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Testing for Flexible Nonlinear Trends with an Integrated or Stationary Noise Component

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Abstract

This paper proposes a new test for the presence of a nonlinear deterministic trend approximated by a Fourier expansion in a univariate time series for which there is no prior knowledge as to whether the noise component is stationary or contains an autoregressive unit root. Our approach builds on the work of Perron and Yabu (2009a) and is based on a Feasible Generalized Least Squares procedure that uses a super-efficient estimator of the sum of the autoregressive coefficients α when $\alpha=1$. The resulting Wald test statistic asymptotically follows a chi-square limit distribution in both the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases. To improve the finite sample properties of the test, we use a bias corrected version of the OLS estimator of α proposed by Roy and Fuller (2001). We show that our procedure is substantially more powerful than currently available alternatives. We illustrate the usefulness of our method via an application to modeling the trend of global and hemispheric temperatures.

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1 Introduction

It is well-known that economic time series often exhibit trends and serial correlation. Since the functional form of the deterministic trend component is typically unknown, there is a need to determine statistically whether a simple linear trend or a more general nonlinear one is appropriate. At the same time, the presence of serial correlation can be a source of stochastic trend if the noise component is integrated of order one. When the noise component is stationary, the trending behavior comes solely from a possibly nonlinear deterministic component. The main issue is that the limiting distribution of statistics to test for the presence of nonlinearities usually depends on the order of integration which is also unknown. On the other hand, testing whether the noise component is stationary or has an autoregressive unit root depends on the exact nature of the deterministic trend (e.g., Perron, 1989, 1990, for the cases of abrupt structural changes in slope or level). In particular, if the trend is misspecified unit root tests will lose power and can be outright inconsistent (e.g., Campbell and Perron, 1991). This loss in power can also be present if the components of the trend function are over-specified e.g., including an unnecessary trend; Perron, 1988. In other words, we are faced with a circular problem. Therefore, what is needed is a procedure to test for nonlinearity that is robust to the possibilities of an integrated, $I(1)$, or a stationary, $I(0)$, noise component.

In this paper, we propose a feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) method to test for the presence of a smooth nonlinear deterministic trend function that is robust to the presence of $I(0)$ or $I(1)$ errors. A similar issue was tackled by Perron and Yabu (2009a) in the context of testing for the slope parameter in a linear deterministic trend model when the integration order of the noise component is unknown. The key idea is to make the estimate of the sum of the autoregressive (SAR) coefficients from the regression residual “super-efficient” when the error are $I(1)$. This is achieved by replacing the least squares estimate of the SAR by unity whenever it reaches an appropriately chosen threshold. When this adjustment is made, the limiting distribution of the test statistic becomes standard regardless of the order of integration of the noise component.

As a class of smooth nonlinear trend functions, we consider a Fourier expansion as in Gallant (1984) and Gallant and Souza (1991), among others. An advantage of the flexible Fourier approximation is that it can capture the main characteristics of a very general class of nonlinear functions. This specification of the nonlinear trend function has been used recent in studies. For example, Becker, Enders and Hurn (2004) use a Fourier expansion

to approximate the time varying coefficients in a regression model and propose a test for parameter constancy when the frequency is unknown. Becker, Enders and Lee (2006) recommend pretesting for the presence of a Fourier-type nonlinear deterministic trend under the assumption of $I(0)$ errors before employing their test for stationarity allowing a nonlinear trend. Similarly, Enders and Lee (2012) propose a LM type unit root test allowing for a flexible nonlinear trend using a Fourier approximation and use it along with a nonlinearity test under the assumption of $I(1)$ errors. Rodrigues and Taylor (2012) also consider the same nonlinear trend in their local GLS detrended test for a unit root.

Our analysis is not the first to propose a nonlinear trend test using a flexible Fourier approximation while maintaining robustness to both stationary and nonstationary noise. At least two previous studies share the same motivation. Harvey, Leybourne and Xiao (2010, hereafter HLX) extends the robust linear trend test of Vogelsang (1998) to the case of a flexible Fourier-type trend function. Vogelsang's (1998) approach requires the choice of an auxiliary statistic so that the multiplicative adjustment term on the Wald statistic approaches one under $I(0)$ errors and has a non-degenerate distribution under $I(1)$ errors in the limit under the null hypothesis. By controlling the coefficient on the auxiliary statistic, the modified Wald test can have a critical value common to both $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases. HLX suggest employing unit root test statistics, such as the standard Dickey-Fuller test statistic, to be used as the required auxiliary statistic. An alternative method has recently been proposed by Astill, Harvey, Leybourne and Taylor (2014, hereafter AHLT). Instead of making an adjustment on the Wald test statistic, they suggest making an adjustment on the critical values using a similar auxiliary statistic. AHLT show that their procedure is also robust to $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ errors, yet dominates the HLX method in terms of local asymptotic and finite sample power. Here, we show that our FGLS approach has many advantages over these two methods.

The notable advantages of our proposed method can be summarized as follows. First, the local asymptotic power of our test uniformly dominates that of the other available tests, and, for almost all range of parameter values, the power is also higher in finite samples. Second, unlike the other test statistics that involve nonstandard distribution in the limit, our test statistic asymptotically follows a standard chi-square distribution for both the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases. Third, the degrees of freedom of the limiting distribution depends only on the number of frequencies, but not on the choice of frequencies. This characteristic is practically convenient since the same critical value can be used for any combination of frequencies as long as the total number of frequencies remains unchanged. In contrast, the tabulation of critical

values for the other tests becomes complicated since the number of possible combinations increases rapidly with the total number of frequencies. Fourth, our test is also useful when used as a pretest in a unit root testing procedure designed to have power in the presence of nonlinear trends. In particular, for moderate non-linearities, the magnitude of the power reduction is lower than when the other tests are used as pretests.

The organization of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, the basic idea of our approach is explained using a simple model with a single frequency in the Fourier expansion. In Section 3, the main theoretical results are presented for the general case which allows for multiple frequencies and serial correlation of unknown form. In Section 4, Monte Carlo evidence is presented to evaluate the finite sample performance of our procedure, as well as its performance as a pretest for a unit root test allowing for a nonlinear trend. It is also shown that our test has higher power compared to existing alternative tests. In Section 5, we illustrate the usefulness of our method via an application to modeling the trend of global and hemispheric temperatures. Some concluding remarks are made in Section 6. All technical details are relegated to an appendix.

2 The basic model

In order to highlight the main issues involved, we start with the simple case of a Fourier series expansion with a single frequency where the noise component follows a simple autoregressive model of order one (AR(1)). The extensions to the general case are presented in Section 3. In this basic model, a scalar random variable y_t is assumed to be generated by:

$$y_t = \sum_{i=0}^{p_d} \beta_i t^i + \gamma_1 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{T}\right) + \gamma_2 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{T}\right) + u_t \quad (1)$$

$$u_t = \alpha u_{t-1} + e_t \quad (2)$$

for $t = 1, \dots, T$ where e_t is a martingale difference sequence with respect to the sigma-field $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma\text{-field}\{e_{t-s}, s \geq 0\}$, i.e., $E(e_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = 0$, with $E(e_t^2) = \sigma^2$ and $E(e_t^4) < \infty$. Also, the initial condition is such that $u_0 = O_p(1)$. For the AR(1) coefficient of the noise component u_t , we assume $-1 < \alpha \leq 1$, so that both stationary, $I(0)$ with $|\alpha| < 1$, and integrated, $I(1)$ with $\alpha = 1$, processes are allowed. The single frequency k in the Fourier series expansion is fixed and assumed to be known. In this paper, we shall concentrate on the cases $p_d = 0$ (non-trending) and $p_d = 1$ (linear trend), though the method is applicable in the presence of an arbitrary polynomial in time.

The interest is testing the absence of non-linear components, $H_0 : \gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = 0$, against the alternative of the presence of a nonlinear component approximated by the Fourier series expansion, $H_1 : \gamma_1 \neq 0$ or $\gamma_2 \neq 0$. If the AR(1) coefficient α were known, the quasi-differencing transformation $1 - \alpha L$ could be applied to (1) and the testing problem would then simply amount to using a standard Wald test based on the OLS estimates of the quasi-differenced regression. Such a GLS procedure, however, is generally infeasible since α is unknown. Below, we briefly review the integration order-robust feasible GLS procedure proposed by Perron and Yabu (2009a) and explain the changes needed in the current context.

2.1 The Perron-Yabu procedure for integration order-robust FGLS

There are two main steps in Perron and Yabu's (2009a) approach to have a Wald test based on a feasible GLS (FGLS) regression so that the limit distribution is standard chi-square (or normal) in both the I(0) and I(1) cases. The first step involves obtaining an estimate of α that is \sqrt{T} consistent in the I(0) case but is "super-efficient" in the I(1) case. The second step involves the computation of the Wald test statistic based on the FGLS estimator using an estimate of α having the stated properties. For illustration purposes, let us further simplify (1) and consider a model with a single regressor given by $y_t = \gamma \sin(2\pi kt/T) + u_t$ combined with (2). Using the residuals \hat{u}_t from a first-step OLS regression of y_t on $\sin(2\pi kt/T)$, the OLS estimator of α is given by:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T \hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1}}{\sum_{t=2}^T \hat{u}_{t-1}^2}. \quad (3)$$

Applying a Cochrane and Orcutt (1949) transformation, the FGLS estimate can be obtained from OLS applied to a regression of the form:

$$y_t - \hat{\alpha} y_{t-1} = \gamma \left\{ \sin\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{T}\right) - \hat{\alpha} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi k(t-1)}{T}\right) \right\} + u_t - \hat{\alpha} u_{t-1} \quad (4)$$

for $t = 2, \dots, T$, together with $y_1 = \gamma \sin(2\pi k/T) + u_1$. Note that this corresponds to the FGLS estimator assuming an initial condition $u_0 = 0$. When $|\alpha| < 1$, this FGLS estimator of γ is asymptotically efficient and its t -statistic is asymptotically standard normal under the null hypothesis of $\gamma = 0$. In contrast, the limit distribution of the FGLS estimator is different when $\alpha = 1$. From standard results,

$$T(\hat{\alpha} - 1) \Rightarrow \int_0^1 W^*(r) dW(r) / \int_0^1 W^*(r)^2 dr \equiv \xi \quad (5)$$

where ‘ \Rightarrow ’ denotes weak convergence under the Skorohod topology, $\{W^*(r), 0 \leq r \leq 1\}$ is the continuous time residual function from a projection of a Wiener process $W(r)$ on $\sin(2\pi kr)$. The limit distribution of the t -statistic for testing $\gamma = 0$ is then given by (see the appendix for details):

$$t_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow \left[(2\pi k)^2 \int_0^1 \cos^2(2\pi kr) dr + \xi^2 \int_0^1 \sin^2(2\pi kr) dr \right]^{-1/2} \times \left\{ 2\pi k \left(\int_0^1 \cos(2\pi kr) dW(r) - \xi \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi kr) W(r) dr \right) - \xi \left(\int_0^1 \sin(2\pi kr) dW(r) - \xi \int_0^1 \sin(2\pi kr) W(r) dr \right) \right\} \quad (6)$$

which is different from a standard normal distribution. In order to obtain a standard limit distribution with $I(1)$ errors, Perron and Yabu (2009a) suggest replacing the OLS estimator $\hat{\alpha}$ by a super-efficient estimator which converges to unity at a rate faster than T when $\alpha = 1$. In particular, their super-efficient estimator of α is defined by:

$$\hat{\alpha}_S = \begin{cases} \hat{\alpha} & \text{if } T^\delta |\hat{\alpha} - 1| > d \\ 1 & \text{if } T^\delta |\hat{\alpha} - 1| \leq d \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

for $\delta \in (0, 1)$ and $d > 0$. Thus, whenever $\hat{\alpha}$ is in a $T^{-\delta}$ neighborhood of 1, $\hat{\alpha}_S$ takes value 1. As shown by Perron and Yabu (2009a), $T^{1/2}(\hat{\alpha}_S - \alpha) \rightarrow^d N(0, 1 - \alpha^2)$ when $|\alpha| < 1$ and $T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) \rightarrow^p 0$ when $\alpha = 1$. Hence, when constructing the FGLS estimator of γ with this super-efficient estimator $\hat{\alpha}_S$, rather than the OLS estimator $\hat{\alpha}$, ξ in (6) can be replaced by the limit of $T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1)$ which is zero when $\alpha = 1$. Hence, under the null hypothesis, the FGLS t -statistic for testing that $\gamma = 0$ is such that:

$$t_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow \left[\int_0^1 \cos^2(2\pi kr) dr \right]^{-1/2} \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi kr) dW(r) =^d N(0, 1) \quad (8)$$

when $\alpha = 1$. We then recover in the unit root case the same limiting distribution as in the stationary case and no discontinuity.

Consider now another special case with $y_t = \gamma \cos(2\pi kt/T) + u_t$ combined with (2). While the difference between the sine and cosine functions seems minor, the same FGLS estimator combined with the super-efficient estimator $\hat{\alpha}_S$ using the Cochrane-Orcutt transformation,

$$y_t - \hat{\alpha}_S y_{t-1} = \gamma \left\{ \cos\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{T}\right) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos\left(\frac{2\pi k(t-1)}{T}\right) \right\} + u_t - \hat{\alpha}_S u_{t-1} \quad (9)$$

for $t = 2, \dots, T$, together with $y_1 = \gamma \cos(2\pi k/T) + u_1$ will not yield the same limiting distribution. Instead, when $\alpha = 1$, $t_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow \sigma^{-1}u_1 = \sigma^{-1}(u_0 + e_1)$ so that the limiting behavior of the t -statistic is dominated by the initial condition and the first value of the innovation (see the appendix for details). It turns out that the problem can be remedied using the FGLS estimator proposed by Prais and Winsten (1954), which is obtained using (9) together with

$$(1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2}y_1 = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2}\gamma \cos\left(\frac{2\pi k}{T}\right) + (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2}u_1. \quad (10)$$

Note that it differs from the Cochrane-Orcutt FGLS estimator only in how the initial observation is transformed.¹ The null limiting distribution of the t -statistic for testing $\gamma = 0$ based of this alternative FGLS estimator is given by (see the appendix for details):

$$t_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow - \left[\int_0^1 \sin^2(2\pi kr) dr \right]^{-1/2} \int_0^1 \sin(2\pi kr) dW(r) \stackrel{d}{=} N(0, 1) \quad (11)$$

when $\alpha = 1$, as required. It can easily be shown that using the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimator also delivers a null limiting distribution of the t -statistic given by (8) with the sine as well as the cosine functions. Hence, when dealing with tests related to non-linear trends generated by Fourier expansions, one needs to modify Perron and Yabu's (2009a) procedure using the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimator instead of the FGLS estimator derived from the condition $u_0 = 0$. The limiting distribution of the test statistic is then standard normal in both the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases. This is in contrast to the cases of a linear trend model considered in Perron and Yabu (2009a) and the break model considered in Perron and Yabu (2009b) since the asymptotic results for these models do not depend on the choice of the FGLS estimator.

2.2 The test statistic

We now return to the basic model (1) with one frequency. For notational simplicity, we express the model as:

$$y_t = x_t' \Psi + u_t \quad (12)$$

where $x_t = (z_t', f_t')'$ with $z_t = (1, t, \dots, t^{p_d})'$ and $f_t = (\sin(2\pi kt/T), \cos(2\pi kt/T))'$, and the parameters are $\Psi = (\beta', \gamma)'$, $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{p_d})'$ and $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2)'$. Since we are interested in testing whether nonlinear trend components are present, the null hypothesis is given by $H_0 : R\Psi = 0$ where $R = [0 : I_2]$ is a $2 \times (p_d + 3)$ restriction matrix. Let $\hat{\Psi} = (\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}\tilde{X}'\tilde{y}$ be the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimator where \tilde{X} is a $T \times (p_d + 3)$ matrix of transformed data

¹See Canjels and Watson (1997) for more details on the difference between these two FGLS estimators.

whose t^{th} -row is given by $\tilde{x}'_t = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S L)x'_t$ except for $\tilde{x}'_1 = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2}x'_1$. The $T \times 1$ vector \tilde{y} is similarly defined as $\tilde{y}_t = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S L)y_t$ for $t = 2, \dots, T$, and $\tilde{y}_1 = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2}y_1$. Here, $(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^-$ is the g-inverse of $\tilde{X}'\tilde{X}$. Denote the residuals associated with this regression by \hat{e}_t . The Wald statistic for testing the null hypothesis is:

$$W_{\hat{\gamma}} = \hat{\Psi}'R'[s^2R(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^-R']^{-1}R\hat{\Psi} \quad (13)$$

where $s^2 = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{e}_t^2$. The following theorem, proved in the Appendix, shows that $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ has a $\chi^2(2)$ distribution in both the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases.

Theorem 1 *Let y_t be generated by (1) with $\gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = 0$. Then,*

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow & [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)'dr)^- \int_0^1 G(r)dW(r)]'[R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)'dr)^- R']^{-1} \\ & \times [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)'dr)^- \int_0^1 G(r)dW(r)] =^d \chi^2(2) \end{aligned}$$

where $G(r) = F(r) = [1, r, \dots, r^{p_d}, \sin(2\pi kr), \cos(2\pi kr)]'$ if $|\alpha| < 1$ and $G(r) = Q(r) = [0, 1, 2r, \dots, p_d r^{(p_d-1)}, 2\pi k \cos(2\pi kr), -2\pi k \sin(2\pi kr)]$ if $\alpha = 1$.

Therefore, constructing the GLS regression with the super-efficient estimator, $\hat{\alpha}_S$, effectively bridges the gap between the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases, and the chi-square asymptotic distribution is obtained in both cases.

2.2.1 Local asymptotic power

Using the local alternatives specification used in AHLT, we can use the result of Theorem 1 to obtain the local asymptotic power function of the test. The alternatives are given by $\gamma_1 = T^{-1/2}\gamma_0\sigma$ and $\gamma_2 = T^{-1/2}\gamma_0\sigma$ for the case of $I(0)$ errors and $\gamma_1 = T^{1/2}\gamma_0\sigma$ and $\gamma_2 = T^{1/2}\gamma_0\sigma$ for the case of $I(1)$ errors, where the scaling by σ is to factor out the variance from the local asymptotic power function. The details about the theoretical results on the local asymptotic power functions for our test and that of the ASW test are given in the appendix. It is easy to see that the local asymptotic power function of our test is equivalent to that of the Wald test based on the infeasible GLS procedure that assumes a known value α . Hence, it is the most powerful local test (under Gaussian errors) at least pointwise in α . To quantify the extent of the power gains over using the ASW test, Figure 1 plots the local asymptotic power functions of our test and that of the ASW test for the constant case ($p_d = 0$). Clearly, our test permits important power gains, especially in the case of $I(1)$ errors. These power improvements will be shown to hold as well in finite samples via simulations later.

2.2.2 Power when α is local to one

Note that the result obtained in Theorem 1 is pointwise in α for $-1 < \alpha \leq 1$ and does not hold uniformly, in particular in a local neighborhood of 1. Adopting the standard local to unity approach which is expected to provide a good approximation in finite samples when the true value of α is close to but not equal to one, we have the following result proved in the Appendix.

