A PROJECTION-BASED ADAPTIVE-TO-MODEL
TEST FOR REGRESSIONS

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Abstract: A longstanding problem of existing empirical process-based tests for regressions is that when the number of covariates is greater than one, they either have no tractable limiting null distributions or are not omnibus. To attack this problem, we propose a projection-based adaptive-to-model approach. When the hypothetical model is parametric single-index, the method can fully utilize the dimension reduction model structure under the null hypothesis as if the covariates were one-dimensional such that the martingale transformation-based test can be asymptotically distribution-free. Further, the test can automatically adapt to the underlying model structure such that the test can be omnibus and thus detect alternative models distinct from the hypothetical model at the fastest possible rate in hypothesis testing. The method is examined through simulation studies and is illustrated by a data analysis.

Key words and phrases: Adaptive-to-model test, martingale transformation, model checking, projection pursuit.

1. Introduction

Even when the dimension of covariates is moderate, dimensionality still causes data structure not easily visualized and thus makes regression modelling difficult. Therefore, in regression analysis, dimension reduction model structure is often used to approximate underlying models. A typical example is the parametric single-index regression model

$$Y = g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0) + \varepsilon, \tag{1.1}$$

where Y is the response variable with the covariates $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $g(\cdot)$ is a known smooth function, $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are the unknown regression parameter vectors, ε is the error term with $E(\varepsilon|X) = 0$, and the notation $\top$ denotes transposition.

It is necessary to check the mis-specification of the regression function such that further regression analysis can proceed. Thus, the saturated alternative

model is considered where

$$Y = G(X) + \varepsilon, \tag{1.2}$$

and $G(\cdot)$ denotes some unknown smooth function. There are several methods available to test the null hypothesis of model (1.1), that can be used for more general hypothetical parametric models. As this paper focuses on the dimension-reduction issue, we only briefly mention existing locally and globally smoothing tests and then give a more detailed comment on existing methods that are used to handle the curse of dimensionality. Locally smoothing tests include Härdle and Mammen (1993); Zheng (1996); Fan and Li (1996); Dette (1999); Fan and Huang (2001); Koul and Ni (2004), and Van Keilegom, Gonzáles-Manteiga and Sánchez Sellero (2008). In low-dimensional cases, these tests can be sensitive to high frequency alternative models, but they rely on nonparametric regression estimation and thus suffer from the curse of dimensionality, see Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015) for detailed comments. Globally smoothing tests are nonparametric estimation-free and particularly sensitive to low frequency alternative models and have better asymptotic behaviours. Examples include Stute (1997); Stute, Gonz'ales-Manteiga and Presedo-Quindimil (1998); Stute, Thies and Zhu (1998); Zhu (2003); Khmaladze and Koul (2004); Stute, Xu and Zhu (2008). For more references, see the review paper by González-Manteiga and Crujeiras (2013). However, when the dimension is greater than 1, they are usually not asymptotically distribution-free.

There are several efforts in the literature to alleviate the curse of dimensionality. Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015), as a first attempt in this field, suggested a model-adaptive test that can avoid the dimensionality problem largely, but still requires nonparametric estimation. Most existing methods are inspired by the projection pursuit technique first proposed by Friedman and Stuetzle (1981), since it is essential to find one or a few directions along which the departures from hypothetical models can be easily detected. Escanciano (2006) and Lavergne and Patilea (2008, 2012) proposed tests that are based on projected covariates. Two earlier and relevant references are Zhu and An (1992) and Zhu and Li (1998). Zhu (2003) and Stute, Xu and Zhu (2008) used residual processes to construct tests that can also be regarded as of the dimension-reduction type. These tests usually need to resort to Monte Carlo approximations to determine critical values (e.g. Escanciano (2006); and Lavergne and Patilea (2008)) though some of them are even asymptotically distribution-free such as Lavergne and Patilea (2012). This is either because of intractability of the null distribution or because of computa-

tional instability and complexity caused by the computation over all projected covariates at all directions. A relevant reference about the computation issue is Wong, Fang and Zhu (1995). Xia (2009) also proposed a projection-based test that however has no way to control type I error.

Existing projection-based tests that involve residual-marked empirical processes are either the supremum or integral over all projected covariates. In contrast, Stute and Zhu (2002) simply used one projection $\beta_0^\top X$ and thus the test behaves like one with one-dimensional covariate. For model (1.1), letting $\varepsilon = Y - g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0)$, we have that, under the null hypothesis,

$$E(\varepsilon|X) = 0 \Rightarrow E[Y - g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0)]I(\beta_0^\top X \le u) = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad u \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The residual marked empirical process defined by Stute and Zhu (2002) is

$$R_n(u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)]I(\beta_n^\top X_i \le u), \tag{1.3}$$

where $\{(X_1, Y_1), \cdots (X_n, Y_n)\}$ denotes an $i.i.d.$ sample from the distribution of (X, Y), β_n and θ_n are, under the null hypothesis, root-n consistent estimators of β and θ, respectively. The martingale transformation can lead to an asymptotically distribution-free test (Stute, Thies and Zhu (1998)), but the construction only uses the model structure under the null hypothesis. Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015) gave an example to explicitly illustrate this phenomenon.

The purpose of this paper is to construct a globally smoothing test that inherits the asymptotically distribution-free and dimension reduction properties of Stute and Zhu (2002) test under the null hypothesis, and the omnibus property of general projection-based tests under the alternative hypothesis such as Escanciano (2006) and Lavergne and Patilea (2008). For this, we suggest an adaptive-to-model martingale transformation approach that can make the test automatically adapt to the underlying model structure under the respective null and alternative hypothesis.

To accommodate more general alternatives, we consider the model

$$Y = G(B^\top X) + \varepsilon, \tag{1.4}$$

where G is an unknown smooth function, B is a $p \times q$ matrix with q orthogonal columns for an unknown q, with $1 \le q \le p$ and $E(\varepsilon|X) = 0$. When $q = 1$ and $B = \kappa\beta$ for some constant κ, (1.4) is a semiparametric single-index model similar to (1.1). When $q = p$, (1.4) reduces to (1.2) since $G(\cdot)$ is unknown and $G(X) = G(BB^\top X) \equiv: \tilde{G}(B^\top X)$.

This paper is organised as follows. Basic test construction is described in Sec-

tion 2. As the sufficient dimension reduction technique is crucial to the adaptive-to-model strategy for test construction, we give a short review in this section. In Section 3, we present the asymptotic properties of the residual marked empirical process under the null hypothesis, and the martingale transformation-based innovative process is discussed. Then we investigate the properties of the process and its innovative process under the alternative hypothesis. In Section 4, the test statistic is presented, simulation results for small to moderate sample size are reported, and a data analysis is used as an illustration of application. The appendix contains proofs of the theoretical results.

2. Projection-Based Adaptive-to-Model Empirical Process

2.1. Basic construction

The null hypothesis can be restated as

$$H_0: \; E(Y|X) = g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0) \quad \text{for some} \quad \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p, \; \theta_0 \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d,$$

and the alternative hypothesis is that, for any $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and a $p \times q$ matrix B,

$$H_1: \; E(Y|X) = G(B^\top X) \neq g(\beta^\top X, \theta),$$

where G is unknown. Here we assume β_0 is a linear combination of the columns of B. This is for simplicity as, from the theory in sufficient dimension reduction introduced below, β_0 and B can be well identified under both the null and alternative hypothesis. As $\varepsilon = Y - g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0)$, under the null hypothesis, $q = 1$ and $B = \kappa\beta_0$ for some constant κ, we have $E(\varepsilon|\beta_0^\top X) = E(\varepsilon|B^\top X) = 0$. Under the alternative hypothesis $E(\varepsilon|B^\top X) = G(B^\top X) - g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0) \neq 0$. Thus, under the null hypothesis,

$$E[(Y - g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0))I(\beta_0^\top X \leq u)] = 0. \tag{2.1}$$

According to Lemma 1 of Escanciano (2006), Lemma 2.1 of Lavergne and Patilea (2008), or a similar result in Zhu and Li (1998) which can be traced back to Zhu and An (1992), we have that, under the alternative hypothesis, for an $\alpha \in \mathcal{S}_q^+ = \{\alpha = (a_1, \cdots, a_q)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^q : \|\alpha\| = 1 \text{ and } a_1 \geq 0\}$,

$$E[(Y - g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0))I(\alpha^\top B^\top X \leq u)] \neq 0. \tag{2.2}$$

Under the null and alternative hypothesis, we use, respectively $\beta_0^\top X$ and $\alpha^\top B^\top X$. It is clear that we cannot define two estimates separately according to null and alternative hypothesis as we do not know the underlying model, we need an estimate $\hat{B}_n$ of B that can adapt the underlying model: under the null $\hat{B}_n$ converges

to a vector proportional to β_0 and under the alternative, to B. If this can be achieved, we can use the empirical version of the left side of (2.2) to be the basis of a test statistic. Let $\{(X_1, Y_1), \cdots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$ be a sample with the same distribution as (X, Y). We propose an adaptive-to-model residual marked empirical process for checking model (1.1) as

$$V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)] I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u), \qquad (2.3)$$

$$V_n(u) = \sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}), \qquad (2.4)$$

where $\hat{B}_n$ is a sufficient dimension reduction estimator of B with an estimated structural dimension $\hat{q}$ of q, β_n and θ_n are respectively ordinary least squares estimators of β_0 and θ_0.

It is clear that to have the model adaptation property of the process be such that under the null hypothesis, $\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} V_n(u, \hat{\alpha})$ is equal to the $n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)] I(\beta_n^\top X_i \leq u)$ of Stute and Zhu (2002), we must have that under the null hypothesis, $\hat{q}$ and $\hat{B}$ converge to 1 and $\kappa \beta_0$, respectively.

