real activity and recessions suggests that the slope of the yield curve still retains its predictive power – see, in particular, Estrella (2005); Chauvet and Potter (2005); Ang, Piazzesi, and Wei (2006); Wright (2006); Estrella and Trubin (2006); Rudebusch and Williams (2009); Kauppi and Saikonen (2008).

While most of the earlier literature has focused on the ability of the yield curve to predict

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⁶Although Hamilton and Kim (2002) find that both components make significant contributions to forecasting real economic activity, Estrella and Wu (2008) find the opposite result, namely, that decomposing the spread into expectations and term premium components does not enhance the predictive power of the yield curve.
real activity or inflation, there could very well be feedback effects from real activity to monetary policy and therefore to the yield curve (Estrella and Hardouvelis, 1991; Estrella and Mishkin, 1997; Estrella, 2005). Consequently a substantial body of empirical work in this area has been conducted in terms of VAR models (Ang and Piazzesi, 2003; Evans and Marshall, 2007; Diebold, Rudebusch and Aruba, 2006). There is therefore ample precedence to support the use of VAR models to establish the direction of Granger causality in these macroeconomic relationships.

In the present application a four-variable VAR model is used to test for changes in Granger causal relationships between the slope of the yield curve and the macroeconomy. The variables included are the output gap ($y_t$), inflation ($\pi_t$), the monetary policy interest rate ($i_t$), and the yield curve spread ($S_t$). The data are quarterly data for the United States for the period 1985:Q4 to 2013:Q4 with $T = 114$ observations. The output gap is calculated using the official Congressional Budget Office (CBO) 2014 measure of potential output and 2014:Q1 GDP data. Inflation is measured from the core consumer price index and calculated as quarterly log differences (multiplied by 400). The policy rate is measured using the effective federal funds rate. Term spread is defined as the difference between the 3-month treasury bill rate and the 10-year government bond rate. All macroeconomic data are either obtained quarterly or monthly from the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis FRED\textsuperscript{7} where appropriate monthly observations are converted to quarterly frequency by averaging. The data are plotted in Figure 2.

The variability of the inflation gap is more muted than that of the output gap. The inflation gap fluctuates around the 2% level and shows persistent decline towards the end of the sample period, consistent with the deflationary conditions prevalent in the United States economy after the Global Financial Crisis. Official NBER recession periods that coincide with the sample period, namely 1990:Q4-1991:Q1, 2001:Q2-2001:Q4 and 2007:Q4-2008:Q2 are marked in grey. Since the yield curve is typically upward sloping, the slope factor, defined as the difference between the zero-coupon interest rates on 3-month Treasury bills and 10-year Treasury bonds, usually takes a negative value. Steeper yield curves are represented by lower values of the slope factor. If the yield curve becomes inverted then the slope factor will be positive and the dates of the onset of an inverted yield curve are shown by vertical lines.\textsuperscript{8} and notable instances are in 2000 (when a recession followed) and in 2006 (when it was not immediately followed by a recession).

\textsuperscript{7}Website: www.research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/.

\textsuperscript{8}Note that these dates are generally established using higher frequency data on the yield curve than the quarterly data plotted here.
The decision to use a four-variable VAR model, means that two other factors associated with the term structure of interest rates, the level and curvature, are not included. The fact that the level of the Federal funds target rate is included in the VAR means that the level factor may be safely omitted without much loss of information. The situation is a more complex for the curvature (or bow) of the yield curve. The main reason for omitting this variable is that the relationship between the curvature and the macroeconomy has been hard to establish. There have been attempts to devise theoretical links between curvature and the macroeconomy (Dewachter and Lyrio, 2006; Modena, 2008; Moench, 2008) but there is little evidence to support the nature of the relationship. In view of the ambivalent evidence and the shortage of degrees of freedom in the present application with quarterly data, it was decided not to include the
curvature in the VAR.

In estimating the VAR and implementing tests of Granger causality, the lag order for the whole sample period is obtained using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) with a maximum potential lag length 12. The lag order used in the tests for each subsample is then assumed identical to that obtained for the entire sample. When implementing the recursive testing procedure the minimum window size is 22 observations ($f_0 = 0.2$) and this constant window size is also used for the rolling testing procedure. The 5% critical value sequences are obtained from bootstrapping with 500 replications. A sensitivity analysis is conducted using a minimum window size of $f_0 = 0.3$ and BIC to select lag order in each subsample in Figures 5 and 6 in Appendix D.\textsuperscript{9}

5.1 Yield Curve Slope to the Output Gap

Figure 3 displays the time-varying Wald test statistics for causal effects from the slope of the yield curve to the output gap. The three rows illustrate the sequences of test statistics obtained from the forward recursive, rolling window and recursive-rolling procedures, respectively, while the columns of the figure refer to the two different assumptions of the residual error term (homoskedasticity and heteroskedasticity) for the VAR. The sequences of test statistics start from 1991:Q1 as the first 22 observations represent the minimum window size. The selected optimum lag order is 2. All causality episodes with duration longer than one quarter are highlighted in grey. It is obvious from the graphs that the test results are robust to heterogeneity of various forms in the VAR errors.

As is apparent from panel (a) of Figure 3, the test statistic of the predictive power of the slope of the yield curve for the output gap lies below its critical value at the end of the sample period in 2013:Q4. It follows that the hypothesis of no Granger causality from the yield curve slope to the output gap over the whole sample period cannot be rejected. Moreover, and rather surprisingly, the full-sample forward recursive test indicates no change in the causal relationship over the sample period at all, apart from a brief start-up effect in the first period. This result is contrary to expectations and to all existing evidence of the usefulness of the slope in predicting real economic activity. It indicates the shortcoming of using Wald tests of Granger causality over an arbitrarily defined full sample period, for which the findings conflict with subsample analysis.

\textsuperscript{9}The data and Matlab codes are available for download from http://www.ncer.edu.au/data/data.jsp.
Figure 3: The test statistic sequences for Granger causal effects from the yield curve slope to the output gap. Tests are obtained for a VAR model with homoskedastic errors (panels (a), (c) and (e)) and with heteroskedastic errors (panels (b), (d) and (f)). The test sequences for the forward recursive, rolling window and recursive-rolling procedures all run from 1991:Q1 to 2013:Q4 with 22 observations for the minimum window size and a fixed lag order 2.
Indeed, panels (c) and (e) of Figure 3 show a very different picture from an unequivocal failure to reject the null hypothesis of no predictability. The results reveal a dynamic picture of the evolution of Granger causal relationships between the slope of the yield curve and the output gap. The two major periods of predictability that are detected in these tests are over 1996 - 2000 and 2004 - 2006 although there is some disagreement between the rolling and the recursive rolling tests about the termination date of the first period and the strength of the relationship in the latter period. These two procedures agree on the starting date of the first episode (1999:Q3) but disagree on its termination date, pointing to 1999:Q1 from the rolling window test and 2000:Q4 from the recursive rolling window test. Evidently, the recursive rolling window termination date is seven quarters behind that of the rolling algorithm, a result that is consistent with earlier simulation findings where the recursive rolling window approach was found to have a longer delay in detecting the causal termination date relative to the rolling window procedure. For the latter period, the rolling window tests suggest two sub-periods (2004:Q1-Q2 and 2005:Q4-2006:Q3), while this division is less pronounced in the case of the recursive rolling procedure which detects an additional short episode of 2004:Q4-2005:Q1 in between these dates.

The results from panels (c) and (e) in Figure 3 are consistent with some existing evidence. In particular, the test sequence findings corroborate two general conclusions in the literature. First, Dotsey (1998) argues that, in contrast to previous periods, the information content of the slope of the term structure is not statistically significant for predicting output between the beginning of 1985 and the end of 1997. Second, Kucko and Chinn (2009) find that the overall predictive ability of the yield slope decreased after 1998 (although their measure of real activity is industrial production rather than the output gap) and that this decline in predictability is sustained during the era of zero-lower-bound monetary policy.