Theorem 2 *Let y_t be generated by (1) with $\gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = 0$. Suppose that $\alpha = 1 + c/T$, then :*

$$W_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow [R(\int_0^1 Q(r)Q(r)'dr)^- \int_0^1 Q(r)dJ_c(r)]'[R(\int_0^1 Q(r)Q(r)'dr)^- R']^{-1} \\ \times [R(\int_0^1 Q(r)Q(r)'dr)^- \int_0^1 Q(r)dJ_c(r)]'$$

where $Q(r) = [0, 1, 2r, \dots, p_d r^{(p_d-1)}, 2\pi k \cos(2\pi kr), -2\pi k \sin(2\pi kr)]$ and $J_c(r) = \int_0^r \exp(c(r-s))dW(s) \sim N(0, (\exp(2cr) - 1)/2c)$.

The result is fairly intuitive. Since the true value of α is in a T^{-1} neighborhood of 1, and $\hat{\alpha}_S$ truncates the values of $\hat{\alpha}$ in a $T^{-\delta}$ neighborhood of 1 for some $0 < \delta < 1$ (i.e., a larger neighborhood), in large enough samples $\hat{\alpha}_S = 1$. Hence, the FGLS estimator of Ψ is essentially the same as that based on first-differenced data. Note that when $c = 0$, we recover the result of Theorem 1 for the $I(1)$ case. However, when $c < 0$, the variance of $J_c(r)$ is smaller than that of $W(r)$. Hence, the upper quantiles of the limit distributions are, accordingly, smaller than those of a $\chi^2(2)$, so that, without modifications, a conservative test may be expected for values of α close to 1, relative to the sample size.

2.2.3 The choice of δ

Theorem 1 is valid for the super-efficient estimator (7) for any choice of $\delta \in (0, 1)$ and $d > 0$. It is of practical importance to know if there is any guidance on the choice of these parameters. Regarding the choice of δ , Perron and Yabu (2009a) recommend to set $\delta = 1/2$ based on local to unity arguments. We can apply the same arguments here. Note that the limits of the variances of the component $\int_0^1 Q(r)dJ_c(r)$ is 0 as $c \rightarrow -\infty$, and we do not recover the same result that applies to the $I(0)$ case. As noted by Phillips and Lee (1996), the local to unity asymptotic framework with $c \rightarrow -\infty$ involves a doubly infinite triangular array such that the limit of the statistic depends on the relative approach to infinity of c and T . For the case of tests on the coefficients of a linear trend function, Perron and Yabu

(2009a) showed that indeed, the t -statistic has a $N(0, 1)$ limit distribution as $c \rightarrow -\infty$. What is especially interesting is that to obtain this result, a condition on δ needs to be imposed, namely that $\delta \geq 1/2$. Their result extends in a straightforward way to the present setup, which is important for the following reason. In order to bridge the gap between the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases and ensure that for values of the autoregressive parameter local to one the tests have the least possible size distortions, we need $\delta \geq 1/2$. Otherwise, from Theorem 2, a conservative test is to be expected. This in fact restricts the neighborhood where truncation applies. On the other hand, increasing δ beyond $1/2$ would imply that in moderate samples the truncation applies less and less and that $\hat{\alpha}_S$ would basically be equivalent to the OLS estimate $\hat{\alpha}$. These considerations suggest that $\delta = 1/2$ should be the preferred choice. Indeed, simulations reported in Perron and Yabu (2009a) show that this value leads to a procedure which works best in small samples. We also verified by simulations that $\delta = 1/2$ is the best choice for the tests and models considered here. Hence, we shall continue to use this value and will calibrate the appropriate value of d using simulations.

2.3 Bias correction for improved finite sample properties

The test statistic $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ is constructed from the super-efficient estimator (7) that is based on the OLS estimator (3), which is known to be biased downward in finite samples especially when α is near one. Hence, in many cases, the truncation described by (7) may not be used even when it would be desirable. To circumvent this problem, Perron and Yabu (2009a) recommend using Roy and Fuller's (2001) bias corrected estimator instead of the OLS estimator in the context of a linear trend model and show that such a correction improves the finite sample performance of their test without changing its asymptotic properties. The aim of this section is to suggest a similar bias correction to improve the finite sample properties of the test $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$.

Roy and Fuller (2001) proposed a class of bias corrected estimators and we consider here the one based on the OLS estimator². It is a function of a unit root test, namely the t -ratio $\hat{\tau} = (\hat{\alpha} - 1)/\hat{\sigma}_\alpha$, where $\hat{\alpha}$ is the OLS estimator and $\hat{\sigma}_\alpha$ is its standard error. The bias-corrected

²Roy et al. (2004) and Perron and Yabu (2009a) use a similar bias correction based on a weighted symmetric least-squares estimator of α instead of the OLS estimator employed here. Both lead to tests with similar properties. However, note that the test proposed by Roy et. al (2004) has very different sizes in the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases; see Perron and Yabu (2012) for details.

estimator is given by

$$\hat{\alpha}_M = \hat{\alpha} + C(\hat{\tau})\hat{\sigma}_\alpha, \quad (14)$$

$$C(\hat{\tau}) = \begin{cases} -\hat{\tau} & \text{if } \hat{\tau} > \tau_{pct} \\ T^{-1}\hat{\tau} - (1+r)[\hat{\tau} + c_2(\hat{\tau} + a)]^{-1} & \text{if } -a < \hat{\tau} \leq \tau_{pct} \\ T^{-1}\hat{\tau} - (1+r)\hat{\tau}^{-1} & \text{if } -c_1^{1/2} < \hat{\tau} \leq -a \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{\tau} \leq -c_1^{1/2} \end{cases}$$

where τ_{pct} is some percentile of the limiting distribution of $\hat{\tau}$ when $\alpha = 1$, $c_1 = (1+r)T$, r is the number estimated parameters, $c_2 = [(1+r)T - \tau_{pct}^2(1+T)][\tau_{pct}(a + \tau_{pct})(1+T)]^{-1}$ and a is some constant. The parameters for which specific values need to be selected are τ_{pct} and a . Based on extensive simulation experiments, we selected $a = 10$ since it leads to tests with better properties. Also, for τ_{pct} we shall consider $\tau_{.50}$ or $\tau_{.85}$. When using $\tau_{.50}$ the version of the test is labelled as “median-unbiased” and when using $\tau_{.85}$, it is labelled as “upper-biased”. The values of $\tau_{.50}$ and $\tau_{.85}$ depend on p_d and the type of frequencies included. Table 1 presents values for $p_d = 0, 1$ for cases with a single frequency k taking value between 1 and 5 and for cases with multiple frequencies $k = 1, \dots, n$ for n between 1 and 5.

It should be noted that, to obtain the super-efficient estimator (7), $\hat{\alpha}$ can be replaced by $\hat{\alpha}_M$ since all that is needed is that $T(\hat{\alpha}_M - 1) = O_p(1)$ when $\alpha = 1$, and $T^{1/2}(\hat{\alpha}_M - \alpha) \rightarrow^d N(0, 1 - \alpha^2)$ when $\alpha < 1$. These conditions are satisfied and thus all the large sample results, Theorems 1 and 2, continue to hold. Based on extensive simulations, we found that the value $d = 1$ in (7) combined with $\hat{\alpha}_M$ leads to the best results in finite samples. Hence, our suggested AR(1) coefficient estimator to be used in the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimator is $\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$, which takes value $\hat{\alpha}_M$ when $|\hat{\alpha}_M - 1| > T^{-1/2}$ and 1 otherwise.

Figure 2.a presents results about the size of the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with only a constant ($p_d = 0$) when constructed using: a) the OLS estimator, b) the median unbiased estimator ($\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$ with $\tau_{pct} = \tau_{.50}$) and the upper biased estimator ($\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$ with $\tau_{pct} = \tau_{.85}$). Figure 2.b shows the corresponding results for the linear trend case ($p_d = 1$). The data are generated by a AR(1) process of the form $y_t = \alpha y_{t-1} + e_t$ with $e_t \sim i.i.d. N(0, 1)$ and $y_0 = 0$ (setting the constant and trend parameters to zero is without loss of generality due to the fact that the tests are invariant to them). The nominal size of the tests is 5% throughout the paper and the exact size is evaluated using 10,000 replications. The sample sizes are set to $T = 150, 300, \text{ and } 600$. The results clearly show that when using the biased OLS estimator $\hat{\alpha}$ the size distortions

are important when α is close to 1 and remain even with T as large as 600. In contrast, the exact size of the test constructed using either the median unbiased or, especially, the upper biased estimator is very close to the nominal size regardless of the value of α for all sample sizes T . These results are encouraging and points to the usefulness of the bias correction step in our testing procedure.

3 The general model

Having laid out the foundation for the basic model (1), it is relatively straightforward to extend the test procedure to cover the general model which involves the possibility of more than one frequency in the Fourier expansion and a general serial correlation structure in the noise component. The general model is given by:

$$y_t = \sum_{i=0}^{pd} \beta_i t^i + \sum_{j=1}^n \gamma_{1j} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi k_j t}{T}\right) + \sum_{j=1}^n \gamma_{2j} \cos\left(\frac{2\pi k_j t}{T}\right) + u_t \quad (15)$$

for $t = 1, \dots, T$. The k_j 's are nonnegative integers for $j = 1, \dots, n$, and n is the total number of frequencies used in the Fourier approximation. Note that the set of k_j 's can be a proper subset of all the integers between 1 and the maximum frequency k_n so that k_n need not correspond to the n^{th} frequency. For example, when $n = 2$ and $k_2 = 3$, (k_1, k_2) can be either $(1, 3)$ or $(2, 3)$. This will turn out to be useful when designing a strategy to estimate the number of frequencies to include. In vector form, (15) can also be written as (12) using $x_t = (z_t', f_t')'$ where $z_t = (1, \dots, t^{pd})'$,

$$f_t = (\sin(2\pi k_1 t/T), \cos(2\pi k_1 t/T), \dots, \sin(2\pi k_n t/T), \cos(2\pi k_n t/T))'$$

and $\Psi = (\beta', \gamma')'$ where $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{pd})'$ and $\gamma = (\gamma_{11}, \gamma_{21}, \dots, \gamma_{1n}, \gamma_{2n})'$. For the noise component, we assume that u_t is generated by one of the following two structures:

- Assumption I(0): $u_t = C(L)e_t$, where $C(L) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_i L^i$, $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} i|c_i| < \infty$ and $0 < |C(1)| < \infty$;
- Assumption I(1): $\Delta u_t = D(L)e_t$, where $D(L) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} d_i L^i$, $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} i|d_i| < \infty$ and $0 < |D(1)| < \infty$.

As in the basic model, we assume $e_t \sim (0, \sigma^2)$ and is a martingale difference sequence as defined previously. Also, $u_0 = O_p(1)$. These conditions ensures that we can apply a functional central limit theorem to the partial sums of u_t in the $I(0)$ case and the partial

sums of Δu_t in the $I(1)$ case. In both cases, u_t has an autoregressive representation of the form $u_t = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i u_{t-i} + e_t$, or equivalently

$$u_t = \alpha u_{t-1} + A^*(L)\Delta u_{t-1} + e_t \quad (16)$$

where the parameter α now represents the sum of the autoregressive coefficients. In particular, when u_t is $I(0)$, $\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$ and $A^*(L) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i^* L^i$ where $a_i^* = -\sum_{j=i+1}^{\infty} a_j$ and $A(L) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i L^i = C(L)^{-1}$. When u_t is $I(1)$, $\alpha = 1$ and $A^*(L) = L^{-1}(1 - D(L)^{-1})$. The sum of the autoregressive coefficients α in (16) can be consistently estimated from the following regression estimated by OLS:

$$\hat{u}_t = \alpha \hat{u}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p_T} a_i^* \Delta \hat{u}_{t-i} + e_{pt} \quad (17)$$

where \hat{u}_t are the residuals from a regression of y_t on x_t and p_T is the truncation lag order which satisfies $p_T \rightarrow \infty$ and $p_T^3/T \rightarrow 0$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$. Under this condition on the rate of p_T , the OLS estimator $\hat{\alpha}$ is consistent and $T^{1/2}(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) = O_p(1)$ when u_t is $I(0)$ (see Berk, 1974, Ng and Perron, 1995). On the other hand, if $\alpha = 1$, $T(\hat{\alpha} - 1) \Rightarrow D(1) \int_0^1 W^*(r) dW(r) / \int_0^1 W^*(r)^2 dr$ where $W^*(r)$ is the residual function from a regression of $W(r)$ on

$$F(r) = [1, r, \dots, r^{p_d}, \sin(2\pi k_1 r), \cos(2\pi k_1 r), \dots, \sin(2\pi k_n r), \cos(2\pi k_n r)]'$$

However, if we replace the OLS estimator $\hat{\alpha}$ with a super-efficient estimator similar to $\hat{\alpha}_S$ in (7) or its bias-corrected version $\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$, we have $T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) \rightarrow_p 0$ and $T(\hat{\alpha}_{MS} - 1) \rightarrow_p 0$ when $\alpha = 1$ so that the limiting distribution of the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimator is the same chi-square regardless of the integration order of the noise.

3.1 The test statistic

The null hypothesis for the absence of nonlinear components for the general case is now given by $R\Psi = 0$ where $R = [0 : I_{2n}]$ is a $2n \times (p_d + 1 + 2n)$ restriction matrix. We again use the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimator $\hat{\Psi}$ by running the the transformed regression:

$$(1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}L)y_t = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}L)x_t'\Psi + (1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}L)u_t \quad (18)$$

for $t = 2, \dots, T$, together with

$$(1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}^2)^{1/2}y_1 = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}^2)^{1/2}x_1'\Psi + (1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}^2)^{1/2}u_1. \quad (19)$$

Since the residuals from this regression are now approximations to $v_t \equiv (1 - \alpha L)u_t$ instead of e_t , we denote the residual by \hat{v}_t instead of \hat{e}_t . The resulting Wald statistic, robust to serial correlation in v_t , is:

$$W_{\hat{\gamma}} = \hat{\Psi}' R' [\hat{\omega}^2 R (\tilde{X}' \tilde{X})^{-1} R']^{-1} R \hat{\Psi} \quad (20)$$

where \tilde{X} is a $T \times (p_d + 1 + 2n)$ matrix of transformed data whose t^{th} -row is given by $\tilde{x}'_t = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS} L)x'_t$ except for $\tilde{x}'_1 = (1 - \hat{\alpha}_{MS}^2)^{1/2} x'_1$. Here, $\hat{\omega}^2$ is a long-run variance estimator of $v_t = (1 - \alpha L)u_t$ which replaces s^2 in (13). More specifically, $\hat{\omega}^2$ is a consistent estimator of $(2\pi \text{ times})$ the spectral density function at frequency zero of v_t , given by $\omega^2 = (1 - \alpha)^2 A(1)^{-2} \sigma^2 = \sigma^2$ when u_t follows an $I(0)$ process, and $\omega^2 = D(1)^2 \sigma^2$ when u_t follows an $I(1)$ process. Accordingly, we use the following long-run variance estimator:

$$\hat{\omega}^2 = \begin{cases} (T - p_T)^{-1} \sum_{t=p_T+1}^T \hat{e}_{pt}^2 & \text{if } T^{1/2} |\hat{\alpha}_M - 1| > 1 \\ T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{v}_t^2 + T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T-1} w(j, m_T) \sum_{t=j+1}^T \hat{v}_t \hat{v}_{t-j} & \text{if } T^{1/2} |\hat{\alpha}_M - 1| \leq 1 \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

where \hat{e}_{pt} are the residuals from (17) and $w(j, m_T)$ is a weight function with bandwidth m_T . We use the Andrews' (1991) automatic selection procedure for m_T along with the quadratic spectral window. Note that this long-run variance estimator can be viewed as a combination of parametric and nonparametric estimators depending on the threshold used to construct the super-efficient estimator (7). The following theorem, whose proof is similar to that of Theorem 1, and hence omitted, shows that the test based on the FGLS procedure using $\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$ has a $\chi^2(2n)$ distribution in both the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases.

Theorem 3 *Let y_t be generated by (15). Then,*

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow & [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)' dr)^{-1} \int_0^1 G(r)dW(r)]' [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)' dr)^{-1} R']^{-1} \\ & \times [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)' dr)^{-1} \int_0^1 G(r)dW(r)] =^d \chi^2(2n) \end{aligned}$$

where $G(r) = F(r) = [1, r, \dots, r^{p_d}, \sin(2\pi k_1 r), \cos(2\pi k_1 r), \dots, \sin(2\pi k_n r), \cos(2\pi k_n r)]'$ if $|\alpha| < 1$ and if $\alpha = 1$, $G(r) = Q(r) = [0, 1, 2r, \dots, p_d r^{(p_d-1)}, 2\pi k_1 \cos(2\pi k_1 r), -2\pi k_1 \sin(2\pi k_1 r), \dots, 2\pi k_n \cos(2\pi k_n r), -2\pi k_n \sin(2\pi k_n r)]$.

Remark 1 *It remains in the general case that constructing the GLS regression with the super-efficient estimator, $\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$, effectively bridges the gap between the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases, and the chi-square asymptotic distribution is common to both.*

Remark 2 *The degrees of freedom of the limiting chi-square distribution is $2n$ so that it depends only on the number of frequencies, but not on the choice of the frequencies itself. This is particularly convenient since the same critical values can be used for any combination of frequencies as long as the total number of frequencies remains unchanged. In contrast, the limiting distribution of the MW test statistic proposed by HLX, and that of the ASW test statistic proposed by AHLT is non-standard and depends on the choice of the frequencies, which makes inference difficult, especially as the number of frequencies increases.*

Remark 3 *While we are mainly interested in testing the restriction that all the coefficients of the nonlinear trend components are zero, the test statistic can easily be modified to test zero restrictions on a subset of the coefficients. If $m(< n)$ denotes the number of frequencies of interest, we can use a $2m \times (p_d + 1 + 2n)$ restriction matrix $R = [0 : S]$ where S is a $2m \times 2n$ selection matrix constructed by excluding unrelated row vectors from I_{2n} . Under the null hypothesis, the Wald test statistic now asymptotically follows a chi-square distribution with $2m$ degrees of freedom. This variant of our test statistic is convenient for model selection purposes when the form of the Fourier expansion is unknown.*

4 Monte Carlo experiments

In this section, we conduct Monte Carlo experiments with two objectives in mind. The first is to evaluate the power of our test, both the median-unbiased and upper-biased versions, and compare it with that of previously proposed procedures to test for the presence of nonlinear trends robust to having either $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ errors. Such tests include the MW test statistic proposed by HLX, and the ASW test statistic proposed by AHLT. Since AHLT have already shown that the power performance of the ASW test statistic dominates that of MW test, we only report comparisons with the former (the test is described in the appendix). The second objective is to evaluate the performance of our test when it is used as a pretest for a unit root test. We combine our procedure and the LM unit root test of Enders and Lee (2012) that allow for a flexible nonlinear trend using a Fourier series approximation.

Before describing the simulation design, we review each step of our recommended testing procedure for the general case.