2.2. A review on discretization-expectation estimation

To identify and estimate the number q and the matrix B, we use a method of sufficient dimension reduction (SDR). There are proposals available in the literature: sliced inverse regression (SIR, Li (1991)), sliced average variance estimation (SAVE, Cook and Weisberg (1991)), minimum average variance estimation (MAVE, Xia et al. (2002)), directional regression (DR, Li and Wang (2007)), likelihood acquired directions (LAD, Cook and Forzani (2009)), and average partial mean estimation (APME, Zhu, Zhu and Feng (2010)). We briefly review discretization-expectation estimation (DEE, Zhu et al. (2010a)). The matrix B is not identifiable in model (1.4), one can only identify q base vectors in the central mean subspace $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)}$ spanned by B (see Cook (1998)). This can be achieved through identifying $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)}$, the intersection of all subspaces span(A) such that $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp E(Y|X)|A^\top X$ where $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ means statistical independence and span(A) means the subspace spanned by the columns of A. The dimension of $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)}$ is called the structural dimension, denoted as $d_{E(Y|X)}$. Under the null hypothesis(1.1), $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)} = \text{span}(\beta_0/\|\beta_0\|)$ and $d_{E(Y|X)} = 1$; while under the alternative (1.4), $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)} = \text{span}(B)$ and $d_{E(Y|X)} = q$. The central subspace (Cook (1998)), denoted by $\mathcal{S}_{Y|X}$, is the intersection of all subspaces span(A) such that $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X|A^\top X$. Then $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)} \subset \mathcal{S}_{Y|X}$ and, for simplicity, we assume

$\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)} = \mathcal{S}_{Y|X}$ in this paper. A special case has $\varepsilon \perp\!\!\!\perp X$ in model (1.4).

For the procedure DEE, let the discrete response variable $Z(t) = I\{Y \leq t\}$ where I is the indicator function. Let $\mathcal{S}_{Z(t)|X}$ denote the central subspace of $Z(t)|X$ and $M(t)$ be a $p \times p$ positive semi-definite matrix such that $\text{Span}\{M(t)\} = \mathcal{S}_{Z(t)|X}$. If $\tilde{Y}$ is an independent copy of Y and $M = E\{M(\tilde{Y})\}$, Theorem 1 in Zhu et al. (2010a) asserts that $\text{Span}(M) = \mathcal{S}_{Y|X}$ and B consists of the eigenvectors corresponding to the nonzero eigenvalues of M. The estimator of the target matrix M is then given by

$$M_n = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_n(y_i),$$

where $M_n(y_i)$ is the estimator of the matrix $M(y_i)$ obtained by a sufficient dimension reduction method such as SIR (Li (1991)). Then an estimator $B_n(q)$ of B consists of the eigenvectors associated with the largest q eigenvalues of M_n when q is given. According to Theorems 2 and 3 in Zhu et al. (2010a), $B_n(q)$ can achieve root-n consistence to B.

2.3. Structural dimension estimation

A consistent estimator of the structural dimension q is required. Although the BIC type criterion proposed by Zhu, Miao and Peng (2006) can give a consistent estimator, We suggest a minimum ridge-type eigenvalue ratio estimate (MRER) to determine the structure dimension q, in the spirit of Xia, Xu and Zhu (2015). Let $\hat{\lambda}_p \leq \cdots \leq \hat{\lambda}_1$ denote the eigenvalues of the estimated matrix M_n of M, so $q = dim\mathcal{S}_{Y|X} = rank(M)$. The true structure dimension q can be estimated by

$$\hat{q} = \arg\min_{1 \leq i \leq p}\left\{i : \frac{\hat{\lambda}_{i+1}^2 + c}{\hat{\lambda}_i^2 + c}\right\}. \tag{2.5}$$

The MERC of Luo, Wang and Tsai (2009) used ratios $\hat{\lambda}_{i+1}/\hat{\lambda}_i$ to determine the structural dimension q, while we add a ridge c to make the ratios more stable as the ratios for $i > q$ are about $0/0$.

Lemma 1. *Under the regularity conditions in* Zhu et al. (2010a), *the estimator $\hat{q}$ of* (2.5) *with $c = \log n/n$ satisfies, as $n \to \infty$, $Pr(\hat{q} = 1) \to 1$, under H_0 and $Pr(\hat{q} = q) \to 1$, under H_1.*

A justification of this lemma can be found in the Appendix.

3. Main Results

3.1. Basic properties of the process

Consider the process

$$V_n^0(u, \alpha) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)] I(\alpha^\top B^\top X_i \leq u),$$

where $\alpha \in \mathcal{S}_q^+$. Let $\sigma^2(v, \alpha) = Var(Y|\alpha^\top B^\top X = v)$ and $\psi(u, \alpha) = E(Var(Y|\alpha^\top B^\top X)I(\alpha^\top B^\top X \leq u))$. Under the null hypothesis, $q = 1, \alpha = 1$, and $B = \kappa\beta_0$. Thus, we write

$$\sigma^2(v) \equiv: \sigma^2(v, 1) = Var(Y|\kappa\beta_0^\top X = v),$$

$$\psi(u) \equiv: \psi(u, 1) = E[Var(Y|\kappa\beta_0^\top X)I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \leq u)],$$

$$V_n^0(u) \equiv: V_n^0(u, 1) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)] I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X_i \leq u).$$

Here $\psi(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{u} \sigma^2(v) dF_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv)$ where $F_{\kappa\beta_0}$ denotes the distribution of $\kappa\beta_0^\top X$.

Under the null hypothesis, Theorem 1.1 in Stute (1997) implies that

$$V_n^0(u) \longrightarrow V_\infty(u) \quad \text{in distribution} \tag{3.1}$$

in the Skorohod space $D[-\infty, \infty)$ where V_∞ is a continuous Gaussian process with mean zero and covariance kernel $K(u_1, u_2) = \psi(u_1 \wedge u_2)$.

To study the process $V_n(u, \hat{\alpha})$ at (2.3), we give some regularity conditions on the function $g(\beta^\top X, \theta)$ and the parameters.

A1 Under H_0, (β_n, θ_n) has a linear expansion

$$\sqrt{n} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_n - \beta_0 \\ \theta_n - \theta_0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} l(x_i, y_i, \beta_0, \theta_0) + o_p(1),$$

where l is an vector-valued function satisfying

    I $E(l(X, Y, \beta_0, \theta_0)) = 0$;

    II $L(\beta_0, \theta_0) = E(l(X, Y, \beta_0, \theta_0)l^\top(X, Y, \beta_0, \theta_0))$ is positive definite.

Ordinary least squares estimator satisfies condition (A1).

A2 The function $g(\beta^\top x, \theta)$ is continuously differentiable with respect to (β, θ) in some neighbourhood of (β_0, θ_0). The first-order partial derivatives

$$m(x, \beta, \theta) = \frac{\partial g(\beta^\top x, \theta)}{\partial(\beta, \theta)} = (m_1(x, \beta, \theta), \cdots, m_{p+d}(x, \beta, \theta))^\top$$

satisfy that there exists a $\mu-$ integrable function $K_0(x)$ such that

$$|m_j(x, \beta, \theta)| \leq K_0(x) \quad \text{for all} \quad (\beta, \theta) \quad \text{and} \quad 1 \leq j \leq p + d,$$

where μ denotes the distribution of X.

A3 If $H(u, \beta) = E[Var(Y|X)I(\kappa\beta^\top X \leq u)]$, $H(u, \beta)$ is uniformly continuous in u at β_0.

Theorem 1. *Under H_0 and Conditions* A1-A3*, we have, in distribution,*

$$V_n(u) \longrightarrow V_\infty(u) - M(u)^\top V \equiv: V_\infty^1(u),$$

where $V_\infty(u)$ has the distribution given by (3.1)*, $M(u) = E(m(X, \beta_0, \theta_0)I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \leq u))$ and V is a $p + d-$dimensional normal vector with zero mean and covariance matrix $L(\beta_0, \theta_0)$.*

Theorem 1 agrees with Theorem 1 in Stute and Zhu (2002), except for the definition of M. Thus, under the null hypothesis, our process agrees with that in Stute and Zhu (2002), and a martingale transformation can be implemented. We also need to check whether this can be done under the alternative hypothesis. We then discuss the adaptive-to-model martingale transformation.

3.2. Adaptive-to-model martingale transformation

To set the stage for the model adaptation property of the process, start with $M(u)$, the vector-valued function on $\mathbb{R}$, and

$$\psi(u) = \int_{-\infty}^u \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv)$$

a nonnegative increasing function with $\psi(-\infty) = 0$. Let $a = \partial M/\partial\psi$ be the Radon-Nikodym derivative of M w.r.t. ψ, assuming that it exists. Let

$$A(u) = \int_u^\infty a(v)a^\top(v)\psi(dv) = \int_u^\infty a(v)a^\top(v)\sigma^2(v)F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv)$$

be a $(d + p) \times (d + p)$ matrix. We define the innovation process transformation as

$$(Tf)(z) = f(z) - \int_{-\infty}^z a^\top(u)A^{-1}(u)\left[\int_u^\infty a(v)f(dv)\right]\psi(du). \qquad (3.2)$$

Here we suppose that $A(u)$ is non-singular and that the process $f(z)$ is bounded variation or is a Brownian motion.

Using the arguments in the proofs of lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 in Nikabadze and Stute (1997), we have the following

(i) $T(M^\top V) \equiv 0$,

(ii) $TV_\infty = V_\infty$ in distribution.

Thus TV_∞ is a centered Gaussian process with a covariance kernel $K(u_1, u_2) = \psi(u_1 \wedge u_2)$ that can be considered as the martingale part in the Doob-Meyer decomposition of V_∞^1. See Stute, Thies and Zhu (1998).

