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Abstract

This paper develops bootstrap methods for testing whether, in a finite sample, competing out-of-sample forecasts from nested models are equally accurate. Most prior work on forecast tests for nested models has focused on a null hypothesis of equal accuracy in population — basically, whether coefficients on the extra variables in the larger, nesting model are zero. We instead use an asymptotic approximation that treats the coefficients as non-zero but small, such that, in a finite sample, forecasts from the small model are expected to be as accurate as forecasts from the large model. Under that approximation, we derive the limiting distributions of pairwise tests of equal mean square error, and develop bootstrap methods for estimating critical values. Monte Carlo experiments show that our proposed procedures have good size and power properties for the null of equal finite-sample forecast accuracy. We illustrate the use of the procedures with applications to forecasting stock returns and inflation.

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Keywords: mean square error, prediction, reality check

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1 Introduction

In this paper we examine the asymptotic and finite-sample properties of bootstrap-based tests of equal accuracy of out-of-sample forecasts from a baseline nested model and an alternative nesting model. In our analysis, we address two forms of the null hypothesis of equal predictive ability. One hypothesis, considered in Clark and McCracken (2001, 2005) and McCracken (2007), is that the models have equal population-level predictive ability. This situation arises when the coefficients associated with the additional predictors in the nesting model are zero and hence at the population level, the forecast errors are identical and thus the models have equal predictive ability.

However, this paper focuses on a different null hypothesis, one that arises when some of the additional predictors have non-zero coefficients associated with them, but the marginal predictive content is small. In this case, addressed in Trenkler and Toutenberg (1992), Hjalmarsson (2006) and Clark and McCracken (2009), the two models can have equal predictive ability at a fixed forecast origin (say time T) due to a bias-variance trade-off between a more accurately estimated, but misspecified, nested model and a correctly specified, but imprecisely estimated, nesting model. Building upon this insight, we derive the asymptotic distributions associated with standard out-of-sample tests of equal predictive ability between estimated models with weak predictors. We then evaluate various bootstrap-based methods for imposing the null of equal predictive ability upon these distributions and conducting asymptotically valid inference. In our results, the forecast models may be estimated either recursively or with a rolling sample. Giacomini and White (2006) use a different asymptotic approximation to testing equal forecast accuracy in a given sample, but their asymptotics apply only to models estimated with a rolling window of fixed and finite width.

Our approach to modeling weak predictors is identical to the standard Pitman drift used to analyze the power of in-sample tests against small deviations from the null of equal population-level predictive ability. It has also been used by Inoue and Kilian (2004) in the context of analyzing the power of out-of-sample tests. In that sense, some (though not all) of our analytical results are quite similar to those in Inoue and Kilian (2004).

We differ, though, in our focus. While Inoue and Kilian (2004) are interested in examining the power of out-of-sample tests against the null of equal population-level predictive ability, we are interested in using out-of-sample tests to test the null hypothesis of equal finite sample predictive ability. This seemingly minor distinction arises because the estimation error associated with estimating unknown regression parameters can cause a misspecified, restricted model to be as accurate or more accurate than a correctly specified unrestricted model when the additional predictors are imprecisely estimated (or, in our terminology, are "weak"). We use Pitman drift simply as a tool for constructing an asymptotic approximation to the finite sample problem associated with estimating a regression coefficient when the marginal signal associated with it is small.

Although our results apply only to a setup that some might see as restrictive — direct, multi–step (DMS) forecasts from nested models — the list of studies analyzing such forecasts suggests our results should be useful to many researchers. Applications considering DMS forecasts from nested linear models include, among others: many of the studies cited above; Diebold and Rudebusch (1991); Mark (1995); Kilian (1999); Lettau and Ludvigson (2001); Stock and Watson (2003); Bachmeier and Swanson (2005); Butler, Grullon and Weston (2005); Cooper and Gulen (2006); Giacomini and Rossi (2006); Guo (2006); Rapach and Wohar (2006); Bruneau, et al. (2007); Bordo and Haubrich (2008); Inoue and Rossi (2008); and Molodtsova and Papell (2008).

The remainder proceeds as follows. Section 2 introduces the notation and assumptions and presents our theoretical results. Section 3 characterizes the bootstrap-based methods we consider for testing the joint hypothesis of equal forecast accuracy. Section 4 presents Monte Carlo results on the finite–sample performance of the asymptotics and the bootstrap. Section 5 applies our tests to evaluate the predictability of U.S. stock returns and core PCE inflation. Section 6 concludes.

2 Theoretical results

We begin by laying out our testing framework when comparing the forecast accuracy of two nested models in the presence of weak predictive ability.

2.1 Environment

The possibility of weak predictors is modeled using a sequence of linear DGPs of the form (**Assumption 1**)[1]

$$\begin{aligned} y_{T,t+\tau} &= x'_{T,1,t}\beta^*_{1,T} + u_{T,t+\tau} = x'_{T,0,t}\beta^*_0 + x'_{T,12,t}(T^{-1/2}\beta^*_{12}) + u_{T,t+\tau}, \qquad (1) \\ Ex_{T,1,t}u_{T,t+\tau} &\equiv Eh_{T,1,t+\tau} = 0 \text{ for all } t = 1, ..., T, ...T+P-\tau. \end{aligned}$$

Note that we allow the dependent variable $y_{T,t+\tau}$, the predictors $x_{T,1,t}$ and the error term $u_{T,t+\tau}$ to depend upon T, the initial forecasting origin. This dependence is necessitated by the triangular array structure of the data. However, throughout much of the paper we omit the additional subscript T for ease of presentation.

At each origin of forecasting $t = T, ...T+P-\tau$, we observe the sequence $\{y_{T,s}, x'_{T,1,s}\}^t_{s=1}$. Forecasts of the scalar $y_{T,t+\tau}$, $\tau \geq 1$, are generated using a $(k \times 1, k = k_0 + k_1)$ vector of covariates $x_{T,1,t} = (x'_{T,0,t}, x'_{T,12,t})'$, and linear parametric models $x'_{T,i,t}\beta_i$, $i = 0, 1$. The parameters are estimated using OLS (**Assumption 2**) under either the recursive or rolling schemes. For the recursive scheme we have $\hat{\beta}_{i,t} = \arg\min_{\beta_i} t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}(y_{T,s+\tau} - x'_{T,i,s}\beta_i)^2$, $i = 0, 1$, for the restricted and unrestricted models, respectively. The rolling scheme is similar but the number of observations used for estimation is held constant as we proceed forward across forecast origins and hence $\hat{\beta}_{i,t} = \arg\min_{\beta_i} T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-\tau-T+1}^{t-\tau}(y_{T,s+\tau} - x'_{T,i,s}\beta_i)^2$, $i = 0, 1$. We denote the loss associated with the τ-step ahead forecast errors as $\hat{u}^2_{i,t+\tau} = (y_{T,t+\tau} - x'_{T,i,t}\hat{\beta}_{i,t})^2$, $i = 0, 1$, for the restricted and unrestricted, respectively.

The following additional notation will be used. For the recursive scheme let $H_{T,i}(t) = (t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau} x_{T,i,s}u_{T,s+\tau}) = (t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau} h_{T,i,s+\tau})$ and $B_i(t) = (t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau} x_{T,i,s}x'_{T,i,s})^{-1}$, and for the rolling case let $H_{T,i}(t) = (T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-\tau-T+1}^{t-\tau} x_{T,i,s}u_{T,s+\tau}) = (T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-\tau-T+1}^{t-\tau} h_{T,i,s+\tau})$ and $B_i(t) = (T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-\tau-T+1}^{t-\tau} x_{T,i,s}x'_{T,i,s})^{-1}$. In either case, define, for $i = 0, 1$, $B_i = \lim_{T\to\infty}(Ex_{T,i,s}x'_{T,i,s})^{-1}$. For $U_{T,t} = (h'_{T,1,t+\tau}, vec(x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t})')'$, $V = \sum_{j=-\tau+1}^{\tau-1}\Omega_{11,j}$, where $\Omega_{11,j}$ is the upper block-diagonal element of Ω_j defined below. For any $(m \times n)$ matrix A let $|A|$ denote the max norm and $tr(A)$ denote the trace. For $H_{T,1}(t)$ defined above, J the selection matrix $(I_{k_0\times k_0}, 0_{k_0\times k_1})'$, $\sigma^2 = \lim_{T\to\infty} Eu^2_{T,t+\tau}$, and a $(k_1 \times k)$ matrix $\tilde{A}$ satisfying $\tilde{A}'\tilde{A} = B_1^{-1/2}(-J'B_0J + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}$, let $\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau} = \sigma^{-1}\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}h_{T,1,t+\tau}$ and $\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t) = \sigma^{-1}\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t)$. For the selection matrix $J_2 = (0_{k_1\times k_0}, I_{k_1\times k_1})'$ define $F_1 = J_2'B_1J_2$ and $F_1(t) = J_2'B_1(t)J_2$. If we define $\gamma_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h},1}(i) = \lim_{T\to\infty} E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t+\tau-i}$,

[1] The parameter $\beta^*_{1,T}$ does not vary with the forecast horizon τ since, in our analysis, τ is treated as fixed.

then $S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h},1} = \gamma_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h},1}(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{\tau-1}(\gamma_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h},1}(i) + \gamma'_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h},1}(i))$. Let $W(s)$ denote a $k_1 \times 1$ vector standard Brownian motion and define the vector of weak predictor coefficients as $\delta = (0_{1\times k_0}, \beta^{*\prime}_{12})'$.

To derive our general results, we need three more assumptions (in addition to our assumptions (1 and 2) of a DGP with weak predictability and OLS–estimated linear forecasting models).

Assumption 3: (a) $T^{-1}\sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} U_{T,t}U'_{T,t-j} \Rightarrow r\Omega_j$ where $\Omega_j = \lim_{T\to\infty} T^{-1}\sum_{t=1}^{T} E(U_{T,t}U'_{T,t-j})$ for all $j \geq 0$. (b) $\Omega_{11,j} = 0$ all $j \geq \tau$. (c) $\sup_{T\geq 1, t\leq T+P} E|U_{T,t}|^{2q} < \infty$ some $q > 2$. (d) The zero mean triangular array $U_{T,t} - EU_{T,t} = (h'_{T,1,t+\tau}, vec(x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t} - Ex_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t})')'$ satisfies Theorem 3.2 of de Jong and Davidson (2000).

Assumption 4: (a) Let $K(x)$ be a continuous kernel such that for all real scalars x, $|K(x)| \leq 1$, $K(x) = K(-x)$ and $K(0) = 1$. (b) For some bandwidth L and constant $i \in (0, 0.5)$, $L = O(P^i)$. (c) For all $j > \tau - 1$, $Eh_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t+\tau-j} = 0$. (d) The number of covariance terms $\bar{j}$, used to estimate the long–run covariance S_{dd} defined in Section 2.2, satisfies $\tau - 1 \leq \bar{j} < \infty$.

Assumption 5: $\lim_{P,T\to\infty} P/T = \lambda_P \in (0, \infty)$.

Assumption 3 imposes three types of conditions. First, in (a) and (c) we require that the observables, while not necessarily covariance stationary, are asymptotically mean square stationary with finite second moments. We do so in order to allow the observables to have marginal distributions that vary as the weak predictive ability strengthens along with the sample size but are 'well-behaved' enough that, for example, sample averages converge in probability to the appropriate population means. Second, in (b) we impose the restriction that the τ-step ahead forecast errors are MA($\tau - 1$). We do so in order to emphasize the role that weak predictors have on forecasting without also introducing other forms of model misspecification. Finally, in (d) we impose the high level assumption that, in particular, $h_{T,1,t+\tau}$ satisfies Theorem 3.2 of de Jong and Davidson (2000). By doing so we not only insure that certain weighted partial sums converge weakly to standard Brownian motion, but also allow ourselves to take advantage of various results pertaining to convergence in distribution to stochastic integrals.

Assumption 4 is necessitated by the serial correlation in the multi-step (τ-step) forecast errors — errors from even well-specified models exhibit serial correlation, of an MA($\tau - 1$) form. Typically, researchers constructing a t-statistic utilizing the squares of these errors account for serial correlation of at least order $\tau - 1$ in forming the necessary standard error estimates. Meese and Rogoff (1988), Groen (1999), and Kilian and Taylor (2003), among other applications to forecasts from nested models, use kernel-based methods to estimate the relevant long-run covariance.[2] We therefore impose conditions sufficient to cover applied practices. Parts (a) and (b) are not particularly controversial. Part (c), however, imposes the restriction that the orthogonality conditions used to identify the parameters form a moving average of finite order $\tau - 1$, while part (d) imposes the restriction that this fact is taken into account when constructing the MSE-t statistic discussed later in Section 2. Finally, in Assumption 5 we impose the requirement that $\lim_{P,T\to\infty} P/T = \lambda_P \in (0, \infty)$. This assumption implies that the duration of forecasting is finite but non-trivial.

This last assumption, while standard in our previous work, differs importantly from that in Giacomini and White (2006). In their approach to predictive inference for nested models, they assume that a rolling window of fixed and *finite* width is used for estimation of the model parameters (hence $\lim_{P\to\infty} P/T = \infty$). While we allow rolling windows, our asymptotics assume that the window width is a non-trivial magnitude of the out-of-sample period and hence $\lim_{P,T\to\infty} P/T \in (0, \infty)$. This difference in the assumed window width, along with our assumption that the additional predictors in the nesting model are weak, is fundamentally what drives the difference in our results from theirs and in particular, allows us to derive results that permit the use of the recursive scheme.

2.2 Asymptotics for MSE-F, MSE-t with weak predictors

In the context of non-nested models, Diebold and Mariano (1995) propose a test for equal MSE based upon the sequence of loss differentials $\hat{d}_{t+\tau} = \hat{u}^2_{0,t+\tau} - \hat{u}^2_{1,t+\tau}$. If we define $MSE_i = (P - \tau + 1)^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} \hat{u}^2_{i,t+\tau}$ $(i = 0, 1)$, $\bar{d} = (P - \tau + 1)^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} \hat{d}_{t+\tau} = MSE_0 - MSE_1$, $\widehat{\gamma}_{dd}(j) = (P - \tau + 1)^{-1} \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (\hat{d}_{t+\tau} - \bar{d})(\hat{d}_{t+\tau-j} - \bar{d})$, $\widehat{\gamma}_{dd}(-j) = \widehat{\gamma}_{dd}(j)$, and $\hat{S}_{dd} = \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\widehat{\gamma}_{dd}(j)$, the statistic takes the form

$$\text{MSE-}t = (P - \tau + 1)^{1/2} \times \frac{\bar{d}}{\sqrt{\hat{S}_{dd}}}. \tag{2}$$

Under the null that $x_{12,t}$ has no population-level predictive power for $y_{t+\tau}$, the population difference in MSEs, $Eu^2_{0,t+\tau} - Eu^2_{1,t+\tau}$, will equal 0 for all t. When $x_{12,t}$ has predictive power, the population difference in MSEs will be positive. Even so, the finite sample difference

[2] For similar uses of kernel–based methods in analyses of non–nested forecasts, see, for example, Diebold and Mariano (1995) and West (1996).

need not be positive and in fact, for a given sample size (say, $t = T$) the difference in finite sample MSEs, $E\hat{u}^2_{0,T+\tau} - E\hat{u}^2_{1,T+\tau}$, may be zero, thus motivating a distinct null hypothesis of equal finite-sample predictive ability. Regardless of which null hypothesis we consider (equal population-level or equal finite-sample predictive ability), the MSE-t test and the other equal MSE tests described below are one–sided to the right.

While West (1996) proves directly that the MSE-t statistic can be asymptotically standard normal when applied to non–nested forecasts, this is not the case when the models are nested. In particular, the results in West (1996) require that under the null, the population-level long run variance of $\hat{d}_{t+\tau}$ be positive. This requirement is violated with nested models regardless of the presence of weak predictors. Intuitively, with nested models (and for the moment ignoring the weak predictors), the null hypothesis that the restrictions imposed in the benchmark model are true implies the population errors of the competing forecasting models are exactly the same. As a result, in population $d_{t+\tau} = 0$ for all t, which makes the corresponding variance also equal to 0. Because the sample analogues (for example, $\bar{d}$ and its variance) converge to zero at the same rate, the test statistics have non–degenerate null distributions, but they are non–standard.