This second period of predictability, ending in early 2006, appears to have led to a spate of recent empirical findings that have claimed the slope of the yield curve still provides information about output (Estrella, 2005; Chauvet and Potter, 2005; Ang, Piazzesi, and Wei, 2006; Wright, 2006; Estrella and Trubin, 2006). The sample periods for these studies all picked up the start of the causal episode in 2003. Later studies, by Rudebusch and Williams (2009) and Kauppi and Saikonen (2008), reached a similar conclusion and use sample periods that end in 2006, just as the predictive power of the slope appears to be on the wane. Nonetheless, a finding of significant predictive ability over the entire sample period used in these studies is consistent with the subsample results discovered here.
Of specific interest is the period around August of 2006 when the yield curve became inverted. Although there is a period of strong causality from the slope of the term structure to output immediately prior to 2006, this relationship is seen to decline rapidly. By the summer of 2006 the informational content of the term structure appears to have dissipated and the findings are consistent with Hamilton (2010) who argues that the inverted yield curve over the summer of 2006 was not the immediate precursor of a recession. The confounding factor appears to be the fact that, although the yield curve became inverted at this time, 3-month Treasury Bill rates were low by historical standards and certainly lower than before any of the recessions since 1960. The sharp decline in the Granger causal relationship between the spread and the output gap at this time is consistent with calculations, reported by Hamilton (2010), but produced using Wright’s (2006) model and based on the slope of the yield curve for predicting recessions in real time. This model completely failed to predict the 2008 recession, which accords with the steep fall (evident in panels (c) - (f) of Figure 3 from 2006) in the value of the test statistic sequence for Granger causality running from the spread to the output gap.

5.2 Yield Curve Slope to Inflation

Figure 4 displays the time-varying Wald test statistics for causal effects running from the slope of the yield curve to the inflation gap. The rows again display sequences of tests obtained from forward recursive, rolling window and recursive-rolling procedures, while the columns refer to the different assumptions on the errors (homoskedasticity and heteroskedasticity) of the VAR. The test sequences start from 1991:Q1 as the first 22 observations represent the minimum window size.

From the results presented in Figure 4, there is limited evidence of Granger causality running from the slope of the yield curve to inflation. The forward recursive test suggests that the null hypothesis of no causality can be rejected only for a brief period around 1998, but this result is not supported when heteroskedastic corrections are employed nor is it supported by the rolling and recursive rolling procedures.

There is some evidence of a period of causality over 2005 - 2006, but the explanatory power of the yield curve for inflation over this period is challenging to explain. From the plot of the federal funds rate in Figure 2, it is apparent that the relaxed stance on monetary policy that had been in place since 2003 was giving way to a firmer policy stance as the federal funds rate began a gradual increase. This period corresponds to a flattening of both the inflation rate and the
Figure 4: Tests for Granger causality running from the yield curve slope to the inflation gap. Tests are obtained from a VAR model allowing for homoskedastic errors (panels (a), (c) and (e)) and for heteroskedastic errors (panels (b), (d) and (f)). The sequence of tests for the forward recursive, rolling window and recursive-rolling procedures run from 1991:Q1 to 2013:Q4 with 22 observations for the minimum window size and a fixed lag order 2.
yield curve, a correspondence that may partly explain the findings. Subsequently, accompanying a steepening of the yield curve, there is a sharp rise in the degree of predictability found by both the rolling and recursive rolling tests around 2008-2009 with the latter test suggesting that this pattern is significant.

On the strength of these results there does not appear to be a clearly discernible systematic pattern in the relationship between the slope of the yield curve and inflation, at least over the time period of this study, although the period does seem to be punctuated by some evidence of intermittent causal linkages. Studies of the slope of the yield curve as a significant predictor of inflation generally date to the early 1990s (Mishkin, 1990a; 1990b; 1990c; Jorion and Mishkin, 1991) and include data from the turbulent decades for U.S. inflation of the 1970s and 1980s. After adjusting for the starting window length, the current sample period is entirely in the 1990s and 2000s, which is an unusual period of relatively low and stable inflation. Given the substantial differences in the inflation trajectories between these two periods, the ambivalent empirical results for the recent period may not be that surprising.

6 Conclusion

This paper introduces a recursive rolling testing procedure to detect and date changes in Granger causal relationships. Test sequences and associated supemum statistics are constructed to allow for both homoskedastic and heteroskedastic errors. The asymptotic distributions of the test sequences and sup statistics are obtained, have a simple form that is amenable to computation, and critical values are easily computed. The test procedures are compared to simple recursive testing and to tests based on a rolling window. The simulation findings suggest that the recursive rolling and the rolling window procedures are generally to be preferred to the simple forward recursive testing approach.

These tests are used to investigate causal relationships between the slope of the yield curve and the output gap and inflation with United States data over 1985-2013. The empirical results add to earlier findings in the literature concerning the effects of the yield slope on these macroeconomic variables. Some of these earlier findings are corroborated while others are negated or show considerable sensitivity to the subsample period. In sum, our approach reveals how endogenous detection of switches in causality provides useful insights about the time trajectory of the macroeconomic impact of the yield curve slope.
References


A Appendix A: Limit Theory Under Assumption A1 and A2

We first prove Lemma 3.1 and Proposition 3.1 under Assumptions A0 and A2. The proof for strictly stationary and ergodic sequences \( \varepsilon_t \) (Assumption A1) is standard and therefore omitted.

A.1 Proof of Lemma 3.1

(a) Write the estimation error as

\[
\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2} = \left[ I_n \otimes \sum_{t=[T_{f_2}]} \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t' \right]^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]} \sum_{t=[T_{f_2}]} \xi_t,
\]

and, under A2, \( \{\xi_t, F_t\} \) is a covariance stationary mds with \( \mathbb{E}(\xi_t | F_{t-1}) = 0 \) and \( \sup_t \mathbb{E}(\|\xi_t\|^2) < \infty \), so that \( \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]} \xi_t \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0 \) by a standard martingale strong law. Define \( \hat{Q}_{f_1,f_2} = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]} \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t' \). Then, by a strong law for second order moments of linear processes (Phillips and Solo, 1971, Theorem 3.7), we have \( \hat{Q}_{f_1,f_2} \rightarrow_{a.s.} Q = \mathbb{E}(x_t x_t') > 0 \) and then

\[
\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2} = \left[ I_n \otimes \hat{Q}_{f_1,f_2} \right]^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]} \xi_t \right) \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0,
\]

so that \( \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \rightarrow_{a.s.} \pi_{f_1,f_2} = \pi \) under the maintained null of constant coefficients.
(b) Because \( \hat{\varepsilon}_t = \varepsilon_t - \left( \hat{\pi}'_{f_1,f_2} - \pi'_{f_1,f_2} \right) (I_n \otimes x_t) \), we have

\[
\hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} = \frac{1}{|T_f|} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} \varepsilon_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t' - \frac{2}{|T_f|} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} \varepsilon_t (I_n \otimes x_t)' (\hat{\pi}'_{f_1,f_2} - \pi'_{f_1,f_2})
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{|T_f|} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} (\hat{\pi}'_{f_1,f_2} - \pi'_{f_1,f_2}) (I_n \otimes x_t) (\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \xrightarrow{p} \Omega,
\]

since \( \frac{1}{|T_f|} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} \varepsilon_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t' \xrightarrow{a.s.} \Omega \), \( \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \pi_{f_1,f_2} \), \( \frac{1}{|T_f|} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} \xi_t \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \), and \( \hat{Q}_{f_1,f_2} \xrightarrow{a.s.} Q > 0 \).