1. Run the OLS regression (15) and obtain residuals \hat{u}_t ;
2. Run the regression (17) and obtain $\hat{\alpha}$ with p_T selected using an information criterion. We use the MAIC proposed by Ng and Perron (2001), with p_T allowed to be in the range $[0, 12(T/100)^{1/4}]$.

3. Construct the bias corrected estimator given by $\hat{\alpha}_M = \hat{\alpha} + C(\hat{\tau})\hat{\sigma}_\alpha$, where

$$C(\hat{\tau}) = \begin{cases} -\hat{\tau} & \text{if } \hat{\tau} > \tau_{pct} \\ [(p_T + 2)/2]T^{-1}\hat{\tau} - (1 + r)[\hat{\tau} + c_2(\hat{\tau} + a)]^{-1} & \text{if } -a < \hat{\tau} \leq \tau_{pct} \\ [(p_T + 2)/2]T^{-1}\hat{\tau} - (1 + r)\hat{\tau}^{-1} & \text{if } -c_1^{1/2} < \hat{\tau} \leq -a \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{\tau} \leq -c_1^{1/2} \end{cases}$$

with $c_1 = (1 + r)T$ with $r = 2 + 2n$, $c_2 = [(1 + r)T - \tau_{pct}^2((p_T + 2)/2 + T)][\tau_{pct}(a + \tau_{pct})((p_T + 2)/2 + T)]^{-1}$ and $a = 10$. For the median-unbiased version use $\tau_{0.5}$ and for the upper-biased version use $\tau_{0.85}$.

4. Construct the super-efficient estimator given by

$$\hat{\alpha}_{MS} = \begin{cases} \hat{\alpha}_M & \text{if } |\hat{\alpha}_M - 1| > T^{-1/2} \\ 1 & \text{if } |\hat{\alpha}_M - 1| \leq T^{-1/2} \end{cases}$$

5. Construct the Prais-Winsten FGLS estimate $\hat{\Psi}$ and residuals \hat{v}_t from the regression (18) with (19) using $\hat{\alpha}_{MS}$ and construct the Wald test statistic (20) using $\hat{\omega}^2 = (T - p_T)^{-1} \sum_{t=p_T+1}^T \hat{e}_{pt}^2$ if $|\hat{\alpha}_M - 1| > T^{-1/2}$ and $\hat{\omega}^2 = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{v}_t^2 + T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T-1} w(j, m_T) \sum_{t=j+1}^T \hat{v}_t \hat{v}_{t-j}$ otherwise.

4.1 The size and power of the tests

We first report the empirical size of our test and that of the *ASW* test when the data are generated from

$$y_t = u_t, \quad (1 - \phi L)u_t = (1 + \theta L)e_t \quad (22)$$

with $e_t \sim i.i.d. N(0, 1)$ and $u_0 = 0$. We set $\phi = 1, 0.95, 0.9, 0.8$ and $\theta = -0.8, -0.4, 0.0, 0.4, 0.8$. The exact size is computed as the frequency of rejecting the null from 10,000 replications when using a 5% nominal size. The sample sizes considered are $T = 150, 300$ and 600. Note that, when $\phi = 1$, the error term follows an I(1) process with the sum of the AR coefficients $\alpha = 1$. For the other choice of ϕ , the error term follows an I(0) process with the sum of AR coefficients given by $\alpha = 1 - (1 - \phi)(1 + \theta)^{-1}$.³ We only consider positive AR coefficients since this is the most relevant case in practice.

³Note that the combinations of ϕ and θ requires some attention. For example, when $\phi = 0.8$ and $\theta = -0.8$, the process is not ARMA(1,1) but rather a simple i.i.d. process with the true sum of the AR coefficients being 0.

The size of our test using a single frequency $k = 1$ is reported in Table 2.a (with a constant only; $p_d = 0$) and Table 2.b (with a linear trend; $p_d = 1$). The results show that our test has reasonable size properties for both the I(0) and I(1) cases. This is especially the case for the upper-biased version of the test. The size of the ASW test is also adequate though some liberal size distortions are present in the case of a large negative moving-average coefficient, unlike our test which maintains nearly the correct size when using the upper-biased version.

To evaluate the power of the tests, the data are now generated from the following non-linear process:

$$y_t = \gamma(\sin(2\pi t/T) + \cos(2\pi t/T)) + u_t \quad (23)$$

where $\gamma > 0$. The error term is generated from $u_t = \alpha u_{t-1} + e_t$ with $e_t \sim i.i.d. N(0, 1)$ and $u_0 = 0$ for $\alpha = 1.0, 0.95, 0.9$ and 0.8 . Here, we consider the case with the frequency $k = 1$ known. However, we continue to use the test which allows for general serial correlation and does not rely on the knowledge of the AR(1) error structure. We consider the case with an unknown frequency structure below. The results are presented in Figures 3.a to 3.c for the case with a constant only ($p_d = 0$) and Figures 4.a to 4.c for the case with a linear trend ($p_d = 1$). The first thing to note it that the power of both versions of our test is close to that achievable using the infeasible GLS estimate that assumes a known value of α (the upper bound with Gaussian errors) when $\alpha = 1$. In that case, the power of the ASW test is substantially lower. The same features hold approximately when α is far from one (relative to the sample size, i.e., not local to one) as shown in the case with $T = 600$ and $\alpha = 0.8$.

Things are different when α can be viewed as being local to 1. In such cases, the power of the median-unbiased version is higher than that of the upper-biased version. Some of the differences, though not all, can be explained by the fact that the median-unbiased version tends to have higher size than the upper-biased version, which tends to be conservative. In general, the power of the ASW is lower than either version of our test, especially the median-unbiased version. There are cases, however, for which the ASW is more powerful though never uniformly in the value of the alternative. This is mainly due to the fact that both versions of our test can exhibit a “kinked” power curve when α is local to 1. When comparing to the median-unbiased version, the power of the ASW test is higher in the following cases when considering a constant only ($p_d = 0$): $T = 150$, $\alpha = .8$ and $T = 300$, $\alpha = 0.9$ for large alternatives (though the differences are minor), $T = 300$, $\alpha = 0.9$ for medium alternatives, $T = 600$, $\alpha = 0.95$ for large alternatives. When considering a fitted linear trend ($p_d = 1$), the ASW test has lower power in all cases, with very minor exceptions. In summary, in terms of power the median-unbiased version of our test is clearly preferable.

This may be counter-balanced by the fact that it is also the test most prone to having liberal size distortions, though they are relatively minor, occur mostly when α is close to or equal to 1 in the presence of a large moving-average coefficient, and reduce noticeably as the sample size increases.

4.2 The relative performance in choosing the number of frequencies

We now turn to the issue of choosing the number of frequencies. To simplify, we let $k_n = n$ and the data are generated from

$$y_t = \gamma \sum_{k=1}^2 (\sin(2\pi kt/T) + \cos(2\pi kt/T)) + u_t \quad (24)$$

with the same AR(1) error term as before, whose structure is, for simplicity, assumed to be known. Therefore, the true number of frequencies is given by $n = 2$, whenever $\gamma \neq 0$. We consider experiments with $\gamma = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4,$ and 5

We use a general-to-specific procedure based on the sequential application of the variant of our test for subsets of coefficients as explained in Remark 3. We first set the total number of frequencies at $n = 3$ and test the null hypothesis that the coefficients related to the maximum frequency $k = 3$ are zero. If the null hypothesis is rejected, we select $n = 3$. If not, we set $n = 2$, and test whether the coefficients related to $k = 2$ are zero. We continue the procedure until we reject the null or reach $n = 0$. Note that the number of restrictions in each step is 2 ($= 2m$) so that all the tests share the same critical value from the chi-square distribution with 2 degrees of freedom. We compare the selection frequencies of this procedure with the one based on the *ASW* test combined with the frequency selection algorithm proposed in HLX (p. 388), as advocated by AHLT. For the *ASW* test, results using tests at the 5% significance level are reported. For our test, results with both 1% and 5% significance levels are reported. Table 3 reports the relative frequency of choosing each of $n = 0, 1, 2,$ and 3 , when a trend term is included ($p_d = 1$). Compared to the procedure based on the *ASW* test, our procedure is substantially better at selecting the true number of frequencies $n = 2$ when $\gamma \neq 0$. Note, in particular, that the procedure based on the *ASW* test has very little power so that $n = 0$ is the value most often selected even when γ is large. With respect to the size of the test for our procedure, using a 1% significance level leads to better selection when $\gamma = 0$ or when γ is very large, otherwise using a 5% significance level is preferred.

4.3 The performance as pre-tests for a unit root test

Finally, we investigate the performance of our test when it is used as a pretest before applying the unit root test of Enders and Lee (2012). The simulation design follows that of Enders and Lee (2012). The exact size and power of their unit root test are evaluated when the number of frequencies in the nonlinear trend function is unknown. To evaluate the size of the test, the data are generated from (24) with I(1) errors generated by a random walk with *i.i.d.* $N(0, 1)$ errors. We set $T = 150, 300$ and 600 and $\gamma = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ and the nominal size of the unit root test is 5%. Table 4 shows the empirical size of the unit root tests when (i) the number of frequencies is incorrectly specified at $n = 0$ (unless $\gamma = 0$), (ii) when the number of frequencies is correctly specified at $n = 2$ (unless $\gamma = 0$), (iii) when the number of frequencies is selected based on the sequential application of the *ASW* test, and (iv) when the number of frequencies is selected based on the sequential application of our test. As before, results using a 5% significance level are reported for the *ASW*-based procedure and using both 1% and 5% significance levels for ours. When the number of frequencies is incorrectly specified at $n = 0$, the unit root test is clearly undersized. The exact sizes of the unit root test with n selected by the *ASW*-based procedure and our test are comparable to that of the correctly specified case.

The advantage of employing our procedure becomes evident when considering the power of the unit root test. Figures 5.a and 5.b present the power of the unit root test when the data are generated from (24) with the I(0) error generated as AR(1) processes with coefficients $\alpha = 0.9$ and 0.8 (and innovations that are *i.i.d.* $N(0, 1)$). For all cases, a U-shaped non-monotonic power function is observed when plotted as a function of γ . However, using our test, the reduction in power is less pronounced, especially with $\alpha = 0.8$. This feature can be understood by comparing these figures with those presented in Figures 6.a and 6.b, which plot the power of the unit root test for the cases of fixed total number of frequencies at $n = 0$ and $n = 2$. When the unit root test is applied with an incorrect total number of frequencies of $n = 0$ its power monotonically decreases with γ . In contrast, if n is correctly specified, the power of the unit root test becomes invariant to γ . The results in Table 3 show that the *ASW*-based procedure tends to select $n = 0$ much more frequently than our test when γ is not very large. Hence, this lack of power in rejecting the null of the absence of non-linear components directly translates into a lack of power for the unit root test. Our test being more powerful also ensures a unit root test with higher power.

5 Empirical applications

To illustrate the usefulness of our test procedure and method, we consider the trend function of global and hemispheric temperature series. The data series used are from the HadCRUT3 database (<http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadcrut3/>) and cover the period 1850-2010 with annual observations. Three series are considered: global, Northern Hemisphere (NH) and Southern Hemisphere (SH). This is the same data used by Estrada, Perron and Martínez-López (2013), which is the motivation for the analysis to be presented. Based on various statistical methods, they documented that anthropogenic factors were responsible for the following features in temperature series: a marked increase in the growth rates of both temperatures and radiative forcing occurring near 1960, marking the start of sustained global warming; the impact of the Montreal Protocol (in reducing the emission of chlorofluorocarbons, CFC) and a reduction in methane emissions contributed to the recent so-called hiatus in the growth of temperatures since the mid-90s; the two World Wars and the Great Crash contributed to the mid-20th century cooling via important reductions in CO₂ emissions. While the presence of the break in the slope of the trend in temperatures is well established using the test of Perron and Yabu (2009b), the statistical evidence about the two slowdowns or hiatus periods has not been statistically documented even though they are both well recognized in the climate change literature; see Maher et al. (2014). Our goal is to see whether our method can detect the main features documented, namely the change in growth following 1960 and the two non-linearities taking the form of a slowdown in growth during the 40s-mid-50s and the post mid-90s.

It is well known in the climate change literature that the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) represents ocean-atmosphere processes naturally occurring in the North Atlantic with a large influence over NH and global climates. It produces 60- to 90-years natural oscillations that distort the warming trend suggesting it should be filtered before attempting to model the trend. Consequently, following Estrada et al. (2013), we remove the low frequency natural component of the AMO from the NH and global temperature series in order to obtain a better measure of the low frequency trend, i.e., to isolate the trend in climate. The AMO series (1856-2010) was obtained from NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/>).

As discussed in Estrada et al. (2013), applying standard unit root tests lead to a non-rejection of the unit root null hypothesis. This could be due to a genuine non-linear trend, which biases the unit root tests towards non-rejections, or to a genuine I(1) noise component.

Hence, it is important to allow for both $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ noise when testing for the presence of non-linear components in the trend. We applied both the ASW-based and our testing procedures. We first used the sequential procedure described in Section 4.2 to determine the number of frequencies. The results are presented in Table 5. Our method selects the first three frequencies as being significant, while the ASW-based method fails to find any nonlinearities. The parameter estimates are presented in Table 6. Using the fitted non-linear trend function from our procedure, we applied Enders and Lee (2012) unit root test. The results presented in Table 5, show that the remaining noise is deemed stationary at the 1% significance level.

The fitted non-linear trend functions are presented in Figure 7. The slowdown in the 40s-mid-50s and the marked increase in the rate of growth after 1960 are clearly present in all series. However, the hiatus post mid-90s is present only in the global and SH series. This is consistent with the argument advanced in Estrada et al. (2013) that the reduction in CFC was a major driver behind the slowdown in global temperatures. As argued by Previdi and Polvani (2014), the ozone recovery (due to the reduction in the emissions of CFC) has been instrumental in driving SH climate by altering the tropospheric midlatitude jet. Hence, our fitted non-linear trends are consistent with the main features of the climate trend since the early 20th century.

6 Conclusions

This paper proposes a new test for the presence of nonlinear deterministic trends approximated by Fourier expansions in a univariate time series without any prior knowledge as to whether the noise component is stationary or contains an autoregressive unit root. Our approach builds on the work of Perron and Yabu (2009a) and is based on a Feasible GLS procedure that uses a super-efficient estimator of the sum of the autoregressive coefficients α when $\alpha = 1$. The resulting Wald test statistic asymptotically follows a chi-square limit distribution in both the $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ cases. To improve the finite sample properties of the tests, we use a bias corrected version of the OLS estimator of α proposed by Roy and Fuller (2001). We show that our procedure is substantially more powerful than currently available alternatives. An empirical application to global and hemispheric temperatures series shows the usefulness of our proposed method and offers additional insights into the differences in climate change in the Northern and Southern hemispheres.

Appendix: Technical Derivations

Proof of equation (6): The t -statistic for testing $\gamma = 0$ is:

$$\begin{aligned}
t_{\hat{\gamma}} &= \frac{T^{1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T (\sin(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha} \sin(2\pi k(t-1)/T))(u_t - \hat{\alpha} u_{t-1})}{\left\{ s^2 T \sum_{t=1}^T (\sin(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha} \sin(2\pi k(t-1)/T))^2 \right\}^{1/2}} + o_p(1) \\
&= \left\{ T^{1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta \sin(2\pi kt/T) e_t - T(\hat{\alpha} - 1) T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta \sin(2\pi kt/T) u_{t-1} \right. \\
&\quad \left. - T(\hat{\alpha} - 1) \left[T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \sin(2\pi k(t-1)/T) e_t - T(\hat{\alpha} - 1) T^{-3/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \sin(2\pi k(t-1)/T) u_{t-1} \right] \right\} \\
&\quad / \left\{ s^2 \left[T \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta \sin^2(2\pi kt/T) + T^2 (\hat{\alpha} - 1)^2 T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \sin^2(2\pi k(t-1)/T) \right] \right\}^{1/2} + o_p(1).
\end{aligned}$$

The result follows using the facts that:

1. $T^{1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta \sin(2\pi kt/T) e_t \Rightarrow \sigma(2\pi k) \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi kr) dW(r)$,
2. $T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta \sin(2\pi kt/T) u_{t-1} \Rightarrow \sigma(2\pi k) \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi kr) W(r) dr$,
3. $T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \sin(2\pi k(t-1)/T) e_t \Rightarrow \sigma \int_0^1 \sin(2\pi kr) dW(r)$,
4. $T^{-3/2} \sum_{t=1}^T \sin(2\pi k(t-1)/T) u_{t-1} \Rightarrow \sigma \int_0^1 \sin(2\pi kr) W(r) dr$,
5. $T \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta \sin^2(2\pi kt/T) \Rightarrow (2\pi k)^2 \int_0^1 \cos^2(2\pi kr) dr$,
6. $T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \sin^2(2\pi k(t-1)/T) \Rightarrow \int_0^1 \sin^2(2\pi kr) dr$,
7. $s^2 = \sigma^2 + o_p(1)$.

Proof of equation (11): The t -statistic for testing $\gamma = 0$ is:

$$\begin{aligned}
t_{\hat{\gamma}} &= \frac{(1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2) \cos(2\pi k/T) u_1 + \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))(u_t - \hat{\alpha}_S u_{t-1})}{\left\{ s^2 \left[(1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2) \cos^2(2\pi k/T) + \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))^2 \right] \right\}^{1/2}} \\
&= \frac{T^{1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))(u_t - \hat{\alpha}_S u_{t-1})}{\left\{ s^2 T \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))^2 \right\}^{1/2}} + o_p(1)
\end{aligned}$$

The result follows using the facts that:

1. $T \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))^2 \Rightarrow (2\pi k) \int_0^1 \sin^2(2\pi kr) dr$,

2. $T^{1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))(u_t - \hat{\alpha} u_{t-1}) \Rightarrow -\sigma(2\pi k) \int_0^1 \sin(2\pi kr) dW(r)$,
3. $s^2 = \sigma^2 + o_p(1)$.

Here, the first observation of the innovation does not have any effect on the limiting distribution. However, when we using the FGLS estimator assuming $u_0 = 0$, the initial observation dominates the limiting distribution. The t -statistic for testing $\gamma = 0$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} t_{\hat{\gamma}} &= \frac{\cos(2\pi k/T)u_1 + \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))(u_t - \hat{\alpha} u_{t-1})}{\left\{ s^2 \left[\cos^2(2\pi k/T) + \sum_{t=1}^T (\cos(2\pi kt/T) - \hat{\alpha}_S \cos(2\pi k(t-1)/T))^2 \right] \right\}^{1/2}} \\ &= \frac{\cos(2\pi k/T)u_1}{\{s^2 \cos^2(2\pi k/T)\}^{1/2}} + o_p(1) \end{aligned}$$

using the facts that $\cos(0) = 1$ and $s^2 = \sigma^2 + o_p(1)$, $t_{\hat{\gamma}} \Rightarrow u_1/\sigma$.