Motivated by (i) the degeneracy of the long-run variance of $d_{t+\tau}$ and (ii) the functional form of the standard in-sample F-test, McCracken (2007) develops an out–of–sample F–type test of equal MSE, given by

$$\text{MSE-}F = (P - \tau + 1) \times \frac{MSE_0 - MSE_1}{MSE_1} = (P - \tau + 1) \times \frac{\bar{d}}{MSE_1}. \quad (3)$$

Like the MSE-t test, the limiting distribution of the MSE-F test is non–standard when the forecasts are nested under the null. Clark and McCracken (2005) and McCracken (2007) show that, for τ–step ahead forecasts, the MSE-F statistic converges in distribution to functions of stochastic integrals of quadratics of Brownian motion, with limiting distributions that depend on the sample split parameter λ_P, the number of exclusion restrictions k_1, and the unknown nuisance parameter $S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}$. While this continues to hold in the presence of weak predictors, the asymptotic distributions now depend not only upon the unknown coefficients associated with the weak predictors but also upon other unknown second moments of the data. In the following, for the recursive scheme define $\Gamma_1 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1} W'(s) S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} dW(s)$, $\Gamma_2 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-2} W'(s) S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} W(s) ds$, $\Gamma_5 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-2} W'(s) S^2_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} W(s) ds$, and $\Gamma_6 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1} \times (\delta' B_1^{-1/2} \tilde{A}'/\sigma) S^{3/2}_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} W(s) ds$. For the rolling scheme, define $\Gamma_1 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} (W(s) - W(s - 1))' S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} dW(s)$, $\Gamma_2 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} (W(s) - W(s-1))' S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} (W(s) - W(s-1)) ds$, $\Gamma_5 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} (W(s) -$

$W(s-1))'S^2_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}(W(s)-W(s-1))ds$, and $\Gamma_6 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1}(\delta' B_1^{-1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)S^{3/2}_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}(W(s)-W(s-1))ds$. For both schemes, define $\Gamma_3 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P}(\delta' B_1^{-1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)S^{1/2}_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}dW(s)$, $\Gamma_4 = \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} \delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2'\delta/\sigma^2 ds = \lambda_P \delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2'\delta/\sigma^2$ and $\Gamma_7 = \lambda_P(\delta' B_1^{-1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}(\tilde{A}B_1^{-1/2}\delta/\sigma)$. The following two Theorems provide the asymptotic distributions of the MSE-F and MSE-t statistics in the presence of weak predictors.

Theorem 2.1: Maintain Assumptions 1, 2, 3, and 5. MSE-$F \rightarrow_d \{2\Gamma_1 - \Gamma_2\} + 2\{\Gamma_3\} + \{\Gamma_4\}$.

Theorem 2.2: Maintain Assumptions 1 − 5. MSE-$t \rightarrow_d (\{\Gamma_1 - .5\Gamma_2\} + \{\Gamma_3\} + \{.5\Gamma_4\})/(\Gamma_5 + \Gamma_6 + \Gamma_7)^{.5}$.

Theorems 2.1 and 2.2 show that the limiting distributions of the MSE-t and MSE-F tests are neither normal nor chi-square when the forecasts are nested, regardless of the presence of weak predictors. Theorem 2.1 is very similar to Proposition 2 in Inoue and Kilian (2004) while Theorem 2.2 is unique. And again, the limiting distributions are free of nuisance parameters in only very special cases. In particular, the distributions here are free of nuisance parameters only if there are no weak predictors and if $S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}} = I$. If this is the case — if, for example, $\tau = 1$ and the forecast errors are conditionally homoskedastic — both representations simplify to those in McCracken (2007) and hence his critical values can be used for testing for equal population-level predictive ability. In the absence of weak predictors alone, the representation simplifies to that in Clark and McCracken (2005) and hence the asymptotic distributions still depend upon $S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}$. In this case, and in the most general case where weak predictors are present, we use bootstrap methods to estimate the asymptotically valid critical values. Before describing our bootstrap approach, however, it is necessary to clarify the null hypothesis of interest.

2.3 A null hypothesis with weak predictors

The noncentrality terms, especially those associated with the asymptotic distribution of the MSE-F statistic (Γ_4), give some indication of the power that the test statistics have against deviations from the null hypothesis of equal population-level predictive ability H_0 : $E(u^2_{0,t+\tau} - u^2_{1,t+\tau}) = 0$ for all t — for which it must be the case that $\beta^*_{12} = 0$. As noted earlier, it is in that sense that our analytical results are closely related to those in Inoue and Kilian (2004). Closer inspection, however, shows that the results provide opportunities for testing another form of the null hypothesis of equal predictive ability when weak predictors are present.

For example, under the assumptions made earlier in this section it is straightforward to show that the mean of the asymptotic distribution of the MSE-F statistic can be used to approximate the mean difference in the average out-of-sample predictive ability of the two models.[3] For example, under the recursive scheme we have

$$E\sum_{t=T}^{T+P}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2) \approx \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} [-s^{-1}tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V) + \delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' \delta]ds$$

while under the rolling scheme we have

$$E\sum_{t=T}^{T+P}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2) \approx \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} [-tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V) + \delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' \delta]ds.$$

Intuitively, one might consider using these expressions as a means of characterizing when the two models have equal average finite-sample predictive ability over the out-of-sample period. For example, having set these two expressions to zero, integrating and solving for the marginal signal-to-noise ratio implies $\frac{\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' \delta}{tr((-JB_0J'+B_1)V)}$ equals $\frac{\ln(1+\lambda_P)}{\lambda_P}$ and 1, respectively, for the recursive and rolling schemes. This ratio simplifies further when $\tau = 1$ and the forecast errors are conditionally homoskedastic, in which case $tr((-JB_0J'+B_1)V) = \sigma^2 k_1$.

This marginal signal-to-noise ratio forms the basis of our new approach to testing for equal predictive ability. Rather than testing for equal population-level predictive ability $H_0 : E(u_{0,t+\tau}^2 - u_{1,t+\tau}^2) = 0$ for all t — for which it must be the case that $\beta_{12}^* = 0$ — we test for equal average out-of-sample predictive ability $H_0 : E(P^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2)) = 0$ – for which it is approximately the case that $\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = d$, where d equals $\frac{\ln(1+\lambda_P)}{\lambda_P} tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$ or $tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$, depending on whether the recursive or rolling scheme is used.[4]

While we believe the result is intuitive, it is not immediately clear how such a restriction on the regression parameters can be used to achieve asymptotically valid inference. If we look back at the asymptotic distribution of the MSE-F statistic, we see that in general it not only depends upon the unknown value of β_{12}^*, but also the asymptotic distribution is

[3] By taking this approach we are using the fact that under our assumptions, notably the L^2-boundedness portion of Assumption 3, $\sum_{t=T}^{T+P}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2)$ is uniformly integrable and hence the expectation of its limit is equal to the limit of its expectation.

[4] One could also derive a test for equal forecast accuracy at the end of the out-of-sample period. Using similar arguments, this hypothesis implies that $\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = d$, where d equals $\frac{1}{1+\lambda_P} tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$ or $tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$, depending on whether the recursive or rolling scheme is used. Under this null hypothesis, our proposed bootstrap is valid so long as $\hat{d}$ (defined below) is modified appropriately.

non-standard, thus requiring either extensive tables of critical values or simulation-based methods for constructing the critical values. Rather than take either of these approaches, in the following section we develop a new bootstrap-based method for constructing asymptotically valid critical values that can be used to test the null of equal average finite-sample predictive ability.

2.4 Bootstrap-based critical values with weak predictors

Our new, bootstrap-based method of approximating the asymptotically valid critical values for pairwise comparisons between nested models is different from that previously used in Kilian (1999) and Clark and McCracken (2005). In those applications, an appropriately dimensioned VAR was initially estimated by OLS imposing the restriction that β_{12}^* was set to zero and the residuals saved for resampling. The recursive structure of the VAR was then used to generate a large number of artificial samples, each of which was used to construct one of the test statistics discussed above. The relevant sample percentile from this large collection of artificial statistics was then used as the critical value. Simulations show that this approach provides accurate inference for the null of equal population-level predictive ability not only for one-step ahead forecasts but also for longer horizons (in our direct multi-step framework).

However, there are two reasons we should not expect this bootstrap approach to provide accurate inference in the presence of weak predictors. First, imposing the restriction that β_{12}^* is set to zero implies a null of equal population — not finite-sample — predictive ability. Second, by creating the artificial samples using the recursive structure of the VAR we are imposing the restriction that equal one-step ahead predictive ability implies equal predictive ability at longer horizons. Our present framework in no way imposes that restriction. We therefore take an entirely different approach to imposing the relevant null hypothesis and generating the artificial samples.

For example, suppose we are interested in testing whether, under the recursive scheme, the two models have equal average predictive ability over the out-of-sample period and hence $\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' \delta$ equals $\frac{\ln(1+\lambda_P)}{\lambda_P} tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$. While this restriction is infeasible due to the various unknown moments and parameters, it suggests a closely related, feasible restriction quite similar to that used in ridge regression. However, instead of imposing the restriction that $\beta_{12}^{*'}\beta_{12}^* = c$ for some finite constant — as one would in a ridge regression — we instead impose the restriction that $\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1}(T) J_2' \delta$ equals $\frac{\ln(1+\widehat{\lambda}_P)}{\widehat{\lambda}_P} tr((-JB_0(T)J' +$

$B_1(T))V(T))$, where the relevant unknowns are estimated using the obvious sample moments: $\widehat{\lambda}_P = P/T, B_i(T) = (T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau} x_{i,s}x'_{i,s})^{-1}$ for $i = 0, 1$, $F_1(T) = J'_2 B_1(T) J_2$, and $V(T) =$ an estimate of the long-run variance of $h_{1,t+\tau}$.[5] In addition, we estimate δ using the approximation $\widehat{\delta} = (0_{1\times k_0}, T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}'_{12,t})'$ where $\widetilde{\beta}_{12,T}$ denotes the restricted least squares estimator of the parameters associated with the weak predictors satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} &= (\widetilde{\beta}'_{11,T}, \widetilde{\beta}'_{12,T})' \\ &= \arg\min_{b_1} \sum\nolimits_{s=1}^{T-\tau} (y_{s+\tau} - x'_{1,s} b_1)^2 \text{ s.t. } b'_1 J_2 F_1^{-1}(T) J'_2 b_1 = \widehat{d}/T \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where $\widehat{d}$ equals $\frac{\ln(1+\widehat{\lambda}_P)}{\widehat{\lambda}_P} tr((-JB_0(T)J' + B_1(T))V(T))$. For a given sample size, this estimator is equivalent to a ridge regression if the weak predictors are orthonormal. More generally though, it lies in the class of asymptotic shrinkage estimators discussed in Hansen (2008).

Note that this approach to imposing the null hypothesis is consistent with the direct multi-step forecasting approach we assume is used to construct the forecasts and hence the restriction can vary with the forecast horizon τ. This approach therefore precludes using a VAR and its recursive structure to generate the artificial samples. Instead we use a variant of the wild fixed regressor bootstrap developed in Goncalves and Kilian (2007) that accounts for the direct multi-step nature of the forecasts. Specifically, in our framework the x's are held fixed across the artificial samples and the dependent variable is generated using the direct multi-step equation $y^*_{s+\tau} = x'_{1,s}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} + \widehat{v}^*_{s+\tau}$, $s = 1, ..., T + P - \tau$, for a suitably chosen artificial error term $\widehat{v}^*_{s+\tau}$ designed to capture both the presence of conditional heteroskedasticity and an assumed $MA(\tau-1)$ serial correlation structure in the τ-step ahead forecasts. Specifically, we construct the artificial samples and bootstrap critical values using the following algorithm.[6]

1. Estimate the parameter vector β^*_1 associated with the unrestricted model using the weighted ridge regression from equation (4) above. Note that the resulting parameter estimate will vary with the forecast horizon. If the recursive scheme is used, set $\widehat{d}$ to $\frac{\ln(1+\widehat{\lambda}_P)}{\widehat{\lambda}_P} tr((-JB_0(T)J' + B_1(T))V(T))$; if the rolling scheme is used, set $\widehat{d}$ to $tr((-JB_0(T)J' + B_1(T))V(T))$.

2. Using NLLS, estimate an $MA(\tau - 1)$ model for the OLS residuals $\widehat{v}_{1,s+\tau}$ (from the

[5] In our Monte Carlo simulations and empirical work we use a Newey-West kernel with bandwidth 0 for horizon = 1 and bandwidth 1.5*horizon otherwise.

[6] Our approach to generating artificial samples of multi-step forecast errors builds on a sampling approach proposed in Hansen (1996).

unrestricted model) such that $v_{1,s+\tau} = \varepsilon_{1,s+\tau} + \theta_1\varepsilon_{1,s+\tau-1} + ... + \theta_{\tau-1}\varepsilon_{1,s+1}$. Let $\eta_{s+\tau}$, $s = 1, ..., T+P-\tau$, denote an $i.i.d$ $N(0,1)$ sequence of simulated random variables. Define $\widehat{v}^*_{1,s+\tau} = (\eta_{s+\tau}\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau} + \widehat{\theta}_1\eta_{s-1+\tau}\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau-1} + ... + \widehat{\theta}_{\tau-1}\eta_{s+1}\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+1})$, $s = 1, ..., T+P-\tau$. Form artificial samples of $y^*_{s+\tau}$ using the fixed regressor structure, $y^*_{s+\tau} = x'_{1,s}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} + \widehat{v}^*_{1,s+\tau}$.

3. Using the artificial data, construct an estimate of the test statistics (e.g. MSE-F, MSE-t) as if this were the original data.

4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 a large number of times: $j = 1, ..., N$.

5. Reject the null hypothesis, at the $\alpha\%$ level, if the test statistic is greater than the $(100-\alpha)\%$-ile of the empirical distribution of the simulated test statistics.

By using the weighted ridge regression to estimate the model parameters we are able, in large samples, to impose the restriction that the implied estimates ($T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{12,T}$) of the local-to-zero parameters β^*_{12} satisfy our approximation to the null hypothesis. This is despite the fact that the estimates of β^*_{12} are not consistent. While this estimator, along with the fixed regressor structure of the bootstrap, imposes the null hypothesis upon the artificial samples, it is not necessarily the case that the bootstrap is asymptotically valid in the sense that the estimated critical values are consistent for their population values. To see how this might happen, note that the asymptotic distributions from Theorem 2.1 depend explicitly upon the local-to-zero parameters β^*_{12} through the terms Γ_3 and Γ_4. In the case of Γ_4, this is not an issue because the null hypothesis imposes a restriction on the value of this term that does not depend upon β^*_{12} explicitly, just an appropriately chosen weighted quadratic that is known under the null. Γ_3 is a different story. This term is asymptotically normal with a zero mean and variance $\lambda_P\beta'^*_{12}J'_2VJ_2\beta^*_{12}$ that, in general, need not have any relationship to the restriction $\beta'^*_{12}F_1^{-1}\beta^*_{12} = d$ implied by the null hypothesis. Hence, in general, the asymptotic distribution is an explicit function of the value of β^*_{12} implying that the null hypothesis itself does not imply a unique asymptotic distribution for either the MSE-F or MSE-t statistics.

Even so, as we discuss below, the bootstrap is asymptotically valid in two empirically relevant special cases. Before providing the result, however, we require a modest strengthening of the moment conditions on the model residuals.

Assumption 3$'$: (a) $T^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^{[rT]} U_{T,j}U'_{T,j-l} \Rightarrow r\Omega_l$ where $\Omega_l = \lim_{T\to\infty} T^{-1}\sum_{t=1}^{T} E(U_{T,j}U'_{T,j-l})$ for all $l \geq 0$. (b) $\mathrm{E}(\varepsilon_{1,s+\tau}|\varepsilon_{1,s+\tau-j}, x_{1,s-j}\ j \geq 0) = 0$. (c) Let $\gamma_T = (\beta'_{1,T}, \theta_1, ..., \theta_{\tau-1})'$, $\widehat{\gamma}_T = (\hat{\beta}'_{1,T}, \widehat{\theta}_1, ..., \widehat{\theta}_{\tau-1})'$, and define the function $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau} = \widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau}(\widehat{\gamma}_T)$ such that $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau}(\gamma_T) =$

$\varepsilon_{1,s+\tau}$. In an open neighborhood N_T around γ_T, there exists a finite constant c such that $\sup_{1\leq s\leq T,T\geq 1}||\sup_{\gamma\in N_T}(\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau}(\gamma),\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}'_{1,s+\tau}(\gamma),x_{T,1,s})'||_4\leq c$. (d) $U_{T,j}-EU_{T,j}=(h'_{T,1,j+\tau},$ $vec(x_{T,1,j}x'_{T,1,j}-Ex_{T,1,j}x'_{T,1,j})')'$ is a zero mean triangular array satisfying Theorem 3.2 of de Jong and Davidson (2000).

Assumption 3′ differs from Assumption 3 in two ways. First, in (b) it emphasizes the point that the forecast errors, and by implication $h_{1,t+\tau}$, form an $MA(\tau-1)$. Second, in (c) it bounds the second moments not only of $h_{1,t+\tau}=(\varepsilon_{1,s+\tau}+\theta_1\varepsilon_{1,s+\tau-1}+...+\theta_{\tau-1}\varepsilon_{1,s+1})x_{1,s}$ (as in Assumption 3) but also the functions $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau}(\gamma)x_{T,1,s}$, and $\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau}(\gamma)x_{T,1,s}$ for all γ in an open neighborhood of γ_T. These assumptions are primarily used to show that the bootstrap-based artificial samples, which are a function of the estimated errors $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{1,s+\tau}$, adequately replicate the time series properties of the original data in large samples. Specifically we must insure that the bootstrap analog of $h_{1,s+\tau}$ is not only zero mean but has the same long-run variance V. Such an assumption is not needed for our earlier results since the model forecast errors $\widehat{u}_{i,s+\tau}$, $i=0,1$ are linear functions of $\hat{\beta}_{i,T}$ and Assumption 3 already imposes moment conditions on $\widehat{u}_{1,s+\tau}$ via moment conditions on $h_{1,s+\tau}$.