(c) Under \( A_2 \) the martingale conditional variance satisfies the strong law

\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} E \left( \xi_t \xi_t' | F_{t-1} \right) = \Omega \otimes \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} x_t x_t' \xrightarrow{a.s.} \Omega \otimes Q > 0,
\]

so that the stability condition for the martingale CLT is satisfied (Phillips and Solo, 1971, Theorem 3.4). Next, we show that the conditional Lindeberg condition holds, so that for every \( \delta > 0 \)

\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} E \left\{ \| \xi_t \|^2 1 \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T_w \delta} \right) | F_{t-1} \right\} \xrightarrow{p} 0. \tag{24}
\]

Let \( A_T = \{ \xi_t : \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T_w \delta} \} \). We have for some \( \alpha \in (0, c/2) \)

\[
E \left[ \| \xi_t \|^2 1 \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T_w \delta} \right) \right] = \int_{A_T} \| \xi_t \|^2 dP \leq \frac{1}{(\sqrt{T_w \delta})^\alpha} \int_{A_T} \| \xi_t \|^{2+\alpha} dP.
\]

Hence,

\[
E \left[ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} E \left\{ \| \xi_t \|^2 1 \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T_w \delta} \right) | F_{t-1} \right\} \right]
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{|T_f|} E \left\{ \| \xi_t \|^2 1 \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T_w \delta} \right) \right\}
\]

\[
\leq T_w^{-\alpha/2} \delta^{-\alpha} \sup_t E \left[ \| \xi_t \|^{2+\alpha} \right] \leq T_w^{-\alpha/2} \delta^{-\alpha/2} K \sup_t E \| \xi_t \|^{4+2\alpha} \to 0
\]

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for some constant $K < \infty$ as $T \to \infty$ since
\[
E \|\xi_t\|^{2+\alpha} = E \|\varepsilon_t \otimes x_t\|^{2+\alpha} = E \left( \|\varepsilon_t\|^{2+\alpha} \|x_t\|^{2+\alpha} \right) \\
\leq K \sup_t E \|\varepsilon_t\|^{4+2\alpha} < \infty,
\]
in view of A2. Hence,
\[
\frac{1}{T^w} \sum_{t=\lfloor Tf_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} E \left\{ \|\xi_t\|^2 \cdot 1 \left( \|\xi_t\| \geq \sqrt{T^w \delta} \right) \big| \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right\} \overset{L^1}{\to} 0,
\]
which ensures that the Lindeberg condition (24) holds.

By the martingale invariance principle for linear processes (Phillips and Solo, 1971, Theorems 3.4), we therefore have for $f_2 > f_1$
\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=\lfloor Tf_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} \xi_t \Rightarrow B(f_2) - B(f_1),
\]
where $B$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $\Omega \otimes Q$. We can rewrite $\sqrt{T} (\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2})$ as
\[
\sqrt{T} (\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) = \left[ I_n \otimes Q_{f_1,f_2} \right]^{-1} \left( \frac{T}{T^w} \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=\lfloor Tf_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor Tf_2 \rfloor} \xi_t \right) \Rightarrow \left[ I_n \otimes Q \right]^{-1} \left[ B(f_2) - B(f_1) \right],
\]
The limit in (25) may be interpreted as a linear functional of the limit process $B(\cdot)$, whose finite dimensional distribution for fixed $f_1$ and $f_2$ is simply $N(0, \Omega \otimes f_w^{-1}Q^{-1})$, so that we have $\sqrt{T} (\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \overset{L^2}{\to} N(0, \Omega \otimes f_w^{-1}Q^{-1})$, as stated.

A.2 Proof of Proposition 3.1

In view of (25), under the null hypothesis we have
\[
\sqrt{T} R \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \Rightarrow R \left[ I_n \otimes Q \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{B(f_2) - B(f_1)}{f_w} \right] = R \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \otimes Q^{-1/2} \right] \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w} \right],
\]
where $W_{nk}$ is vector standard Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_{nk}$. It follows that

$$Z_{f_2} (f_1) := \left[ R \left( \hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} \otimes \left( \sum_{t=1}^{[Tf_2]} x_t x'_t \right)^{-1} \right) \right]^{1/2} R_{\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2}}$$

$$= \left[ R \left( \hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} \otimes \left( \frac{T_w}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tf_2]} x_t x'_t \right)^{-1} \right) \right]^{1/2} \sqrt{T} R_{\hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow f_w^{1/2} \left[ R (\Omega \otimes Q^{-1}) R' \right]^{-1/2} \left[ R [I_n \otimes Q]^{-1} \left( \frac{B(f_2) - B(f_1)}{f_w} \right) \right]$$

$$= \left[ R (\Omega \otimes Q^{-1}) R' \right]^{-1/2} R \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \otimes Q^{-1/2} \right] \left( \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w} \right),$$

whose finite dimensional distribution for fixed $f_1$ and $f_2$ is $N(0, I_d)$. Next, observe that the Wald statistic

$$W_{f_2} (f_1) = Z_{f_2} (f_1)' Z_{f_2} (f_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' \Omega^{1/2} \otimes Q^{-1/2} (\Omega \otimes Q^{-1}) R' \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \otimes Q^{-1/2} \right] \left( \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right)$$

$$= \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' (A'A)^{-1} A' \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right], \text{ with } A_{nk \times d} = \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \otimes Q^{-1/2} \right] R',$$

$$= \left[ \frac{W_d(f_2) - W_d(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d(f_2) - W_d(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right], \text{ (26)}$$

which is a quadratic functional of the limit process $W_d(\cdot)$. The finite dimensional distribution of (26) for fixed $f_1$ and $f_2$ is $\chi_d^2$. It follows by continuous mapping that as $T \to \infty$

$$SW_{f_2} (f_0) \overset{L}{\to} \sup_{f_1 \in [0, f_2 - f_0], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_d(f_2) - W_d(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d(f_2) - W_d(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right],$$

where $W_d$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_d$.

**B Appendix B: Limit Theory Under Assumption A3**

This section provides proofs of Lemma 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 and Proposition 3.2 and 3.3 under A0 and A3.
B.1 Proof of Lemma 3.2

The proof of (a) follows directly from the strong law of large number for martingales (e.g., Hall and Heyde, 1980, theorem 2.19) under \textbf{A3}(i).

For the proof of (b) and (c), we show that for all \( h \geq 0, z > 0 \)
\[
P(\|\varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_{t-h}\| \geq z) = P\left(\|\varepsilon_t\| \|\varepsilon'_{t-h}\| \geq z\right) \\
\leq P\left(\|\varepsilon_t\| \geq z^{1/2}\right) + P\left(\|\varepsilon_{t-h}\| \geq z^{1/2}\right) \\
\leq 2\gamma P\left(\|\varepsilon\|^2 \geq z\right).
\]
The last inequality follows by uniform integrability because \( P(\|\varepsilon_t\| \geq z) \leq \gamma P(\|\varepsilon\| \geq z) \) for each \( z \geq 0, t \geq 1 \) and for some constant \( \gamma \) under \textbf{A3}(i). Therefore, from the martingale strong law we have
\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_{t} \to a.s \Omega \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_{s} \to a.s 0 \quad \text{for} \ s \neq t.
\]
See also Remarks 2.8(i) and (ii) of Phillips and Solo (1971).

For (d), by construction
\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} x_{t-1} \varepsilon'_{t} = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} [\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-1} \cdots \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_{t-p}].
\]
and, from (a), \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} \varepsilon_t \to a.s 0 \). Next consider the product \( y_{t-h} \varepsilon'_{t} \) with \( 1 \leq h \leq p \). Since
\[
y_{t-h} \varepsilon'_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\Phi}_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-i} \end{bmatrix} \varepsilon'_t = \tilde{\Phi}_0 \varepsilon'_t + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-i} \varepsilon'_t,
\]
we have, by absolute summability \( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \|\Psi_i\| < \infty \) and results (a) and (c), that \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} y_{t-h} \varepsilon'_t \to a.s 0 \), giving the required \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} x_{t-1} \varepsilon'_t \to a.s 0 \).