As T relies on some unknown quantities, it needs to be replaced by its empirical version. To this end, let $g_1(t, \theta) = \partial g(t, \theta)/\partial t$ and $g_2(t, \theta) = \partial g(t, \theta)/\partial \theta$, so

$$m(x, \beta_0, \theta_0) = (g_1(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0) X^\top, g_2(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0))^\top.$$

Since $M(u) = E(m(X, \beta_0, \theta_0) I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \leq u))$, we obtain

$$M(u) = \begin{pmatrix} E[g_1(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0) X I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \leq u)] \\ E[g_2(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0)^\top I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \leq u)] \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \int_{-\infty}^u g_1\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}, \theta_0\right) r(v) F_{\kappa \beta_0}(dv) \\ \int_{-\infty}^u g_2\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}, \theta_0\right)^\top F_{\kappa \beta_0}(dv) \end{pmatrix},$$

where $r(v) = E(X|\kappa \beta_0^\top X = v)$. It is easy to see that

$$a = \frac{\partial M}{\partial \psi} = \begin{pmatrix} g_1\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}, \theta_0\right) r(v) \frac{1}{\sigma^2(v)} \\ g_2\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}, \theta_0\right)^\top \frac{1}{\sigma^2(v)} \end{pmatrix},$$

$$A(u) = \int_u^{-\infty} a(v) M^\top(dv) = \begin{pmatrix} \int_u^{-\infty} g_1\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}, \theta_0\right) r(v) \frac{1}{\sigma^2(v) M^\top(dv)} \\ \int_u^{-\infty} g_2\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}, \theta_0\right)^\top \frac{1}{\sigma^2(v) M^\top(dv)} \end{pmatrix}.$$

In a general nonparametric framework, there are no assumptions on r and σ except for smoothness, thus both need to be estimated. We adopt a standard Nadaraya-Watson estimator for r,

$$r_n(v) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i K\left((v - \hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)\frac{1}{h}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left((v - \hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)\frac{1}{h}\right)}.$$

For σ^2, one has that $\sigma^2(u) = E(\varepsilon^2 | \kappa \beta_0 X = u)$ can be replaced by

$$\sigma_n^2(u) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2 K\left((u - \hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)\frac{1}{h}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left((u - \hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)\frac{1}{h}\right)},$$

where $K(\cdot)$ is a univariate kernel function and h is a bandwidth. We use $\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X$ rather than $\beta_n^\top X$, where β_n is the nonlinear least squares estimate of β_0 used by Stute and Zhu (2002). As $\hat{q}$ and $\hat{B}$ have the model adaptation property, we can derive the model adaptation property of the transformed process.

We can obtain the empirical versions a_n, M_n and A_n of a, M and A as

$$
a_n(v) = \begin{pmatrix} g_1\left(\dfrac{v}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right) r_n(v) \dfrac{1}{\sigma_n^2(v)} \\ g_2\left(\dfrac{v}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right)^\top \dfrac{1}{\sigma_n^2(v)} \end{pmatrix},
$$

$$
M_n(u) = \begin{pmatrix} \dfrac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n g_1(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n) X_i I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \le u) \\ \dfrac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n g_2(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)^\top I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \le u) \end{pmatrix},
$$

$$
A_n(u) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \ge u) \begin{pmatrix} g_1\left(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \dfrac{1}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right) r_n(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i) \dfrac{1}{\sigma_n^2(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)} \\ g_2\left(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \dfrac{1}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right)^\top \dfrac{1}{\sigma_n^2(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)} \end{pmatrix}
$$
$$
\times (g_1(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n) X_i^\top, g_2(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)).
$$

Replacing a, M and A in (3.2) by their empirical versions, we obtain the empirical version of TV:

$$
(T_n V_n)(u, \hat{\alpha}) = V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) - \int_{-\infty}^u a_n(v)^\top A_n^{-1}(v) \int_v^\infty a_n(z) V_n(dz) \sigma_n^2(v) F_{\hat{\alpha}}(dv)
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{n^{1/2}} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)] I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \le u)
$$

$$
- \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} \sum_{i,j=1}^n I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \le u)
$$

$$
\times \left(g_1\left(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \frac{1}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right) r_n(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)^\top, g_2\left(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \frac{1}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right) \right)
$$

$$
\times A_n^{-1}(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i) I(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_j \ge \hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i)(Y_j - g(\beta_n^\top X_j, \theta_n))
$$

$$
\times \begin{pmatrix} g_1\left(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_j \frac{1}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right) r_n(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_j) \dfrac{1}{\sigma_n^2(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_j)} \\ g_2\left(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_j \frac{1}{\kappa_n}, \theta_n\right)^\top \dfrac{1}{\sigma_n^2(\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_j)} \end{pmatrix}
$$

where κ_n is the estimator of κ and $F_{\hat{\alpha}}$ is the empirical distribution function of $\hat{\alpha}^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$.

Theorem 2. *Let $\sigma_n^2(u)$ be a consistent estimator of σ^2 that is bounded away from zero. Under the regularity conditions of Theorem 1 and H_0, we have*

$$\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) \to V_\infty(u) \quad \text{in distribution in the space } D[-\infty, \infty).$$

Because of model adaptation, the supremum under the null is over only one direction and the transformed process is a standard Gaussian process, as proved by Stute and Zhu (2002).

When the distribution of X is elliptically contoured, particularly spherically contoured such as normal distributions, the formulation of the transformation can be much simpler and the computation much easier. Without loss of generality, consider spherically contoured distributions. Suppose the regression function g does not rely on the parameter θ. Let $g'(\beta_0^\top x)$ be the derivative of $g(\cdot)$ about $\beta_0^\top x$. Thus we have $m(x, \beta_0) = g'(\beta_0^\top x)x$ and

$$M(u) = E[g'(\beta_0^\top X)XI(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \leq u)] = \int_{-\infty}^u g'\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}\right)r(v)dF_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv).$$

Therefore $a = \partial M/\partial \psi = (g'(v/\kappa)r(v))/\sigma^2(v)$ and $A(u) = \int_u^{-\infty} a(v)M^\top(dv) = \int_u^{-\infty}(g'(v/\kappa)r(v))/\sigma^2(v)M^\top(dv)$.

If Γ is an orthogonal matrix with the first row $\beta_0^\top/\|\beta_0\|$, the first component of ΓX is $\beta_0^\top X/\|\beta_0\|$. Since the conditional distribution of the other components of ΓX, given the first is still spherical, these conditional expectations are zero. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
M(u) &= \Gamma^\top Eg'(\beta_0^\top X)\Gamma XI(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \leq u) \\
&= \frac{\beta_0}{\|\beta_0\|^2}Eg'(\beta_0^\top X)\beta_0^\top XI(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \leq u) \\
&= \frac{\beta_0}{\|\beta_0\|^2}\int_{-\infty}^u \left[g'\left(\frac{v}{\kappa}\right)\frac{v}{\kappa}\right]F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv).
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
a(v) &= \frac{\beta_0}{\|\beta_0\|^2}\frac{g'(v/\kappa)v/\kappa}{\sigma^2(v)}, \\
A(u) &= \frac{\beta_0\beta_0^\top}{\|\beta_0\|^4}\int_u^\infty \frac{[g'(v/\kappa)v/\kappa]^2}{\sigma^2(v)}F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv).
\end{aligned}$$

The matrix $A(u)$ is singular with rank 1. To derive relevant asymptotic results as those in Theorem 2, let

$$h(v) = Eg'(\beta_0^\top X)\beta_0^\top X I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \leq v) \quad \text{and} \quad V_1 = \frac{\beta_0^\top V}{\|\beta_0\|^2}.$$

Then $M^\top(u)V = h(u)V_1$, and the conclusion of Theorem 1 would be rewritten as

$$V_n \to V_\infty - hV_1 \quad \text{in distribution.}$$

The new a and A now become real-valued:

$$a = \frac{\partial h}{\partial \psi} \quad \text{and} \quad A(u) = \int_u^\infty a^2(v)\sigma^2(v)F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv).$$

Similarly, we can also obtain the empirical analogues A_n and T_n of A and T, respectively. Theorem 2 can be applied with these new functions in the results.

Convergence in $D[-\infty, \infty)$ means convergence in $D[-\infty, u]$ for any finite u. Since the transformation involves the inverses of $A(u)$, our test statistic would yield instabilities in the distributional behaviors for large values of u. Thus, all the processes should be constrained in proper subsets of the real line. In practice, we would consider T_nV_n on a given quantile of $\kappa_n\beta_n^\top X_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. See Stute and Zhu (2002). Now we show that the transformed process can automatically adapt to alternative models such that a test can detect them.

3.3. The properties under the alternative hypothesis

Consider a sequence of alternatives converging to the null hypothesis

$$H_{1n}: \ Y_n = g(\beta_0^\top X, \theta_0) + C_nG(B^\top X) + \eta, \tag{3.3}$$

where $E(\eta|X) = 0$, and β_0 is the linear combination of the columns of B. When C_n is a fixed constant, the model is under global alternatives equivalent to model (1.4). If it tends to zero, the models are under local alternatives. We give the asymptotic property of the estimator $\hat{q}$ of the structure dimension q under the local alternatives. A lemma shows that when C_n goes to zero quickly, $\hat{q}$ is an inconsistent estimate of q.

Lemma 2. *Under the local alternative H_{1n} and the conditions of Lemma 1 with $C_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$, the estimator $\hat{q}$ of (2.5) with $c = \log n/n$ satisfies $P(\hat{q} = 1) \to 1$, as $n \to \infty$.*

To derive the asymptotic properties of $\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_nV_n(u, \hat{\alpha})$, under the local alternative H_{1n}, we need an additional condition

A4

$$\sqrt{n}\begin{pmatrix} \beta_n - \beta_0 \\ \theta_n - \theta_0 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^n l(x_i, y_i, \beta_0, \theta_0) + o_p(1),$$

where γ is some constant vector and the vector-valued function l is given in (A1). Under H_{1n} with $C_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$, (A4) is satisfied for the nonlinear least squares estimate. See Lemma 3 in supplementary materials of Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015).