In the following let MSE-F^* and MSE-t^* denote statistics generated using the artificial samples from our bootstrap. Similarly let Γ_i^*, $i=1,...,7$, denote random variables generated using the artificial samples satisfying $\Gamma_i^*=^d\Gamma_i$, $i=1,...,7$, for Γ_i defined in Theorems 2.1 and 2.2.

Theorem 2.3: Let $\beta_{12}'^{*}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*=d$ and assume either (i) $\tau=1$ and the forecast errors from the unrestricted model are conditionally homoskedastic, or (ii) $\dim(\beta_{12}^*)=1$. (a) Given Assumptions $1,2,3'$, and 5, MSE-$F^*\rightarrow_d\{2\Gamma_1^*-\Gamma_2^*\}+2\{\Gamma_3^*\}+\{\Gamma_4^*\}$. (b) Given Assumptions $1,2,3',4$, and 5, MSE-$t^*\rightarrow_d(\{2\Gamma_1^*-\Gamma_2^*\}+2\{\Gamma_3^*\}+\{\Gamma_4^*\})/(\Gamma_5^*+\Gamma_6^*+\Gamma_7^*)^{.5}$.

In Theorem 2.3 we show that our fixed-regressor bootstrap provides an asymptotically valid method of estimating the critical values associated with the null of equal average finite sample forecast accuracy. The result, however, is applicable in only two special cases. In the first, we require that the forecast errors be one-step ahead and conditionally homoskedastic. In the second, we allow serial correlation and conditional heteroskedasticity but require that β_{12}^* is scalar. While neither case covers the broadest situation in which β_{12}^* is not scalar and the forecast errors exhibit either serial correlation or conditional heteroskedasticity, these two special cases cover a wide range of empirically relevant applications. Kilian (1999) argues that conditional homoskedasticity is a reasonable assumption for one-step ahead forecasts of quarterly macroeconomic variables. Moreover, in many applications in which a nested model comparison is made (Goyal and Welch (2008), Stock and Watson (2003), etc.), the unrestricted forecasts are made by simply adding one lag of a single predictor to the baseline restricted model.

By itself, however, Theorem 2.3 is insufficient for recommending the use of the bootstrap: it does not tell us whether the proposed bootstrap is adequate for constructing asymptotically valid critical values under the alternative that the unrestricted model forecasts more accurately than the restricted model. Unfortunately, there are any number of ways to model the case in which $\beta_{12}'^{*}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^{*} > d$. For example, rather than modeling the weak predictive ability in Assumption 1 as $T^{-1/2}\beta_{12}^{*}$ with $\beta_{12}'^{*}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^{*} = d$, one could model the predictive content as $T^{-a}C\beta_{12}^{*}$ for constants $C < \infty$ and $a \in (0, 1/2]$ satisfying $\beta_{12}'^{*}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^{*} > d$. While mathematically elegant, this approach does not allow us to analyze the most intuitive alternative in which not only is the unrestricted model more accurate but $J_2'\hat{\beta}_{1,T}$ is also a consistent estimator of $\beta_{12}^{*} \neq 0$. For this situation to hold we need the additional restriction that $a = 0$ and hence β_{12}^{*} is no longer interpretable as a local-to-zero parameter. With this modification (**Assumption 1′**) in hand, we address the validity of the bootstrap under the alternative in the following Theorem.

Theorem 2.4: Let $J_2'\hat{\beta}_{1,T} \to^p \beta_{12}^{*} \neq 0$ and assume either (i) $\tau = 1$ and the forecast errors from the unrestricted model are conditionally homoskedastic, or (ii) $\dim(\beta_{12}) = 1$. (a) Given Assumptions $1', 2, 3'$, and 5, MSE-$F^{*} \to_d \{2\Gamma_1^{*} - \Gamma_2^{*}\} + 2\{\Gamma_3^{*}\} + \{\Gamma_4^{*}\}$. (b) Given Assumptions $1', 2, 3', 4$, and 5, MSE-$t^{*} \to_d (\{2\Gamma_1^{*} - \Gamma_2^{*}\} + 2\{\Gamma_3^{*}\} + \{\Gamma_4^{*}\})/(\Gamma_5^{*} + \Gamma_6^{*} + \Gamma_7^{*})^{.5}$.

In Theorem 2.4 we see that indeed, the bootstrap-based test is consistent for testing the null hypothesis of equal finite sample predictive accuracy (that $\beta_{12}'^{*}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^{*} = d$) against the alternative that the unrestricted model is more accurate (that $J_2'\hat{\beta}_{1,T} \to^p \beta_{12}^{*} \neq 0$). This follows since under this alternative, the data-based statistics MSE-F and MSE-t each diverge to $+\infty$ while the the bootstrap-based statistics MSE-F^{*} and MSE-t^{*} each retain the same asymptotic distribution as they did under the null.

As we will show in section 3, our fixed regressor bootstrap provides reasonably sized tests in our Monte Carlo simulations, outperforming other bootstrap-based methods for estimating the asymptotically valid critical values necessary to test the null of equal average finite sample predictive ability.

3 Bootstrap approaches

Drawing on the preceeding theoretical results, in our Monte Carlo and empirical analyses we will evaluate the efficacy of our proposed fixed regressor bootstrap of tests of equal forecast accuracy. As part of this evaluation, we also consider other approaches to inference — that is, sources of critical values and tests. These other approaches to inference, detailed below, include a non–parametric bootstrap procedure and a different version of our proposed fixed regressor bootstrap. In addition to the MSE-F and MSE-t tests, we also consider an adjusted t-test of equal MSE developed in Clark and West (2006, 2007), denoted here as CW-t. In the interest of obtaining a normally-distributed or nearly-normal test of equal MSE, Clark and West propose a simple adjustment to the MSE differential to account for the additional parameter estimation error of the larger model. When applied to a pair of rolling sample forecasts under a random walk null model, the adjusted test statistic has a standard normal distribution (asymptotically). With a null model that involves parameter estimation (as is the case in this paper), Clark and West (2007) argue that the limiting null distribution is approximately normal. Note, however, that in either case, the null hypothesis is that the smaller model is true, not that the null and alternative forecasts are equally accurate over the sample of interest.

We should also note that for further comparison to our proposed fixed regressor bootstrap, we include in our Monte Carlo section results for the MSE-t and CW-t tests compared against standard normal critical values.

3.1 Non-parametric bootstrap

Our non–parametric approach is patterned on White's (2000) method: we create bootstrap samples of forecast errors by sampling (with replacement) from the time series of sample forecast errors, and construct test statistics for each sample draw. However, as noted above and in White (2000), this procedure is not, in general, asymptotically valid when applied to nested models. We include the method in part for its computational simplicity and in part to examine the potential pitfalls of using the approach.

In our non-parametric implementation, we follow the approach of White (2000) in using the stationary bootstrap of Politis and Romano (1994) and centering the bootstrap distributions around the sample values of the test statistics. The stationary bootstrap is parameterized to make the average block length equal to twice the forecast horizon. As to centering of test statistics, under the non–parametric approach, the relevant null hypothesis is that the MSE difference (benchmark MSE less alternative model MSE) is at most 0, and the MSE ratio (benchmark MSE/alternative model MSE) is at most 1. Following White (2000), each bootstrap draw of a given test statistic is re-centered around the corresponding sample test statistic. Bootstrapped critical values are computed as percentiles of the resulting distributions of re–centered test statistics. We report empirical rejection rates using a nominal size of 10%. Results using a nominal size of 5% are qualitatively similar.

3.2 Fixed regressor bootstrap

As outlined in section 2.4, we also consider a fixed regressor bootstrap under the null of equal forecast accuracy. Under this procedure, we re-estimate the alternative forecasting model subject to the constraint that implies the null and alternative model forecasts to be equally accurate. After taking the fitted values ($x'_{1,t}\tilde{\beta}_{1,T}$) from this model, we construct the residuals from the OLS estimate of the unrestricted model ($\widehat{v}_{1,t+\tau}$). Following the algorithm outlined in section 2.4, we create artificial replicas of the residuals $\widehat{v}^*_{1,t+\tau}$ and add them to the fitted value to form artificial samples of $y^*_{t+\tau}$: $y^*_{t+\tau} = x'_{1,t}\tilde{\beta}_{1,T} + \widehat{v}^*_{1,t+\tau}$. Using the artificial samples of data on y, we estimate the forecasting models (using actual data on all the variables on the right-hand side, rather than simulated data), generate samples of forecasts and forecast errors, and finally compute samples of test statistics. In particular, we use the fixed regressor bootstrap to construct critical values for the MSE-F and MSE-t tests. We compare the sample test statistics against the bootstrap draws, without any re-centering of the bootstrapped statistics.

3.3 No-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap

For comparison to existing work in the nested model literature (such as Clark and McCracken (2001, 2005), Clark and West (2006, 2007), and McCracken (2007)), we consider results of tests of the null of equal accuracy at the population level, which is equivalent to a null hypothesis of $\beta_{12} = 0$. Appropriate critical values could be obtained from a restricted VAR bootstrap as in Kilian (1999) and Clark and McCracken (2005), among others. Prior work has shown such an approach to be effective for the null of equal accuracy at the population level. Under this approach, vector autoregressive equations for y_t and x_t

are estimated using the full sample of observations, with the residuals stored for sampling. Bootstrapped time series on y_t and x_t are generated by drawing with replacement from the sample residuals and using the autoregressive structures of the estimated VAR to iteratively construct data. Each sample of artificial data is used to estimate forecasting models and generate forecasts and test statistics.

In this paper, though, we instead consider a fixed regressor bootstrap that imposes the null of equal population-level accuracy by restricting β_{12} to equal 0. This bootstrap takes the same form as described in sections 2.4 and 3.2, with the sole difference being that in step 1, $\hat{d} = 0$, which is equivalent to simply estimating the null forecasting model by OLS (model 0, which includes only the variables $x_{0,t}$) rather than the alternative model (model 1, which includes the variables $x_{0,t}$ and $x_{12,t}$). In the results below, we refer to this as the *no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap*. We use the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap to construct critical values for tests of equal forecast accuracy based on the MSE-F, MSE-t, and CW-t tests. For all tests, because the null hypothesis of $\beta_{12} = 0$ is imposed in the data generation process, no adjustment of the sample test statistics is needed for inference. We simply compare the sample test statistics against the bootstrap draws, without any re-centering.

While we omit the theoretical proofs in the interest of brevity, it is straightforward to use the more general results of section 2 to prove the asymptotic validity of the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap for the null of equal forecast accuracy in population (including consistency under the alternative that model 1 is more accurate in population).[7] In Clark and McCracken (2001, 2005), we presented Monte Carlo evidence to show that a restricted VAR bootstrap works well for the null of equal accuracy in population, but did not prove the validity of the bootstrap. This paper suffices to establish the asymptotic validity of a fixed regressor bootstrap based on the null forecasting model. Some researchers may also find the fixed regressor bootstrap to be simpler to use than the restricted VAR. While we omit the results in the interest of brevity, in this paper's Monte Carlo experiments the restricted VAR bootstrap yields results very similar to those from the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap.

[7]The validity of the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap does not require that $k_2 = 1$ or that the forecast errors be 1-step ahead and conditionally homoskedastic if $k_2 > 1$. The extra terms in the asymptotic distributions that require these restrictions in the case of the null of equal accuracy in a finite sample drop out in the case of the null of equal accuracy in population, making the restrictions unnecessary for the validity of the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap (for testing equal accuracy in population).

4 Monte Carlo evidence

We use simulations of bivariate and multivariate DGPs based on common macroeconomic applications to evaluate the finite sample properties of the above approaches to testing for equal forecast accuracy. In these simulations, the benchmark forecasting model is a univariate model of the predictand y; the alternative models add lags of various other variables of interest. The general null hypothesis is that the forecast from the alternative model is no more accurate than the benchmark forecast. This general null, however, can take different specific forms: either the variables in the alternative model have no predictive content, in that their coefficients are 0; or the variables have non–zero coefficients, but the coefficients are small enough that the benchmark and alternative models are expected to be equally accurate over the forecast sample. We focus our presentation on recursive forecasts, but include some results for rolling forecasts.

4.1 Monte Carlo design

For all DGPs, we generate data using independent draws of innovations from the normal distribution and the autoregressive structure of the DGP. The initial observations necessitated by the lag structure of each DGP are generated with draws from the unconditional normal distribution implied by the DGP. We consider forecast horizons of one and four steps. With quarterly data in mind, we also consider a range of sample sizes (T, P), reflecting those commonly available in practice: 40,80; 40,120; 80,40; 80,80; 80,120; 120,40; and 120,80.

All of the DGPs are based on empirical relationships among U.S. inflation and a range of predictors, estimated with 1968-2008 data. In all cases, our reported results are based on 5000 Monte Carlo draws and 499 bootstrap replications.

4.1.1 DGPs

DGP 1 is based on the empirical relationship between the change in core PCE inflation (y_t) and the Chicago Fed's index of the business cycle ($x_{1,t}$, the CFNAI):

$$\begin{aligned} y_{t+1} &= -0.4y_t - 0.1y_{t-1} + b_{11}x_{1,t} + u_{t+1} \\ x_{1,t+1} &= 0.7x_{1,t} + v_{1,t+1} \\ &\text{var}\begin{pmatrix} u_{t+1} \\ v_{1,t+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & \\ 0.0 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

In the DGP 1 experiments, which focus on a forecast horizon of 1 step, the alternative (unrestricted) forecasting model takes the form of the DGP equation for y_{t+1} (with constant added); the null or benchmark (restricted) model drops $x_{1,t}$:

$$\text{null: } y_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_2 y_{t-1} + u_{0,t+1}. \tag{6}$$

$$\text{alternative: } y_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_2 y_{t-1} + \beta_3 x_{1,t} + u_{1,t+1}. \tag{7}$$

We consider various experiments with different settings of b_{11}, the coefficient on $x_{1,t}$, which corresponds to the elements of our theoretical construct $\beta_{12}^{*}/\sqrt{T}$. In one set of simulations (Table 1), the coefficient is set to 0, such that the null forecasting model is expected to be more accurate than the alternative. In others (Tables 2 and 3), the coefficient is set to a value that makes the models equally accurate (in expectation) on average over the forecast sample. We determined the appropriate value on the basis of the population moments implied by the model and our asymptotic approximations given in section 2.3. For example, with recursive forecasts and T and P both equal to 80 (this coefficient value changes with T and P), this value is 0.11, about 1/2 of the empirical estimate. In another set of experiments (Table 4), the coefficient is set to 0.3, such that the alternative model is expected to be more accurate than the null.

DGP 2 is based on the empirical relationship of the change in core PCE inflation (y_t) to the CFNAI ($x_{1,t}$), PCE food price inflation less core inflation ($x_{2,t}$), and import price inflation less core inflation ($x_{3,t}$). To simplify the lag structure necessary for reasonable forecasting models, the inflation rates used in forming variables $x_{2,t}$ and $x_{3,t}$ are computed as two-quarter averages. Based on these data, DGP 2 takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} y_{t+1} &= -0.4y_t - 0.1y_{t-1} + b_{11}x_{1,t} + b_{21}x_{2,t} + b_{31}x_{3,t} + u_{t+1} \\ x_{1,t+1} &= 0.7x_{1,t} + v_{1,t+1} \\ x_{2,t+1} &= 0.9x_{2,t} - 0.2x_{2,t-1} + v_{2,t+1} \\ x_{3,t+1} &= 1.1x_{3,t} - 0.3x_{3,t-1} + v_{3,t+1} \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

$$\text{var}\begin{pmatrix} u_t \\ v_{1,t+1} \\ v_{2,t+1} \\ v_{3,t+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & & & \\ 0.0 & 0.3 & & \\ -0.1 & 0.0 & 2.2 & \\ 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.8 & 9.0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In DGP 2 experiments, which also focus on a forecast horizon of 1 step, the null (restricted) and alternative (unrestricted) forecasting models take the following forms, respectively:

$$y_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + u_{0,t+1}. \quad (9)$$

$$y_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_3 x_{1,t} + \beta_4 x_{2,t} + \beta_5 x_{3,t} + u_{1,t+1}. \quad (10)$$

As with DGP 1, we consider experiments with three different settings of the set of b_{ij} coefficients. In one set of experiments (Table 1), all of the b_{ij} coefficients are set to zero, such that the null forecasting model is expected to be more accurate than the alternative. In another set of experiments (Table 4), the coefficients are set at $b_{11} = 0.3$, $b_{12} = 0.1$, and $b_{13} = .015$ (roughly their empirical values). With these values, the alternative model is expected to be more accurate than the null. In others (Tables 2 and 3), the values of the b_{ij} coefficients from the Table 4 experiments are multiplied by a constant less than one, such that, in population, the null and alternative models are expected to be equally accurate, on average, over the forecast sample (we computed the scaling factor using the population moments implied by the model and section 2.3's asymptotic approximations). With T and P at 80, this multiplying constant is 0.41.