For (e), note that typical block elements of \( x_t x'_t \) have the form \( y_{t-h} y'_{t-h-j} \) and \( y_{t-h} \), so it suffices to calculate the limits of the following sample moments
\[
(i) \quad \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f_1]}^{[T_f_2]} y_{t-h}, \text{ where } 1 \leq h \leq p.
\]

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\[ (ii) \quad \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} y_{t-h} y_{t-h-j}', \text{ where } 1 \leq h \leq p \text{ and } 1 \leq j \leq p - h. \]

Since \( y_{t-h} = \Phi_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \xi_{t-h-i} \) and \( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \| \Psi_i \| < \infty \) by virtue of \( A0 \), it follows that

\[ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} (y_{t-h} - \Phi_0) = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \xi_{t-h-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \left( \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} \xi_{t-h-i} \right) \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0, \]

by results in (a), and

\[ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} (y_{t-h} - \Phi_0) (y_{t-h-j} - \Phi_0)' = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \xi_{t-h-i} \right) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \xi_{t-h-j-i} \right)' \]

\[ \rightarrow_{a.s.} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} \Omega \Psi_i', \]

by results in (b) and (c). Hence,

\[ T^{-1}_w \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} y_{t-h} \rightarrow_{a.s.} \Phi_0, \quad T^{-1}_w \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} y_{t-h} y_{t-h-j} \rightarrow_{a.s.} \Phi_0 \Phi_0' + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} \Omega \Psi_i', \]

giving

\[ T^{-1}_w \sum_{t=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} x_{t-1} x_{t-1}' \rightarrow_{a.s.} Q \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1_p \otimes \Phi_0' & 1_p \otimes \Phi_0 \otimes \Phi_0' + \Theta \end{bmatrix}, \]

with

\[ \Theta = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix} \Psi_i \Omega \Psi_i' & \cdots & \Psi_{i+p-1} \Omega \Psi_i' \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Psi_i \Omega \Psi_{i+p-1}' & \cdots & \Psi_i \Omega \Psi_i' \end{bmatrix}. \]

### B.2 Proof of Lemma 3.3

(a) We show the following conditional Lindeberg condition holds for all \( \delta > 0 \):

\[ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \xi_t \|^2 1 \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T} \delta \right) \right] \rightarrow_{p} 0. \] (27)
Let $A_T = \{ \xi_t : \|\xi_t\| \geq \sqrt{T}\delta \}$. For some $\alpha \in (0, c/2)$ we have
\[
E \left[ \|\xi_t\|^2 \mathbf{1} (\|\xi_t\| \geq \sqrt{T}\delta) \right] = \int_{A_T} \|\xi_t\|^2 dP \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}\delta} \int_{A_T} \|\xi_t\|^{2+\alpha} dP \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}\delta} E \left( \|\xi_t\|^{2+\alpha} \right).
\]
Hence,
\[
E \left\{ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{1} \left( \|\xi_t\| \geq \sqrt{T}\delta \right) \right\} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T E \left[ \|\xi_t\|^2 \mathbf{1} (\|\xi_t\| \geq \sqrt{T}\delta) \big| \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \leq T^{-\alpha/2}\delta^{-\alpha} \sup_t E \left( \|\xi_t\|^{2+\alpha} \right) \leq T^{-\alpha/2}\delta^{-\alpha} K \sup_t E \left( \|\xi_t\|^{4+2\alpha} \right) \to 0,
\]
for some constant $K < \infty$ as $T \to \infty$ since
\[
E \|\xi_t\|^{2+\alpha} = E \|\varepsilon_t \otimes x_t\|^{2+\alpha} \leq E \left( \|\varepsilon_t\|^{2+\alpha} \|x_t\|^{2+\alpha} \right) \leq KE \|\varepsilon\|^{4+2\alpha} < \infty,
\]
in view of $A3(i)$ and the stability condition $A0$ which ensures that $\|x_t\| \leq A \sum_{i=0}^\infty \theta^i \|\varepsilon_{t-i}\|$ for some constant $A$ and $|\theta| < 1$. Then (27) holds by $L_1$ convergence.

(b) The stability condition involves the convergences
\[
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \xi_t \xi'_t, \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \xi_t \xi'_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \to a.s \ W. \quad (28)
\]
By $A3(i)$ and $A0$, we have $E \left\{ \|\xi_t \xi'_t\|^{1+\delta} \right\} = E \left\{ \|\varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t\|^{1+\delta} \|x_t x'_t\|^{1+\delta} \right\} \leq KE \|\varepsilon\|^{4+4\delta} < \infty$ for some finite $K > 0$ and $\delta < c/4$. Then, by the martingale strong law (Hall and Heyde, 1980, theorem 2.19) we have $T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \left\{ \xi_t \xi'_t - E (\xi_t \xi'_t | F_{t-1}) \right\} \to a.s 0$, where the limit
\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T E (\xi_t \xi'_t | F_{t-1}) = W, \quad (29)
\]
may be obtained by an explicit calculation using $A3(ii)$ and (iii). By definition, we have
\[
\xi_t \xi'_t = \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t \otimes x_t x'_t = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 t x_t x'_t & \cdots & \varepsilon_1 t x_t x'_t \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \varepsilon_1 t x_t x'_t & \cdots & \varepsilon_1 t x_t x'_t \\ \varepsilon_n t x_t x'_t & \cdots & \varepsilon_n t x_t x'_t \end{bmatrix},
\]
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and we now calculate \( \lim_{T \to \infty} T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 \xi_t \xi_t' | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \). The other limits can be computed in the same way. The leading block submatrix of \( \xi_t \xi_t' \) is
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\epsilon_{1,t}^2 & \epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-1}' & \cdots & \epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-p}' \\
\epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-1} & \epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-1}' & \cdots & \epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-1-p}' \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-p} & \epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-p}' & \cdots & \epsilon_{1,t}Y_{t-p}'
\end{bmatrix}
\]

First, by the same martingale strong law we have \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \{ \epsilon_{1,t}^2 - \mathbb{E}(\epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \} \to a.s 0 \) and from Lemma 3.2(b) \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \epsilon_{1,t}^2 \to a.s \Omega_{11} \), with \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E}(\epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \to a.s \Omega_{11} \) from A3(ii).

To obtain the limit of \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E}(\epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \), we note that
\[
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 \left( y_{t-1} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \left( y_{t-1} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \\
= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-1-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \left[ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \varepsilon_{t-1-i} \right] \\
\to a.s 0,
\]
from Assumption A3(iii) and A0. It follows that
\[
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 y_{t-1} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \to a.s \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \text{ and } \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E}(\epsilon_{1,t}^2 y_{t-1}' | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \to a.s \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0'.
\]

Similarly, to obtain the limit of \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 y_{t-h} y_{t-h-j} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \), we observe that
\[
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[ \epsilon_{1,t}^2 \left( y_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \left( y_{t-h-j} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right)' | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \\
= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-i} \right) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-j-i} \right) \\
= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \epsilon_{1,t}^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-j-i} \varepsilon_{t-h-j-i} + o_p(1) \times 11' \\
= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i + o_p(1) \times 11'
\]
\[ \rightarrow_{a.s} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} \Omega_{11} \Omega \Psi'_i, \]

from Assumption \textbf{A3}(iii) and \textbf{A0}. We deduce that

\[ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[ \varepsilon^2_{1,t} y_{t-h} y'_{t-h-j} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \rightarrow_{a.s} \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} \Omega_{11} \Omega \Psi'_i. \]