Proof of Theorem 1: The model is $y_t = x_t' \Psi + u_t$ where the regressors are $x_t = (z_t', f_t)'$ with $z_t = (1, t, \dots, t^{p_d})'$ and $f_t = (\sin(2\pi kt/T), \cos(2\pi kt/T))'$; the parameters are $\Psi = (\beta', \gamma)'$ with $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{p_d})'$ and $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2)'$. We have

$$\hat{\Psi} - \Psi = \begin{bmatrix} q_{11} & q_{12} \\ q_{12}' & q_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} q_{11} &= (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2) z_1 z_1' + \sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1})(z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1})' \\ q_{22} &= (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2) f_1 f_1' + \sum_{t=2}^T (f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})(f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})' \\ q_{12} &= (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2) z_1 f_1' + \sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1})(f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})' \\ r_1 &= (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2} z_1 u_1 + \sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1}) e_t^* \\ r_2 &= (1 - \hat{\alpha}_S^2)^{1/2} f_1 u_1 + \sum_{t=2}^T (f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1}) e_t^* \end{aligned}$$

with $e_t^* = u_t - \hat{\alpha}_S u_{t-1}$. Let the diagonal matrix

$$\Upsilon_T = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T} & 0 \\ 0 & \Upsilon_{2,T} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\Upsilon_{1,T}$ and $\Upsilon_{2,T}$ are defined later.

Stationary Case ($|\alpha| < 1$). Let $\Upsilon_{1,T} = \text{diag}(T^{1/2}, T^{3/2}, \dots, T^{p_d+1/2})$ and $\Upsilon_{2,T} = \text{diag}(T^{1/2}, T^{1/2})$. Let $F(r) = [F_1(r)', F_2(r)']'$ with $F_1(r) = [1, r, \dots, r^{p_d}]'$ and $F_2(r) = [\sin(2\pi kr), \cos(2\pi kr)]'$. The convergence results for each components are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t^* &= T^{-1/2} \sum_1^{[Tr]} (e_t - (\hat{\alpha}_S - \alpha)u_{t-1}) \\ &= T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t - T^{-1/2}(T^{1/2}(\hat{\alpha}_S - \alpha))(T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} u_{t-1}) \\ &= T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \sigma W(r), \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} q_{11} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} &= \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1})(z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1})' \right] \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} + o_p(1) \\ &\Rightarrow (1 - \alpha)^2 \int_0^1 F_1(r) F_1(r)' dr, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} q_{22} \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} &= \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})(f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})' \right] \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} + o_p(1) \\ &\Rightarrow (1 - \alpha)^2 \int_0^1 F_2(r) F_2(r)' dr, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} q_{12} \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} &= \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1})(f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})' \right] \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} + o_p(1) \\ &\Rightarrow (1 - \alpha)^2 \int_0^1 F_1(r) F_2(r)' dr, \end{aligned}$$

$$\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} r_1 = \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - \hat{\alpha}_S z_{t-1}) e_t^* + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \sigma(1 - \alpha) \int_0^1 F_1(r) dW(r),$$

$$\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}r_2 = \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (f_t - \hat{\alpha}_S f_{t-1})e_t^* + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \sigma(1 - \alpha) \int_0^1 F_2(r)dW(r).$$

Then, we have

$$\Upsilon_T^{-1}(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})\Upsilon_T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}q_{11}\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} & \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}q_{12}\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \\ \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}q'_{12}\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} & \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}q_{22}\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (1 - \alpha)^2 \int_0^1 F(r)F(r)'dr,$$

$$\Upsilon_T^{-1}X'U = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}r_1 \\ \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}r_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma(1 - \alpha) \int_0^1 F(r)dW(r),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon_T(\hat{\Psi} - \Psi) &= (\Upsilon_T^{-1}\tilde{X}'\tilde{X}\Upsilon_T^{-1})^{-1}(\Upsilon_T^{-1}\tilde{X}'\tilde{U}) \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{\sigma}{1 - \alpha} \left(\int_0^1 F(r)F(r)'dr \right)^{-1} \int_0^1 F(r)dW(r). \end{aligned}$$

The result stated in Theorem 1 follows using the convergence results stated above noting that we can express the Wald tests as:

$$W_{\hat{\gamma}} = \hat{\Psi}'R'[s^2R(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}R\hat{\Psi}]. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

Unit Root Case ($\alpha = 1$). Let $Q(r) = [Q_1(r)', Q_2(r)']'$ with $Q_1(r) = [0, 1, \dots, p_d r^{(p_d-1)}]'$ and $Q_2(r) = [2\pi k \cos(2\pi kr), -2\pi k \sin(2\pi kr)]'$, $\Upsilon_{1,T} = \text{diag}(1, T^{1/2}, \dots, T^{p_d-1/2})$ and $\Upsilon_{2,T} = \text{diag}(T^{-1/2}, T^{-1/2})$. Using the fact that $T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) \rightarrow^p 0$, the convergence results for each elements are:

$$\begin{aligned} T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t^* &= T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} (e_t - (\hat{\alpha}_S - 1)u_{t-1}) \\ &= T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t - T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) \left(T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} T^{-1/2} u_{t-1} \right) \Rightarrow \sigma W(r), \end{aligned}$$

$$\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}q_{11}\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} = \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - z_{t-1})(z_t - z_{t-1})' \right] \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \int_0^1 Q_1(r)Q_1(r)'dr,$$

$$\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}q_{22}\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} = \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (f_t - f_{t-1})(f_t - f_{t-1})' \right] \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \int_0^1 Q_2(r)Q_2(r)'dr,$$

$$\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}q_{12}\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} = \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - z_{t-1})(f_t - f_{t-1})' \right] \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \int_0^1 Q_1(r)Q_2(r)'dr,$$

$$\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}r_1 = \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (z_t - z_{t-1})e_t^* + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \sigma \int_0^1 Q_1(r)dW(r),$$

$$\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}r_2 = \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (f_t - f_{t-1})e_t^* + o_p(1) \Rightarrow \sigma \int_0^1 Q_2(r)dW(r),$$

Then, we have

$$\Upsilon_T^{-1}(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})\Upsilon_T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}q_{11}\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} & \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}q_{12}\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \\ \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}q'_{12}\Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} & \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}q_{22}\Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \int_0^1 Q(r)Q(r)'dr$$

$$\Upsilon_T^{-1}\tilde{X}'U = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1}r_1 \\ \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1}r_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma \int_0^1 Q(r)dW(r)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon_T(\hat{\Psi} - \Psi) &= (\Upsilon_T^{-1}\tilde{X}'\tilde{X}\Upsilon_T^{-1})^{-1}(\Upsilon_T^{-1}\tilde{X}'U) \\ &\Rightarrow \sigma \left[\int_0^1 Q(r)Q(r)'dr \right]^{-1} \left[\int_0^1 Q(r)dW(r) \right] \end{aligned}$$

The result stated in Theorem 1 follows using the convergence results stated above and the representation (A.1) of the Wald test.

Local Asymptotic Power. We derive the local asymptotic power of our test. The alternatives are given by $R\Psi = \delta_T = \gamma_0\sigma T^{-1/2}\boldsymbol{\iota}$ for I(0) errors and $R\Psi = \delta_T = \gamma_0\sigma T^{1/2}\boldsymbol{\iota}$ for I(1) errors with $\boldsymbol{\iota} = [1, 1]'$. Under the alternative, we can express the Wald test as:

$$W_{\hat{\gamma}} = [R(\hat{\Psi} - \Psi) + \delta_T]'[s^2R(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}R']^{-1}[R(\hat{\Psi} - \Psi) + \delta_T].$$

Let $\Upsilon_T = \text{diag}(T^{1/2}, T^{3/2}, \dots, T^{p_d+1/2}, T^{1/2}, T^{1/2})$ for I(0) errors and $\Upsilon_T = \text{diag}(1, T^{1/2}, \dots, T^{p_d-1/2}, T^{-1/2}, T^{-1/2})$ for I(1) errors. Then,

$$W_{\hat{\gamma}} = [R\Upsilon_T(\hat{\Psi} - \Psi) + \gamma_0\sigma\boldsymbol{\iota}]'[s^2R\Upsilon_T(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}\Upsilon_T R']^{-1}[R\Upsilon_T(\hat{\Psi} - \Psi) + \gamma_0\sigma\boldsymbol{\iota}].$$

Using the convergence results stated in Theorem 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\hat{\gamma}} &\Rightarrow [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)'dr)^{-1} \int_0^1 G(r)dW(r) + \gamma_0\boldsymbol{\iota}]'[R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)'dr)^{-1}R']^{-1} \\ &\quad \times [R(\int_0^1 G(r)G(r)'dr)^{-1} \int_0^1 G(r)dW(r) + \gamma_0\boldsymbol{\iota}] \end{aligned}$$

where $G(r) = F(r) = [1, r, \dots, r^{p_d}, \sin(2\pi kr), \cos(2\pi kr)]'$ if $|\alpha| < 1$ and $G(r) = Q(r) = [0, 1, \dots, p_d r^{(p_d-1)}, 2\pi k \cos(2\pi kr), -2\pi k \sin(2\pi kr)]'$ if $\alpha = 1$.

Description of the ASW test. The procedure of Astill et al. (2014) uses a function of an auxiliary unit root test (denoted by J) to select between the I(0) and I(1) critical values for a Wald test. Here we briefly describe the test for the model with only a constant and a frequency of $k = 1$. The ASW test is based on the following partial sums regression:

$$Z_t = \beta_0 t + \gamma_1 \sum_{s=1}^t \sin\left(\frac{2\pi s}{T}\right) + \gamma_2 \sum_{s=1}^t \cos\left(\frac{2\pi s}{T}\right) + S_t$$

where $Z_t = \sum_{s=1}^t y_s$ and $S_t = \sum_{s=1}^t u_s$. Then, a scaled Wald statistic for $H_0 : \gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = 0$ is $SW = (RSS_R - RSS_U)/RSS_U$ where RSS_R is the residual sum of squares from a regression of Z_t on t , and RSS_U is the residual sum of squares from the unrestricted regression. The limiting distribution still depends on whether u_t is I(0) or I(1). The critical value of the test is cv_0 for I(0) errors while it is cv_1 for I(1) errors. In the ASW test, an adaptive critical value is defined as

$$cv^\lambda = \lambda_J cv_0 + (1 - \lambda_J) cv_1$$

where $\lambda_J = \exp(-\tau T^\delta J)$ with τ and δ positive constants. They recommend for J a Breitung (2002)-type variance ratio unit root test statistic so that, as $T \rightarrow \infty$, $\lambda_J \rightarrow^p 1$ and $cv^\lambda \rightarrow^p cv_0$ for I(0) errors and $\lambda_J \rightarrow^p 0$ and $cv^\lambda \rightarrow^p cv_1$ for I(1) errors. For the stationary case, consider the local alternatives $[\gamma_1, \gamma_2] = [\gamma_0 \omega_0 T^{-1/2}, \gamma_0 \omega_0 T^{-1/2}]$ where ω_0^2 is the long-run variance of u_t . Then, as $T \rightarrow \infty$,

$$SW \Rightarrow \frac{\int_0^1 L_R(r, \gamma_0)^2 dr}{\int_0^1 L_U(r)^2 dr} - 1$$

where $L_R(r, \gamma_0)$ is the continuous time residuals from the projection of $\gamma_0(1 - \cos(2\pi r))/2\pi + \gamma_0 \sin(2\pi r)/2\pi + W(r)$ onto the space spanned by r , and $L_U(r)$ denotes the continuous time residuals from the projection of $W(r)$ onto the space spanned by $[r, (1 - \cos(2\pi r))/2\pi, \sin(2\pi r)/2\pi]$. For the unit root case, consider the local alternatives $[\gamma_1, \gamma_2] = [\gamma_0 \omega_0 T^{1/2}, \gamma_0 \omega_0 T^{1/2}]$ where ω_0^2 is the long-run variance of Δu_t . Then, as $T \rightarrow \infty$,

$$SW \Rightarrow \frac{\int_0^1 N_R(r, \gamma_0)^2 dr}{\int_0^1 N_U(r)^2 dr} - 1$$

where $N_R(r, \gamma_0)$ is the continuous time residuals from the projection of $\gamma_0(1 - \cos(2\pi r))/2\pi + \gamma_0 \sin(2\pi r)/2\pi + \int_0^r W(s) ds$ onto the space spanned by r , and $N_U(r)$ denotes the continuous time residuals from the projection of $\int_0^r W(s) ds$ onto the space spanned by $[r, (1 - \cos(2\pi r))/2\pi, \sin(2\pi r)/2\pi]$.

Near Unit Root Case ($\alpha_T = 1 + c/T$, Proof of Theorem 2). Let $\Upsilon_{1,T} = \text{diag}(1, T^{1/2}, \dots, T^{p_d-1/2})$ and $\Upsilon_{2,T} = \text{diag}(T^{-1/2}, T^{-1/2})$. As shown in Perron and Yabu (2009a), $T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) \rightarrow_p 0$. Now, the true value of α is in a T^{-1} neighborhood of 1 so that in large sample $\hat{\alpha}$ is always

truncated to take value one. Then, we have the following limit results:

$$\begin{aligned}
T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t^* &= T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} (e_t + \frac{c}{T} u_{t-1} - (\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) u_{t-1}) \\
&= T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} e_t + cT^{-3/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} u_{t-1} - T(\hat{\alpha}_S - 1) (T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[Tr]} T^{-1/2} u_{t-1}) \\
&\Rightarrow \sigma [W(r) + c \int_0^1 J_c(r) dr] = \sigma J_c(r),
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Upsilon_T^{-1} (\tilde{X}' \tilde{X}) \Upsilon_T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} q_{11} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} & \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} q_{12} \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \\ \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} q'_{12} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} & \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} q_{22} \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \int_0^1 Q(r) Q(r)' dr,$$

$$\Upsilon_T^{-1} X' U = \begin{bmatrix} \Upsilon_{1,T}^{-1} r_1 \\ \Upsilon_{2,T}^{-1} r_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma \int_0^1 Q(r) dJ_c(r).$$

Using the convergence results stated above and the representation of the Wald test, the limiting distribution of the Wald statistics is:

$$\begin{aligned}
W_{\hat{\gamma}} &\Rightarrow [R(\int_0^1 Q(r) Q(r)' dr)^- \int_0^1 Q(r) dJ_c(r)]' [R(\int_0^1 Q(r) Q(r)' dr)^- R]^{-1} \\
&\quad \times [R(\int_0^1 Q(r) Q(r)' dr)^- \int_0^1 Q(r) dJ_c(r)]'.
\end{aligned}$$

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Table 1: Values of $\tau_{.50}$ and $\tau_{.85}$.

	$p_d = 0$		$p_d = 1$	
	$\tau_{.50}$	$\tau_{.85}$	$\tau_{.50}$	$\tau_{.85}$
Single Frequency				
$k = 1$	-2.39	-3.26	-3.09	-3.83
2	-1.71	-2.67	-2.56	-3.45
3	-1.63	-2.51	-2.33	-3.21
4	-1.60	-2.45	-2.27	-3.09
5	-1.59	-2.43	-2.23	-3.05
Multiple Frequencies				
$n = 1$	-2.39	-3.26	-3.09	-3.83
2	-2.99	-3.93	-3.79	-4.50
3	-3.51	-4.49	-4.40	-5.10
4	-3.98	-4.99	-4.92	-5.64
5	-4.36	-5.44	-5.41	-6.11

Table 2.a: Finite Sample Null Rejection Probabilities of the ASW and FGLS Tests; $p_d = 0$; 5% Nominal Size.

ϕ	θ	ASW			FGLS					
		$T = 150$	300	600	Median Unbiased			Upper Biased		
					$T = 150$	300	600	$T = 150$	300	600
1.00	-0.80	0.139	0.104	0.074	0.197	0.197	0.186	0.079	0.071	0.068
	-0.40	0.067	0.054	0.048	0.149	0.111	0.083	0.066	0.051	0.049
	0.00	0.062	0.051	0.048	0.121	0.082	0.060	0.080	0.065	0.056
	0.40	0.057	0.048	0.045	0.124	0.080	0.065	0.103	0.076	0.064
	0.80	0.055	0.054	0.048	0.120	0.087	0.065	0.111	0.085	0.065
0.95	-0.80	0.139	0.073	0.036	0.165	0.110	0.076	0.080	0.059	0.053
	-0.40	0.063	0.022	0.008	0.139	0.087	0.058	0.057	0.042	0.037
	0.00	0.045	0.016	0.007	0.107	0.072	0.060	0.041	0.036	0.040
	0.40	0.042	0.016	0.007	0.073	0.048	0.039	0.024	0.023	0.021
	0.80	0.041	0.016	0.006	0.037	0.022	0.022	0.013	0.009	0.012
0.90	-0.80	0.082	0.059	0.042	0.095	0.075	0.061	0.053	0.050	0.052
	-0.40	0.036	0.015	0.009	0.091	0.062	0.041	0.043	0.038	0.033
	0.00	0.025	0.010	0.005	0.080	0.050	0.043	0.038	0.033	0.035
	0.40	0.024	0.009	0.005	0.066	0.056	0.040	0.022	0.033	0.032
	0.80	0.021	0.009	0.005	0.048	0.048	0.045	0.012	0.021	0.032
0.80	-0.80	0.054	0.052	0.054	0.056	0.059	0.056	0.032	0.044	0.050
	-0.40	0.029	0.021	0.018	0.062	0.044	0.047	0.037	0.031	0.041
	0.00	0.017	0.012	0.009	0.054	0.037	0.036	0.033	0.028	0.031
	0.40	0.013	0.009	0.008	0.031	0.030	0.034	0.010	0.020	0.030
	0.80	0.015	0.009	0.007	0.044	0.033	0.032	0.014	0.020	0.028

Note: *ASW* denotes the test of Astill et al. (2014); *FGLS* (Median Unbiased) is the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with $\tau_{0.5}$; *FGLS* (Upper Biased) is the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with $\tau_{0.85}$. The data are generated by: $y_t = u_t = \phi u_{t-1} + e_t + \theta e_{t-1}$.

Table 2.b: Finite Sample Null Rejection Probabilities of the ASW and FGLS Tests; $p_d = 1$; 5% Nominal Size.

ϕ	θ	ASW			FGLS					
		$T = 150$	300	600	Median Unbiased			Upper Biased		
					$T = 150$	300	600	$T = 150$	300	600
1.00	-0.80	0.173	0.137	0.097	0.191	0.162	0.168	0.115	0.063	0.061
	-0.40	0.073	0.054	0.051	0.161	0.137	0.107	0.074	0.058	0.052
	0.00	0.061	0.049	0.044	0.145	0.106	0.071	0.087	0.077	0.062
	0.40	0.055	0.041	0.040	0.130	0.082	0.064	0.100	0.073	0.063
	0.80	0.060	0.051	0.042	0.122	0.089	0.065	0.112	0.085	0.065
0.95	-0.80	0.078	0.038	0.015	0.117	0.072	0.051	0.078	0.039	0.030
	-0.40	0.025	0.006	0.001	0.095	0.064	0.042	0.041	0.030	0.025
	0.00	0.015	0.003	0.001	0.078	0.051	0.044	0.027	0.022	0.027
	0.40	0.015	0.003	0.001	0.051	0.039	0.029	0.016	0.015	0.017
	0.80	0.014	0.002	0.001	0.025	0.012	0.018	0.008	0.004	0.010
0.90	-0.80	0.050	0.032	0.019	0.078	0.049	0.050	0.064	0.034	0.037
	-0.40	0.011	0.005	0.002	0.066	0.041	0.035	0.036	0.026	0.027
	0.00	0.007	0.002	0.002	0.066	0.048	0.031	0.031	0.031	0.026
	0.40	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.033	0.045	0.035	0.008	0.023	0.027
	0.80	0.005	0.002	0.000	0.029	0.029	0.033	0.006	0.010	0.020
0.80	-0.80	0.026	0.031	0.031	0.036	0.040	0.042	0.024	0.030	0.038
	-0.40	0.009	0.004	0.006	0.053	0.031	0.035	0.036	0.024	0.030
	0.00	0.003	0.002	0.000	0.049	0.033	0.036	0.034	0.027	0.033
	0.40	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.014	0.024	0.028	0.005	0.017	0.025
	0.80	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.026	0.024	0.025	0.009	0.014	0.022

Note: *ASW* denotes the test of Astill et al. (2014); *FGLS* (Median Unbiased) is the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with $\tau_{0.5}$; *FGLS* (Upper Biased) is the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with $\tau_{0.85}$. The data are generated by: $y_t = u_t = \phi u_{t-1} + e_t + \theta e_{t-1}$.