DGP 3, which incorporates a forecast horizon of four periods, is also based on the empirical relationship between the change in core PCE inflation (y_t) and the Chicago Fed's index of the business cycle. In this case, though, the model is based on empirical estimates using the four-quarter rate of inflation:[8]

$$\begin{aligned} y_{t+4} &= b_{11} x_{1,t} + e_{t+4} \\ e_{t+4} &= u_{t+4} + .95 u_{t+3} + .9 u_{t+2} + .8 u_{t+1} \\ x_{1,t+4} &= 0.7 x_{1,t+3} + v_{1,t+4} \\ &\text{var}\begin{pmatrix} u_{t+4} \\ v_{1,t+4} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.2 & \\ 0.0 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

In these experiments, the forecasting models are:

$$\text{null: } y_{t+4} = \beta_0 + u_{0,t+4}. \quad (12)$$

$$\text{alternative: } y_{t+4} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + u_{1,t+4}. \quad (13)$$

Again, we consider experiments with different settings of b_{11}, the coefficient on $x_{1,t}$. In Table 1's simulations, the coefficient is set to 0. In Tables 2 and 3 experiments, the coefficient

[8]Specifically, in the empirical estimates underlying the DGP settings, we defined $y_{t+4} = 100\ln(p_{t+4}/p_t) - 100\ln(p_t/p_{t-4})$, where p denotes the core PCE price index.

is set to a value that makes the models equally accurate (in expectation) on average over the forecast sample (again, on the basis of the model-implied population moments and section 2.3's asymptotic approximations). For example, with recursive forecasts and T and P both equal to 80, this value is 0.16. In Table 4's simulations, the coefficient is set to its empirical value of 0.4, such that the alternative model is expected to be more accurate than the null.

4.2 Results

Our interest lays in identifying those testing approaches that yield reasonably accurate inferences on the forecast performance of models. At the outset, then, it may be useful to broadly summarize the forecast performance of competing models under our various alternatives. Accordingly, Figure 1 shows estimated densities of the MSE ratio statistic (the ratio of the null model's MSE to the alternative model's MSE), based on experiments with DGP 2, using $T = P = 80$. We provide three densities, for the cases in which the b_{ij} coefficients of the DGP (8) are: (i) set to 0, such that the null model should be more accurate; (ii) set to non–zero values so as to make the null and alternative models (9) and (10) equally accurate over the forecast sample, according to our local–to–zero asymptotic results; and (iii) set at larger values, such that the alternative model is expected to be more accurate.

As the figure shows, for the DGP which implies the null model should be best, the MSE ratio distribution mostly lays below 1.0. For the DGP that implies the models can be expected to be equally accurate, the distribution is centered at about 1.0. Finally, for the DGP that implies the alternative model can be expected to be best, the distribution mostly lays above 1.0. Among our bootstrap procedures, the no-predictability fixed regressor approach yields, by design, a distribution like that shown for the null best DGP. The fixed regressor bootstrap is intended to estimate a null distribution like that shown for the equally good models DGP. In most of our results, the null will be rejected when the sample MSE ratio lays in the right tail of the bootstrapped distribution.

What, then, might we expect test rejection rates to look like across experiments and bootstraps? For DGPs in which the null model is best, tests compared against the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap should have rejection rates of about 10%, the nominal size. However, the same tests compared against the other bootstraps should have rejection rates below 10%, because given the DGP, the models should not be expected to be equally accurate. For DGPs with coefficients scaled such that the null and alternative models can be expected to be equally accurate, we want the tests compared against the non–parametric and fixed regressor bootstraps to have size of about 10%. That said, as indicated above, we shouldn't expect the non–parametric approach to perform well when applied to recursive forecasts from our nested models (based on the asymptotics of Giacomini and White (2006), the non-parametric bootstrap may perform better for rolling forecasts). We should expect the same tests compared to no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap critical values to yield rejection rates greater than 10%, because the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap distribution should lay to the left of the equal accuracy distribution. Finally, with DGPs that imply the alternative model to be more accurate than the null, we should look for rejection rates that exceed 10%. Again, though, rejection rates based on the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap should generally be higher than rejection rates based on the other approaches.

4.2.1 Null model most accurate

Table 1 presents Monte Carlo results for DGPs in which the x variables considered have no predictive content for y, such that the null forecasting model should be expected to be best in finite samples. These results generally line up with the expectations described above. Comparing the MSE-F, MSE-t and CW-t statistics against no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap critical values consistently yields rejection rates of about the nominal size of 10%. For example, across all the experiments, no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap rejection rates for the MSE-F test range from 9.6% to 11.6%, with rejection rates at about 10% for both the 1-step and 4-step forecast horizons.

Comparing the test statistics to other bootstrap distributions typically yields rejection rates well below 10%, and often close to 0, although with some sensitivity to the forecast horizon. Rejection rates for the MSE-F test based on the fixed regressor bootstrap range from 0.4% to 3.0% at the 1-step horizon and from 2.0% to 4.5% at the 4-step horizon. In most settings, rejection rates based on the non-parametric bootstrap are similar. However, with the non-parametric bootstrap, empirical rejection rates rise as P/T falls. As a result, for the experiments with P/T less than 1/2 (specifically, with (T, P) = (80,40) and (120,40)), size based on the non-parametric bootstrap exceeds size based on the fixed regressor bootstrap. At the extreme, in DGP 3 experiments with 4-step ahead forecasts and (T, P) = (120,40), the MSE-F rejection rate is 9.8% under the non-parametric bootstrap and 4.5% under the fixed regressor bootstrap.

Under any bootstrap approach, results are qualitatively similar for the MSE-F and MSE-t tests. In addition, with the MSE-t test, comparing the test statistic against standard normal critical values (with a one-sided testing approach) yields results very similar to those obtained by comparing the test statistic against critical values from the non-parametric bootstrap. For example, at the 1-step horizon, MSE-t rejection rates range from 0.3% to 4.6% under the non-parametric bootstrap and 0.2% to 4.6% under standard normal critical values.[9] Studies such as Clark and McCracken (2005) have reported similar behavior of the MSE-t test based on standard normal critical values.

4.2.2 Null and alternative models equally accurate: recursive forecasts

Table 2 presents results for DGPs in which the b_{ij} coefficients on some x variables are non–zero but small enough that, under our asymptotic approximation, the null and alternative forecasting models are expected to be equally accurate over the sample considered. These results also generally line up with the expectations described above, and show that, for testing the null of equal forecast accuracy, our proposed fixed regressor procedure is quite reliable.

Tests based on the fixed regressor bootstrap generally have rejection rates of about 10% (the nominal size). For example, in the case of the MSE-F test applied to 1-step ahead forecasts, rejection rates range from 8.3% to 10.3%. Admittedly, rejection rates for 4-step ahead forecast tests are modestly higher, ranging from 12.4% to 14.9% percent.[10] For multi-step horizons, using the fixed regressor bootstrap works better (yielding rates closer to nominal size) when T is relatively large than when T is relatively small. Rejection rates for the MSE-t test compared against critical values from the fixed regressor bootstrap are similar, although a bit lower, ranging from 7.7% to 9.3% at the 1-step horizon and from 11.2% to 13.6% at the 4-step horizon.

Tests based on the other bootstrap intended to test the null of equal accuracy, the non–parametric bootstrap, are somewhat — although not entirely — less reliable indicators of equal accuracy. With critical values from the non-parametric bootstrap, the MSE-F test is somewhat undersized at the 1-step horizon but correctly sized or somewhat oversized at the

[9]However, using a two-sided MSE-t test with standard normal critical values yields a rejection rate in excess of the nominal size, reflecting rejections of the (larger) alternative model in favor of the (smaller) null.

[10]The over-sizing of the fixed regressor bootstrap at the 4-step horizon most likely has to do with the HAC estimation of the variance matrix V that determines the coefficient rescaling factor. Table 1 shows that, when the small model is the true one, the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap (which doesn't involve computing V and rescaling coefficients) is correctly sized at even the 4-step horizon.

4-step horizon. As shown in Table 2, the MSE-F test's rejection rate ranges from 4.1% to 8.3% at the 1-step horizon and from 9.1% to 16.2% at the 4-step horizon. As noted above, with the non-parametric approach, empirical rejection rates generally rise as P/T falls. For example, with 4-step ahead forecasts (for DGP 3) and $T = 80$, the MSE-F rejection rate is 9.4% when $P = 120$ and 15.6% when $P = 40$. Rejection rates for the MSE-t test compared against critical values from the non-parametric bootstrap are similar, although typically a bit higher, ranging from 5.0% to 10.0% at the 1-step horizon and from 9.4% to 15.2% at the 4-step horizon.

In addition, comparing the MSE-t test against standard normal critical values (with a one-sided testing approach) yields results similar to those obtained by comparing the test statistic against critical values from the non-parametric bootstrap. For instance, at the 1-step horizon, MSE-t rejection rates range from 4.7% to 8.6% under standard normal critical values, compared to a range of 5.0% to 10.0% under the non-parametric bootstrap. Accordingly, the MSE-t test compared against standard normal critical values is somewhat undersized at the 1-step horizon but correctly or somewhat oversized at the 4-step horizon.

Tests based on the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap may be seen as unreliable indicators of equal forecast accuracy — in that they overstate the likelihood of two models being equally accurate in a finite sample. Comparing test statistics against critical values from the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap generally yields rejection rates far in excess of 10%. As in prior studies such as Clark and McCracken (2005) using a restricted VAR bootstrap, rejection rates rise as P increases. In the case of the MSE-F test, rejection rates range from 22.5% to 46.3% (Table 2). Similarly, rejection rates for the CW-t test based on critical values from the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap range from 18.9% to 51.6%.

4.2.3 Null and alternative models equally accurate: rolling forecasts

Table 3 provides results for experiments using a rolling forecast scheme instead of the baseline recursive scheme, for models parameterized to make the null and alternative models equally accurate (the necessary scaling factor is a bit different in the rolling case than the recursive). In general, the results for the rolling scheme are very similar to those for the recursive. Under both schemes, tests based on the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap reject too often. Tests based on our fixed regressor bootstrap have size of about 10% (the nominal size), although with some slight to modest oversizing at the 4-step horizon. Tests based on the non-parametric bootstrap or standard normal critical values continue to be undersized at the 1-step horizon, although the problem is a bit worse under the rolling scheme than the recursive.[11] For example, with DGP 1, $T = 40$, and $P = 80$, comparing the MSE-t test against critical values estimated with the non-parametric bootstrap yields a rejection rate of 6.5% for recursive forecasts (Table 2) and 4.9% for rolling forecasts (Table 3); comparing the test against fixed regressor bootstrap critical values yields corresponding rejection rates of 8.8% (recursive) and 8.6% (rolling). At the 4-step horizon, tests based on the non-parametric bootstrap or standard normal critical values continue to range from correctly sized to oversized, with oversizing that is sharpest when P is small.

Our rolling scheme results on the behavior of the MSE-t test compared against non-parametric bootstrap and standard normal critical values are somewhat at odds with the behavior of the test in Giacomini and White (2006). Giacomini and White (2006) compare the MSE-t test against standard normal critical values, and find a two-sided test to be roughly correctly sized at the one-step forecast horizon, with small-to-modest undersizing for some sample sizes and comparable oversizing for others. One source of differences in results is our treatment of the test as one-sided rather than two-sided. Giacomini and White (2006) permit rejections of the alternative model in favor of the null and conduct two-sided tests; we prefer to take the small model as the null and only consider rejections of the null in favor of the alternative, or one-sided tests. When we use a two-sided MSE-t and standard normal critical values (while not shown in the interest of brevity, the same applies with critical values from the non-parametric bootstrap), the test is roughly correctly sized at the 1-step horizon and correctly sized to somewhat oversized at the 4-step horizon (the same applies in the recursive forecast results of Table 2). The increase in rejection rates that occurs with the move from a one-sided to two-sided test likely reflects an empirical distribution that is shifted to the left relative to the standard normal.

Admittedly, though, other aspects of our Monte Carlo results seem to be at odds with the asymptotic results of Giacomini and White (2006), if not their Monte Carlo results. Their asymptotics imply the MSE-t test has an asymptotic distribution that is standard normal for rolling forecasts but not recursive forecasts, suggesting the test should have better size properties in the rolling case than the recursive. But in our Monte Carlo results,

[11] The rise in rejection rates that occurs as P/T falls is a bit sharper in the rolling case than the recursive. As a consequence, the differences in rejection rates (based on the non-parametric bootstrap or standard normal critical values) across the recursive and rolling forecasting schemes are larger when P/T is relatively big than when it is relatively small.

the standard normal approximation for MSE-t seems to work better with recursive forecasts than rolling, yielding 1-step ahead rejection rates closer to nominal in the former case than the latter. In addition, their theory rests on asymptotics that treat T as fixed and P as limiting to infinity, which suggests the test should behave better when P is large relative to T than when P is relatively small. In fact, in our Monte Carlo results, rejection rates based on the non-parametric bootstrap and standard normal critical values tend to be farther from nominal size when P is large than when it is small. In the case of the second issue, the Monte Carlo results in Giacomini and White (2006) seem to yield a similar pattern, with rejection rates falling as the forecast sample increases relative to the estimation sample, often to levels consistent with the undersizing we have reported.

4.2.4 Alternative model most accurate

Table 4 provides results for DGPs in which the b_{ij} coefficients on some x variables are large enough that, under our asymptotics, the alternative model is expected to be more accurate than the null model in the finite sample.

As anticipated, comparing the test statistics against critical values estimated with the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap yields the highest rejection rate. In the case of the MSE-F test, rejection rates range from 57.0% to 93.4%. Comparing the test statistics against critical values estimated with the fixed regressor bootstrap yields modestly lower rejection rates. For the MSE-F test, rejection rates range from 42.8% to 82.1%. Comparing tests against distributions estimated with the non–parametric bootstrap yields materially lower power. In Table 4's results, using the non–parametric bootstrap for the MSE-F test yields a rejection rate between 25.0% and 56.9%.

Rejection rates for the MSE-t test are broadly similar to those for the MSE-F test, although with some noticeable differences. In most cases in Table 4's results, the MSE-t test is less powerful than the MSE-F test (as with the fixed regressor bootstrap), but in some cases (as with the non–parametric bootstrap), the MSE-t test is more powerful. Finally, as noted above in other experiment settings, the power of the C-W t-test is broadly comparable to that of the MSE-F test compared against no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap critical values.

4.2.5 Results summary

Overall, the Monte Carlo results show that, for testing equal forecast accuracy over a given sample, our proposed fixed regressor bootstrap works well. When the null of equal accuracy in the finite sample is true, the testing procedures yield approximately correctly sized tests. When an alternative model is, in truth, more accurate than the null, the testing procedures have reasonable power. The non–parametric bootstrap procedure, which just re–samples the data without imposing the equal accuracy null in the data generation, tends to be less reliable when applied to nested forecasting models. Finally, in line with prior research, for the purpose of testing the null that certain coefficients are 0, a bootstrap imposing the null of 0 coefficients — here, the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap — is reliable. However, the null of 0 coefficients is not the same as the null of equal forecast accuracy.

5 Applications

In this section we use the tests and inference approaches described above in forecasting excess stock returns and core inflation, both for the U.S. Some recent examples from the long literature on stock return forecasting include Rapach and Wohar (2006), Goyal and Welch (2008), and Campbell and Thompson (2008). Some recent inflation examples include Atkeson and Ohanian (2001) and Stock and Watson (2003).

More specifically, in the stock return application, we use the data of Goyal and Welch (2008), and examine forecasts of monthly excess stock returns (CRSP excess returns measured on a log basis) from a total of 17 models. The null model includes just a constant. The alternative models add in one lag of a common predictor, taken from the set of variables in the Goyal-Welch data set available over all of our sample.[12] These include, among others, the dividend-price ratio, the earnings-price ratio, and the cross-sectional premium. The full set of 16 predictive variables is listed in Table 5, with details provided in Goyal and Welch (2008). Following studies such as Pesaran and Timmermann (1995), we focus on the post-war period. Our model estimation sample begins with January 1954, and we examine recursive 1-month ahead forecasts (that is, our estimation sample expands as forecasting moves forward in time) for 1970 through 2002.

In the inflation application, we examine 1-quarter ahead and 4-quarter (1-year) ahead forecasts of core PCE inflation obtained from a few models, over a sample of 1985:Q1+horizon-

[12] We obtained the data from Amit Goyal's website.

1 to 2008:Q2. The null model includes a constant and lags of the change in inflation. One alternative model adds one lag of the CFNAI to the baseline model. Another includes one lag of the CFNAI, PCE food price inflation less core inflation, and import price inflation less core inflation.[13] We specify the models in terms of the change in inflation, following, among others, Stock and Watson (1999, 2003) and Clark and McCracken (2006). In one application, we consider one-quarter ahead forecasts of inflation defined as $\pi_t = 400 \ln(P_t/P_{t-1})$, using models relating $\Delta\pi_{t+1}$ to a constant, $\Delta\pi_t$, $\Delta\pi_{t-1}$, and the period t values of the CFNAI, relative food price inflation, and relative import price inflation. In another, we consider one-year ahead forecasts of inflation defined as $\pi_t^{(4)} = 100 \ln(P_t/P_{t-4})$, using models relating $\pi_{t+4}^{(4)} - \pi_t^{(4)}$ to a constant, $\pi_t^{(4)} - \pi_{t-4}^{(4)}$, and the period t values of the CFNAI, relative food price inflation, and relative import price inflation. To simplify the lag structure necessary for reasonable forecasting models, the (relative) food and import price inflation variables are computed as two-period averages of quarterly (relative) inflation rates. For both inflation forecast horizons, our model estimation sample uses a start date of 1968:Q3.