Therefore, we obtain

\[ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left( \varepsilon^2_{1,t} x_i x'_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \rightarrow_{a.s} \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{11} & \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_0 & \cdots & \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_i \\ \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 & \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+1} \Omega_{11} \Omega \Psi'_i & \cdots & \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_i \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 & \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+1} \Omega_{11} \Omega \Psi'_i & \cdots & \Omega_{11} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_i \end{bmatrix} + \Xi(i,j), \]

with similar calculations for the other components of the matrix partition, leading to the stability condition (29), with \( \mathbf{W} = \{ \mathbf{W}^{(i,j)} \}_{i,j \in [1,n]} \) defined in terms of the component matrix partitions

\[ \mathbf{W}^{(i,j)} = \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{ij} & \mathbf{1}_p \otimes \Omega_{ij} \tilde{\Phi}_0 & \Psi_{i+1} \Omega_{ij} \Omega \Psi'_i \\ \mathbf{1}_p \otimes \Omega_{ij} \tilde{\Phi}_0 & \mathbf{1}_p \otimes \Omega_{ij} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \Psi'_0 + \Xi(i,j) & \cdots & \cdots \end{bmatrix}, \]

and

\[ \Xi(i,j) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix} \Psi_{i+1} \Omega_{ij} \Omega \Psi'_i \\ \vdots \\ \Psi_{i+1} \Omega_{ij} \Omega \Psi'_i \end{bmatrix}. \]

**B.3 Proof of Lemma 3.4**

(a) By definition, we have

\[ \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2} = \mathbf{I}_n \otimes \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} x_i x'_t \left( \frac{\sqrt{T} - 1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \xi_t \right) \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0, \]

from Lemma 3.2(e) and (21).
(b) Using $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t = \varepsilon_t - \left( \tilde{\pi}'_{f_1,f_2} - \pi'_{f_1,f_2} \right) (I_n \otimes x_t)$, we have

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \tilde{\varepsilon}_t \tilde{\varepsilon}'_t = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t - \frac{2}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t (I \otimes x_t)' (\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2})
$$

$$
+ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \left( \tilde{\pi}'_{f_1,f_2} - \pi'_{f_1,f_2} \right) (I \otimes x_t) (\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \to_{a.s.} \Omega,
$$

since $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t \to_{a.s.} \Omega$ from Lemma 3.2(b), $\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \to_{a.s.} \pi_{f_1,f_2}$, $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \to_{a.s.} 0$, and $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} x_t x'_t \to_{a.s.} Q > 0$.

(c) The scaled and centred estimation error process is

$$
\sqrt{T_w} (\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) = \left[ I_n \otimes \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} x_t x'_t \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{T}}{\sqrt{T_w}} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \right]
$$

$$
\Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} V^{-1} \left[ B (f_2) - B (f_1) \right],
$$

whose finite dimensional distribution for fixed $(f_1, f_2)$ is $\sqrt{T_w} (\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \overset{L}{\to} N \left( 0, V^{-1} W V^{-1} \right)$, where $V = I_n \otimes Q$.

(d) By definition,

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \tilde{\varepsilon}_t \tilde{\varepsilon}'_t = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} (\varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t \otimes x_t x'_t)
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t \otimes x_t x'_t - \frac{2}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t (I \otimes x_t)' (\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \otimes x_t x'_t
$$

$$
+ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \left( \tilde{\pi}'_{f_1,f_2} - \pi'_{f_1,f_2} \right) (I \otimes x_t) (\tilde{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} - \pi_{f_1,f_2}) \otimes x_t x'_t
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lfloor T f_1 \rfloor}^{\lfloor T f_2 \rfloor} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon'_t + o_p (1) \to_{a.s.} W.
$$

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from Lemma 3.2(d) and (e), Lemma 3.4(a), and Lemma 3.3(b).

**B.4 Proof of Proposition 3.2**

In view of Lemma 3.4(c), under the null hypothesis we have

\[
\sqrt{T_w} R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} R V^{-1} [B (f_2) - B (f_1)]
\]

\[
= f_w^{-1/2} R V^{-1} W^{1/2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)] ,
\]

where \(W_{nk}\) is vector standard Brownian motion with covariance matrix \(I_{nk}\). It follows that

\[
Z_{f_2}^* (f_1) := \left[ R \left( \hat{V}_{f_1, f_2} \hat{W}_{f_1, f_2} \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \right) R' \right]^{-1/2} \left( \sqrt{T_w} R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \right)
\]

\[
\Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \left[ R \left( V^{-1} W V^{-1} \right) R' \right]^{-1/2} R V^{-1} W^{1/2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)] .
\]

Observe that the Wald statistic process

\[
W_{f_2}^* (f_1) = Z_{f_2}^* (f_1)' Z_{f_2}^* (f_1)
\]

\[
\Rightarrow f_w^{-1} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)]' A (A' A)^{-1} A' [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)]
\]

\[
= d f_w^{-1} [W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)]' [W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)],
\]

with \(A = W^{1/2} V^{-1} R'\), whose finite dimensional distribution for fixed \((f_1, f_2)\) is \(\chi^2_d\). It follows by continuous mapping that as \(T \to \infty\)

\[
SW_{f_2}^* (f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_1 \in [0, f_2 - f_0], f_2 = f} \left[ W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1) \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right] \left[ \frac{W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right]'
\]

\[
= \sup_{f_w \in [f_0, f_2], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_d (f_w)'}{f_w} \right]' \left[ \frac{W_d (f_w)}{f_w} \right],
\]

where \(W_d\) is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix \(I_d\).

**B.5 Proof of Proposition 3.3**

In view of Lemma 3.4(c), under the null hypothesis we have

\[
\sqrt{T_w} R \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} R V^{-1} [B (f_2) - B (f_1)]
\]

\[
= f_w^{-1/2} R V^{-1} W^{1/2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)] ,
\]

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where $W_{nk}$ is vector standard Brownian motion with covariance matrix $I_{nk}$. It follows that

$$Z_{f_2}(f_1) := \left[ R \left( \hat{\Omega}_{f_1,f_2} \otimes \hat{Q}_{f_1,f_2} \right)^{-1} R' \right]^{-1/2} \left( \sqrt{T_w} R \hat{\pi}_{f_1,f_2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \left[ R \left( \Omega \otimes Q \right)^{-1} R' \right]^{-1/2} RV^{-1/2} \left[ W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1) \right].$$

Next, observe that the Wald statistic process

$$W_{f_2}(f_1) = Z_{f_2}(f_1)' Z_{f_2}(f_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right] AB^{-1} A' \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right],$$

with $A = W^{1/2} V^{-1} R'$ and $B = R \left( \Omega \otimes Q \right) R'$. It follows by continuous mapping that as $T \to \infty$

$$SW_{f_2}(f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_1 \in [0,f_2-f_0], f_2 = f} \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right] AB^{-1} A' \left[ \frac{W_{nk}(f_2) - W_{nk}(f_1)}{f_w^{1/2}} \right],$$

giving the required result.

### Appendix C: Limit Theory Under Assumptions A4 and A5

In this section, we prove Lemma 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 and Proposition 3.4 allowing for unconditional heterogeneity in the errors under A0, A4 and A5.