Table 3: Number of Frequencies Selected by the ASW and FGLS tests; $p_d = 1$; $T=150$.

		ASW				FGLS (UB)							
						sig5				sig1			
α	γ	n=0	n=1	n=2	n=3	n=0	n=1	n=2	n=3	n=0	n=1	n=2	n=3
1.00	0	0.864	0.058	0.042	0.036	0.722	0.082	0.093	0.103	0.869	0.045	0.042	0.044
	1	0.870	0.043	0.050	0.037	0.630	0.076	0.181	0.113	0.826	0.034	0.092	0.048
	2	0.841	0.016	0.091	0.052	0.371	0.067	0.459	0.103	0.626	0.037	0.293	0.044
	3	0.780	0.006	0.141	0.074	0.118	0.039	0.742	0.102	0.302	0.033	0.620	0.045
	4	0.677	0.000	0.215	0.108	0.016	0.009	0.873	0.103	0.072	0.017	0.866	0.045
	5	0.555	0.000	0.313	0.132	0.000	0.001	0.895	0.103	0.005	0.004	0.948	0.044
0.95	0	0.970	0.015	0.008	0.006	0.837	0.029	0.054	0.081	0.918	0.020	0.028	0.035
	1	0.957	0.017	0.017	0.009	0.765	0.025	0.134	0.076	0.885	0.018	0.064	0.033
	2	0.936	0.008	0.037	0.020	0.485	0.018	0.419	0.079	0.726	0.007	0.236	0.031
	3	0.858	0.001	0.093	0.048	0.134	0.016	0.771	0.079	0.345	0.005	0.618	0.032
	4	0.745	0.000	0.175	0.081	0.012	0.006	0.901	0.082	0.071	0.004	0.893	0.032
	5	0.588	0.000	0.283	0.129	0.000	0.000	0.919	0.080	0.005	0.001	0.962	0.032
0.90	0	0.991	0.007	0.002	0.000	0.885	0.030	0.038	0.048	0.942	0.017	0.020	0.021
	1	0.984	0.008	0.006	0.003	0.811	0.024	0.109	0.056	0.899	0.016	0.060	0.025
	2	0.957	0.002	0.031	0.010	0.532	0.004	0.415	0.049	0.753	0.003	0.221	0.023
	3	0.864	0.000	0.097	0.039	0.113	0.001	0.832	0.054	0.342	0.000	0.634	0.024
	4	0.703	0.000	0.221	0.077	0.005	0.000	0.941	0.054	0.042	0.000	0.934	0.023
	5	0.512	0.000	0.368	0.120	0.000	0.000	0.944	0.056	0.001	0.000	0.973	0.026
0.80	0	0.994	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.890	0.030	0.035	0.044	0.952	0.011	0.016	0.021
	1	0.992	0.002	0.006	0.000	0.662	0.031	0.257	0.050	0.793	0.014	0.172	0.020
	2	0.928	0.000	0.061	0.011	0.350	0.001	0.602	0.047	0.502	0.001	0.478	0.021
	3	0.713	0.000	0.243	0.044	0.036	0.000	0.918	0.046	0.192	0.000	0.788	0.020
	4	0.424	0.000	0.490	0.087	0.000	0.000	0.955	0.045	0.004	0.000	0.977	0.019
	5	0.193	0.000	0.710	0.098	0.000	0.000	0.957	0.044	0.000	0.000	0.980	0.020

Note: ASW denotes the test of Astill et al. (2014); FGLS (UB) (sig5), resp. FGLS (UB) (sig1), are the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with $\tau_{0.85}$ and a 5%, resp. 1%, test for the sequential procedure to select the number of frequencies. The data are generated by: $y_t = \gamma(\sum_{k=1}^2 \sin(2\pi kt/T) + \sum_{k=1}^2 \cos(2\pi kt/T)) + u_t$, $u_t = \alpha u_{t-1} + e_t$.

Table 4: Exact Size of the Enders and Lee (2012) Unit Root Test with Sequential Frequency Selections; 5% Nominal Size.

	γ	<i>Fixed n</i>		<i>ASW</i>	<i>FGLS (UB)</i>	
		n=0	n=2		sig5	sig1
T=150	0	0.048	0.049	0.093	0.118	0.103
	1	0.029	0.048	0.065	0.095	0.083
	2	0.006	0.048	0.044	0.071	0.061
	3	0.001	0.048	0.045	0.069	0.063
	4	0.000	0.052	0.058	0.073	0.068
	5	0.000	0.052	0.066	0.072	0.068
T=300	0	0.047	0.047	0.080	0.094	0.083
	1	0.041	0.048	0.071	0.089	0.077
	2	0.021	0.047	0.051	0.076	0.064
	3	0.004	0.042	0.033	0.058	0.047
	4	0.001	0.052	0.043	0.067	0.059
	5	0.000	0.051	0.048	0.068	0.061
T=600	0	0.048	0.053	0.078	0.082	0.072
	1	0.046	0.053	0.074	0.079	0.070
	2	0.026	0.049	0.052	0.061	0.049
	3	0.017	0.053	0.042	0.055	0.043
	4	0.007	0.055	0.036	0.052	0.039
	5	0.002	0.053	0.032	0.055	0.040

Note: *ASW* denotes the test of Astill et al. (2014); *FGLS (UB)* (sig5), resp. *FGLS (UB)* (sig1), are the $W_{\hat{\gamma}}$ test with $\tau_{0.85}$ and a 5%, resp. 1%, test for the sequential procedure to select the number of frequencies. The data are generated by: $y_t = \gamma(\sum_{k=1}^2 \sin(2\pi kt/T) + \sum_{k=1}^2 \cos(2\pi kt/T)) + u_t$, $u_t = u_{t-1} + e_t$.

Table 5: Empirical Applications to Temperature Series.

	<i>ASW</i>		<i>FGLS</i>			
			sig5		sig1	
	\hat{n}	<i>LM</i>	\hat{n}	<i>LM</i>	\hat{n}	<i>LM</i>
Global	0	-2.039	3	-8.485***	3	-8.485***
Nothern Hemisphere	0	-2.271	3	-9.715***	3	-9.715***
Southern Hemisphere	0	-2.904*	3	-6.073***	3	-6.073***

Note: ***, **, and * denote a statistic significant at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. LM is the unit root test of Enders and Lee (2012). \hat{n} is the number of frequency estimated.

Table 6: Estimates of the Nonlinear Trend Functions.

	Global	Northern Hemisphere	Southern Hemisphere
	1856-2010	1856-2010	1850-2010
Constant	-0.436*** (0.042)	-0.509*** (0.042)	-0.577*** (0.054)
Trend	0.006*** (0.001)	0.007*** (0.001)	0.005*** (0.001)
$\sin(2\pi t/T)$	0.082*** (0.030)	0.101*** (0.029)	0.075** (0.038)
$\cos(2\pi t/T)$	0.105*** (0.015)	0.081*** (0.014)	0.138*** (0.019)
$\sin(4\pi t/T)$	0.006 (0.020)	0.016 (0.019)	0.029 (0.025)
$\cos(4\pi t/T)$	0.006 (0.015)	0.030*** (0.014)	-0.001 (0.019)
$\sin(6\pi t/T)$	0.013 (0.017)	0.022 (0.017)	-0.055*** (0.022)
$\cos(6\pi t/T)$	-0.056*** (0.015)	-0.042*** (0.014)	-0.046 (0.019)

Note: ***, **, and * denote a statistic significant at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively.

Figure 1. Local Asymptotic Power ($p_d=0$)

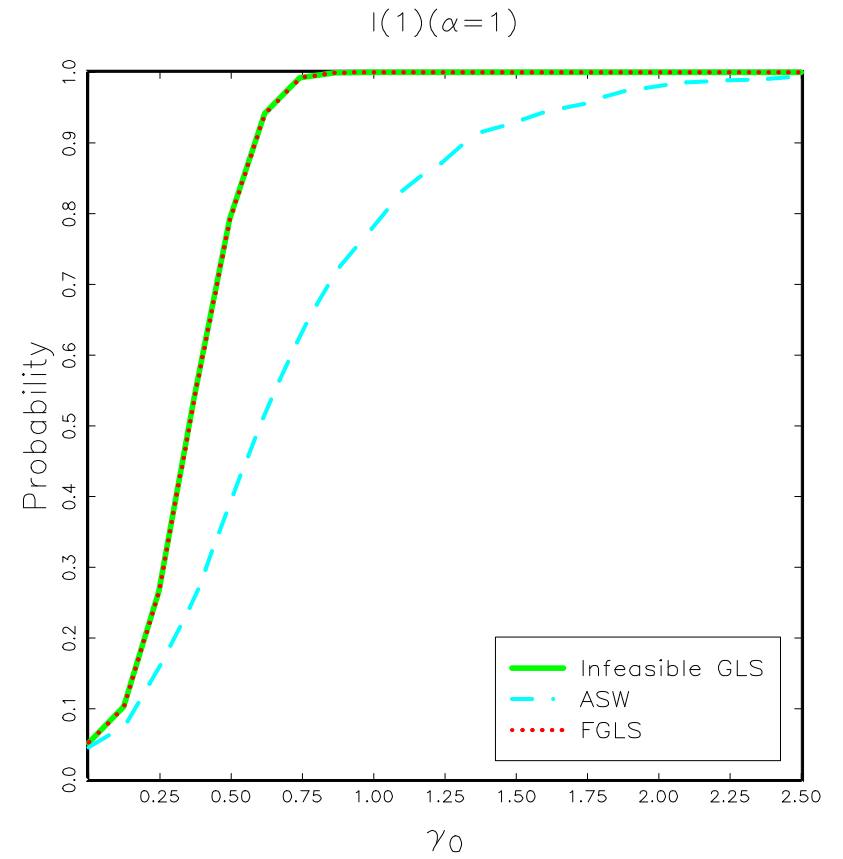
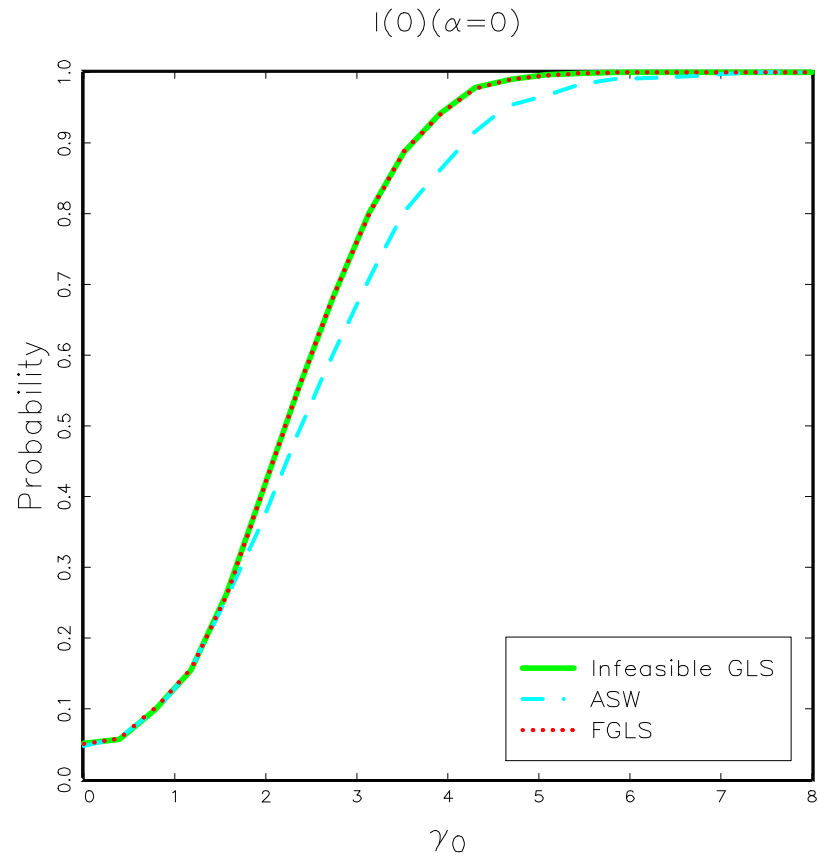


Figure 2a. Finite Sample Size of FGLS tests ($p_d=0$)

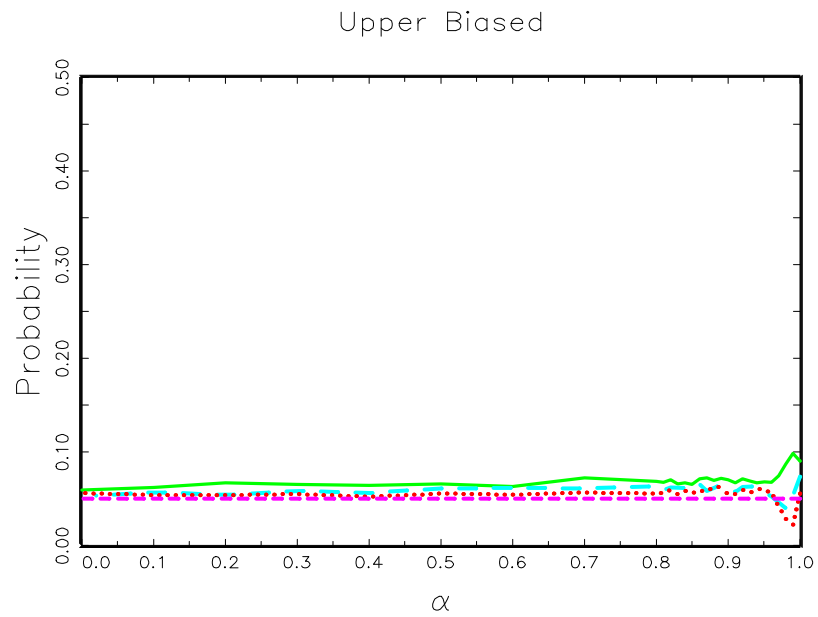
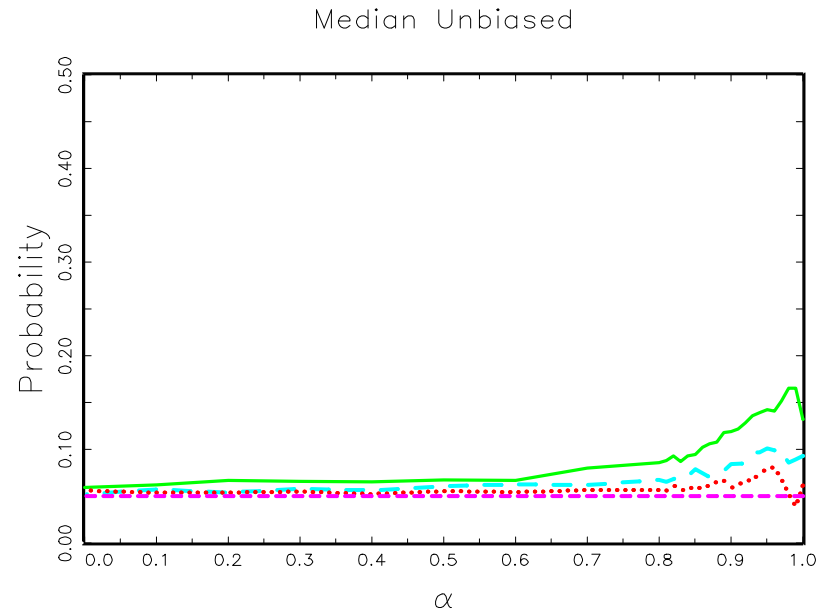
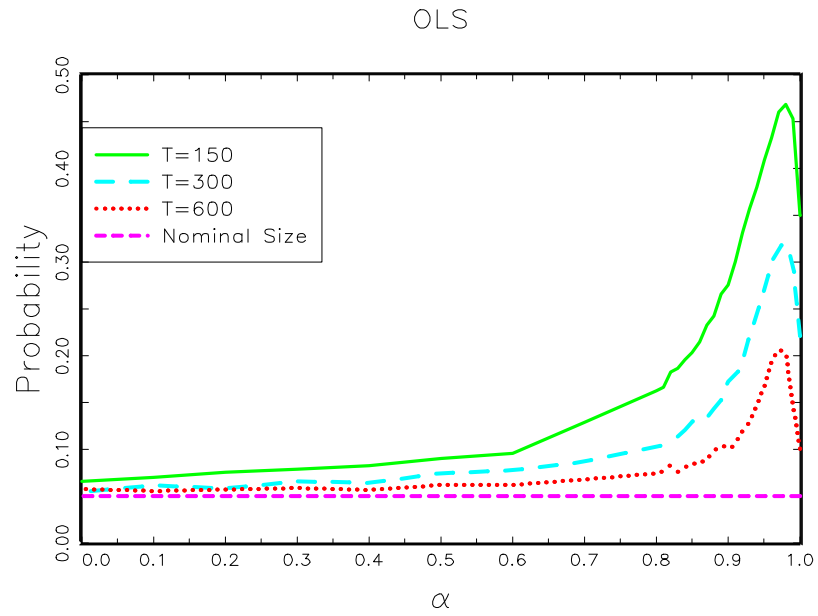


Figure 2b. Finite Sample Size of FGLS tests($p_d=1$)