Results for the stock return and inflation forecast applications are reported in Tables 5 and 6. The tables provide, for each alternative model, the ratio of the MSE of forecasts from the benchmark model to the alternative model's forecast MSE. The tables include p-values for the null that the benchmark model is true (no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap) or that the models are equally accurate in the finite sample (the non–parametric and fixed regressor bootstraps). In the interest of brevity, results are only presented for the MSE-F test. We use 9999 replications in computing the bootstrap p-values.

In the case of excess stock returns, the evidence in Table 5 is consistent with much of the literature: return predictability is limited. Of the 16 alternative forecasting models, only two — the first two in the table — have MSEs lower than the benchmark (that is, MSE ratios greater than 1). The no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap p-values reject the null model in favor of the alternative for each of these two models. These test results indicate the predictor coefficients on the cross-sectional premium and return on long-term Treasuries are non–zero. However, p-values based on the fixed regressor bootstrap imply weaker evidence of forecastability, with the null of equal forecast accuracy rejected for the cross-sectional premium, but not the Treasury return (at a 10% significance level). This pattern suggests that, while the coefficient on the Treasury return may differ from zero, the

[13] We obtained the CFNAI data from the Chicago Fed's website and the rest of the data from the FAME database of the Federal Reserve Board of Governors.

coefficient is not large enough that a model including the Treasury return would be expected to forecast better than the null model over a sample of the size considered. Critical values based on the non-parametric bootstrap yield no rejections, presumably (given our Monte Carlo evidence) reflecting lower power.

The inflation results reported in Table 6 yield similarly mixed evidence of predictability. By itself, the CFNAI improves the accuracy of 1-quarter ahead forecasts but not 4-quarter ahead forecasts. At the 1-step horizon, the no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap p-values reject the null model in favor of the alternative — indicating the predictor coefficients on the CFNAI to be non–zero. However, p-values based on the fixed regressor bootstrap fail to reject the null of equal accuracy. So while the coefficient on the CFNAI may differ from zero, it is not large enough that a model including the CFNAI would be expected to forecast better than the null model in a sample of the size considered. Including not only the CFNAI but also relative food and import price inflation yields larger gains in forecast accuracy, at both horizons. In this case, critical values from both the no-predictability fixed regressor and fixed regressor bootstrap reject the null (at a 10% significance level). This suggests the relevant coefficients are non-zero and large enough to make the alternative model more accurate than the null. Here, too, critical values based on the non-parametric bootstrap yield fewer rejections.

6 Conclusion

This paper develops bootstrap methods for testing, whether, in a finite sample, competing out-of-sample forecasts from nested models are equally accurate. Most prior work on forecast tests for nested models has focused on a null hypothesis of equal accuracy in population — basically, whether coefficients on the extra variables in the larger, nesting model are zero. We instead use an asymptotic approximation that treats the coefficients as non-zero but small, such that, in a finite sample, forecasts from the small model are expected to be as accurate as forecasts from the large model. While an unrestricted, correctly specified model might have better population-level predictive ability than a misspecified restricted model, it need not do so in finite samples due to imprecision in the additional parameter estimates. In the presence of these "weak" predictors, we show how to test the null of equal average predictive ability over a given sample size.

Under our asymptotic approximation of weak predictive ability, we first derive the asymptotic distributions of two tests for equal out-of-sample predictive ability. We then develop a parametric bootstrap procedure — a fixed regressor bootstrap — for testing the null of equal finite-sample forecast accuracy. We next conduct a range of Monte Carlo simulations to examine the finite–sample properties of the tests and bootstrap procedures. For tests of equal population-level predictive ability, we find that a no-predictability fixed regressor bootstrap (like the restricted VAR bootstrap used in prior work) provides accurately sized tests. However, this does not continue to hold when we consider tests of equal finite-sample predictive ability in the presence of weak predictors. Instead, our proposed fixed regressor bootstrap works reasonably well: When the null of equal finite-sample predictive ability is true, the testing procedure yields approximately correctly sized tests. Moreover when an alternative model is, in truth, more accurate than the null, the testing procedure has reasonable power. In contrast, when applied to nested models, the non-parametric method of White (2000) does not work so well, in a size or power sense.

In the final part of our analysis, we apply our proposed methods for testing equal predictive ability to forecasts of excess stock returns and core inflation, using U.S. data. In both applications, our methods for testing equal finite sample accuracy yield weaker evidence of predictability than do methods for testing equal population-level accuracy. There remains some evidence, but only modest. Using non-parametric bootstrap methods that are technically invalid with nested models — methods that have relatively poor size and power properties — yields much less evidence of predictability.

7 Appendix: Theory Details

In the following, in addition to the notation from Section 2, define $h^*_{T,1,s+\tau} = x_{T,1,s}v^*_{1,s+\tau}$ and $\hat{h}^*_{T,1,s+\tau} = x_{T,1,s}\hat{v}^*_{1,s+\tau}$. For the recursive scheme define $H^*_{T,1}(t) = t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau} h^*_{T,1,s+\tau}$ and $\hat{H}^*_{T,1}(t) = t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}\hat{h}^*_{T,1,s+\tau}$ while for the rolling scheme define $H^*_{T,1}(t) = T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-T-\tau+1}^{t-\tau} h^*_{T,1,s+\tau}$ and $\hat{H}^*_{T,1}(t) = T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-T-\tau+1}^{t-\tau}\hat{h}^*_{T,1,s+\tau}$ Moreover let $\sup_t |.|$ denote $\sup_{T\leq t\leq T+P-\tau}|.|$.

Proof of Theorem 2.1: (a) The result is a special case of Theorem 1 of Clark and McCracken (2009) and as a result, we provide only an outline of the proof here. The proof consists of two steps. In the first we provide an asymptotic expansion. In the second we apply a functional central limit theorem and a weak convergence to stochastic integrals result, both from de Jong and Davidson (2000). Throughout we ignore the finite sample difference between P and $P-\tau+1$.

For the first step, straightforward algebra reveals that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(\hat{u}^2_{0,t+\tau} - \hat{u}^2_{1,t+\tau}) \qquad (14)\\
= \; & \{2\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{-1/2}h'_{T,1,t+\tau})(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))(T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t)) \\
& -T^{-1}\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H'_{T,1}(t))(-JB_0(t)x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,0,t}B_0(t)J' \\
& +B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t}B_1(t))(T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t))\} \\
& +2\{\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\delta' B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))(T^{-1/2}h_{T,1,t+\tau})\} \\
& +\{T^{-1}\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\delta'(x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t} - 2x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t}JB_0(t)J'B_1^{-1}(t) \\
& +B_1^{-1}(t)JB_0(t)x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,0,t}B_0(t)J'B_1^{-1}(t))\delta\} \\
& +2\{T^{-1}\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\delta'(B_1^{-1}(t)JB_0(t)x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,0,t}B_0(t)J' \\
& -x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t}JB_0(t)J')(T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t))\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Given Assumptions 3 (c) and 5, straightforward moment-based bounding arguments, along with the definitions of $\tilde{A}$, $\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}$, and $\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t)$ imply

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(\hat{u}^2_{0,t+\tau} - \hat{u}^2_{1,t+\tau}) = \sigma^2\{2\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{-1/2}\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau})(T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t)) \\
& -T^{-1}\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t))(T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t))\} + \sigma^2\{2\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(\delta' B_1^{-1/2}\tilde{A}/\sigma)(T^{-1/2}\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau})\} \\
& +\sigma^2\{(P/T)(\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1}J_2'\delta/\sigma^2)\} + o_p(1).
\end{aligned}$$

For the second step we apply weak convergence results from de Jong and Davidson (2000), notably Theorem 3.2. Taking limits, and noting that $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t) \Rightarrow s^{-1}S^{1/2}_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}W(s)$ we obtain the stochastic integrals presented in the statement of the Theorem.

$$\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2) =$$
$$\sigma^2\{2\int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1}W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}dW(s) - \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-2}W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}W(s)ds\}$$
$$+\sigma^2\{\int_1^{1+\lambda_P}(\delta' B_1^{-1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}dW(s)\} + \sigma^2\{\lambda_P\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1}J_2'\delta/\sigma^2\}.$$

That $\text{MSE}_2 \to_p \sigma^2$ then provides the desired result.

(b) The proof is largely the same as for the recursive scheme. The only important difference is that instead of $H_{T,1}(t) = (t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau} h_{T,1,s+\tau})$ for the recursive scheme we now have $H_{T,1}(t) = (T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-\tau-T+1}^{t-\tau} h_{T,1,s+\tau})$ for the rolling scheme. Hence in the final step of the proof for the recursive scheme we have $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t) \Rightarrow s^{-1}S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}W(s)$ whereas for the rolling scheme we have $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t) \Rightarrow S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}(W(s) - W(s-1))$. Other differences are minor and omitted for brevity.

Proof of Theorem 2.2: (a) Given Theorem 2.1(a) and the Continuous Mapping Theorem it suffices to show that $P\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\widehat{\gamma}_{dd}(j) \to_d 4\sigma^4(\Gamma_5+\Gamma_6+\Gamma_7)$. Before doing so it is convenient to redefine the bracketed terms from (11) used in the primary decomposition of the loss differential in the proof of Theorem 2.1(absent the summations, but keeping the brackets) as

$$(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2) = \{2A_{1,t} - A_{2,t}\} + 2\{B_t\} + \{C_t\} + 2\{D_t\}. \tag{15}$$

With this in mind, if we ignore the finite sample difference between P and $P-\tau+1$, we obtain

$$P\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\widehat{\gamma}_{dd}(j) = \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^2)(\hat{u}_{0,t-j+\tau}^2 - \hat{u}_{1,t-j+\tau}^2) \tag{16}$$
$$= 4\{\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} A_{1,t}A_{1,t-j}\} + 4\{\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} A_{1,t}B_{t-j}\}$$
$$+4\{\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} B_tB_{t-j}\}$$
$$+ \text{ other cross products of } A_{1,t},\ A_{2,t},\ B_t,\ C_t,\ D_t \text{ with } A_{1,t-j},\ A_{2,t-j},\ B_{t-j},\ C_{t-j},\ D_{t-j}.$$

In the remainder we show that each of the 3 bracketed terms in (13) converges to σ^4 times Γ_5, Γ_6, and Γ_7 respectively and that the other cross product terms are each $o_p(1)$.

For the first bracketed term in (13), if we recall the definition of $\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}$ and that $\bar{j}$ is finite, algebra along the lines of Clark and McCracken (2005) gives us

$$\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M) \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} A_{1,t}A_{1,t-j}$$

$$= \sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1} \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}H'_{T,1}(t)B_1^{1/2}/\sigma)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))B_1^{-1/2}\times$$
$$(B_1^{1/2}h_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t-j)J' + B_1(t-j))B_1^{-1/2}(T^{1/2}B_1^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t-j)/\sigma)$$
$$= \sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}H'_{T,1}(t)B_1^{1/2}/\sigma)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0J' + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}\times$$
$$(B_1^{1/2}Eh_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0J' + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}(T^{1/2}B_1^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t)/\sigma) + o_p(1)$$
$$= \sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t))(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau})(T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t)) + o_p(1)$$
$$= \sigma^4(T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} [T^{1/2}\tilde{H}'_{T,1}(t) \otimes T^{1/2}\tilde{H}'_{T,1}(t)])vec[\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau})] + o_p(1).$$

Given Assumptions 3 and 4, $\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}) \to S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}$. Since Assumption 3 and Theorem 3.2 of de Jong and Davidson (2000) suffice for $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t) \Rightarrow s^{-1}S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}W(s)$, the Continuous Mapping Theorem implies

$$T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} T^{1/2}\tilde{H}'_{T,1}(t) \otimes T^{1/2}\tilde{H}'_{T,1}(t) \to_d \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-2}[W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2} \otimes W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}]ds.$$

Since $(\int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-2}[W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2} \otimes W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}]ds)vec[S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}] = \Gamma_5$, we obtain the desired result.

For the second bracketed term in (13), similar arguments give us

$$\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M) \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} A_{1,t}B_{1,t-j} =$$
$$\sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1} \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}H'_{T,1}(t)B_1^{1/2}/\sigma)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))B_1^{-1/2}\times$$
$$(B_1^{1/2}h_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t-j)J' + B_1(t-j))B_1^{-1/2}(t-j)(B_1^{1/2}(t-j)\delta/\sigma)$$
$$= \sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}H'_{T,1}(t)B_1^{1/2}/\sigma)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0J' + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}\times$$
$$(B_1^{1/2}Eh_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0J' + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}(B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma) + o_p(1)$$
$$= \sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t))(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau})(\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma) + o_p(1)$$
$$= \sigma^4(T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} [(\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma)' \otimes T^{1/2}\tilde{H}'_{T,1}(t)])vec[\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau})] + o_p(1).$$

Given Assumptions 3 and 4, $\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}) \rightarrow S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}$. Since Assumption 3 and Theorem 3.2 of de Jong and Davidson (2000) suffice for $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t) \Rightarrow s^{-1}S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}W(s)$, the Continuous Mapping Theorem implies

$$T^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} [(\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma)' \otimes T^{1/2}\tilde{H}'_{T,1}(t)] \rightarrow_d \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1}[(\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma)' \otimes W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}]ds.$$

Since $(\int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1}[(\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma)' \otimes W'(s)S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}]ds)vec[S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}] = \Gamma_6$, we obtain the desired result.

For the third bracketed term in (13), similar arguments give us

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} B_{1,t}B_{1,t-j} = \\
&\sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (\delta' B_1^{1/2}(t)/\sigma)B_1^{-1/2}(t)(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))B_1^{-1/2}\times \\
&(B_1^{1/2}h_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t-j)J' + B_0(t-j))B_1^{-1/2}(t-j)(B_1^{1/2}(t-j)\delta/\sigma) \\
= \;&\sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (\delta' B_1^{1/2}/\sigma)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0J' + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}\times \\
&(B_1^{1/2}Eh_{T,1,t+\tau}h'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0J' + B_1)B_1^{-1/2}(B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma) + o_p(1) \\
= \;&\sigma^4 \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (\delta' B_1^{1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau})(\tilde{A}B_1^{1/2}\delta/\sigma) + o_p(1) \\
= \;&\sigma^4((P/T)[(\delta' B_1^{1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma) \otimes (\delta' B_1^{1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)])vec[\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau})] + o_p(1).
\end{aligned}$$

Given Assumptions 3 and 4, $\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)(E\tilde{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}\tilde{h}'_{T,1,t-j+\tau}) \rightarrow S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}$. Since Assumption 5 implies $P/T \rightarrow \lambda_P$ and $(\lambda_P[(\delta' B_1^{1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma) \otimes (\delta' B_1^{1/2}\tilde{A}'/\sigma)])vec[S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}] = \Gamma_7$, we obtain the desired result.

There are twelve remaining terms in (13) that are cross products of $A_{1,t}$, $A_{2,t}$, B_t, C_t, and D_t with $A_{1,t-j}$, $A_{2,t-j}$, B_{t-j}, C_{t-j}, and D_{t-j} for each j. That each are $o_p(1)$ follow comparable arguments. For brevity we show this for the term comprised of $A_{1,t}$ and $A_{2,t-j}$. For this term we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&|\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} A_{1,t}A_{2,t-j}| = \\
&|\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M)T^{-3/2}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}H'_{T,1}(t))(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t)) \times \\
&(h_{T,1,t+\tau}vec[-JB_0(t)x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,0,t}B_0(t)J' + B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t}B_1(t)]'(T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t-j) \otimes T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t-j))| \\
\leq \;&2\bar{j}k^4T^{-1/2}(T^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |h_{T,1,t+\tau}vec[-JB_0(t)x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,0,t}B_0(t)J' + B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t}B_1(t)]'|) \times \\
&(\sup_{T\leq t\leq T+P-1}|T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t)|)^3(\sup_{T\leq t\leq T+P-1}| - JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t)|).
\end{aligned}$$

Assumptions 3 and 5, along with de Jong and Davidson (2000) suffice for $\sup_{T\leq t\leq T+P-1}|T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(t)|=O_p(1)$. Assumption 3 along with Markov's inequality imply both

$$T^{-1}\sum\nolimits_{t=T}^{T+P-1}|h_{T,1,t+\tau}vec[-JB_1(t)x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,0,t}B_0(t)J'+B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x'_{T,1,t}B_1(t)]'|=O_p(1)$$

and $\sup_{T\leq t\leq T+P-1}|-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t)|=O_p(1)$. Since $\bar{j}$ and k are finite and $T^{-1/2}=o_p(1)$, the proof is complete.

(b) The proof is largely the same as for the recursive scheme. And as was the case for Theorem 2.1, the primary difference is that instead of $H_{T,1}(t)=(t^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}h_{T,1,s+\tau})$ for the recursive scheme we now have $H_{T,1}(t)=(T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-\tau-T+1}^{t-\tau}h_{T,1,s+\tau})$ for the rolling scheme. Hence in each step of the proof for the recursive scheme where the fact that $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t)\Rightarrow s^{-1}S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}W(s)$ is used, we instead use the fact that for the rolling scheme $T^{1/2}\tilde{H}_{T,1}(t)\Rightarrow S_{\tilde{h}\tilde{h}}^{1/2}(W(s)-W(s-1))$. Other differences are minor and omitted for brevity.