Theorem 3. *If* A1-A4 *hold, we have*
(i) under the global alternative H_1 *that is equivalent to* H_{1n} *with fixed* C_n,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) \to L(u) \quad \text{in probability,}$$

where $L(u)$ *is some nonzero function.*
(ii) under the local alternatives H_{1n} *with* $C_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$, *we have, in distribution,*

$$\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) \to \tilde{V}_\infty^1(u) + \int_{-\infty}^u [H_0(v) - a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) W(v) \sigma^2(v)] F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv),$$

where $H_0(v) = E[G(B^\top X) | \kappa\beta_0^\top X = v]$, $W(v) = \int_v^\infty a(z) H_0(z) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dz)$, *and* $\tilde{V}_\infty^1(u)$ *is a zero-mean Gaussian process with covariance function*

$$\tilde{K}(s,t) = E\left\{ \varepsilon^2 \left[I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \le s) \right.\right.$$
$$\left. - \int_{-\infty}^s a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) a(\kappa\beta_0^\top X) I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \ge v) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv) \right] \times \left[I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \le t) \right.$$
$$\left.\left. - \int_{-\infty}^t a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) a(\kappa\beta_0^\top X) I(\kappa\beta_0^\top X \ge v) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv) \right] \right\}.$$

Based on Theorems 2 and 3, we can derive the asymptotic properties of functionals of $\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha})$ over all u.

4. Numerical Studies

4.1. Test statistics in practical use

The test statistic is a functional of $T_n V_n$. Here we consider the Crämer−von Mises statistic

$$CW_n^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} \sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} (T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}))^2 F_n(d\,u), \qquad (4.1)$$

where F_n is the empirical distribution function of $\beta_n / \|\beta_n\| X_i$, $1 \le i \le n$. We take $\kappa_n = 1/\|\beta_n\|$ here. Using Theorem 2 and the Continuous Mapping Theorem we obtain that, under the null hypothesis,

$$CW_n^2 \longrightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} B^2(\psi(u)) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(du) \quad \text{in disitribution,}$$

where $B(u)$ is a standard Brownian motion. To obtain a distribution-free limit

for our test, since

$$\frac{1}{\psi(x_0)^2} \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} B^2(\psi(u))\sigma^2(u)F_{\kappa\beta_0}(du) = \int_0^1 B(u)^2 du \quad \text{in disitribution,}$$

we consider

$$W_n^2 = \frac{1}{\psi_n(x_0)^2} \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} \sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} (T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}))^2 \sigma_n^2 F_n(d\,u),$$

where $\psi_n(u) = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i))^2 I(\beta_n/\|\beta_n\|X_i \leq u)$ is the estimator of $\psi(u)$ and σ_n^2 can be any consistent estimator of the conditional variance σ^2 of Subsection 3.1. Therefore,

$$W_n^2 \to \int_0^1 B^2(u)du \quad \text{in disitribution.}$$

If the regression model is homoscedastic, then σ^2 is a constant and we can estimate it by

$$\sigma_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)]^2.$$

Under the null hypothesis $\psi(x_0) = \sigma^2 F_{\kappa\beta}(x_0)$ and it can be estimated by $\sigma_n^2 F_n(x_0)$, so W_n^2 becomes

$$W_n^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2 F_n^2(x_0)} \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} \sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} (T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}))^2 F_n(d\,u).$$

For ease of comparison, we give five examples in the following. For x_0, as Stute and Zhu (2002) did, we choose the 99% quantile of F_n in the numerical examples.

4.2. Numerical examples

We conducted some simulations to show the performance of the distributional approximations for small to moderate sample size. We made a comparison with Stute and Zhu (2002)'s test T_n^{SZ}, Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015)'s test T_n^{GWZ}, Stute, Gonz'ales-Manteiga and Presedo-Quindimil (1998)'s test T_n^{SGP} and Zheng (1996)'s test T_n^{ZH}. We took five representative examples. The first was to confirm that the proposed test, that can be regarded as an extension of Stute and Zhu (2002)'s test, is omnibus. The second includes both high-frequency and low-frequency model such that we could compare with Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015)'s dimension reduction model-adaptive test based on locally smoothing and Stute, Gonz'ales-Manteiga and Presedo-Quindimil (1998)'s test that determines critical values by the wild bootstrap. The third includes models with higher structural

dimension and the fourth was to check the influence of dimensionality. The fifth was to check the performance of our test under non-elliptically contoured distribution. The significant level was set to be $\alpha = 0.05$, and the reported results are the average of 2,000 replications. In all models, the value of $a = 0$ corresponds to the null hypothesis and $a \neq 0$ to the alternatives.

Example 1. The data were generated from the model

$$Y = \frac{1}{4} \exp(2\beta_1^\top X) + a\beta_2^\top X + \varepsilon.$$

We considered two cases: $p = 3$, $\beta_1 = (1, 0, 0)^\top$, $\beta_2 = (0, 1, 0)^\top$ and $p = 4$, $\beta_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)^\top / \sqrt{2}$, $\beta_2 = (0, 0, 1, 1)^\top / \sqrt{2}$. In both cases, $n = 50, 100$, X was $N(0, I_p)$ and ε was $N(0, 1)$. Under the alternatives $E(Y - 1/4 \exp(2\beta_1^\top X)|\beta_1^\top X) = 0$. The results in Figure 1 obviously show that T_n^{SZ} fails to work while W_n^2 performs very well.

Example 2. Consider the models

$$H_{21} : Y = \beta_0^\top X + a \cos(\frac{\pi}{2}\beta_0^\top X) + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{22} : Y = \beta_0^\top X + \frac{1}{4}a \exp(\beta_0^\top X) + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{23} : Y = \beta_0^\top X + \frac{1}{2}a(\beta_0^\top X)^2 + \varepsilon;$$

where $p = 8, \beta_0 = (1, 1, \ldots, 1)/\sqrt{p}$, $X = (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_p)^\top$ independent of ε. The central mean subspaces $\mathcal{S}_{E(Y|X)}$ has structural dimension 1 with $B = \beta_0$ under both the null and alternative hypotheses. The predictors $x_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$ were i.i.d. $N(0, I_p)$ and $N(0, \Sigma)$ with $\Sigma = (1/2^{|i-j|})_{p \times p}$ so as to check the influence of correlation between the covariates. The errors ε_i's were independent $N(0, 1)$. The first is a high-frequency model and the others are low-frequent.

The empirical sizes and powers of the three tests are presented in Tables 1 and 2. We can see that both T_n^{GWZ} and W_n^2 control the size very well, even for $n = 50$. T_n^{SGP} seems slightly more conservative with higher empirical size than 0.05. For the first model, T_n^{GWZ} has relatively higher power than W_n^2 and T_n^{SGP} do, especially in the correlated case. For the models H_{12} and H_{13}, both W_n^2 and T_n^{SGP} are more powerful. Thus locally smoothing performs better for high frequency models and globally smoothing works better for low frequency models. The comparison also shows that W_n^2 is more robust against the underlying correlation structure of the predictors than T_n^{SGP} in both significance level maintainance and power performance.

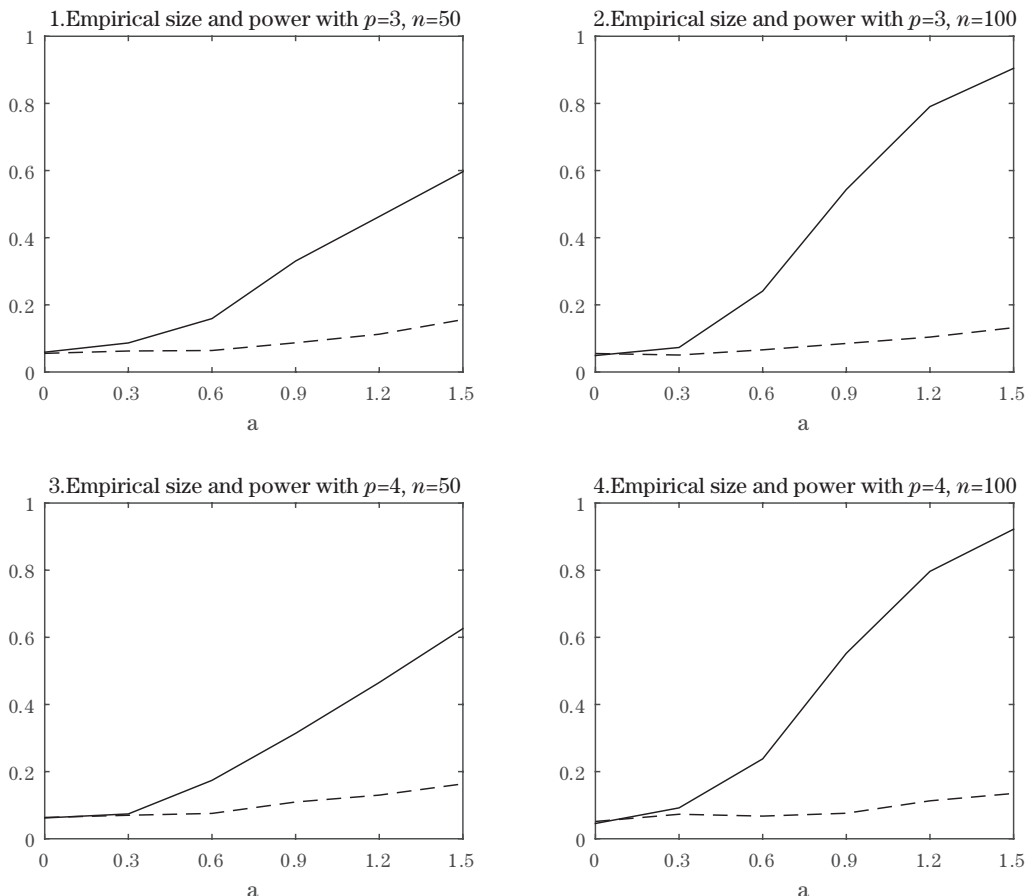We considered a model whose structural dimension q is greater than 1 un-

Figure 1. The empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{SZ} and W_n^2 in Example 1. The dash and solid line denote the results of T_n^{SZ} and W_n^2, respectively.

der the alternatives. In this simulation, we compared our test for alleviating the dimensionality problem with that of Zheng (1996), a representative locally smoothing method.