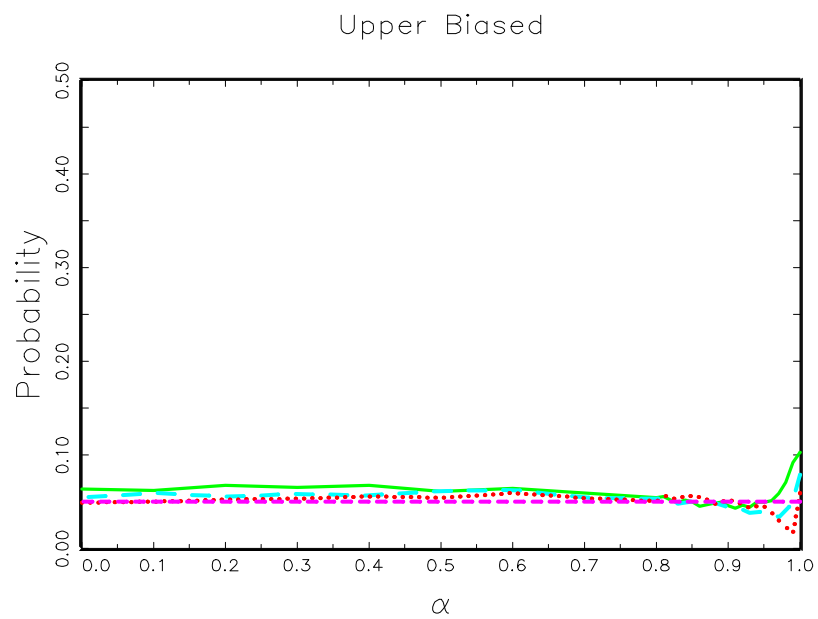
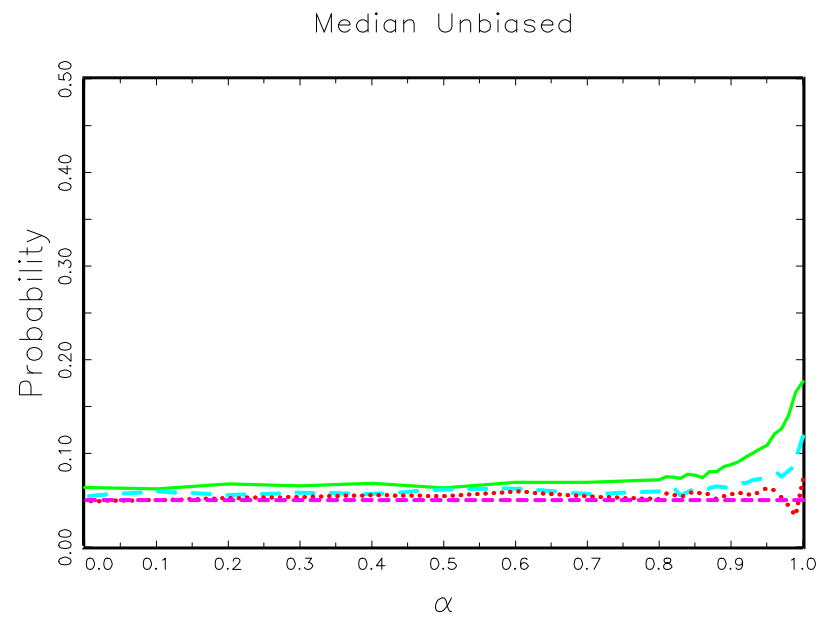
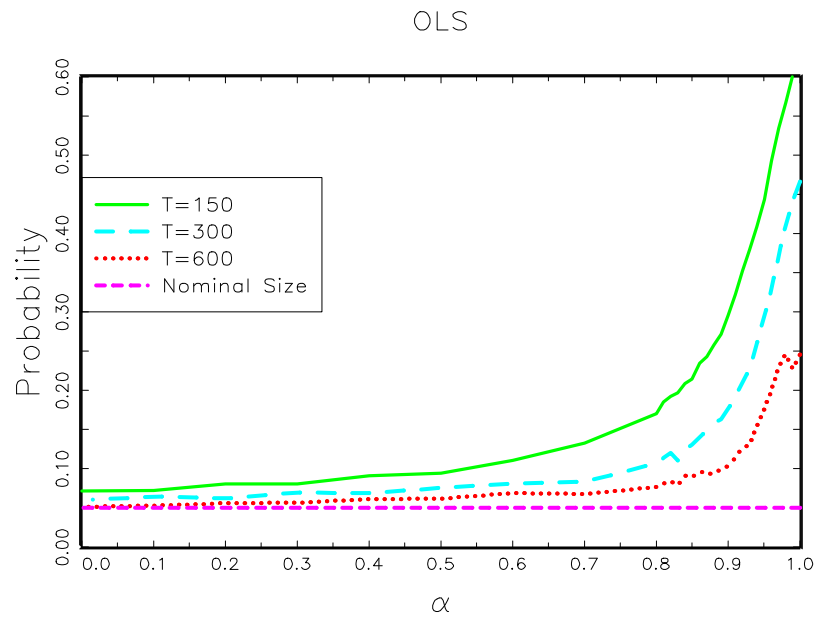


Figure 3a. Finite Sample Power Comparisons ($p_d=0$): $T=150$

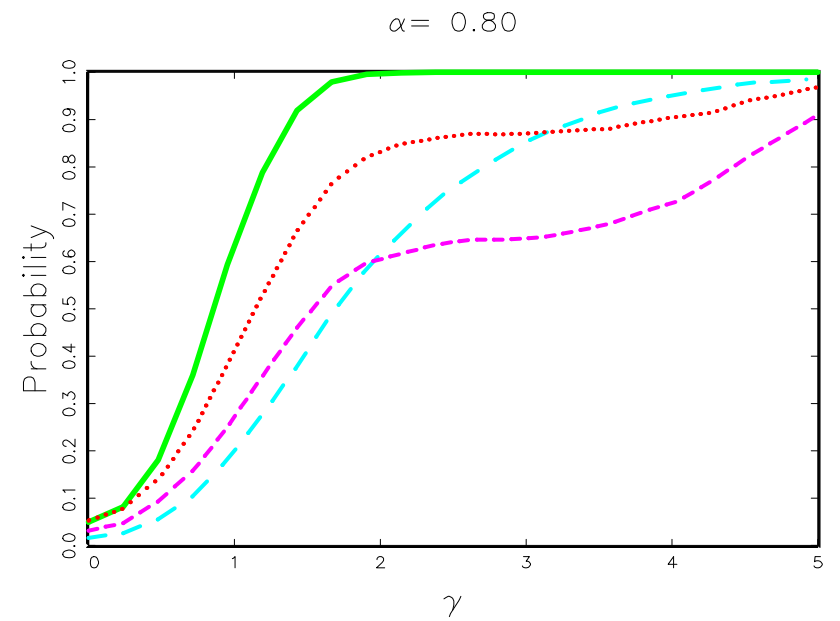
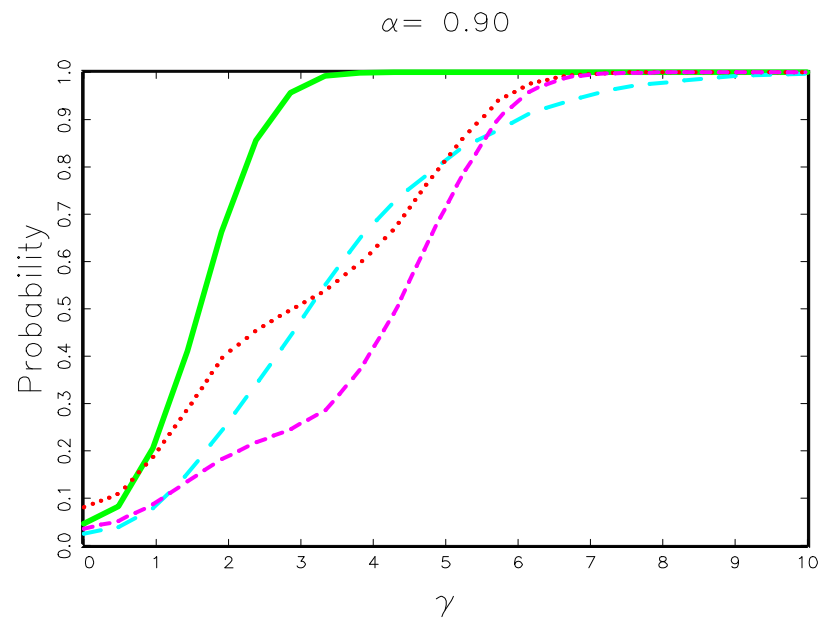
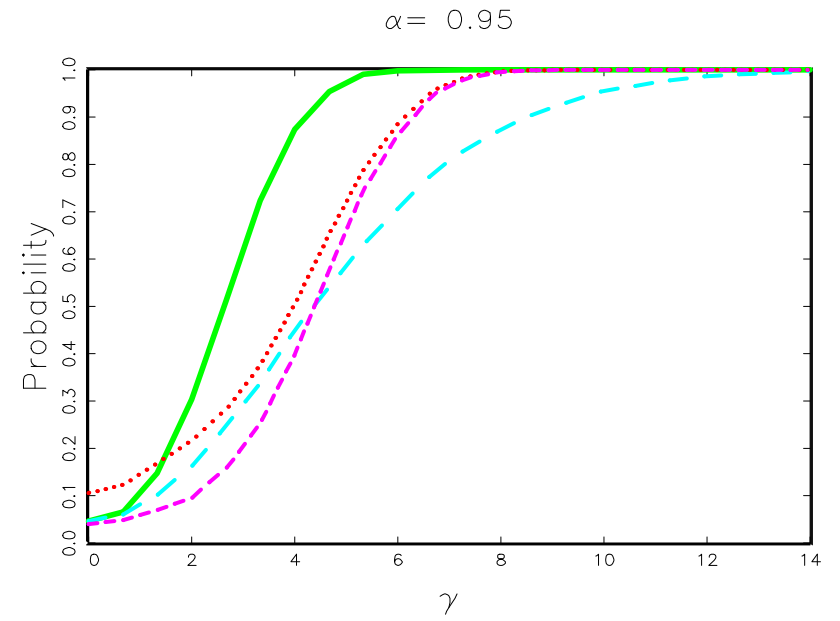
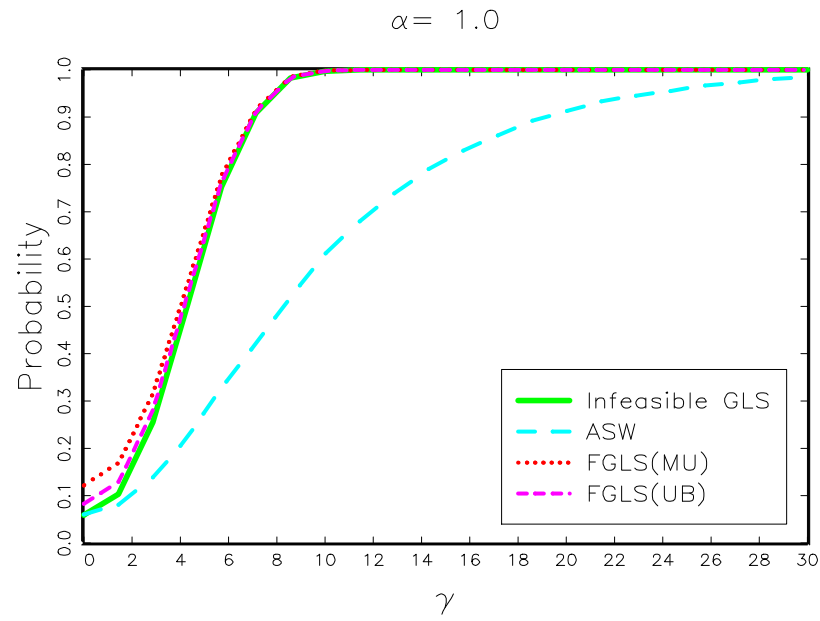


Figure 3b. Finite Sample Power Comparisons ($p_d=0$): $T = 300$

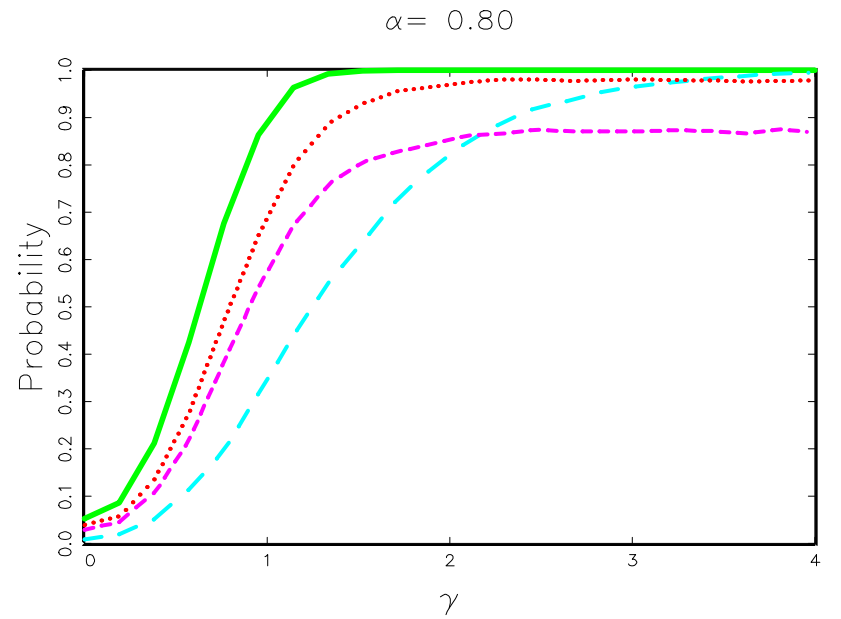
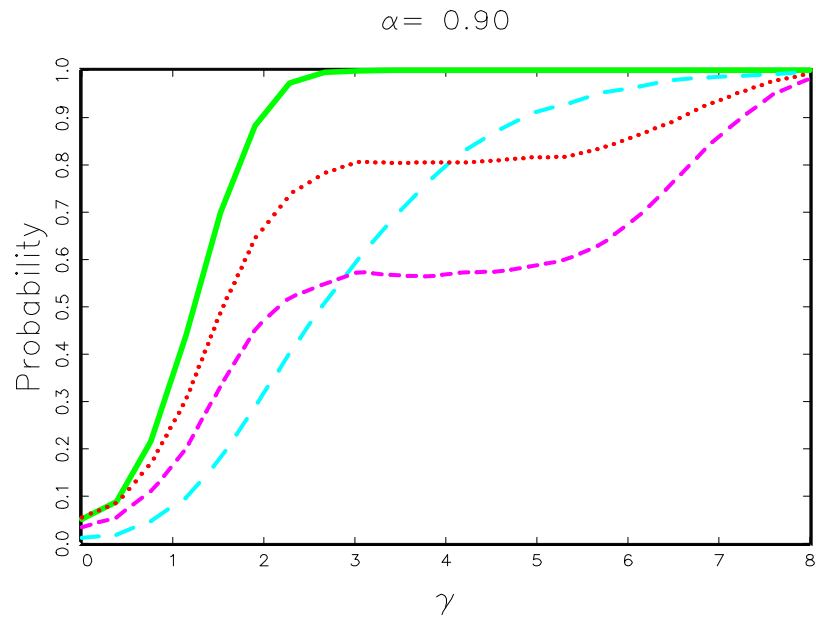
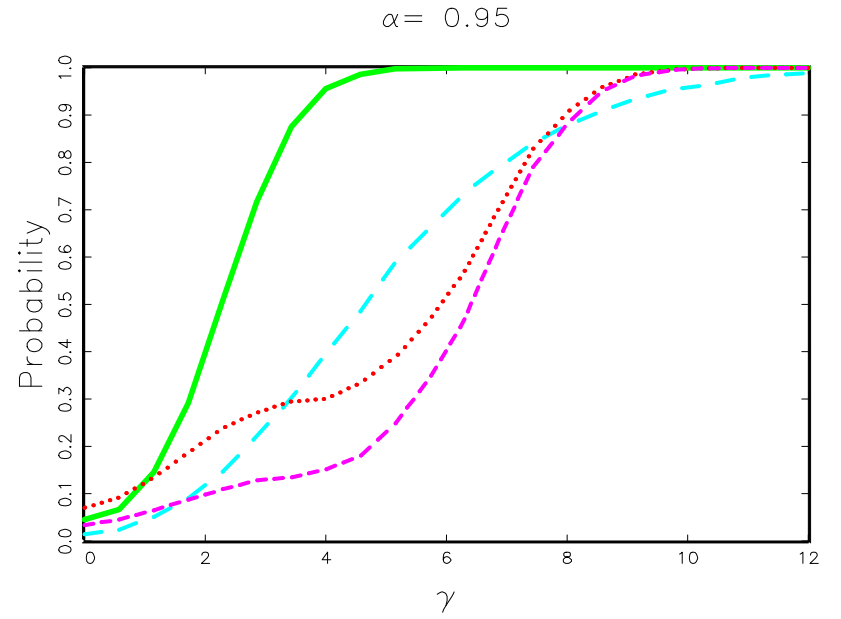
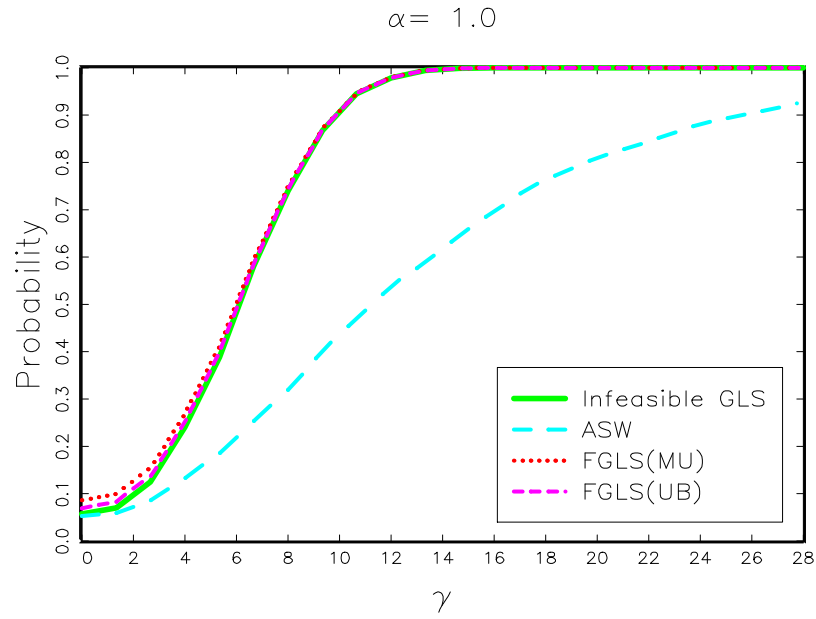