Lemma 1: Maintain Assumptions 2, 3′, 4, and 5 as well as either Assumption 1 or 1′. (a) $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}=O_p(1)$. (b) $\sup_{T\leq t\leq T+P-\tau}|T^{1/2}(\hat{H}^*_{T,1}(t)-H^*_{T,1}(t))|=o_p(1)$.

Proof of Lemma 1: (a) Let $\hat{\zeta}$ denote the Lagrange multiplier[14] associated with the ridge regression and define $C_{12}(T)=J'B_1^{-1}(T)J_2$ and $C_{12}=\lim_{T\to\infty}E(x_{T,0,t}x'_{T,12,t})$.

(a-i) Maintain Assumption 1. The definition of the ridge estimator implies that for $\frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}=\sqrt{\frac{\hat{d}}{(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(T)J_2'(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{1,T})}}$, the ridge estimator takes the form

$$\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}=\begin{pmatrix} I & \frac{\hat{\zeta}}{1+\hat{\zeta}}B_0(T)C_{12}(T) \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}I\end{pmatrix}\hat{\beta}_{1,T}=\begin{pmatrix} I & \frac{\hat{\zeta}}{1+\hat{\zeta}}B_0(T)C_{12}(T) \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}I\end{pmatrix}(\beta^*+T^{-1/2}\delta+B_1(T)H_{T,1}(T)).$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} &= J_2'\begin{pmatrix} I & \frac{\hat{\zeta}}{1+\hat{\zeta}}B_0(T)C_{12}(T) \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}I\end{pmatrix}[\delta+B_1(T)(T^{1/2}H_{T,1}(T))] \\ &\to_d J_2'\begin{pmatrix} I & \frac{\zeta^*}{1+\zeta^*}B_0C_{12} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1+\zeta^*}I\end{pmatrix}N(\delta,B_1VB_1)\end{aligned}$$

where

$\zeta^*=^d(N(\delta,B_1VB_1))'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(N(\delta,B_1VB_1))$ a mixed non-central chi-square variate, and the proof is complete.

(a-ii) Maintain Assumption 1′. The ridge estimator takes the form

$$\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}=\begin{pmatrix} I & \frac{\hat{\zeta}}{1+\hat{\zeta}}B_0(T)C_{12}(T) \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}I\end{pmatrix}\hat{\beta}_{1,T}=\begin{pmatrix} I & \frac{\hat{\zeta}}{1+\hat{\zeta}}B_0(T)C_{12}(T) \\ 0 & \frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}I\end{pmatrix}(\beta_1^*+B_1(T)H_{T,1}(T)).$$

[14] This multiplier satisfies $(\frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}})^2=\frac{\hat{d}}{(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(T)J_2'(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{1,T})}$ and hence $\hat{\zeta}$ is unique only up to its' sign. In all aspects of this paper we use the value satisfying $\frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}=\sqrt{\frac{\hat{d}}{(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(T)J_2'(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{1,T})}}$. Choosing the opposite sign is irrelevant since, in every case, what matters is not the value of $\frac{1}{1+\hat{\zeta}}$ but it's square.

Hence

$$T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{d}}{\hat{\beta}_{1,T}'J_2F_1^{-1}(T)J_2'\hat{\beta}_{1,T}}}J_2'[\beta_1^* + B_1(T)H_{T,1}(T)]$$
$$\to_p \sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*}}\beta_{12}^*$$

and the proof is complete.

(b) For ease of presentation, we show the result for the recursive scheme and assuming $\tau = 2$ and hence $\widehat{v}_{T,1,s+2}^* = \eta_{s+2}\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2} + \widehat{\theta}\eta_{s+1}\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}$ and $v_{T,1,s+2}^* = \eta_{s+2}\varepsilon_{T,1,s+2} + \theta\eta_{s+1}\varepsilon_{T,1,s+1}$. (a) Rearranging terms gives us,

$$T^{1/2}(\widehat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) - H_{T,1}^*(t)) = T^{-1/2}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}(\widehat{v}_{T,1,s+2}^* - v_{T,1,s+2})x_{T,1,s} =$$
$$T^{-1/2}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}(\eta_{s+2}(\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2} - \varepsilon_{T,1,s+2}) + \theta\eta_{s+1}(\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1} - \varepsilon_{T,1,s+1}) +$$
$$(\widehat{\theta} - \theta)\eta_{s+1}(\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1} - \varepsilon_{T,1,s+1}) + (\widehat{\theta} - \theta)\eta_{s+1}\varepsilon_{T,1,s+1})x_{T,1,s}.$$

If we take a first order Taylor expansion of both $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}$ and $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}$, then for some $\overline{\gamma}_T$ in the closed cube with opposing vertices $\widehat{\gamma}_T$ and γ_T we obtain

$$T^{1/2}(\widehat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) - H_{T,1}^*(t)) =$$
$$T^{-1/2}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}(\eta_{s+2}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T)(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T) + \theta\eta_{s+1}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)$$
$$+(\widehat{\theta} - \theta)\eta_{s+1}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T) + (\widehat{\theta} - \theta)\eta_{s+1}\varepsilon_{T,1,s+1})x_{T,1,s}$$

and hence

$$\sup_t |T^{1/2}(\widehat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) - H_{T,1}^*(t))| \leq$$
$$2k_1 \sup_t |T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}\eta_{s+2}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T)x_{T,1,s}||T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)|$$
$$+\theta 2k_1 \sup_t |T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}\eta_{s+1}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)x_{T,1,s}||T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)|$$
$$+(\widehat{\theta} - \theta)2k_1 \sup_t |T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}\eta_{s+1}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)x_{T,1,s}||T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)|$$
$$+(T^{1/2}(\widehat{\theta} - \theta))\sup_t |T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{t-\tau}\eta_{s+1}\varepsilon_{T,1,s+1}x_{T,1,s}|.$$

Assumptions 1 or 1′, along with 3′ suffice for both $T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)$ and $T^{1/2}(\widehat{\theta} - \theta)$ to be $O_p(1)$. In addition since, for large enough samples, Assumption 6 bounds the second moments of $\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T)$ and $\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)$ as well as $x_{T,1,s}$, the fact that the $\eta_{s+\tau}$ are *i.i.d.* $N(0,1)$ then implies $T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau}\eta_{s+2}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T)x_{T,1,s}$, $T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau}\eta_{s+1}\nabla\widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)x_{T,1,s}$, and $T^{-1}\sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau}\eta_{s+1}\times$

$\varepsilon_{T,1,s+1}x_{T,1,s}$ are all $o_{a.s.}(1)$. This in turn, (along with Assumption 5) implies that $sup_t|.|$ of each of the partial sums is $o_p(1)$ and the proof is complete.

Proof of Theorem 2.3: We provide details for the recursive scheme noting differences for the rolling later. Straightforward algebra implies that

$$\begin{array}{l}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}(\hat{u}_{0,t+\tau}^{*2}-\hat{u}_{1,t+\tau}^{*2})=\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\{2h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))H_{T,1}^{*}(t)\\ -H_{T,1}^{\prime*}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'B_1(t))H_{T,1}^{*}(t)\}\\ +T^{-1/2}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\{2h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))B_1^{-1}(t)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\}\\ +T^{-1}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))B_1^{-1}(t)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\}\\ \\ +2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\{h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))(\hat{H}_{T,1}^{*}(t)-H_{T,1}^{*}(t))\\ +(\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^{*}-h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{*})'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))H_{T,1}^{*}(t)\\ -H_{T,1}^{\prime*}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'B_1(t))(\hat{H}_{T,1}^{*}(t)-H_{T,1}^{*}(t))\\ +(\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^{*}-h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{*})'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))(\hat{H}_{T,1}^{*}(t)-H_{T,1}^{*}(t))\\ -(0.5)(\hat{H}_{T,1}^{*}(t)-H_{T,1}^{*}(t))'(-JB_0(t)J'x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'B_1(t))(\hat{H}_{T,1}^{*}(t)-H_{T,1}^{*}(t))\\ -\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}'B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'JB_0(t)J'H_{T,1}^{*}(t)\\ +\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}'B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))(\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^{*}-h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{*})\\ -\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}'B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'JB_0(t)J'(\hat{H}_{T,1}^{*}(t)-H_{T,1}^{*}(t))\}\end{array} \tag{17}$$

Note that there are 4 bracketed $\{.\}$ terms in (14). The first three are directly analogous to the three bracketed terms in (11) from the proof of Theorem 2.1. We will show that these three terms have limits $\Gamma_i^* =^d \Gamma_i$, for Γ_i $i = 1-4$ defined in the text. The additional assumption of either conditional homoskedasticity or $k_1 = 1$ are needed only in the proof for $\Gamma_3^* =^d \Gamma_3$. Finally, we then show that the remaining fourth bracketed term is $o_p(1)$.

<u>Proof of bracket 1</u>: The sole difference between this term and that in the proof of Theorem 2.1 is that they are defined in terms of $h_{1,t+\tau}^*$ rather than $h_{1,t+\tau}$. Since these terms have the same first and second moments, as well as the same mixing properties, the exact same proof is applicable and hence we have

$$\begin{array}{l}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}\{2h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))H_{T,1}^{*}(t)\\ -H_{T,1}^{\prime*}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'B_1(t))H_{T,1}^{*}(t)\}\to_d 2\Gamma_1^*-\Gamma_2^*\end{array}$$

where Γ_1^* and Γ_2^* denote independent replicas of Γ_1 and Γ_2 respectively. Independence follows from the fact that the $\eta_{t+\tau}$ are $i.i.d.$ $N(0,1)$.

<u>Proof of bracket 2</u>: Rearranging terms gives us

$$\begin{array}{l}T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))B_1^{-1}(t)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\\ =T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)(T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\end{array}.$$

From Lemma 1 we know $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} = O_p(1)$. Algebra along the lines of Clark and McCracken (2005) then gives us

$$T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)(T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})=T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}h_{T,1,t+\tau}^{\prime*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}(T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1).$$

This term is a bit different from that for the second bracketed term in Theorem 2.1. There, the second bracketed term takes the form $T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau}h_{T,1,t+\tau}'B_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*+o_p(1)$. What makes them different here is that since $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ is not consistent for β_{12}^*, it is not the case that $T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}(T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})$ equals $T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*+o_p(1)$.

However, it is true that both terms are asymptotically normal. For the former, clearly

$$T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'B_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* \to_d \Gamma_2 \sim N(0,4\Omega)$$

where $\Omega = \lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*'}F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*$. But for the latter, due to the *i.i.d.* $N(0,1)$ (and strictly exogenous) nature of the $\eta_{t+\tau}$, we have

$$T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \to_d \Gamma_3^* \sim N(0,4W)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
&W = \lim Var\{T^{-1/2}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} \\
&= \lambda_P \lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1\{\lim Var(P^{-1/2}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*})\}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} \\
&= \lambda_P \lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\}
\end{aligned}.$$

The precise relationship between Γ_3^* and Γ_3 depends on the relationship between Ω and W. This in turn depends upon the additional restrictions in the statement of the Theorem.

(a) If we let $V = \sigma^2B_1^{-1}$, W simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned}
&W = \sigma^2\lambda_P \lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} \\
&= \sigma^2\lambda_P \lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(T)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} \\
&= \sigma^2\lambda_P \lim E\{\hat{d}\} = \sigma^2\lambda_P d
\end{aligned}.$$

The result follows since under the null hypothesis, $\Omega = \lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*'}F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* = \sigma^2\lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*'}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* = \sigma^2\lambda_P d$.

(b) If we let $\dim(\beta_{12}^*) = 1, W$ simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned}
&W = \lambda_P \lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} \\
&= \lambda_P \lim E\{(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{12,T})^2(F_1^{-1})^2J_2'B_1VB_1J_2\}
\end{aligned}.$$

But $\hat{\beta}_{12,T}$ was estimated satisfying the restriction that $(T^{1/2}\hat{\beta}_{12,T})^2 = F_1(T)\hat{d}$ and hence $W = \lambda_P \lim E\{F_1(T)\hat{d}(F_1^{-1})^2J_2'B_1VB_1J_2\} = \lambda_P F_1^{-1}dJ_2'B_1VB_1J_2$. Following similar arguments, we also have $\Omega = \lambda_P(\beta_{12}^*)^2(F_1^{-1})^2J_2'B_1VB_1J_2$. But under the null, $(\beta_{12}^*)^2 = dF_1$ and the proof is complete.

Proof of bracket 3: Rearranging terms gives us

$$\begin{aligned}
&T^{-1}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))B_1^{-1}(t)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\
&= T^{-1}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})
\end{aligned}.$$

From Lemma 1 we know $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} = O_p(1)$. From there, algebra long the lines of Clark and McCracken (2005) gives us

$$\begin{aligned}
&T^{-1}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'B_1(t)x_{T,1,t}x_{T,1,t}'B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\
&= T^{-1}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'B_1(t)B_1^{-1}B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) + o_p(1) \\
&= T^{-1}\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) + o_p(1) \\
&= (P-\tau+1/T)\hat{d} + o_p(1) \to_p \lambda_P d \equiv \Gamma_4^*
\end{aligned}.$$

The result follows since under the null hypothesis, $\Gamma_4 \equiv \beta_{12}^{*'} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \lambda_P d$.

Proof of bracket 4: We must show that each of the eight components of the fourth bracketed term in (14) are $o_p(1)$. The proofs of each are similar and as such we show the results only for the fourth and seventh components. If we take absolute value of the former we find that

$$
\begin{aligned}
&|\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*)'(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))(\hat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) - H_{T,1}^*(t))| \\
&\leq k_1^2 (T^{-1/2} \textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*|)(\sup_t |-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t)|)(\sup_t T^{1/2}|\hat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) - H_{T,1}^*(t)|)
\end{aligned}
$$

while straightforward algebra along the lines of Clark and McCracken (2005) gives us

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}' B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t))(\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*) \\
&= (T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})' F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 (T^{-1/2} \textstyle\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*)) + o_p(1).
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 1 implies both $\sup_t T^{1/2}|\hat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) - H_{T,1}^*(t)| = o_p(1)$ and $T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} = O_p(1)$ while Assumption 3$'$ suffices for $\sup_t |-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t)| = O_p(1)$. That $T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} (\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*) = o_p(1)$ follows an almost identical line of proof to that in Lemma 1b (without the $\sup_t |.|$ component) but with a different range of summation.

The result will follow if $T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*| = o_p(1)$. For simplicity we assume, as in the proof of Lemma 1, that $\tau = 2$ and hence the forecast errors form an $MA(1)$. If we then take a Taylor expansion in precisely the same fashion as in the proof of Lemma 1 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\hat{h}_{T,1,t+\tau}^* - h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*| \leq \\
&2k_1 T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\eta_{t+2} \nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,t+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T) x_{T,1,t}||T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)| \\
&+\theta 2k_1 T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\eta_{s+1} \nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,t+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T) x_{T,1,t}||T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)| \\
&+(\widehat{\theta} - \theta) 2k_1 T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\eta_{t+1} \nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,t+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T) x_{T,1,t}||T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)| \\
&+(T^{1/2}(\widehat{\theta} - \theta)) T^{-1} \sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} |\eta_{t+1} \varepsilon_{T,1,t+1} x_{T,1,t}|.
\end{aligned}
$$

Assumptions 1 or 1$'$ and 3$'$ suffice for both $T^{1/2}(\widehat{\gamma}_T - \gamma_T)$ and $T^{1/2}(\widehat{\theta} - \theta)$ to be $O_p(1)$. Since, for large enough samples, Assumption 3$'$ bounds the second moments of $\nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T)$ and $\nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T)$ as well as $\mathrm{x}_{T,1,s}$; with $\eta_{s+\tau}$ distributed $i.i.d.N(0,1)$, $T^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau} |\eta_{s+2} \nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+2}(\overline{\gamma}_T) x_{T,1,s}|$, $T^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau} |\eta_{s+1} \nabla \widehat{\varepsilon}_{T,1,s+1}(\overline{\gamma}_T) x_{T,1,s}|$, and $T^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{T-\tau} |\eta_{s+1} \varepsilon_{T,1,s+1} x_{T,1,s}|$ are all $O_p(1)$, and the proof is complete.

Proof for the rolling scheme: Results for the rolling scheme differ only in the definition of $H_{T,1}^*(t) = T^{-1} \sum_{s=t-T+1}^{t} h_{T,1,s+\tau}^*$ (and to a lesser extent $\hat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) = T^{-1} \sum_{s=t-T+1}^{t} \hat{h}_{T,1,s+\tau}^*$). In particular, if we substitute $T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t) \Rightarrow V^{1/2}(W^*(s) - W^*(s-1))$ for $T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t) \Rightarrow V^{1/2} s^{-1} W^*(s)$ as used above and in the proof of Theorem 2.1, we obtain the desired conclusion.