Example 3. The data were generated from the model

$$H_{31} : Y = \beta_1^\top X + a(\beta_2^\top X)^2 + \varepsilon;$$
$$H_{32} : Y = \beta_1^\top X + a \exp\{-(\beta_2^\top X)^2\} + \varepsilon;$$

where $\beta_1 = (\underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{p/2}, 0, \ldots, 0)^\top / \sqrt{p/2}$ and $\beta_2 = (0, \ldots, 0, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{p/2}) / \sqrt{p/2}$. The predictors $x_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$ were i.i.d $N(0, I_p)$ and $N(0, \Sigma)$ and the ε_i's were $N(0, 1)$. In each case we took $p = 2$ and $p = 8$.

Table 1. Empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{GWZ}, W_n^2, and T_n^{SGP} for H_0 vs. H_{21}, H_{22} and H_{23} in Example 2.

	a	T_n^{GWZ}		W_n^2		T_n^{SGP}	
		$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$
$H_{21}, X \sim N(0, I_p)$	0.0	0.0445	0.0480	0.0470	0.0525	0.0640	0.0650
	0.2	0.0830	0.1490	0.0635	0.0950	0.1050	0.1320
	0.4	0.1915	0.4595	0.1180	0.2155	0.1710	0.3260
	0.6	0.4245	0.8115	0.2005	0.4245	0.2930	0.5680
	0.8	0.6025	0.9590	0.3090	0.6480	0.4600	0.8010
	1.0	0.7590	0.9915	0.4170	0.8285	0.5830	0.9060
$H_{21}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma)$	0.0	0.0470	0.0460	0.0465	0.0505	0.0760	0.0680
	0.2	0.0655	0.1090	0.0500	0.0495	0.0910	0.0650
	0.4	0.1350	0.3595	0.0485	0.0590	0.0790	0.0960
	0.6	0.2645	0.6870	0.0645	0.0935	0.0970	0.1370
	0.8	0.4065	0.8905	0.0640	0.1035	0.1100	0.1700
	1.0	0.5580	0.9780	0.0840	0.1650	0.1300	0.2280
$H_{22}, X \sim N(0, I_p)$	0.0	0.0450	0.0515	0.0495	0.0535	0.0590	0.0590
	0.2	0.0530	0.0680	0.0750	0.1220	0.0930	0.1190
	0.4	0.0965	0.1550	0.1865	0.3430	0.2180	0.3260
	0.6	0.1670	0.3145	0.3505	0.6565	0.3610	0.6020
	0.8	0.2595	0.5400	0.5320	0.8705	0.5550	0.8420
	1.0	0.3685	0.7535	0.7085	0.9655	0.7170	0.9570
$H_{22}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma)$	0.0	0.0520	0.0540	0.0525	0.0510	0.0760	0.0680
	0.2	0.0955	0.1675	0.1705	0.4230	0.2020	0.3420
	0.4	0.2465	0.5385	0.5050	0.8770	0.4370	0.7460
	0.6	0.4510	0.8520	0.7330	0.9900	0.6670	0.9130
	0.8	0.6455	0.9670	0.8780	0.9995	0.7980	0.9510
	1.0	0.7940	0.9935	0.9550	1.0000	0.8980	0.9600

The simulation results are presented in Tables 3 and 4. When $p = 2$, we can see that Zheng (1996)'s test T_n^{ZH} can maintain the significance level occasionally, but usually, the empirical sizes are lower than 0.05. In contrast, W_n^2 works much better even for $n = 50$. For the empirical power, both T_n^{ZH} and W_n^2 have high power. But the power of W_n^2 grows slightly faster as a increases. When the dimension p is 8, the empirical size of T_n^{ZH} is far from the significance level and its power is much lower than that in the $p = 2$ case. Nevertheless, our test W_n^2 is much less affected by the dimensionality increasing than T_n^{ZH}. These phenomena validate the theoretical results that locally smoothing tests suffer from the dimensionality that causes slower convergence rates under the null and slower divergence rates under the alternative than globally smoothing tests.

We considered a nonlinear null model against alternative models with higher

Table 2. Empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{GWZ}, W_n^2, and T_n^{SGP} for H_0 vs. H_{21}, H_{22} and H_{23} in Example 2.

	a	T_n^{GWZ}		W_n^2		T_n^{SGP}	
		$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$
$H_{23}, X \sim N(0, I_p)$	0.0	0.0450	0.0500	0.0490	0.0500	0.0790	0.0650
	0.2	0.0540	0.0735	0.1075	0.1610	0.1280	0.1640
	0.4	0.0990	0.2030	0.2605	0.5250	0.2100	0.3870
	0.6	0.1905	0.4590	0.4610	0.8350	0.3970	0.6900
	0.8	0.3365	0.7550	0.6625	0.9575	0.5520	0.8660
	1.0	0.4830	0.9120	0.7925	0.9940	0.7120	0.9620
$H_{23}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma)$	0.0	0.0495	0.0480	0.0500	0.0470	0.0710	0.0740
	0.2	0.1385	0.2640	0.3565	0.7110	0.3050	0.5380
	0.4	0.4490	0.8575	0.7930	0.9920	0.6910	0.9610
	0.6	0.7750	0.9935	0.9455	0.9995	0.8970	0.9970
	0.8	0.9005	0.9995	0.9790	1.0000	0.9700	1.0000
	1.0	0.9525	1.0000	0.9925	1.0000	0.9860	1.0000

structural dimensions. A more comprehensive comparison is made between Zheng (1996)'s test T_n^{ZH}, Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015)'s test T_n^{GWZ}, and our test W_n^2.

Example 4. Consider the models

$$H_{41} : Y = \exp(\frac{1}{2}X_1) + aX_2^3 + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{42} : Y = \exp(\frac{1}{2}X_1) + a\{X_2^3 + \cos(\pi X_3) + X_4\} + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{43} : Y = \exp(\frac{1}{2}X_1) + a\{X_2^3 + \cos(\pi X_3) + X_4 - |X_5| + X_6^2 + X_7 \times X_8\} + \varepsilon;$$

where $(X_1, \ldots, X_p)$ was independent of ε and $N(0, I_p)$ with $p = 4$ or 8. Let β_i be the unit vector with the i-th component 1, $i = 1, \ldots, p$ and $a = 0, 0.2, 0.4, \ldots, 1$. When $a \neq 0$, the structural dimension $q = 2, B = (\beta_1, \beta_2)$ for H_{41}; $q = 4, B = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4)$ for H_{42}; $q = 8, B = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_8)$ for H_{43}. Under the alternatives, the models H_{42} and H_{43} do not have dimension reduction structure for $p = 4$ and $p = 8$. This is used to further check the usefulness of the model adaptation method. The simulation results are reported in Figure 2.

From this figure, we can see that when $p = 4$, the performance of our test is slightly better than its two competitors. However, when $p = 8$, Zheng's test T_n^{ZH} behaves much worse than W_n^2 and T_n^{GWZ}. This again indicates that the dimensionality is a severe issue for the locally smoothing test without model adaptation; the adaptive-to-model test T_n^{GWZ} can also work well though it is also locally smoothing-based. For model H_{42} with $p = 4$ and model H_{43} with

Table 3. Empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{ZH} and W_n^2 for H_0 vs. H_{31} in Example 3.

	a	T_n^{ZH}		W_n^2	
		$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	100
$H_{31}, X \sim N(0, I_p), p = 2$	0.0	0.0345	0.0430	0.0465	0.0500
	0.2	0.0820	0.1505	0.2095	0.4375
	0.4	0.3020	0.6170	0.6240	0.9210
	0.6	0.6180	0.9440	0.8615	0.9925
	0.8	0.8410	0.9930	0.9445	1.0000
	1.0	0.9345	0.9995	0.9885	1.0000
$H_{31}, X \sim N(0, I_p), p = 8$	0.0	0.0265	0.0295	0.0500	0.0450
	0.2	0.0260	0.0475	0.2095	0.4190
	0.4	0.0360	0.0850	0.5770	0.9020
	0.6	0.0765	0.1640	0.8100	0.9935
	0.8	0.1145	0.2600	0.9260	0.9980
	1.0	0.1635	0.3805	0.9560	1.0000
$H_{31}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma), p = 2$	0.0	0.0315	0.0390	0.0520	0.0475
	0.2	0.0930	0.1565	0.2335	0.4660
	0.4	0.3250	0.6530	0.6275	0.9305
	0.6	0.6515	0.9550	0.8690	0.9955
	0.8	0.8740	0.9985	0.9510	1.0000
	1.0	0.9550	1.0000	0.9775	1.0000
$H_{31}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma), p = 8$	0.0	0.0185	0.0350	0.0465	0.0530
	0.2	0.0695	0.1495	0.5565	0.9055
	0.4	0.2045	0.4365	0.9330	1.0000
	0.6	0.3370	0.7320	0.9835	1.0000
	0.8	0.4740	0.8580	0.9930	1.0000
	1.0	0.5545	0.9200	0.9970	1.0000

$p = 8$, W_n^2 and T_n^{GWZ} still work well in the power performance, even though the model has no dimension reduction structure when $a \neq 0$. Further, the globally smoothing-based test procedure shows its advantage as our test W_n^2 can outperform T_n^{GWZ} when have the model adaptation property.

We looked at elliptically contoured distributions as to simlicity.