#### C.1 Proof of Lemma 3.5

(a) Under A4, by the martingale strong law and covariance stationarity of $\{u_t\}$, we have

$$\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} u_t \to_{a.s.} \mathbb{E}(u_t) = 0 \quad (30)$$

$$\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} u_t u'_t \to_{a.s.} \mathbb{E}(u_t u'_t) = I_n \quad (31)$$

$$\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} u_t u'_s \to_{a.s.} \mathbb{E}(u_t u'_s) = 0 \text{ for } s \neq t, \quad (32)$$
where the results hold for every subsample involving sample fractions $f_1, f_2 \in [0, 1]$ with $f_1 < f_2$. Further, since $G(\cdot)$ is uniformly bounded and $u_t$ is strongly uniformly integrable under A5 we have, for small $\delta > 0$,

$$\sup_t \mathbb{E} \|\varepsilon_t\|^{1+\delta} \leq \sup_t \|G(t/T)\|^{1+\delta} \sup_t \mathbb{E} \|u_t\|^{1+\delta} < \infty$$

and then $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \varepsilon_t \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0$, again by the martingale strong law and for all fractions $f_1 < f_2$.

(b) The subsample second moment matrix of $\varepsilon_t$ satisfies

$$\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} G(t/T) u_t u_t' G(t/T)'$$

$$= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} G(t/T) \mathbb{E}(u_t u_t') G(t/T)' + \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} G(t/T) \{u_t u_t' - \mathbb{E}(u_t u_t')\} G(t/T)'$$

$$\rightarrow_{a.s.} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} G(r) G(r)' dr,$$

since $\mathbb{E}(u_t u_t') = I_n$, $T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} G(t/T) G(t/T)' = \int_{[T_{f_1}]/T}^{([T_{f_2}]+1)/T} G(r) G(r)' dr + o(1) \rightarrow \int_{f_1}^{f_2} G(r) G(r)' dr$, and

$$\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} G(t/T) \{u_t u_t' - I_n\} G(t/T)' \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0,$$

again by the martingale strong law because

$$\sup_t \mathbb{E} \|G(t/T) \{u_t u_t' - I_n\} G(t/T)\|^{1+\delta} \leq \sup_t \|G(t/T)\|^{2+2\delta} \sup_t \mathbb{E} \|u_t u_t' - I_n\|^{1+\delta} < \infty,$$

for all small $\delta > 0$ in view of A5(i) and the strong uniform integrability of $\|u_t\|^4$.

(c) Using $\mathbb{E}(u_{t-h-j-i} u_{t-h-j-q}') = I_n \delta_{iq}$ where $\delta_{iq} = 1 \{i = q\}$ is the Kronecker delta, we have

$$\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \left( y_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \left( y_{t-h-j} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right)' = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-i} \right) \left( \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \Psi_q \varepsilon_{t-h-j-q} \right)'$$

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\[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} G \left( \frac{t-h-j-i}{T} \right) G \left( \frac{t-h-j-i}{T} \right) \Psi'_i \]

Further,

\[\sum_{i=0}^{S} \Psi_{i+j} G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) \Psi'_i + \sum_{i=S+1}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) \Psi'_i \]

where \( S > 0 \) such that \( \frac{S}{T} + \frac{1}{S} \to 0 \). The first term (33) satisfies

\[\sum_{i=0}^{S} \Psi_{i+j} G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) \Psi'_i \to_{a.s.} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} G \left( r \right) G \left( r \right) \Psi'_i,\]

and the second term (34) tends to zero because \( \| \Psi_i \| < C\theta^i \) with \( \theta < 1 \), which gives

\[\sum_{i=S+1}^{\infty} \| \Psi_{i+j} G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) G \left( \frac{[rT]-h-j-i}{T} \right) \Psi'_i \| \leq C^2\theta^j \sum_{i=S+1}^{\infty} \theta^{2i} \to 0,\]

since \( G \) is uniformly bounded, \( \sum_{i,q=0}^{\infty} \| \Psi_{i+j} \| \| \Psi'_q \| < \infty \) uniformly in \( j \) by virtue of \( A0 \), and by the martingale strong law

\[\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{i=[Tf_1]}^{[Tf_2]} \{ u_{i-h-j-i} u'_{i-h-j-q} - I_n \delta_{iq} \} \to_{a.s.} 0.\]
as \( T, S \to \infty \). Thus, we have
\[
\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} G \left( \frac{[rT] - h - j - i}{T} \right) G \left( \frac{[rT] - h - j - i}{T} \right) \Psi_i' \to_{a.s} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} G(r) G(r) \Psi_i',
\]
and hence
\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} \left( y_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \left( y_{t-h-j} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \to_{a.s} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} G(r) G(r) \Psi_i' dr,
\]
as stated.

(c) We need to show \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} \epsilon_t \to a.s 0 \). It suffices to show that \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} \epsilon_t \to a.s 0 \), which holds by (a), and \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} y_{t-h} \to a.s 0 \) for \( 1 \leq h \leq p \). Under A0, \( y_{t-h} \to (\tilde{\Phi}_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \epsilon_{t-h-i}) \epsilon_t \) and \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \epsilon_t \to a.s 0 \) holds by (a). Next,
\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \epsilon_{t-h-i} \epsilon_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \left( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} \epsilon_{t-h-i} \epsilon_t \right) \to_{a.s} 0,
\]
by the martingale strong law since \( \epsilon_t = G(t/T) u_t \), \( G \) is uniformly bounded, \( h \geq 1 \), and \( u_{t-h-i} u_t \) is strongly uniformly integrable with dominating random variable \( u \) satisfying \( \mathbb{E} \| u_t \|^{4+c} < \infty \) by A5(i). It follows that \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} x_{t-1} \epsilon_t' \to a.s 0 \), as required.

(d) We know that
\[
x_t x_t' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & y_{t-1}' & \cdots & y_{t-p}' \\ y_{t-1} & y_{t-1}y_{t-1}' & \cdots & y_{t-1}y_{t-p}' \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{t-p} & y_{t-p}y_{t-1}' & \cdots & y_{t-p}y_{t-p}' \end{bmatrix}.
\]

In order to prove the statement, we have to calculate the following limits for \( 1 \leq h \leq p \):

(i) \( \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} y_{t-h} \); (ii) \( \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_f]}^{[T_{f2}]} y_{t-h}y_{t-h-j} \), for \( 1 \leq j \leq p - h \).
Since $y_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-i}$, it follows that

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} \left( y_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \varepsilon_{t-h-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \left( \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} \varepsilon_{t-h-i} \right) \to_{a.s} 0
$$

by (a); and from (c),

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} \left( y_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \left( y_{t-h-j} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right)' \to_{a.s} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i+j \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i' dr.
$$

Thus

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} y_{t-h} \to_{a.s} \tilde{\Phi}_0, \quad \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} y_{t-h} y_{t-h-j} \to_{a.s} \tilde{\Phi}_0 \tilde{\Phi}_0' + \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i+j \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i' dr;
$$

so that

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=\lceil Tf_1 \rceil}^{\lceil Tf_2 \rceil} \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t' \to_{a.s} \mathbf{Q}_{f_1, f_2} = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
1 \\
1_p \otimes \tilde{\Phi}_0 \\
1_p \otimes \tilde{\Phi}_0' + \Theta_{f_1, f_2}
\end{array} \right],
$$

where

$$
\Theta_{f_1, f_2} = \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix}
\Psi_i \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i' \\
\vdots \\
\Psi_i \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i' \\
\vdots \\
\Psi_i \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i' \\
\vdots \\
\Psi_i \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i' \\
\vdots \\
\Psi_i \mathbf{G} (r) \mathbf{G} (r)' \Psi_i'
\end{bmatrix} dr.
$$

### C.2 Proof of Lemma 3.6

(a) We proceed as in the proof of lemma 3.3, showing the conditional Lindeberg condition holds

$$
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \xi_t \|^2 \mathbf{1} \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T} \delta \right) | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \overset{p}{\to} 0 \text{ for all } \delta > 0
$$