Proof of Theorem 2.4: Given Theorem 2.3 and the Continuous Mapping Theorem it suffices to show that $P\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\hat{\gamma}^*_{dd}(j)\to^d 4\sigma_u^4(\Gamma_5^*+\Gamma_6^*+\Gamma_7^*)$ where $\Gamma_i^*=^d\Gamma_i$ for Γ_i $i=5-7$ defined in the text. Before doing so it is convenient to redefine the four bracketed terms terms from (14) used in the main decomposition of the loss differential in Theorem 2.3 (absent the summations, but keeping the brackets) as

$$(\hat{u}^{*2}_{0,t+\tau}-\hat{u}^{*2}_{1,t+\tau})=\{2A^*_{1,t}-A^*_{2,t}\}+2\{B^*_{1,t}\}+\{C^*_t\}+\{D^*_t\}.$$

With this in mind, if we ignore the finite sample difference between P and $P-\tau+1$, we obtain

$$\begin{array}{l} P\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\hat{\gamma}^*_{dd}(j)=\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(\hat{u}^{*2}_{0,t+\tau}-\hat{u}^{*2}_{1,t+\tau})(\hat{u}^{*2}_{0,t-j+\tau}-\hat{u}^{*2}_{1,t-j+\tau})\\ =4\{\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}A^*_{1,t}A^*_{1,t-j}\}+4\{\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}A^*_{1,t}B^*_{1,t-j}\}\\ +4\{\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}B^*_{1,t}B^*_{1,t-j}\}\\ +\text{ other cross products of } A^*_{1,t},A^*_{2,t},B^*_{1,t},C^*_t,D^*_t \text{ with } A^*_{1,t-j},A^*_{2,t-j},B^*_{1,t-j},C^*_{t-j},D^*_{t-j} \end{array}.$$

In the remainder we show that each of the three bracketed terms converges to σ^4 times $\Gamma_i^*=^d\Gamma_i$ $i=5-7$ respectively and that each of the cross product terms are each $o_p(1)$.

Proof of bracket 1: As was the case in the proof of Theorem 2.3, the sole difference between this term and that in the proof of Theorem 2.2 is that they are defined in terms of $h^*_{T,1,t+\tau}$ rather than $h_{T,1,t+\tau}$. Since these terms have the same first and second moments, as well as the same mixing properties, the exact same proof is applicable and hence we have

$$\begin{array}{l} \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}A^*_{1,t}A^*_{1,t-j}=\\ \sigma^4\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H'^*_{T,1}(t)B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))\times\\ B_1^{-1/2}(B_1^{1/2}h^*_{T,1,t+\tau}h'^*_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1^{1/2}/\sigma^2)B_1^{-1/2}(-JB_0(t-j)J'+B_1(t-j))B_1^{-1/2}(T^{1/2}B_1^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t-j)/\sigma^2)\\ \to^d\sigma^4\Gamma_5^* \end{array}$$

where Γ_5^* denotes an independent replica of Γ_5. Independence follows from the fact that the $\eta_{t+\tau}$ are *i.i.d.* $N(0,1)$.

Proof of bracket 2: After rearranging terms, the second bracketed term is

$$\begin{array}{l} \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}A^*_{1,t}B^*_{1,t-j}\\ =\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t))'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))\times\\ h^*_{T,1,t+\tau}h'^*_{T,1,t-j+\tau}(-JB_0(t-j)J'+B_1(t-j))B_1^{-1}(t-j)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\\ =\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t))'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))\times\\ h^*_{T,1,t+\tau}h'^*_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1(t-j)J_2F_{11}^{-1}(t-j)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \end{array}.$$

This term is a bit different from that for the second bracketed term in Theorem 2.2. As in the proof of Theorem 2.3, it differs because $J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})$ is not consistent for β^*_{12}. However, it is true that both terms are asymptotically normal. To see this note that

$$\begin{array}{l} \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t))'(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))\times\\ h^*_{T,1,t+\tau}h'^*_{T,1,t-j+\tau}B_1(t-j)J_2F_1^{-1}(t-j)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\\ =\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t))'(-JB_0J'+B_1)\times\\ (Eh^*_{T,1,t+\tau}h'^*_{T,1,t-j+\tau})B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1)\\ =T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t))'(-JB_0J'+B_1)VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1)\\ \to^d\sigma^4\Gamma_6^*\sim N(0,W) \end{array}$$

where $W=\ln(1+\lambda_P)\sigma^{-8}\lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\}$.

The asymptotic normality follows from the fact that $H^*_{T,1}(t)$ is independent of $T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ and moreover that $T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}H^*_{T,1}(t))\to^d\int_1^{1+\lambda_P}s^{-1}V^{1/2}W^*(s)ds\sim N(0,\ln(1+\lambda_P)V)$. As in the proof of Theorem 2.3, the exact relationship between Γ_6^* and Γ_6 depends upon the additional assumptions stated in the Theorem.

(a) If we let $V=\sigma^2 B_1^{-1}$, W simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned}W&=\sigma^6\ln(1+\lambda_P)\lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\}\\&=\sigma^6\ln(1+\lambda_P)\lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(T)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\}\\&=\sigma^6\ln(1+\lambda_P)\lim E(\hat{d})=\sigma^6\ln(1+\lambda_P)d\end{aligned}.$$

But from Theorem 2.2, the definition of Γ_6 gives us

$$\sigma^4\Gamma_6=(\int_1^{1+\lambda_P}s^{-1}W(s)ds)'V^{1/2}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'\delta\sim N(0,\Omega)$$

where

$$\Omega=\ln(1+\lambda_P)\delta'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'\delta.$$

Assuming conditional homoskedasticity this simplifies to $\Omega=\sigma^6\ln(1+\lambda_P)\beta_{12}^{*'}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*$. The result then follows since under the null, $\beta_{12}^{*'}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*=d$.

(b) If β_{12}^* is scalar we find that

$$\begin{aligned}W&=\ln(1+\lambda_P)\lim E\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{12,T})^2(F_1^{-1})^2J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2\}\\&=\ln(1+\lambda_P)\lim E\{\hat{d}F_1(T)(F_{11}^{-1})^4(J_2'B_1VB_1J_2)^3\}\\&=\ln(1+\lambda_P)d(F_1^{-1})^3(J_2'B_1VB_1J_2)^3\end{aligned}.$$

But from Theorem 2.2, the definition of Γ_6 gives us

$$\sigma_u^4\Gamma_6=(\int_1^{1+\lambda_P}s^{-1}W'(s)V^{1/2}ds)B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'\delta\sim N(0,\Omega)$$

where

$$\Omega=\ln(1+\lambda_P)(\beta_{12}^*)^2(F_1^{-1})^4(J_2'B_1VB_1J_2)^3.$$

The result then follows since under the null, $(\beta_{12}^*)^2F_1^{-1}=d$.

Proof of bracket 3: After rearranging terms, the third bracketed term is

$$\begin{aligned}&\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}B_{1,t}^*B_{1,t-j}^*=\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J'+B_1(t))\times\\&h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*h_{T,1,t-j+\tau}'^*(-JB_0(t-j)J'+B_1(t-j))B_1^{-1}(t-j)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\\&=\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'B_1(t)h_{1,t+\tau}^*h_{1,t-j+\tau}'^*B_1(t-j)J_2F_1^{-1}(t-j)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\end{aligned}.$$

This term is also different from that for the third bracketed term in Theorem 2.2. As in the proof of Lemma 2, it differs because $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ is not consistent for β_{12}^*. Even so, since $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}=O_p(1)$, the above term is also $O_p(1)$. To see this, algebra along the lines of Clark and McCracken (2005) gives us

$$\begin{aligned}&\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'B_1(t)h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*h_{T,1,t-j+\tau}'^*B_1(t-j)J_2F_1^{-1}(t-j)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\\&=\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'B_1(t)(Eh_{T,1,t+\tau}^*h_{T,1,t-j+\tau}'^*)B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1)\\&=\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}}K(j/M)T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1(Eh_{T,1,t+\tau}^*h_{T,1,t-j+\tau}'^*)B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1)\\&=\textstyle T^{-1}\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau}(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1)\\&=\sigma^4\Gamma_7^*\equiv\lim\lambda_P(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})'J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\end{aligned}$$

As in the proof for bracket 2 above, the exact relationship between Γ_7^* and Γ_7 depends upon the additional assumptions stated in the the Theorem.

(a) If we let $V = \sigma^2 B_2^{-1}$, we immediately see that

$$\begin{array}{l}\Gamma_7^* \equiv \lambda_P \sigma^{-4} \lim\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} \\ = \lambda_P \sigma^{-2} \lim\{(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})\} = \lambda_P \sigma^{-2} \lim \hat{d} = \sigma^{-2}\lambda_P d\end{array}.$$

But under the null, and with the additional assumption of conditional homoskedasticity, from Theorem 2.2 we know that

$$\Gamma_7 \equiv \sigma^{-4}\lambda_P \beta_{12}^{*'} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \sigma^{-2}\lambda_P \beta_{12}^{*'} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \sigma^{-2}\lambda_P d = \Gamma_7^*$$

and the proof is complete.

(b) If we let β_{12}^* be scalar we find that

$$\begin{array}{l}\sigma^4 \Gamma_7^* \equiv \lim \lambda_P (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\ = \lambda_P \lim (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{12,T})^2 (F_1^{-1})^2 J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 \\ = \lambda_P \lim \hat{d} F_1^{-1}(T)(F_1^{-1})^2 J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 \\ = \lambda_P d F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 + o_p(1)\end{array}.$$

But under the null, and with the additional assumption of that β_{12}^* is scalar, from Theorem 2.2 we know that

$$\begin{array}{l}\sigma^4 \Gamma_7 \equiv \lambda_P \beta_{12}^{*'} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \lambda_P (\beta_{12}^*)^2 (F_1^{-1})^2 J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 \\ = \lambda_P d F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 = \sigma^4 \Gamma_7^*\end{array}$$

and the proof is complete.

Proof of bracket 4: We must show each of the remaining cross-products of $A_{1,t}^*$, $A_{2,t}^*$, B_t^*, C_t^*, and D_t^* with $A_{1,t-j}^*$, $A_{2,t-j}^*$, B_{t-j}^*, C_{t-j}^*, and D_{t-j}^* are $o_p(1)$. The proof is nearly identical to that for the fourth bracketed term from the proof of Theorem 2.2. The primary difference is that the relevant moment conditions are all defined in terms of $h_{T,1,t+\tau}^*$ rather than $h_{T,1,t+\tau}$. But since these terms have the same first and second moments, as well as the same mixing properties, nearly the same proof is applicable and hence for brevity we do not repeat the details.

Proof for the rolling scheme: Results for the rolling scheme differ only in the definition of $H_{T,1}^*(t) = T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-T+1}^{t} h_{T,1,s+\tau}^*$ (and to a lesser extent $\hat{H}_{T,1}^*(t) = T^{-1}\sum_{s=t-T+1}^{t} \hat{h}_{T,1,s+\tau}^*$). In particular, if we substitute $T^{1/2}H_{T,1}^*(t) \Rightarrow V^{1/2}(W^*(s) - W^*(s-1))$ for $T^{1/2}H_{T,1}^*(t) \Rightarrow V^{1/2}s^{-1}W^*(s)$ as used above, we obtain the desired conclusion.

Proof of Theorem 2.5: Regardless of whether the recursive or rolling scheme is used, the proof follows very similar arguments to those used in Theorems 2.3 and 2.4. Any differences that arise come from differences in the asymptotic behavior of $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ under Assumption 1$'$ as compared to Assumption 1. Therefore, since the decomposition at the beginning of the proof of Theorem 2.3 is unaffected by whether Assumption 1 or 1$'$ holds, and the first bracketed term does not depend upon the value of either β_{12}^* or $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ the same proof can be applied to show $2\Gamma_1^* - \Gamma_2^* =^d 2\Gamma_1 - \Gamma_2$

and $\Gamma_5^* =^d \Gamma_5$ under Assumption $1'$. For the third bracketed term, the asymptotic behavior of $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ is also irrelevant – all that matters is that the ridge constraint is still imposed whether working under Assumption 1 or $1'$.

Differences arise for the second, and fourth bracketed terms. For the fourth bracketed term, the differences remain minor since we need only show that the relevant components are all $o_p(1)$ and the corresponding proofs only make use of the fact that, under Assumption 1, Lemma 1 implies $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} = O_p(1)$. These arguments continue to hold since under Assumption $1'$, $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ remains $O_p(1)$ – despite also having the property that $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} \to^p \sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*}}\beta_{12}^*$.

We therefore focus attention on showing that $\Gamma_i^* =^d \Gamma_i$ for $i = 3, 6, 7$. In each case, the different asymptotic behavior of $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}$ under Assumption $1'$ does impact the proofs directly. And as we saw earlier, in each case the proof also requires additional assumptions as noted in the statement of the theorem.

Proof that $\Gamma_3^* =^d \Gamma_3$: As in the proof for Theorem 2.3, the second bracketed term satisfies

$$T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) = T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})+o_p(1).$$

What makes this different under Assumption $1'$ is that since $T^{1/2}J_2'\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} \to^p \sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*}}\beta_{12}^*$ we also have

$$\begin{aligned} & T^{-1/2}2\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1(t)J_2F_1^{-1}(t)J_2'(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\ = \; & T^{-1/2}2\sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*}}\sum_{t=T}^{T+P-\tau} h_{T,1,t+\tau}'^{*}B_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* + o_p(1) \\ \to \; & ^dN(0, 4W) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$W = \left(\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*}\right)\lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* \; .$$

Since $\Gamma_3 \,\tilde{}\, N(0, 4\Omega), \Omega = \lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*$, the precise relationship between Γ_3^* and Γ_3 depends on the relationship between Ω and W. This in turn depends upon the additional restrictions in the statement of the Theorem.

(a) If we let $V = \sigma^2B_1^{-1}$, W simplifies to

$$W = \sigma^2\left(\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^*}\right)\lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* = \sigma^2\lambda_Pd.$$

The result follows since under the null hypothesis, $\Omega = \lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}J_2'B_1VB_1J_2F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* = \sigma^2\lambda_P\beta_{12}^{*\prime}F_1^{-1}\beta_{12}^* = \sigma^2\lambda_Pd$.

(b) If we let $\dim(\beta_{12}^*) = 1$ and note that in this case $J_2'B_1VB_1J_2 = F_1 \cdot tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$, W simplifies to

$$W = d\lambda_Ptr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V).$$

The result follows since under the null hypothesis, $\Omega = d\lambda_P tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$ and the proof is complete.

Proof that $\Gamma_6^* =^d \Gamma_6$: As in the proof for Theorem 2.4, the second bracketed term satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}
&\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M) \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} A_{1,t}^* B_{1,t-j}^* \\
&= \textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M) T^{-1} \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t))' (-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t)) \times \\
&h_{T,1,t+\tau}^* h_{T,1,t-j+\tau}'^* (-JB_0(t-j)J' + B_1(t-j)) B_1^{-1}(t-j)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\
&= T^{-1} \textstyle\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t))' B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} (T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) + o_p(1)
\end{aligned} .$$

What makes this different under Assumption $1'$ is that since $T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} \rightarrow^p \sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*}} \beta_{12}^*$ we also have

$$\begin{aligned}
&T^{-1} \textstyle\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t))' B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} (T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\
&= (\sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*}}) T^{-1} \textstyle\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t))' B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* + o_p(1) \\
&\rightarrow_d N(0, W)
\end{aligned}$$

where $W = \ln(1+\lambda_P)(\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*})\{\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*\}$. The asymptotic normality follows from the fact that $T^{-1} \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2} H_{T,1}^*(t)) \rightarrow^d \int_1^{1+\lambda_P} s^{-1} V^{1/2} W^*(s) ds \sim N(0, \ln(1+\lambda_P)V)$. Since $\Gamma_6 \tilde{} N(0,\Omega)$, $\Omega = \ln(1+\lambda_P)\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' \delta$, the precise relationship between Γ_6^* and Γ_6 depends on the relationship between Ω and W. This in turn depends upon the additional restrictions in the statement of the Theorem.

(a) If we let $V = \sigma^2 B_1^{-1}$, W simplifies to

$$W = \sigma^6 \ln(1+\lambda_P) d \ .$$

The result follows since under the null hypothesis,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\Omega = \ln(1+\lambda_P)\delta' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' \delta \\
&= \sigma^6 \ln(1+\lambda_P) \beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \sigma^6 \ln(1+\lambda_P) d.
\end{aligned} .$$

(b) If we let $\dim(\beta_{12}^*) = 1$ and note that in this case $J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 = F_1 \cdot tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)$, W simplifies to

$$W = \ln(1+\lambda_P) d \cdot tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)^3 \ .$$

The result follows since under the null hypothesis, $\Omega = \ln(1+\lambda_P) d \cdot tr((-JB_0J' + B_1)V)^3$ and the proof is complete.

Proof that $\Gamma_7^* =^d \Gamma_7$: As in the proof for Theorem 2.4, the third bracketed term satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}
&\textstyle\sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M) \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} B_{1,t}^* B_{1,t-j}^* = \sum_{j=-\bar{j}}^{\bar{j}} K(j/M) T^{-1} \sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})' B_1^{-1}(t)(-JB_0(t)J' + B_1(t)) \times \\
&h_{T,1,t+\tau}^* h_{T,1,t-j+\tau}'^* (-JB_0(t-j)J' + B_1(t-j)) B_1^{-1}(t-j)(T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\
&= T^{-1} \textstyle\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} (T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) + o_p(1)
\end{aligned} .$$

What makes this different under Assumption $1'$ is that since $T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T} \rightarrow^p \sqrt{\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*}} \beta_{12}^*$ we also have

$$\begin{aligned}
&T^{-1} \textstyle\sum_{t=T+j}^{T+P-\tau} (T^{1/2}\widetilde{\beta}_{1,T})' J_2 F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} (T^{1/2} J_2' \widetilde{\beta}_{1,T}) \\
&= \lambda_P (\frac{d}{\beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*}) \beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* \equiv \Gamma_7^*
\end{aligned} .$$

In contrast, the associated term from Theorem 2.2 takes the value $\Gamma_7 = \lambda_P \beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^*$. The exact relationship between these two terms depends upon the additional assumptions stated in the Theorem.