Example 5. The data were generated from the models

$$H_{51} : Y = \beta_0^\top X + a \cos(\frac{\pi}{2} \beta_0^\top X) + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{52} : Y = \beta_0^\top X + \frac{1}{2} a (\beta_0^\top X)^2 + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{53} : Y = \beta_1^\top X + \frac{1}{4} a \exp(\beta_2^\top X) + \varepsilon;$$

$$H_{54} : Y = \beta_1^\top X + \frac{1}{2} a (\beta_2^\top X)^2 + \varepsilon,$$

Table 4. Empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{ZH} and W_n^2 for H_0 vs. H_{32} in Example 3.

	a	T_n^{ZH}		W_n^2	
		$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$
$H_{32}, X \sim N(0, I_p), p = 2$	0.0	0.034	0.0455	0.0530	0.0500
	0.2	0.083	0.1155	0.1215	0.2050
	0.4	0.250	0.4730	0.3430	0.6100
	0.6	0.524	0.8480	0.6200	0.9195
	0.8	0.782	0.9785	0.8540	0.9920
	1.0	0.935	0.9985	0.9575	0.9995
$H_{32}, X \sim N(0, I_p), p = 8$	0.0	0.0215	0.0265	0.0550	0.0480
	0.2	0.0285	0.0375	0.1185	0.1970
	0.4	0.0475	0.0760	0.3215	0.5830
	0.6	0.0650	0.1550	0.5690	0.8910
	0.8	0.1280	0.2930	0.7965	0.9900
	1.0	0.1765	0.4210	0.9230	1.0000
$H_{32}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma), p = 2$	0.0	0.0310	0.0430	0.0510	0.0515
	0.2	0.0745	0.1410	0.1205	0.1880
	0.4	0.2545	0.4900	0.3190	0.5955
	0.6	0.5420	0.8540	0.6160	0.9150
	0.8	0.8105	0.9835	0.8400	0.9880
	1.0	0.9420	0.9990	0.9480	0.9995
$H_{32}, X \sim N(0, \Sigma), p = 8$	0.0	0.0270	0.0295	0.0520	0.0470
	0.2	0.0235	0.0395	0.0885	0.1430
	0.4	0.0485	0.0770	0.1895	0.3720
	0.6	0.0725	0.1480	0.3750	0.7000
	0.8	0.1145	0.2845	0.5705	0.9015
	1.0	0.1900	0.4605	0.7465	0.9715

where $\beta_0 = (1, \cdots, 1)/\sqrt{p}$, $\beta_1 = (\underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{p/2}, 0, \ldots, 0)^\top/\sqrt{p/2}$, $\beta_2 = (0, \ldots, 0, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{p/2})/\sqrt{p/2}$ and $p = 8$. The p components of the predictor vector X were independent χ_1^2 and the errors ε were $N(0, 1)$. The simulation results are reported in Table 5. We can see that the proposed test has uniformly lower empirical size than the significance level, although for models H_{51} and H_{52}, it works fairly well. This suggests that the assumption of elliptically contoured distribution is important for this test.

4.3. Data analysis

This data set was used to understand various self-noise mechanisms. The data set is available at UCI Machine Learning Repository `https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Airfoil+Self-Noise`. There are 1,503 observations
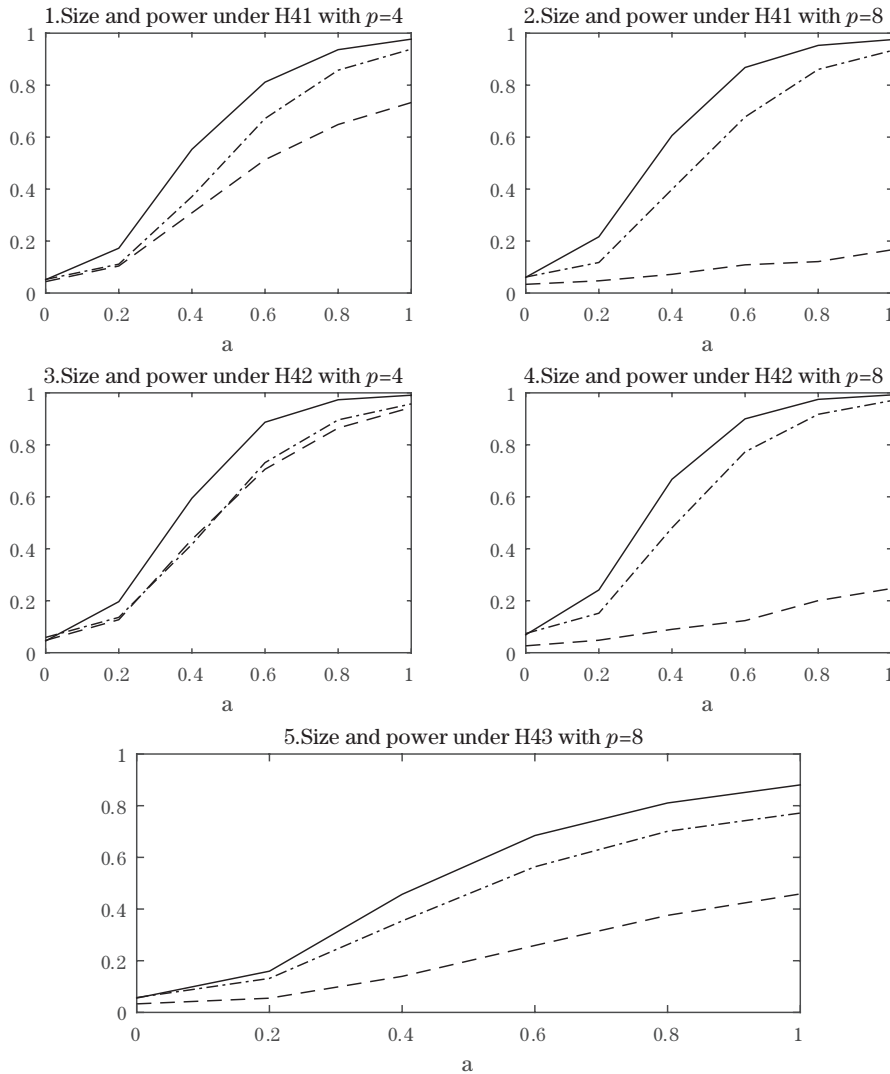
Figure 2. The empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{ZH}, T_n^{GWZ}, and W_n^2 in Example 4. The dash, dash-dotted and solid line denote the results of T_n^{ZH}, T_n^{GWZ}, and W_n^2 respectively.

on one output variable: Scaled sound pressure level Y (in decibels), and five in-put variables: Frequency X_1 (in Hertzs), Angle of attack X_2 (in degrees), Chord length X_3 (in meters), Free-stream velocity X_4 (in meters per second) and Suction side displacement thickness X_5 (in meters). All the variables were standardized separately. To establish a regression relationship between Y and the covariates $X = (X_1, \cdots, X_5)$, we tried the simple model first. When dimension reduction was applied, we found that Y may be conditionally independent of X given a pro-

Table 5. Empirical sizes and powers of T_n^{GWZ}, W_n^2 and T_n^{SGP} for H_0 vs. H_{51}, H_{52}, H_{53} and H_{54} in Example 5.

	a	T_n^{GWZ}		W_n^2		T_n^{SGP}	
		$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$	$n = 50$	$n = 100$
H_{51},	0.0	0.0410	0.0415	0.0520	0.0430	0.0800	0.0740
$X_1, \cdots, X_p i.i.d. \sim \chi_1^2$	0.2	0.0780	0.1385	0.0890	0.1170	0.1120	0.1430
	0.4	0.1955	0.4415	0.1630	0.3310	0.2170	0.3720
	0.6	0.3945	0.7980	0.2790	0.5900	0.3880	0.6410
	0.8	0.6100	0.9660	0.4195	0.8035	0.5710	0.8470
	1.0	0.7825	0.9965	0.5415	0.9180	0.6920	0.9510
H_{52},	0.0	0.0340	0.0370	0.0470	0.0485	0.0690	0.0580
$X_1, \cdots, X_p i.i.d. \sim \chi_1^2$	0.2	0.3735	0.7460	0.6160	0.9415	0.6290	0.9450
	0.4	0.8715	0.9990	0.9650	1.0000	0.9740	1.0000
	0.6	0.9825	1.0000	0.9985	1.0000	0.9980	1.0000
	0.8	0.9975	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
	1.0	0.9995	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
H_{53},	0.0	0.0265	0.0300	0.0130	0.0120	0.0720	0.0700
$X_1, \cdots, X_p i.i.d. \sim \chi_1^2$	0.2	0.4830	0.8610	0.2630	0.4950	0.5940	0.6130
	0.4	0.6230	0.9135	0.2605	0.3820	0.5650	0.5400
	0.6	0.6795	0.9270	0.2095	0.3300	0.4970	0.4520
	0.8	0.7105	0.9255	0.1945	0.2865	0.4880	0.4330
	1.0	0.7320	0.9335	0.1800	0.2975	0.4720	0.4090
H_{54},	0.0	0.0285	0.0265	0.0130	0.0180	0.0660	0.0600
$X_1, \cdots, X_p i.i.d. \sim \chi_1^2$	0.2	0.1380	0.2910	0.2390	0.5385	0.3630	0.5840
	0.4	0.4200	0.8230	0.6265	0.9575	0.6900	0.9550
	0.6	0.6555	0.9705	0.8105	0.9980	0.8830	0.9950
	0.8	0.8250	0.9960	0.8930	0.9995	0.9540	1.0000
	1.0	0.9030	0.9995	0.9180	0.9995	0.9800	1.0000

jected covariate $\beta_1^\top X$ in which the direction β_1 is searched by DEE. The scatter plot in Figure 3 shows a seemly linear relationship.

To further explore the exhaustive search of projected covariates, we used the second projected covariate searched by DEE, and the scatter plot of Y against $(\beta_1^\top X, \beta_2^\top X)$ is presented in Figure 4.