Let $A_T = \left\{ \xi_t : \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T} \delta \right\}$. We have for some $\alpha \in (0, c/2)$

$$
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| \xi_t \|^2 \mathbf{1} \left( \| \xi_t \| \geq \sqrt{T} \delta \right) \right] = \int_{A_T} \| \xi_t \|^2 dP \leq \frac{1}{(\sqrt{T} \delta)^\alpha} \int_{A_T} \| \xi_t \|^{2+\alpha} dP \leq \frac{1}{(\sqrt{T} \delta)^\alpha} \mathbb{E} \left( \| \xi_t \|^{2+\alpha} \right).
$$
Hence,

\[
\mathbb{E}\left\{ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E}\left[ \left\| \xi_t \right\|^2 \mathbf{1}\left( \left\| \xi_t \right\| \geq \sqrt{T} \delta \right) \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{E}\left[ \left\| \xi_t \right\|^2 \mathbf{1}\left( \left\| \xi_t \right\| \geq \sqrt{T} \delta \right) \right]
\]

\[
\leq T^{-\alpha/2} \delta^{-\alpha} \sup_t \mathbb{E}\left( \left\| \xi_t \right\|^{2+\alpha} \right) \leq T^{-\alpha/2} \delta^{-\alpha} K \sup_t \mathbb{E}\left( \left\| \epsilon_t \right\|^{4+2\alpha} \right) \to 0,
\]

for some constant \( K < \infty \) as \( T \to \infty \) since

\[
\mathbb{E}\left( \left\| \xi_t \right\|^{2+\alpha} \right) = \mathbb{E}\left( \left\| \epsilon_t \otimes x_{t-1} \right\|^{2+\alpha} \right) \leq K \sup_t \mathbb{G}(r)^{4+2\alpha} \mathbb{E}\left( \left\| u \right\|^{4+2\alpha} \right) < \infty,
\]

in view of \( \text{A5}(i) \) and \( \text{A0} \). Hence, (35) follows.

(b) Again we follow the proof of Lemma 3.3. The stability condition involves the convergences

\[
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \xi_t \xi'_t \to \text{a.s.} \ W.
\]

By \( \text{A5}(i) \) and \( \text{A0} \), we have \( \mathbb{E}\left\{ \left\| \xi_t \right\|^2 \right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{ \left| \epsilon_t \otimes x_{t-1} \right|^{2+\delta} \right\} \leq K \mathbb{E}\left( \left\| \epsilon \right\|^{4+4\delta} \right) < \infty \) for some finite \( K > 0 \) and \( \delta < c/4 \). Then, by the martingale strong law (Hall and Heyde, 1980, theorem 2.19) we have \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \{ \xi_t \xi'_t \mid - \mathbb{E}(\xi_t \xi'_t) \} \to \text{a.s.} 0 \), where the limit

\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} \mathbb{E}\left( \xi_t \xi'_t \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) = W,
\]

may be obtained by an explicit calculation using \( \text{A5}(ii) \) and \( \text{A0}(iii) \). Again, by definition,

\[
\xi_t \xi'_t = (\epsilon_t \epsilon'_t) \otimes (x_t x'_t) = \begin{bmatrix}
\epsilon^2_{1,t} x_t x'_t & \cdots & \epsilon_{1,t} \epsilon_{n,t} x_t x'_t \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\epsilon_{1,t} \epsilon_{n,t} x_t x'_t & \cdots & \epsilon^2_{n,t} x_t x'_t
\end{bmatrix}_{nk \times nk}.
\]

We calculate \( \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=T_{f_1}}^{T} \mathbb{E}\left( \epsilon^2_{1,t} x_{t-1} x'_t \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \) and the other limits in probability are
computed in the same way. We have

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{1,t}^2 \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' \\
\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{1,t}^2 \mathbf{Y}_{t-1} \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{1,t}^2 \mathbf{Y}_{t-p} \\
\end{bmatrix}_{k \times k}
$$

Write $\mathbf{G} = (g_{ij})$ and then from lemma 3.5(b)

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left( \frac{\varepsilon_{1,t}^2}{|F_{t-1}|} \right) = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{1q} \left( t/T \right) u_{jt} \right)^2 \right] \\
= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{1q}^2 \left( t/T \right) \mathbb{E} \left( u_{qt}^2 \right) \left( \mathbb{E} \left( |F_{t-1}| \right) \right) \\
\rightarrow_{a.s.} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{1q}^2 \left( r \right) dr.
$$

Next,

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{\varepsilon_{1,t}^2}{|F_{t-1}|} \left( \mathbf{y}_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \right] = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left( \varepsilon_{1,t}^2 \left| F_{t-1} \right. \right) \left( \mathbf{y}_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \\
= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_i \left[ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left( \varepsilon_{1,t}^2 \left| F_{t-1} \right. \right) \varepsilon_{t-h-i} \right] \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0,
$$

because $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \|\Psi_i\| < \infty$ and

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left( \varepsilon_{1,t}^2 \left| F_{t-1} \right. \right) \varepsilon_{t-h-i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} g_{1j}^2 \left( t/T \right) \mathbf{G} \left( \frac{t-h-i}{T} \right) \mathbf{u}_{t-h-i} \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0,
$$

by the martingale strong law using A5(i) and uniform boundedness of the elements of $\mathbf{G}$. It follows that

$$
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t = [T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \mathbb{E} \left[ \varepsilon_{1,t}^2 \mathbf{y}_{t-h} \left| F_{t-1} \right. \right] \rightarrow_{a.s.} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{1q}^2 \left( r \right) dr \tilde{\Phi}_0.
$$
To evaluate \( \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \mathbb{E} \left( \xi^2_{t, t} \mathbf{y}_{t-h} \mathbf{y}'_{t-h-j} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right) \), we consider

\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \mathbb{E} \left[ \xi^2_{t, t} \left( \mathbf{y}_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \left( \mathbf{y}_{t-h-j} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right)' \right]_{\mathcal{F}_{t-1}}
\]

\[
= \sum_{q=1}^{n} g^2_{1q}(r) \left( \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \left( \mathbf{y}_{t-h} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right) \left( \mathbf{y}_{t-h-j} - \tilde{\Phi}_0 \right)' \right)_{\mathcal{F}_{t-1}}
\]

\[
\rightarrow_{a.s.} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g^2_{1q}(r) \mathbf{G}(r) \mathbf{G}(r)' \, dr \Psi_i,
\]

which follows from Lemma 3.5(c). Thus,

\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \mathbb{E} \left[ \xi^2_{t, t} \mathbf{y}_{t-h} \mathbf{y}'_{t-h-j} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \rightarrow_{a.s.} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g^2_{1q}(r) \, dr \tilde{\Phi}_0 \tilde{\Phi}_0' + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Psi_{i+j} \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g^2_{1q}(r) \mathbf{G}(r) \mathbf{G}(r)' \, dr \Psi_i,
\]

and we have \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \xi_t \xi_t' \rightarrow_{a.s.} \mathbf{W}_{f_1, f_2} \), where \( \mathbf{W}_{f_1, f_2} = \left\{ \mathbf{W}_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \right\} \)

with

\[
\mathbf{W}_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} = \left[ \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{iq}(r) g_{jq}(r) \, dr, 1_p \otimes \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{iq}(r) g_{jq}(r) \, dr \tilde{\Phi}_0' \right]
\]

and

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \Psi_i' & \cdots & \Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \Psi_i' \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \Psi_i' & \cdots & \Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \Psi_i' \\ \Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \Psi_i' & \cdots & \Psi_i \Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} \Psi_i' \end{array} \right],
\]

\[
\Lambda_{f_1, f_2}^{(i,j)} = \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \sum_{q=1}^{n} g_{iq}(r) g_{jq}(r) \mathbf{G}(r) \mathbf{G}(r)' \, dr.
\]

C.3  Proof of Lemma 3.7

(a) As earlier,

\[
\bar{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2} = \left[ I_n \otimes \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1} \left[ \sqrt{T} \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T f_1]}^{[T f_2]} \xi_t \right] \rightarrow_{a.s.} 0,
\]

using Lemma 3.5(e) and (21).
(b) Using \( \xi_t = \varepsilon_t - \left( \hat{\pi}'_{f_1, f_2} - \pi'_{f_1, f_2} \right) (I_n \otimes x_t) \), we have

\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \hat{\xi}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \varepsilon_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t - \frac{2}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} (I \otimes x_t)' (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2})
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} (\hat{\pi}'_{f_1, f_2} - \pi'_{f_1, f_2}) (I \otimes x_t) ' (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2}) \to a.s. \Omega_{f_1, f_2},
\]

since \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' \to a.s. \Omega_{f_1, f_2} \) from Lemma 3.5(b), \( \hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} \to a.s. \pi_{f_1, f_2} \), \( T^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \xi_t \to a.s. \), and \( T_w^{-1} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} x_t x_t' \to a.s. \Omega_{f_1, f_2} > 0 \).