Figure 3c. Finite Sample Power Comparisons ($p_d=0$): $T = 600$

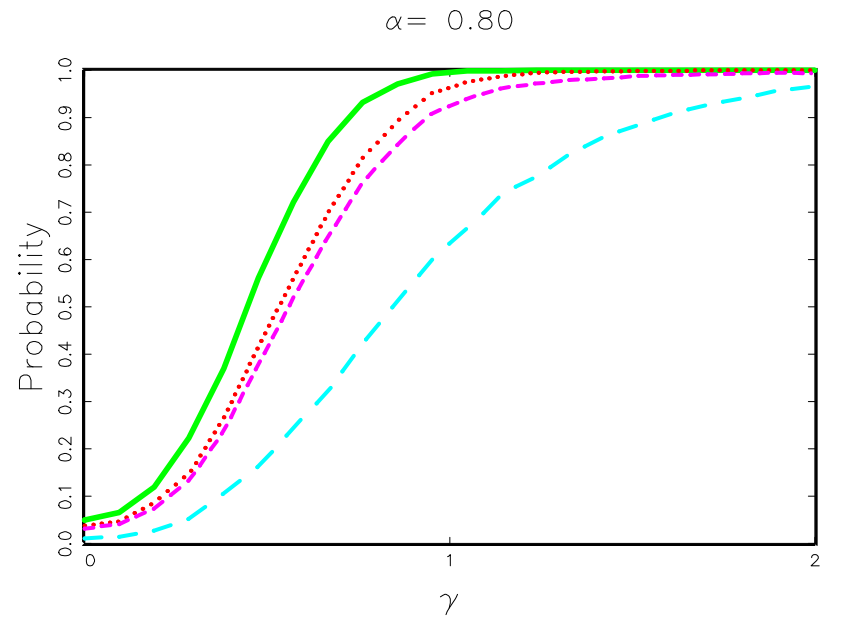
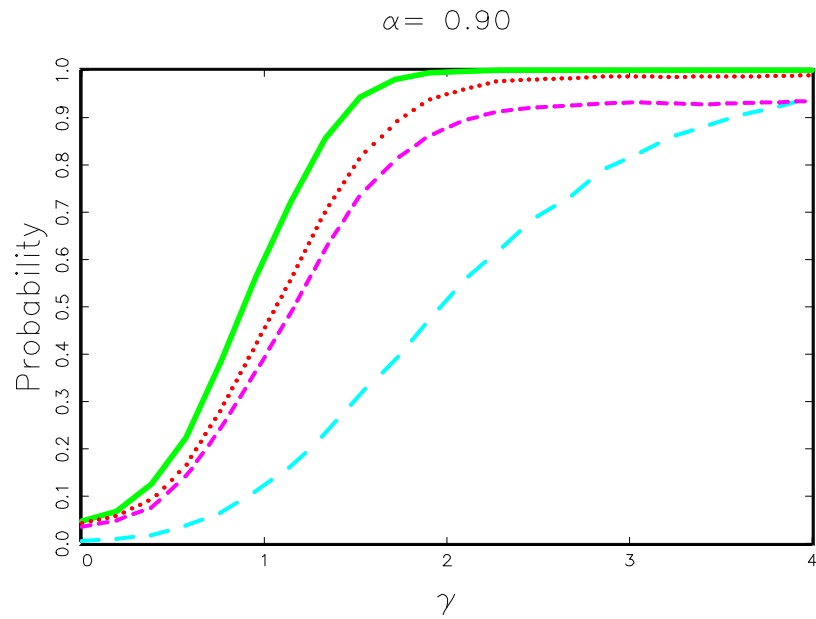
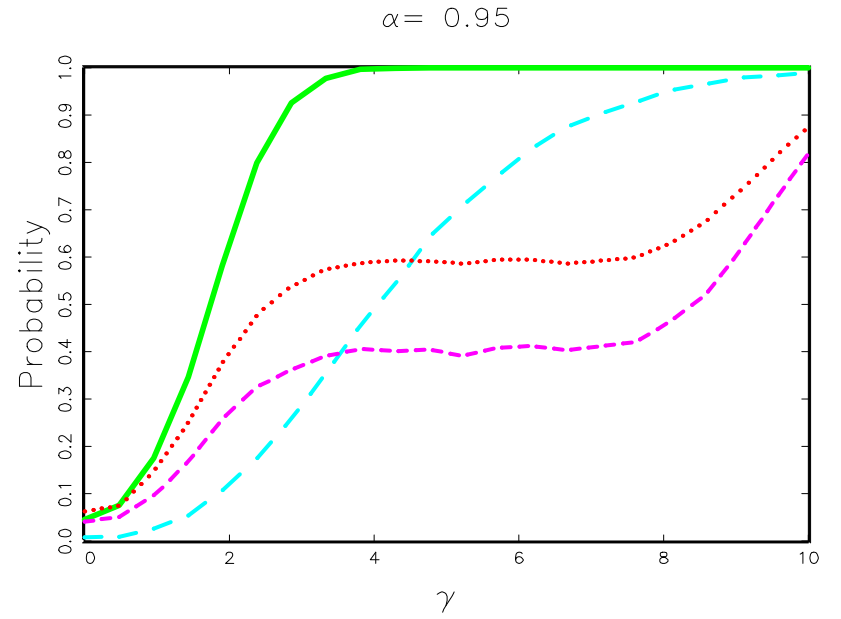
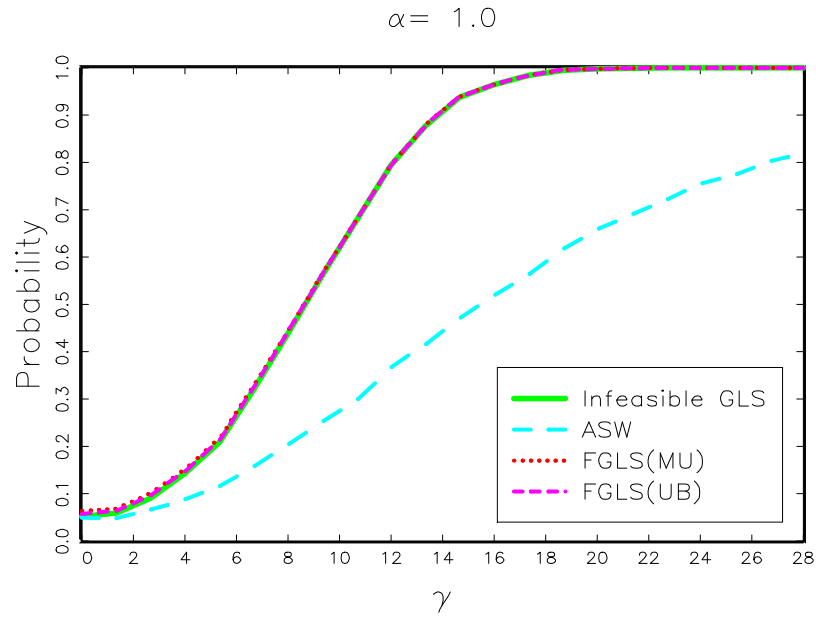


Figure 4a. Finite Sample Power Comparisons ($p_d=1$): $T = 150$

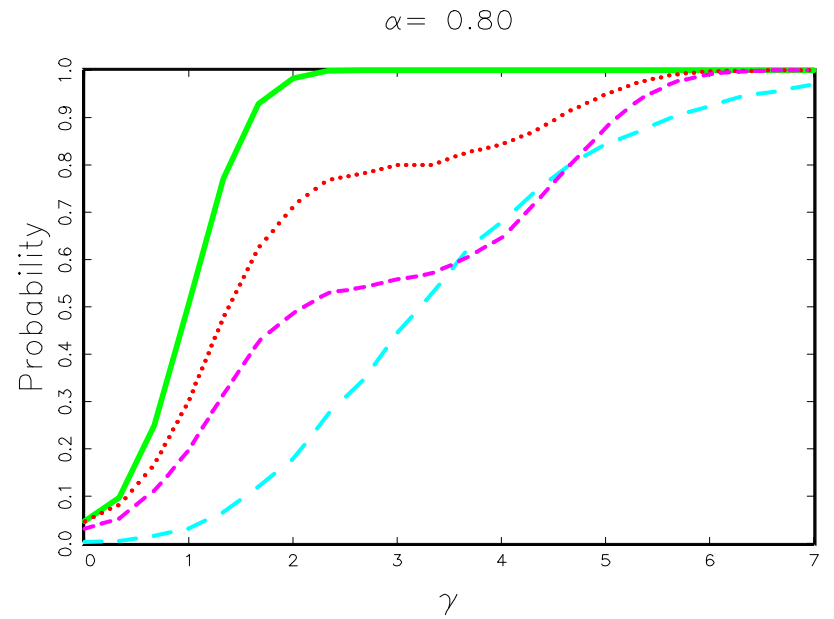
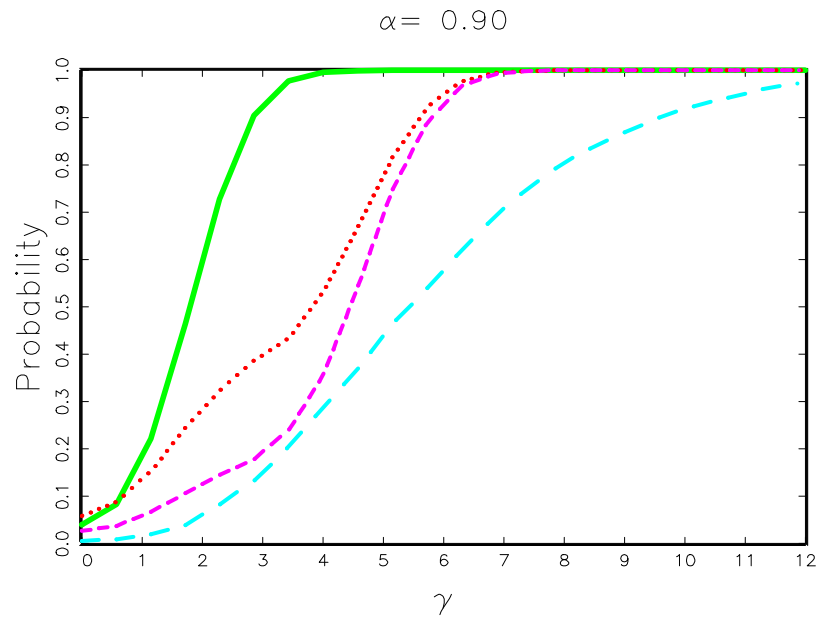
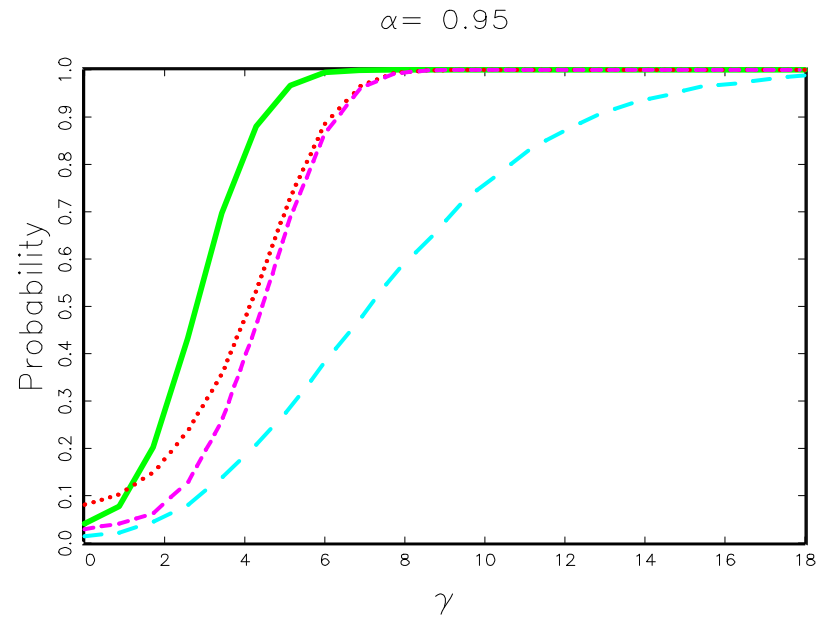
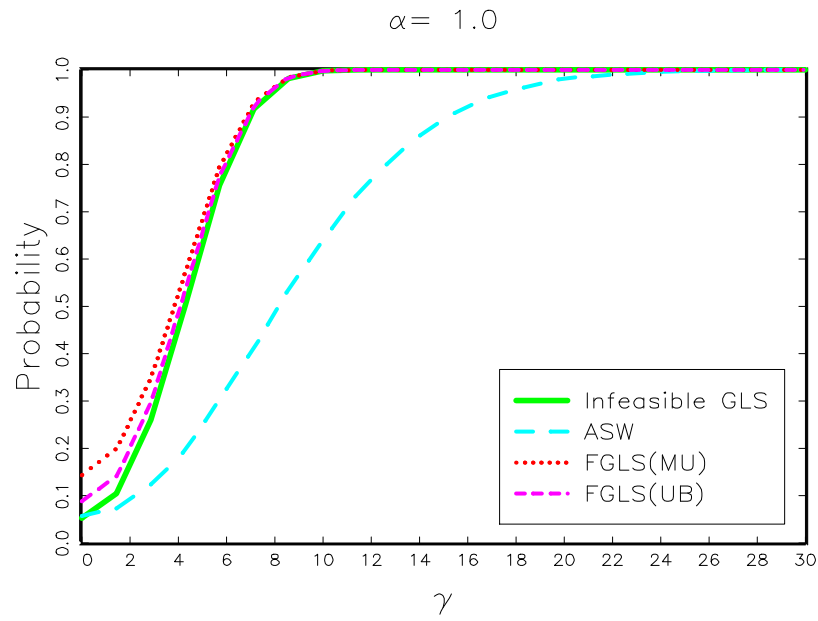


Figure 4b. Finite Sample Power Comparisons ($p_d=1$): $T = 300$

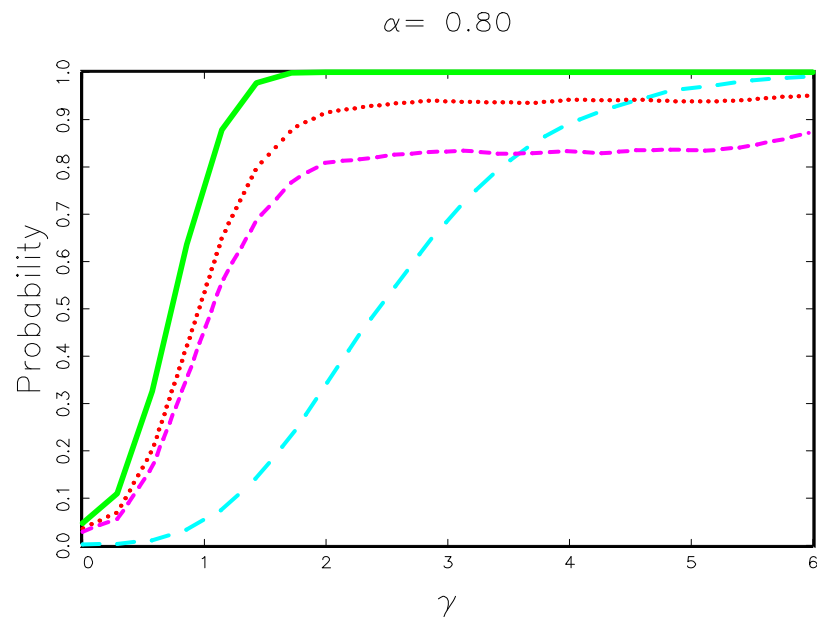
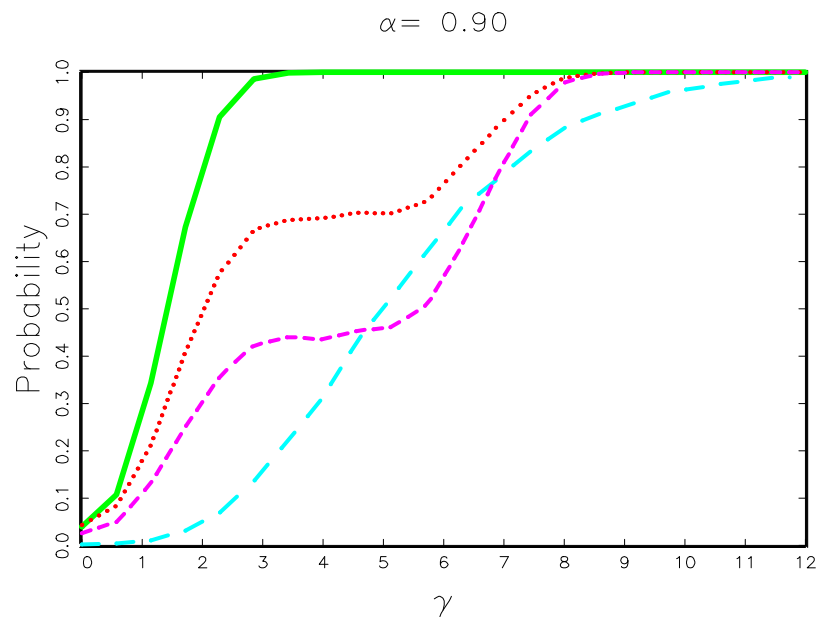
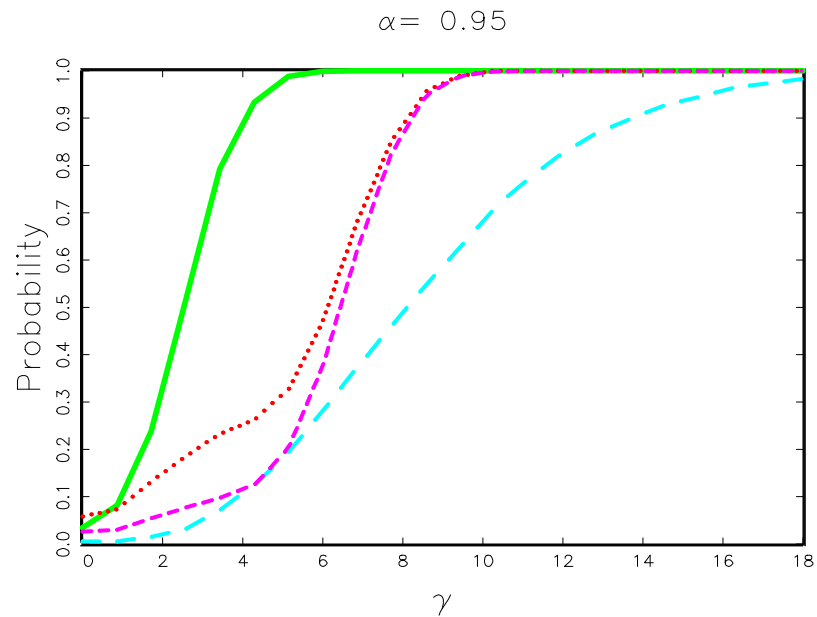
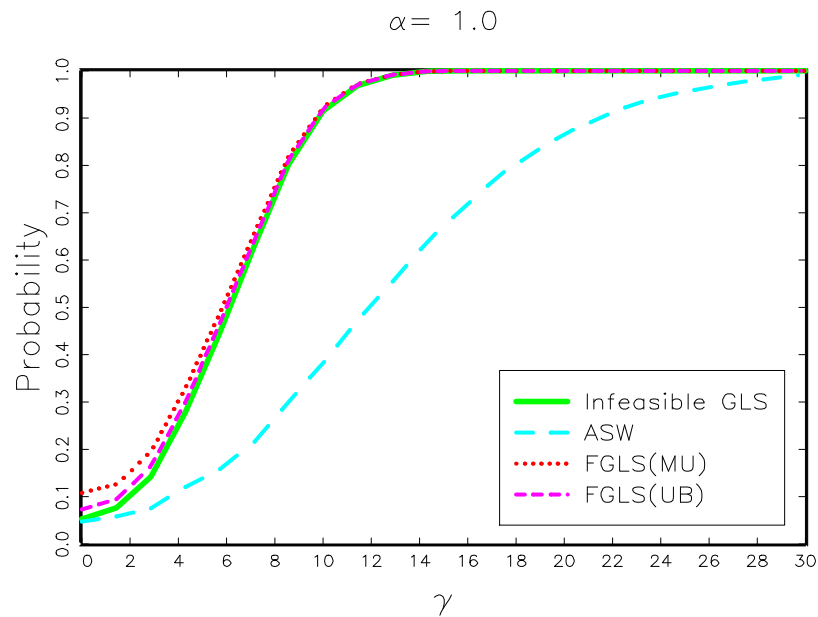