Clearly, the second direction β_2 is not necessary, the projection of the data onto the space $\beta_1^\top X$ contains almost all the information on model structure. Thus, we use a linear model to fit the data with the direction $\hat{\beta}_1^\top = (-0.6323, -0.4339, -0.5339, 0.2386, -0.2644)$. To test whether the linear model is adequate, we used our test. The value of the test statistic $W_n^2 = 7.5322$ and the p-value was about 0. Hence we needed to further explore a possible model. And a cubic polynomial of $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ looked surmising. The fitted curve is added into the
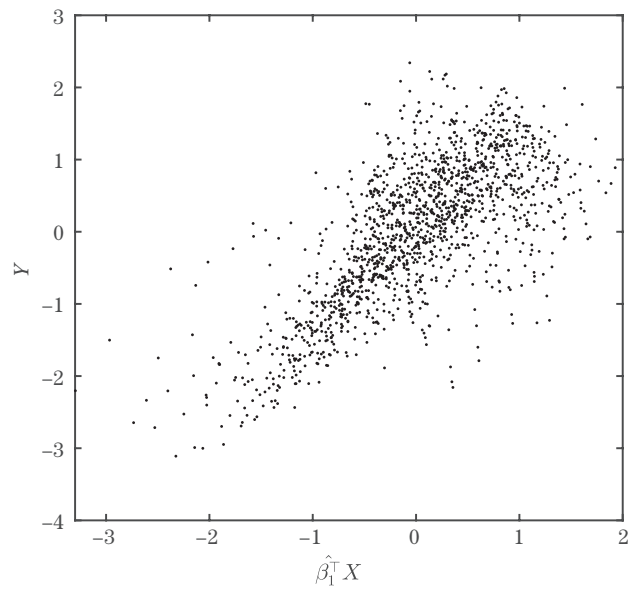
Figure 3. Scatter plot of the response against the $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ in which the direction $\hat{\beta}_1$ is obtained by DEE.
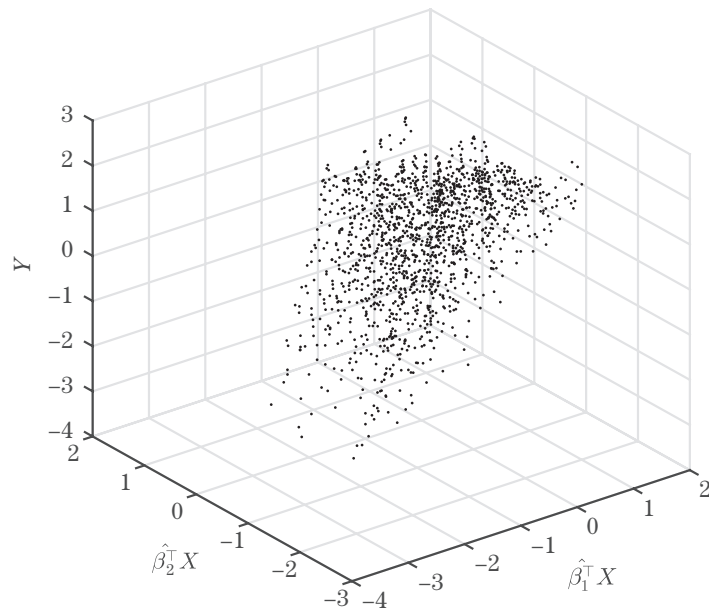

Figure 4. Scatter plot of the response against the $(\hat{\beta}_1^\top X, \hat{\beta}_2^\top X)$ in which the directions $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are obtained by DEE.
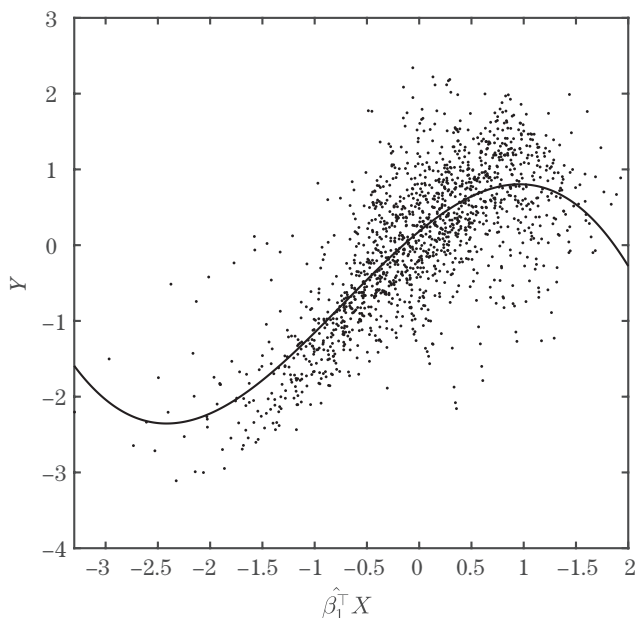
Figure 5. Plot of Y against $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ obtained by DEE and the fitted cubic polynomial curve.

scatter plot. See Figure 5.

We present the residual plot against $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ in Figure 6. From this plot, the fitting should be appropriate although the dispersion about the value 0 of $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ seems slightly larger than in other places. Overall, the dispersion change against $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ is very significant. Thus a working model was used to fit this dataset as

$$Y = \theta_1 + \theta_2(\beta^\top X) + \theta_3(\beta^\top X)^2 + \theta_4(\beta^\top X)^3 + \varepsilon.$$

The value of the test statistic $W_n^2 = 0.1596$ and the p-value is 0.70. The model is plausible.

5. Discussions

In this paper, we propose a projection-based test that is based on residual marked empirical process and an adaptive-to-model martingale transformation. Compared to existing projection-based tests, the new test have the asymptotically distribution-free property under the null hypothesis and the omnibus property under the alternative hypothesis. It is noted that our test is particularly useful for the models with single index. If we consider multiple index in model (1.1), a test can be constructed as long as we can well estimate the multiple index β_0 and θ_0, but the limiting null distribution is not tractable. This method is now
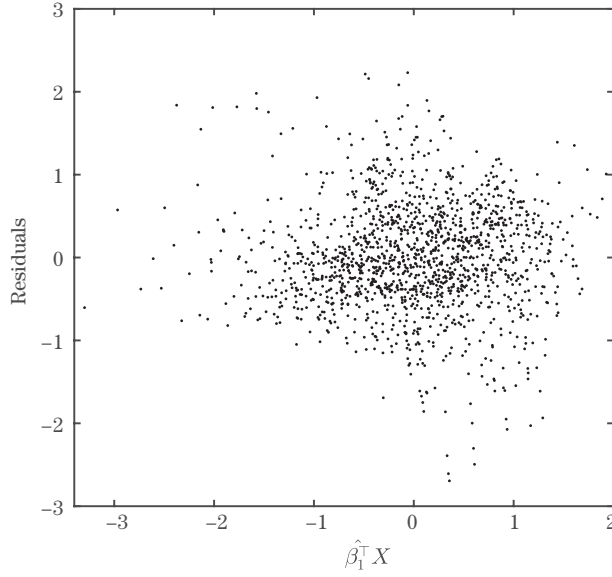
Figure 6. Scatter plot of residuals against $\hat{\beta}_1^\top X$ in which the direction $\hat{\beta}_1^\top$ is obtained by DEE.

for models with dimension reduction structure. It is of interest to investigate extension of the method to models without such kind of structure. The research is ongoing.

Appendix

Proof of Lemma 1. Under the regularity conditions given by Zhu et al. (2010a), Theorem 2 therein asserts that $M_n - M = O_p(n^{-1/2})$. Following the analogous argument of Zhu and Ng (1995) or Zhu and Fang (1996), we have $\hat{\lambda}_i - \lambda_i = O_p(n^{-1/2})$ for $i = 1, \cdots, p$.

(I) Under H_0, since $dim(\mathcal{S}_{Y|X}) = 1$, we have $\lambda_1 > 0, \lambda_l = 0$ for any $l > 1$. Therefore, $\hat{\lambda}_1^2 = \lambda_1^2 + O_p(n^{-1/2})$ and $\hat{\lambda}_l^2 = O_p(n^{-1}), l = 2, \ldots, p$. Hence, for any $l > 1$,

$$\frac{\hat{\lambda}_2^2 + c_n}{\hat{\lambda}_1^2 + c_n} = \frac{c_n + O_p(1/n)}{\lambda_1^2 + c_n + O_p(1/\sqrt{n})} \to 0,$$

$$\frac{\hat{\lambda}_{l+1}^2 + c_n}{\hat{\lambda}_l^2 + c_n} = \frac{c_n + O_p(1/n)}{c_n + O_p(1/n)} \to 1.$$

Therefore, the minimizer $\hat{q} = 1$ with a probability going to 1.

(II) Under the alternative H_1, $dim(\mathcal{S}_{Y|X}) = q$, we have $\lambda_l > 0$ and $\hat{\lambda}_l^2 =$

$\lambda_l^2 + O_p(1/\sqrt{n})$ for $l = 1, \ldots, q$ and $\hat{\lambda}_l^2 = O_p(1/n)$ for $l = q+1, \ldots, p$. Hence, for $l < q$

$$\frac{\hat{\lambda}_{q+1}^2 + c_n}{\hat{\lambda}_q^2 + c_n} - \frac{\hat{\lambda}_{l+1}^2 + c_n}{\hat{\lambda}_l^2 + c_n} = \frac{c_n + O_p(1/n)}{\lambda_q^2 + c_n + O_p(1/\sqrt{n})} - \frac{\lambda_{l+1}^2 + c_n + O_p(1/\sqrt{n})}{\lambda_l^2 + c_n + O_p(1/\sqrt{n})}$$

$$\to -\frac{\lambda_{l+1}^2}{\lambda_l^2} < 0.$$

For $l > q$

$$\frac{\hat{\lambda}_{q+1}^2 + c_n}{\hat{\lambda}_q^2 + c_n} - \frac{\hat{\lambda}_{l+1}^2 + c_n}{\hat{\lambda}_l^2 + c_n} = \frac{c_n + O_p(1/n)}{\lambda_q^2 + c_n + O_p(1/\sqrt{n})} - \frac{c_n + O_p(1/n)}{c_n + O_p(1/n)} \to -1 < 0.$$

Therefore, we can conclude that $Pr(\hat{q} = q) \longrightarrow 1$.

Proof of Theorem 1. Under the null hypothesis, $Pr(\hat{q} = 1) \to 1$. Thus we can work only on the event $\hat{q} = 1$ as the probability of the event $\hat{q} \neq 1$ tends to 0. Then $\hat{\alpha} = 1$ and $V_n(u) = V_n(u, \hat{\alpha})$. Decompose the term $V_n(u)$ as

$$V_n(u) = V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n \{Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)\} I(\hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u)$$

$$= n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n \{Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)\} I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \leq u) +$$

$$n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n \{Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)\} [I(\hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u) - I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \leq u)]$$

$$\equiv: V_{1n} + V_{2n},$$

where $\kappa = 1/\|\beta_0\|$. Following the analogous argument of Theorem 1 in Stute and Zhu (2002), we obtain $V_{1n} \longrightarrow V_\infty - M(u)^\top V \equiv V_\infty^1$ and V_{2n} tends to zero uniformly in u.