(a) If we let $V = \sigma^2 B_1^{-1}$, Γ_7^* simplifies to $\lambda_P \sigma^2 d$. The result follows since under the null hypothesis,$\Gamma_7 = \lambda_P \beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \lambda_P \sigma^2 d$ and the proof is complete.

(b) If we let $\dim(\beta_{12}^*) = 1$ and note that in this case $J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 = F_1 \cdot tr((-J B_0 J' + B_1)V)$, Γ_7^* simplifies to $\lambda_P d tr((-J B_0 J' + B_1)V)$. The result follows since under the null hypothesis, $\Gamma_7 = \lambda_P \beta_{12}^{*\prime} F_1^{-1} J_2' B_1 V B_1 J_2 F_1^{-1} \beta_{12}^* = \lambda_P d tr((-J B_0 J' + B_1)V)$ and the proof is complete.

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Figure 1: Densities of MSE(null model)/MSE(alt. model), R = 80, P = 80
DGP 2 experiments

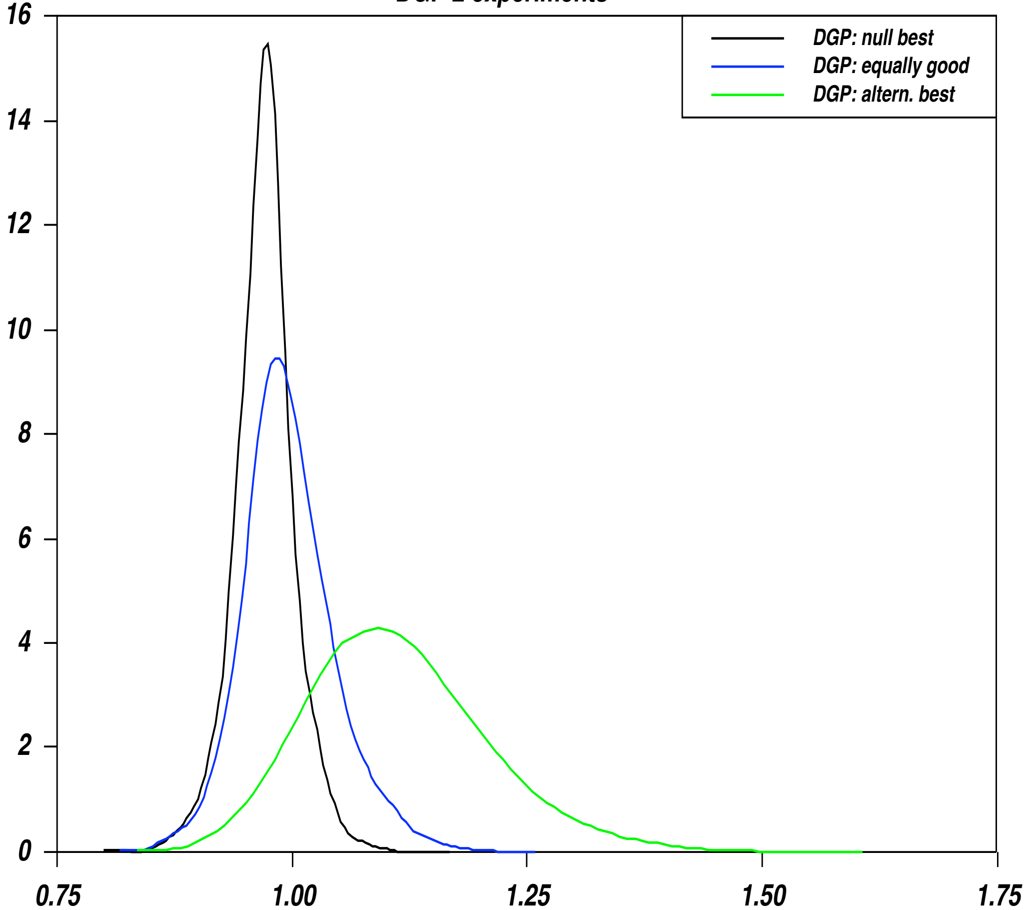

Table 1: Monte Carlo Rejection Rates, Null Model Best

(nominal size = 10%)

DGP 1, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.011	.005	.034	.021	.012	.041	.030
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.107	.102	.106	.105	.109	.106	.109
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.018	.011	.027	.020	.017	.030	.028
MSE-t	non-parametric	.013	.006	.040	.023	.015	.046	.032
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.102	.097	.095	.100	.101	.097	.102
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.020	.011	.036	.028	.021	.045	.036
MSE-t	normal	.013	.005	.034	.021	.012	.046	.031
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.146	.158	.132	.136	.139	.123	.130
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.103	.094	.088	.092	.100	.093	.098
CW-t	normal	.066	.059	.074	.067	.064	.078	.072
DGP 2, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.002	.002	.024	.009	.006	.031	.014
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.099	.096	.116	.105	.107	.112	.108
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.005	.004	.014	.007	.006	.017	.012
MSE-t	non-parametric	.005	.003	.027	.011	.007	.034	.016
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.100	.105	.112	.103	.106	.106	.107
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.007	.005	.025	.013	.011	.033	.019
MSE-t	normal	.004	.002	.025	.009	.006	.031	.016
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.273	.322	.168	.204	.243	.151	.178
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.094	.099	.097	.093	.102	.097	.097
CW-t	normal	.078	.079	.090	.080	.084	.094	.085
DGP 3, 4-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.030	.015	.077	.039	.023	.098	.048
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.114	.098	.111	.110	.100	.106	.105
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.035	.020	.041	.032	.030	.045	.033
MSE-t	non-parametric	.030	.016	.073	.040	.024	.089	.045
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.104	.096	.105	.105	.096	.105	.098
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.042	.025	.060	.044	.031	.066	.044
MSE-t	normal	.030	.014	.086	.042	.025	.095	.047
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.191	.186	.207	.187	.173	.207	.171
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.102	.086	.100	.102	.095	.104	.096
CW-t	normal	.107	.078	.140	.109	.090	.147	.105

Notes:

1. The data generating processes are defined in equations (5), (8), and (11). In these experiments, the coefficients $b_{ij} = 0$ for all i, j, such that the null forecasting model is expected to be most accurate.
2. For each artificial data set, forecasts of $y_{t+\tau}$ (where τ denotes the forecast horizon) are formed recursively using estimates of equations (6) and (7) in the case of the DGP 1 experiments, equations (9) and (10) in the case of the DGP 2 experiments,and equations (12) and (13) in the case of the DGP 3 experiments. These forecasts are then used to form the indicated test statistics, defined in Section 2.2. T and P refer to the number of in–sample observations and 1-step ahead forecasts, respectively.
3. In each Monte Carlo replication, the simulated test statistics are compared against bootstrapped critical values, using a significance level of 10%. Section 3 describes the bootstrap procedures.
4. The number of Monte Carlo simulations is 5000; the number of bootstrap draws is 499.

Table 2: Monte Carlo Rejection Rates, Equally Accurate Models
(nominal size = 10%)

DGP 1, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.054	.048	.080	.062	.057	.083	.070
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.312	.340	.233	.263	.283	.233	.253
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.101	.096	.101	.102	.096	.099	.103
MSE-t	non-parametric	.065	.055	.094	.074	.064	.097	.079
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.292	.327	.192	.229	.262	.175	.214
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.088	.088	.092	.089	.085	.091	.093
MSE-t	normal	.059	.053	.085	.068	.058	.086	.076
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.098	.100	.113	.114	.099	.115	.112
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.308	.344	.204	.250	.279	.190	.233
CW-t	normal	.243	.269	.177	.197	.218	.165	.188
DGP 2, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.041	.044	.068	.060	.055	.080	.072
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.414	.463	.303	.357	.400	.276	.329
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.083	.094	.089	.097	.090	.084	.093
MSE-t	non-parametric	.055	.050	.092	.075	.064	.100	.084
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.425	.491	.269	.339	.394	.231	.293
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.077	.087	.086	.089	.082	.088	.088
MSE-t	normal	.047	.049	.081	.070	.061	.085	.078
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.093	.098	.108	.094	.093	.102	.099
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.460	.516	.297	.377	.440	.255	.341
CW-t	normal	.420	.467	.285	.343	.394	.249	.312
DGP 3, 4-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.102	.091	.156	.111	.094	.162	.114
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.317	.339	.245	.272	.292	.225	.250
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.149	.143	.131	.132	.131	.127	.124
MSE-t	non-parametric	.110	.094	.152	.114	.097	.152	.115
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.282	.316	.197	.226	.261	.174	.201
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.133	.136	.122	.117	.123	.117	.112
MSE-t	normal	.115	.103	.158	.115	.105	.162	.119
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.154	.150	.209	.161	.152	.209	.165
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.311	.347	.214	.259	.288	.189	.225
CW-t	normal	.320	.332	.282	.276	.279	.260	.248

Notes:
1. See the notes to Table 1.
2. In these experiments, the coefficients $b_{ij} = 0$ are scaled such that the null and alternative models are expected to be equally accurate (on average) over the forecast sample.

Table 3: Monte Carlo Rejection Rates, Equally Accurate Models
Rolling Forecasts
(nominal size = 10%)

DGP 1, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.036	.032	.078	.052	.039	.080	.065
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.353	.406	.246	.285	.326	.239	.265
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.097	.099	.103	.097	.098	.102	.103
MSE-t	non-parametric	.049	.041	.092	.063	.049	.096	.076
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.351	.417	.205	.257	.311	.177	.222
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.086	.088	.092	.089	.088	.092	.093
MSE-t	normal	.044	.036	.083	.060	.043	.086	.067
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.100	.105	.112	.108	.091	.123	.110
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.356	.422	.216	.277	.336	.201	.250
CW-t	normal	.317	.378	.197	.230	.270	.175	.204
DGP 2, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.020	.018	.062	.044	.034	.080	.060
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.485	.566	.319	.399	.466	.275	.346
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.074	.080	.087	.090	.088	.084	.094
MSE-t	non-parametric	.030	.027	.086	.058	.044	.098	.076
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.532	.627	.285	.400	.488	.236	.322
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.068	.076	.084	.087	.080	.086	.091
MSE-t	normal	.028	.023	.076	.053	.039	.085	.070
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.124	.141	.103	.093	.095	.107	.099
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.540	.648	.318	.436	.519	.261	.372
CW-t	normal	.522	.629	.305	.406	.484	.257	.337
DGP 3, 4-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.112	.103	.146	.104	.091	.165	.110
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.376	.422	.247	.293	.331	.235	.264
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.160	.162	.132	.136	.140	.128	.125
MSE-t	non-parametric	.132	.127	.151	.114	.101	.162	.118
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.345	.407	.194	.250	.303	.184	.215
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.142	.148	.119	.126	.131	.116	.114
MSE-t	normal	.128	.123	.156	.115	.102	.165	.115
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.158	.147	.198	.166	.143	.208	.153
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.393	.450	.227	.299	.346	.203	.247
CW-t	normal	.421	.477	.296	.316	.344	.269	.269

Notes:
1. See the notes to Table 1.
2. In these experiments, the coefficients $b_{ij} = 0$ are scaled such that the null and alternative models are expected to be equally accurate (on average) over the forecast sample.
3. In these experiments, the forecasting scheme is rolling, rather than recursive.

Table 4: Monte Carlo Rejection Rates, Alternative Model Best

(nominal size = 10%)

DGP 1, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.263	.351	.250	.335	.422	.269	.363
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.748	.850	.627	.782	.871	.660	.799
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.481	.609	.445	.593	.715	.518	.659
MSE-t	non-parametric	.296	.385	.295	.372	.457	.311	.397
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.703	.827	.470	.679	.812	.461	.657
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.360	.487	.280	.412	.534	.294	.425
MSE-t	normal	.282	.374	.270	.352	.448	.285	.380
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.178	.233	.172	.232	.300	.184	.251
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.780	.892	.610	.829	.928	.618	.837
CW-t	normal	.728	.847	.563	.775	.887	.585	.792
DGP 2, 1-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.282	.434	.268	.429	.569	.319	.484
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.852	.934	.721	.877	.951	.749	.894
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.527	.697	.491	.685	.821	.579	.763
MSE-t	non-parametric	.349	.485	.346	.497	.616	.396	.547
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.860	.949	.618	.848	.946	.605	.837
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.426	.601	.329	.533	.680	.366	.568
MSE-t	normal	.331	.474	.319	.476	.606	.368	.527
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.200	.322	.207	.320	.451	.241	.370
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.920	.974	.788	.954	.988	.802	.961
CW-t	normal	.903	.968	.777	.943	.986	.796	.955
DGP 3, 4-step forecasts								
statistic	*source of critical values*	T=40 P=80	T=40 P=120	T=80 P=40	T=80 P=80	T=80 P=120	T=120 P=40	T=120 P=80
MSE-F	non-parametric	.290	.349	.315	.347	.421	.342	.383
MSE-F	no-predict. fixed regr.	.669	.774	.570	.713	.803	.622	.737
MSE-F	fixed regressor	.467	.563	.428	.557	.649	.509	.611
MSE-t	non-parametric	.324	.379	.328	.375	.442	.366	.406
MSE-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.592	.728	.387	.583	.711	.399	.565
MSE-t	fixed regressor	.360	.440	.270	.380	.487	.286	.399
MSE-t	normal	.332	.393	.339	.385	.460	.373	.419
MSE-t, 2-sided	normal	.244	.279	.281	.284	.336	.299	.302
CW-t	no-predict. fixed regr.	.697	.820	.511	.738	.851	.527	.747
CW-t	normal	.710	.805	.609	.754	.845	.636	.769

Notes:
1. See the notes to Table 1.
2. In these experiments, the coefficients $b_{ij} = 0$ are set to values (given in section 4.1) large enough that the alternative model is expected to be more accurate than the null model.

Table 5: Tests of Equal Accuracy for Monthly Stock Returns

		MSE-F Bootstrap p–values		
alternative model variable	*MSE(null)/ MSE(altern.)*	*non-param.*	*no predictability fixed regressor*	*fixed regressor*
cross-sectional premium	1.009	.136	.001	.071
return on long-term Treasury	1.005	.381	.024	.177
BAA-AAA yield spread	.996	.688	.828	.487
BAA-AAA return spread	.995	.824	.933	.779
net equity expansion	.994	.648	.358	.659
CPI inflation	.993	.646	.587	.776
stock variance	.992	.773	.512	.230
dividend-payout ratio	.991	.681	.572	.724
term (yield) spread	.987	.724	.939	.984
earnings-price ratio	.985	.938	.383	.933
10-year earnings-price ratio	.983	.876	.985	.984
3-month T-bill rate	.982	.739	.952	.993
dividend-price ratio	.981	.843	.550	.993
dividend yield	.981	.836	.436	.996
yield on long-term Treasury	.978	.796	.988	.995
book-market ratio	.965	.996	.967	.994

Notes:
1. As described in section 5, monthly forecasts of excess stock returns in period $t+1$ are generated recursively from a null model that includes just a constant and 15 alternative models that include a constant and the period t ($t-1$ in the case of CPI inflation) value of each of the variables listed in the first column. Forecasts from January 1970 to December 2002 are obtained from models estimated with a data sample starting in January 1954.
2. For each alternative model, the table reports the ratio of the null model's forecast MSE to the alternative model's MSE and bootstrapped p-values for the null hypothesis of equal accuracy, based on the MSE-F statistic. Section 3 details the bootstrap methods. The RMSE of the null model is 0.046.

Table 6: Tests of Equal Accuracy for Core Inflation

		MSE-F Bootstrap p–values		
alternative model variables	*MSE(null)/ MSE(altern.)*	*non-param.*	*no predictability fixed regressor*	*fixed regressor*
1-quarter horizon				
CFNAI	1.016	.343	.092	.293
CFNAI, food, imports	1.098	.100	.001	.062
4-quarter horizon				
CFNAI	.921	.675	.881	.915
CFNAI, food, imports	1.279	.317	.000	.031

Notes:
1. As described in section 5, 1-quarter and 4-quarter ahead forecasts of core PCE inflation (specified as a period $t + \tau$ predictand) are generated recursively from a null model that includes a constant and lags of inflation (from period t and earlier) and alternative models that include one lag (period t values) of the variables indicated in the table (defined further in section 5). The 1-quarter forecasts are of quarterly inflation; the 4-quarter forecasts are of 4-quarter inflation. Forecasts from 1985:Q1 + $\tau - 1$ through 2008:Q2 are obtained from models estimated with a data sample starting in 1968:Q3.
2. For each of the alternative models, the table reports the ratio of the null model's forecast MSE to the alternative model's MSE and bootstrapped p-values for the null hypothesis of equal accuracy, based on the MSE-F statistic. Section 3 details the bootstrap methods. The RMSE of the null model is 0.613 at the 1-quarter horizon and 0.444 at the 4-quarter horizon.