Figure 4c. Finite Sample Power Comparisons ($p_d=1$): $T = 600$

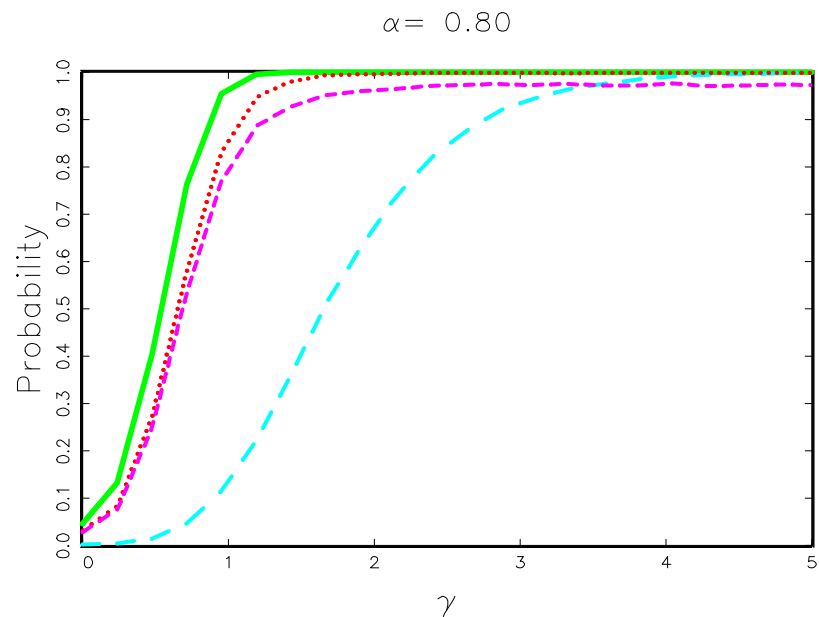
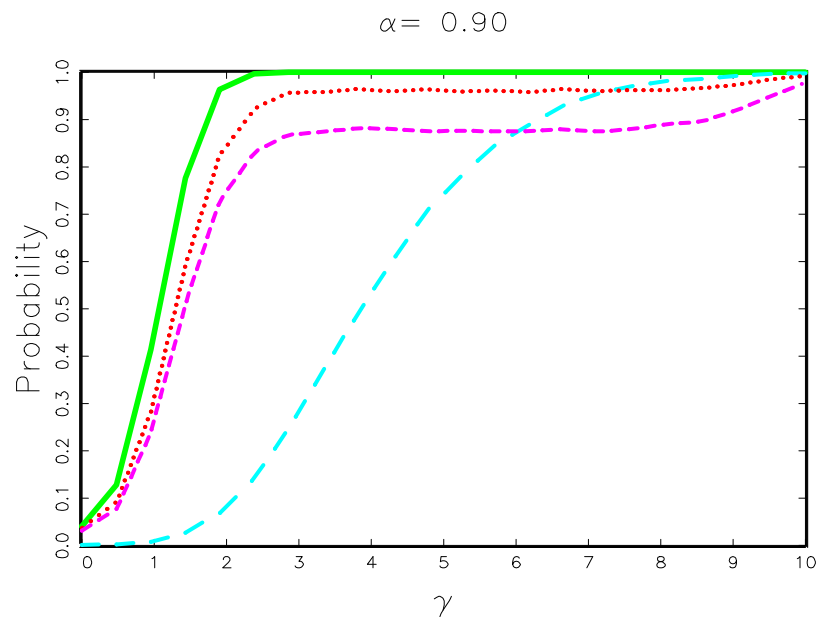
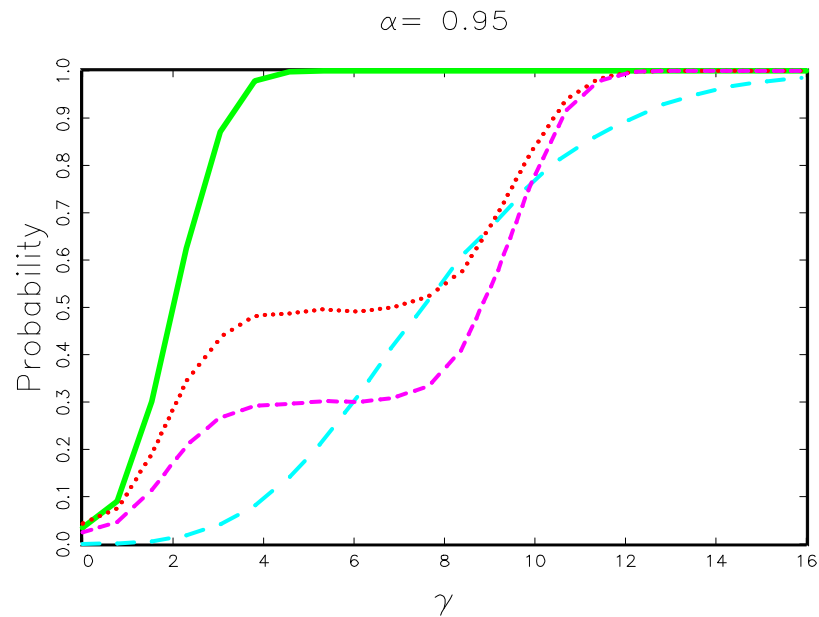
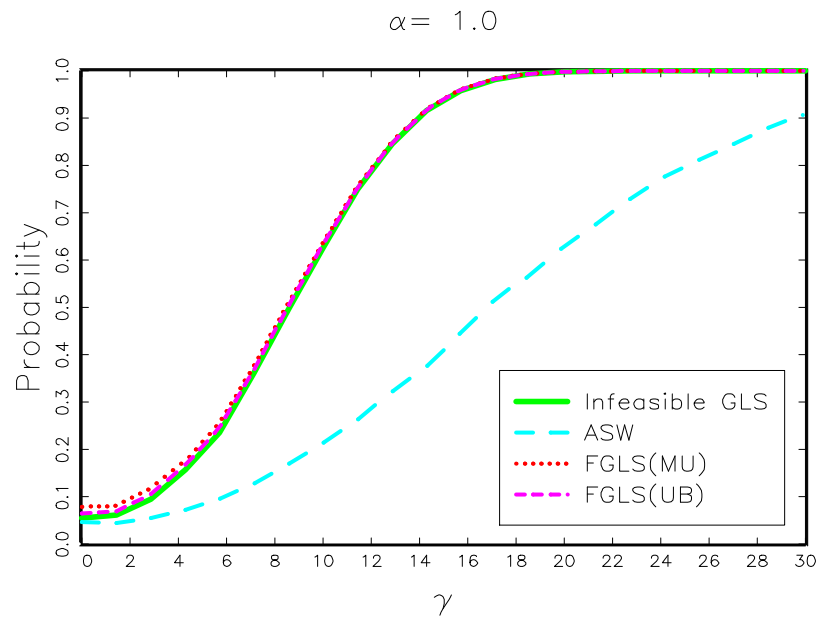


Figure 5a. Sequential Enders-Lee Unit Root Tests, $\alpha = 0.9$

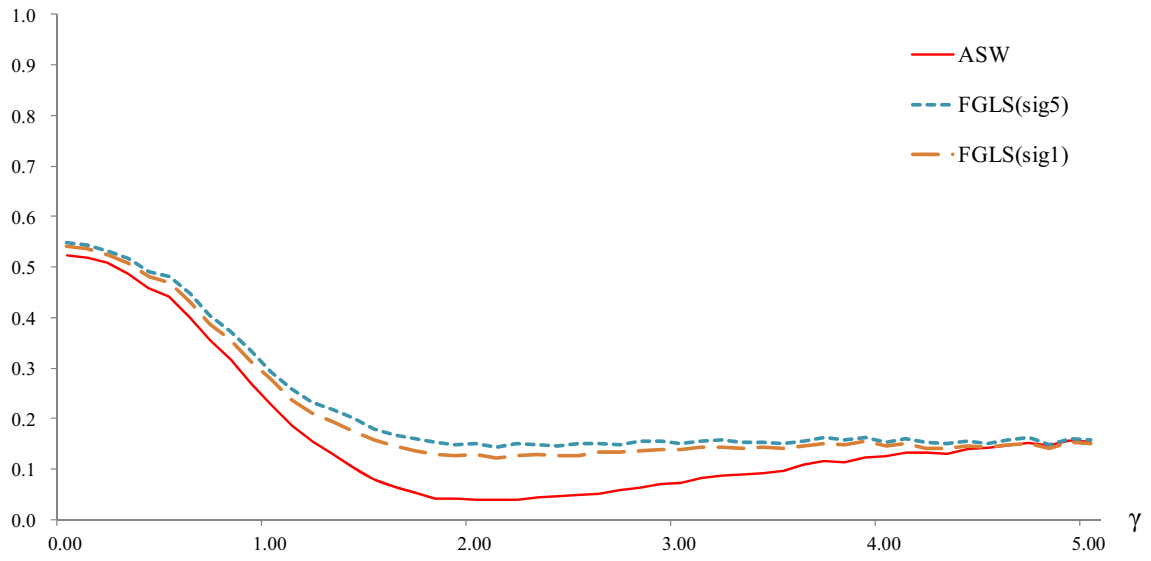


Figure 5b. Sequential Enders-Lee Unit Root Tests, $\alpha = 0.8$

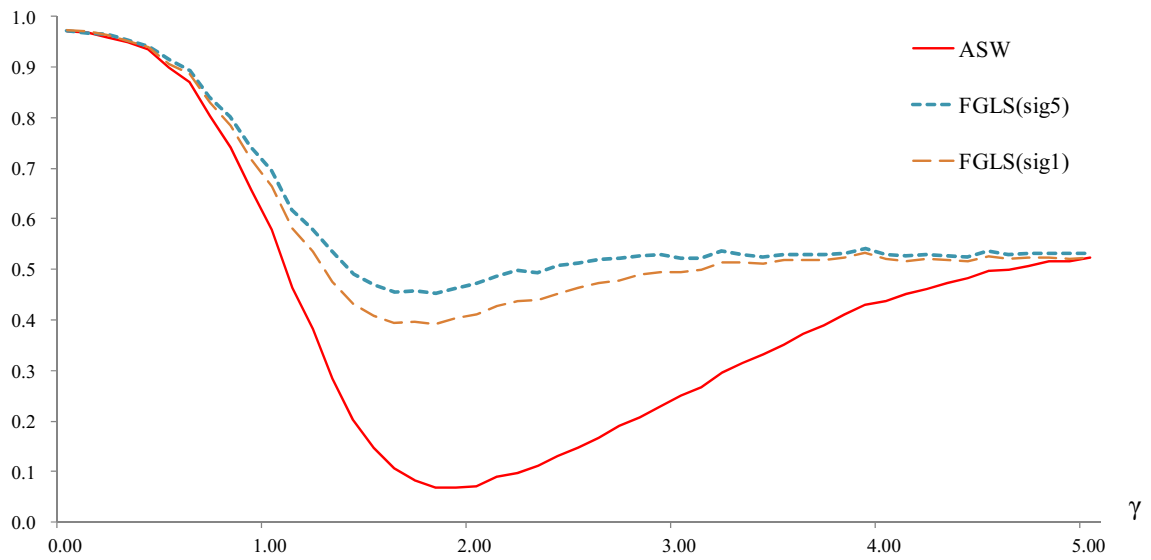


Figure 6a. Sequential Enders-Lee Unit Root Tests, $\alpha=0.9$; Fixed n

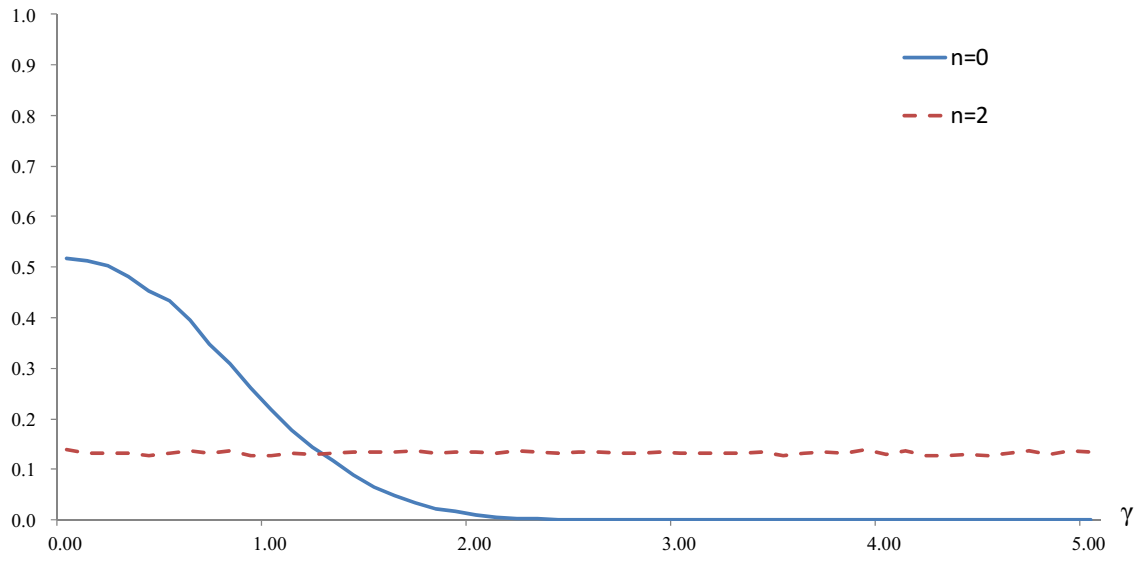


Figure 6b. Sequential Enders-Lee Unit Root Tests, $\alpha=0.8$; Fixed n

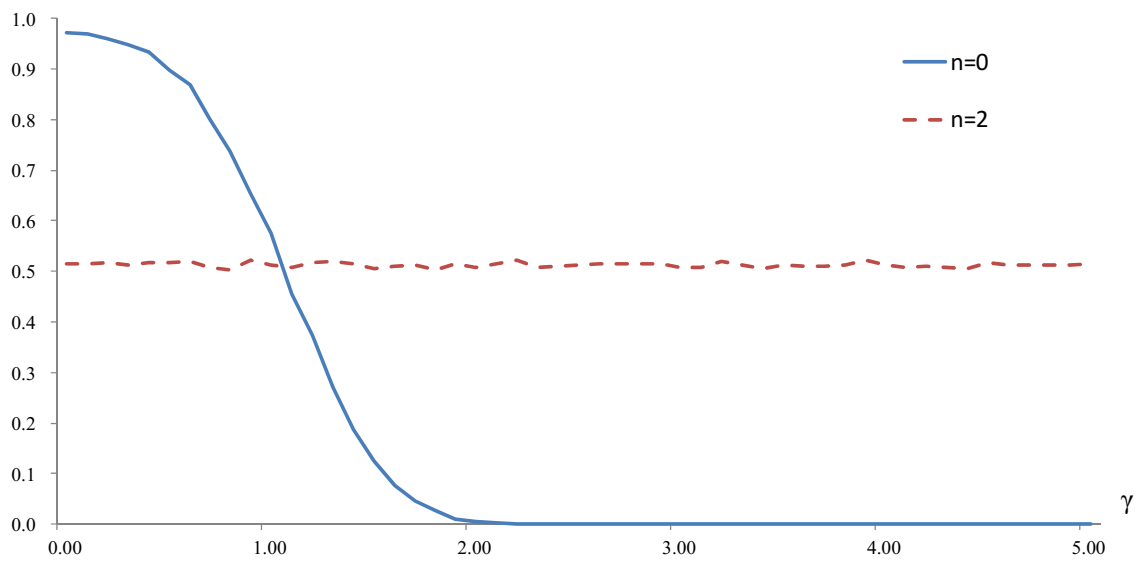
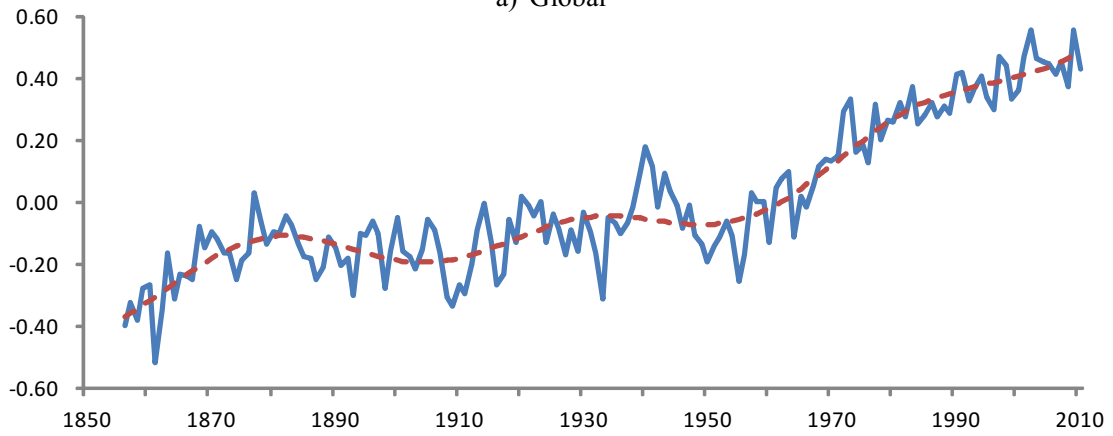
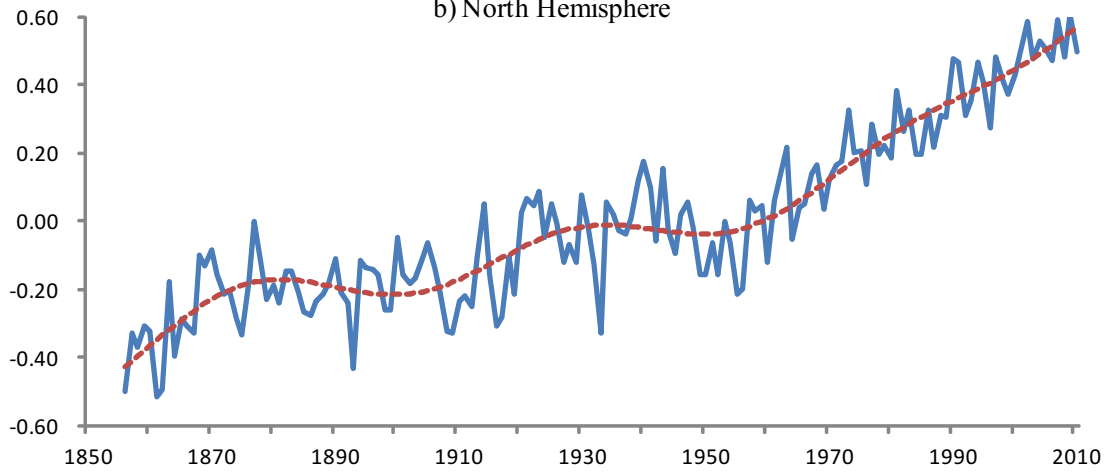


Figure 7. Temperature Series

a) Global



b) North Hemisphere



c) South Hemisphere