(c) Write the centred and scaled process \( \sqrt{T_w} (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2}) \) as

\[
\left[ I_n \otimes \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} x_t x_t' \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{T}}{\sqrt{T_w}} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \xi_t \right] \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} V_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} [B^* (f_2) - B^* (f_1)],
\]

whose finite dimensional distribution for fixed \((f_1, f_2)\) is \( \sqrt{T_w} (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2}) \overset{L}{\to} N \left( 0, V_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} W_{f_1, f_2} V_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} \right) \),

where \( V_{f_1, f_2} = I_n \otimes \Omega_{f_1, f_2} \).

(d) By definition,

\[
\frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \hat{\xi}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t = \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} (\hat{\xi}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t' \otimes x_t x_t')
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \varepsilon_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t - \frac{2}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} (I \otimes x_t)' (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2}) (I \otimes x_t)
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} (\hat{\pi}'_{f_1, f_2} - \pi'_{f_1, f_2}) (I \otimes x_t) ' (\hat{\pi}_{f_1, f_2} - \pi_{f_1, f_2}) \otimes x_t x_t'
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T_w} \sum_{t=[T_{f_1}]}^{[T_{f_2}]} \xi_t \xi_t' + o_p (1) 11' \to a.s. W_{f_1, f_2},
\]

from Lemma 3.5(d) and (e), Lemma 3.7(a), and Lemma 3.6(b).
C.4 Proof of Proposition 4

In view of Lemma 3.7(c), under the null hypothesis we have

\[ \sqrt{T_w} \mathbf{R} \tilde{f}_{1,f_2} \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} [B^* (f_2) - B^* (f_1)] \]

\[ = f_w^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1/2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)], \]

where \( B^* \) is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix \( \mathbf{W}_{f_1,f_2} \) and \( W_{nk} \) is vector standard Brownian motion with covariance matrix \( \mathbf{I}_{nk} \). It follows that

\[ Z^*_f (f_1) := \mathbf{R} \left( \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{f_1,f_2} \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{f_1,f_2} \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \right) \mathbf{R}^{-1/2} \left( \sqrt{T_w} \mathbf{R} \tilde{f}_{1,f_2} \right) \]

\[ \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \left( \mathbf{R} \left( \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{W}_{f_1,f_2} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{R} \right) \right)^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{W}_{f_1,f_2}^{1/2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)]. \]

The Wald statistic process is

\[ W^*_f (f_1) = Z^*_f (f_1)' Z^*_f (f_1) \]

\[ \Rightarrow f_w^{-1} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)]' \mathbf{A}_{f_1,f_2} (A_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} A_{f_1,f_2}^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{f_1,f_2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)] \]

\[ = d f_w^{-1} [W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)]' [W_d (f_2) - W_d (f_1)], \]

with \( \mathbf{A}_{f_1,f_2} = \mathbf{W}_{f_1,f_2}^{1/2} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{R} \), whose finite dimensional distribution for fixed \( f_1 \) and \( f_2 \) is \( \chi^2_d \). It follows by continuous mapping that as \( T \to \infty \)

\[ SW^*_f (f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_1 \in [0,f_2-f_0], f_2=f} \left[ \frac{W_d (f_w)' W_d (f_w)}{f_w} \right], \]

where \( W_d \) is vector standard Brownian motion with covariance matrix \( \mathbf{I}_d \).

C.5 Proof of Proposition 5

In view of Lemma 3.7(c), under the null hypothesis we have the limit process

\[ \sqrt{T_w} \mathbf{R} \tilde{f}_{1,f_2} \Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1} [B^* (f_2) - B^* (f_1)] \]

\[ = f_w^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{V}_{f_1,f_2}^{-1/2} \mathbf{W}_{f_1,f_2}^{1/2} [W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1)], \]

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where $\mathbf{B}^\ast$ is vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $\mathbf{W}_{f_1, f_2}$ and $W_{nk}$ is vector standard Brownian motion with covariance matrix $\mathbf{I}_{nk}$. It follows that

$$
Z_{f_2} (f_1) := \left[ \mathbf{R} \left( \mathbf{\hat{\Omega}}_{f_1, f_2} \otimes \mathbf{\hat{Q}}_{f_1, f_2} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{R}' \right]^{-1/2} \left( \sqrt{T_w} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{\hat{\pi}}_{f_1, f_2} \right)
$$

$$
\Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \left[ \mathbf{R} \left( \mathbf{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2} \otimes \mathbf{Q}_{f_1, f_2} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{R}' \right]^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{V}_{f_1, f_2}^{1/2} \left[ W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1) \right].
$$

The Wald statistic process

$$
W_{f_2} (f_1) = Z_{f_2} (f_1)' Z_{f_2} (f_1)
$$

$$
\Rightarrow f_w^{-1/2} \left[ W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1) \right]' \mathbf{A}_{f_1, f_2} \mathbf{B}_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{f_1, f_2}' \left[ W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1) \right],
$$

with $\mathbf{A}_{f_1, f_2} = \mathbf{W}_{f_1, f_2}^{1/2} \mathbf{V}_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{R}'$ and $\mathbf{B}_{f_1, f_2} = \mathbf{R} \left( \mathbf{\Omega}_{f_1, f_2} \otimes \mathbf{Q}_{f_1, f_2} \right) \mathbf{R}$. It follows by continuous mapping that as $T \to \infty$

$$
SW_{f_2} (f_0) \xrightarrow{L} \sup_{f_1 \in [0, f_2 - f_0], f_2 = f} \left\{ \left[ W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1) \right]' \right\}^{-1/2} \mathbf{A}_{f_1, f_2} \mathbf{B}_{f_1, f_2}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{f_1, f_2}' \left[ W_{nk} (f_2) - W_{nk} (f_1) \right].
$$

### D Appendix D: Robustness Checks

This Appendix conducts a sensitivity analysis to check the robustness of the results to selection of the minimum window size and to lag order selection. Results are shown in In Figures 5-6. For panels (a), (c), and (e), we use a minimum window size of $f_0 = 0.3$ (instead of 0.2), with a fixed lag order of 2 (selected from applying BIC to the whole sample period). For results in panels (b),(d) and (f), BIC lag order selection was employed in each subsample and the minimum window size $f_0$ is set to 0.2.
Figure 5: The sequence of test statistics for Granger causality running from the yield curve slope to the output gap. Tests are obtained from a VAR model with a fixed lag order 2 and a minimum window size of 33 (panels (a), (c) and (e)) and for optimal lag orders selected by the BIC for each sub-sample and a minimum window size of 22 (panels (b), (d) and (f)).
Figure 6: Tests for Granger causality running from the yield curve slope to the inflation gap. Tests are obtained from a VAR model with a fixed lag order 2 and a minimum window size of 33 (panels (a), (c) and (e)) and for optimal lag orders selected by the BIC for each sub-sample and a minimum window size of 22 observations (panels (b), (d) and (f)).