Proof of Lemma 2. Using the notation in the proof of Lemma 1 and following the analogous argument for proving Theorem 2 in Guo, Wang and Zhu (2015), we obtain $M_n - M = O_p(n^{-1/2})$; therefore $\hat{\lambda}_i - \lambda_i = O_p(n^{-1/2})$ for $i = 1, \cdots, p$. Note that $\lambda_l = 0$ for any $l > 1$. The proof is concluded from the arguments for proving Lemma 1.

Proof of Theorem 2. We work only on the event $\hat{q} = 1$ as $q = 1$ under the null hypothesis. Let $V_n^2(u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)] I(\hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u)$. Under the null, $\hat{\alpha} = 1$ and $\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) = T_n V_n^2(u)$. More explicitly,

$$T_n V_n^2(u) = V_n^2(u) - \int_{-\infty}^u a_n(v)^\top A_n^{-1}(v) \left(\int_v^\infty a_n(z) V_n^2(dz) \right) \sigma_n^2(v) F_{1n}(dv).$$

Let $V_n^1(u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)] I(\hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u)$. Then

$$T_n V_n^1(u) = V_n^1(u) - \int_{-\infty}^u a_n(v)^\top A_n^{-1}(v) \left(\int_v^\infty a_n(z) V_n^1(dz) \right) \sigma_n^2(v) F_{1n}(dv).$$

Here F_{1n} is the empirical distribution function of $\hat{B}_n^\top X_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$. As with the arguments for proving Lemma 3.2 and Theorem 1.3 in Stute, Thies and Zhu (1998), we obtain

$$T_n V_n^2(u) = T_n V_n^1(u) + o_p(1),$$
$$T_n V_n^1(u) = T V_n^1(u) + o_p(1).$$

Under H_0 we have $V_n^0(u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)] I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \leq u)$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
T V_n^0(u) - T V_n^1(u) &= V_n^0(u) - V_n^1(u) \\
&\quad - \int_{-\infty}^u a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) \int_v^\infty a(z) V_n^0(dz) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa \beta_0}(dv) \\
&\quad + \int_{-\infty}^u a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) \int_v^\infty a(z) V_n^1(dz) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa \beta_0}(dv).
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the proof for Theorem 1 in Stute and Zhu (2002), we obtain that $T V_n^0 - T V_n^1 = o_p(1)$ uniformly in u. Therefore Lemma 3.3 in Stute, Thies and Zhu (1998) gives our result.

Proof of Theorem 3.

(I) First we consider the global alternative hypothesis. Under the alternative H_1, Lemma 1 asserts that $Pr(\hat{q} = q) \to 1$, thus we work on the event $\hat{q} = q, \hat{\alpha} = \alpha = (a_1, \ldots, a_q)^\top$. On this event, $\sup_{\hat{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}_{\hat{q}}^+} T_n V_n(u, \hat{\alpha}) = \sup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{S}_q^+} T_n V_n(u, \alpha)$. Let $\delta_n = (\beta_n^\top, \theta_n^\top)^\top$ and $\delta_0 = (\beta_0^\top, \theta_0^\top)^\top$. According to White (1981), we have $\sqrt{n}(\delta_n - \tilde{\delta}_0) = O_p(1)$, where $\tilde{\delta}_0$ may not be equal to the true value δ_0 under the null hypothesis.

Take

$$V_n^1(u, \alpha) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\tilde{\beta}_0^\top X_i, \tilde{\theta}_0)] I(\alpha^\top \hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u),$$

$$V_n^2(u, \alpha) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\tilde{\beta}_0^\top X_i, \tilde{\theta}_0)] I(\alpha^\top B^\top X_i \leq u).$$

As in the proof for Theorem 3.2, we obtain that

$$n^{-1/2}[T_n V_n(u, \alpha) - T_n V_n^1(u, \alpha)] = o_p(1),$$
$$n^{-1/2}[T_n V_n^1(u, \alpha) - T V_n^2(u, \alpha)] = o_p(1).$$

Here

$$n^{-1/2}TV_n^2(u,\alpha) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\tilde\beta_0^\top X_i, \tilde\theta_0)]I(\alpha^\top B^\top X_i \le u)$$
$$-\frac{1}{\sqrt n}\int_{-\infty}^u a_1(v,\alpha)^\top A_1^{-1}(v,\alpha)\int_v^\infty a_1(z,\alpha)V_n^2(dz)\sigma_1^2(v,\alpha)F_\alpha(dv).$$

From

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt n}\int_v^\infty a_1(z,\alpha)V_n^2(dz) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n I(\alpha^\top B^\top X_i \ge v)a_1(\alpha^\top B^\top X_i, \alpha)[Y_i - g(\tilde\beta_0^\top X_i, \tilde\theta_0)],$$

we derive that, under H_1,

$$n^{-1/2}TV_n^2(u,\alpha) \to \int_{-\infty}^u H(v,\alpha)F_\alpha(dv)$$
$$-\int_{-\infty}^u a_1(v,\alpha)^\top A_1^{-1}(v,\alpha)a_2(v,\alpha)\sigma_1^2(v,\alpha)F_\alpha(dv),$$

where F_α is the distribution function of $\alpha^\top B^\top X$ and

$$H(v,\alpha) = E(G(B^\top X) - g(\tilde\beta_0^\top X, \tilde\theta_0)|\alpha^\top B^\top X = v),$$
$$\sigma_1^2(v,\alpha) = E[(G(B^\top X) - g(\tilde\beta_0^\top X, \tilde\theta_0))^2 + \varepsilon^2|\alpha^\top B^\top X = v],$$
$$a_1(v,\alpha) = \left\{g_1\left(\frac{v}{\kappa_1}, \tilde\theta_0\right)\frac{E(X^\top|\alpha^\top B^\top X = v)}{\sigma_1^2(v,\alpha)}, \frac{g_2(v/\kappa_1, \tilde\theta_0)}{\sigma_1^2(v,\alpha)}\right\}^\top,$$
$$A_1(v,\alpha) = E\{I(\alpha^\top B^\top X \ge v)a_1(\alpha^\top B^\top X, \alpha)(g_1(\tilde\beta_0^\top X, \tilde\theta_0)X^\top, g_2(\tilde\beta_0^\top X, \tilde\theta_0))\},$$
$$a_2(v,\alpha) = E\{I(\alpha^\top B^\top X \ge v)a_1(\alpha^\top B^\top X, \alpha)(G(B^\top X) - g(\tilde\beta_0^\top X, \tilde\theta_0))\}.$$

Hence we conclude that

$$n^{-1/2}T_nV_n(u,\alpha) \to \int_{-\infty}^u H(v,\alpha)F_\alpha(dv)$$
$$-\int_{-\infty}^u a_1(v,\alpha)^\top A_1^{-1}(v,\alpha)a_2(v,\alpha)\sigma_1^2(v,\alpha)F_\alpha(dv).$$

Therefore
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt n}\sup_{\hat\alpha\in\mathcal{S}_{\hat q}}T_nV_n(u,\hat\alpha) \to \text{ some nonzero function.}$$

The resulting test statistic converges to infinity at the rate of $O(\sqrt n)$.

(II) Under the local alternatives H_{1n}, Lemma 2 asserts that $P(\hat q = 1) \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$, thus we consider the event $\hat q = 1$. Let

$$V_n^2(u) = n^{-1/2}\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(\beta_n^\top X_i, \theta_n)]I(\hat B_n^\top X_i \le u).$$

With $\hat\alpha = 1$, $\hat B_n$ is a vector, and $\sup_{\hat\alpha\in\mathcal{S}_{\hat q}}T_nV_n(u,\hat\alpha) = T_nV_n^2(u)$, let

$$V_n^1(u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)] I(\hat{B}_n^\top X_i \leq u).$$

Following the argument for proving Theorem 3.3 we obtain that

$$T_n V_n^2(u) = T_n V_n^1(u) + o_p(1),$$
$$T_n V_n^1(u) = TV_n^1(u) + o_p(1),$$
$$TV_n^0(u) = TV_n^1(u) + o_p(1).$$

To finish the proof, it remains to derive the limit of $TV_n^0(u)$. We have that $V_n^0(u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)] I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \leq u)$ and

$$TV_n^0(u) = V_n^0(u) - \int_{-\infty}^{u} a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) \int_{v}^{\infty} a(z) V_n^0(dz) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv).$$

Here $\sigma^2(u) = E(\varepsilon^2 | \kappa \beta_0^\top X = u)$. Under the local alternative H_{1n},

$$V_n^0(u) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} G(B^\top X_i) I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \leq u) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varepsilon_i I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \leq u).$$

For the second term in $TV_n^0(u)$,

$$\int_{v}^{\infty} a(z) V_n^0(dz) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \geq v) a(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i) [Y_i - g(\beta_0^\top X_i, \theta_0)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \geq v) a(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i) G(B^\top X_i)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i \geq v) a(\kappa \beta_0^\top X_i) \varepsilon_i.$$

Hence we can conclude that

$$TV_n^0(u) \to \tilde{V}_\infty^1(u) + \int_{-\infty}^{u} [H_0(v) - a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) W(v) \sigma^2(v)] F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv),$$

where $H_0(v) = E[G(B^\top X) | \kappa \beta_0^\top X = v]$, $W(v) = \int_{v}^{\infty} a(z) H_0(z) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dz)$ and $\tilde{V}_\infty^1(u)$ is a zero-mean Gaussian process with covariance function

$$\tilde{K}(s,t) = E\{\varepsilon^2 [I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \leq s)$$

$$- \int_{-\infty}^{s} a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) a(\kappa \beta_0^\top X) I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \geq v) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv)]$$

$$\times [I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \leq t) - \int_{-\infty}^{t} a(v)^\top A^{-1}(v) a(\kappa \beta_0^\top X) I(\kappa \beta_0^\top X \geq v) \sigma^2(v) F_{\kappa\beta_0}(dv)]\}.$$

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