Generalised Forecast Averaging in Autoregressions with a Near Unit Root

Mohitosh Kejriwal† and Xuewen Yu†

†Krannert School of Management, Purdue University, 403 West State Street, West Lafayette, IN 47907, US.
E-mail: mkejriwa@purdue.edu, yu656@purdue.edu

Summary This paper develops a new approach to forecasting a highly persistent time series that employs feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) estimation of the deterministic components in conjunction with Mallows model averaging. Within a local-to-unity asymptotic framework, we derive analytical expressions for the asymptotic mean squared error and one-step ahead mean squared forecast risk of the proposed estimator and show that the optimal FGLS weights are different from their ordinary least squares (OLS) counterparts. We also provide theoretical justification for a generalized Mallows averaging estimator that incorporates lag order uncertainty in the construction of the forecast. Monte Carlo simulations demonstrate that the proposed procedure yields considerably lower finite sample forecast risk relative to OLS averaging. An application to US macroeconomic time series illustrates the efficacy of the advocated method in practice and finds that both persistence and lag order uncertainty have important implications for the accuracy of forecasts.

Keywords: model averaging, local to unity, generalized least squares, forecast combination

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, a variety of methods has been developed in both the statistics and econometrics literatures for estimation and inference with highly persistent time series. Following Chan and Wei (1987) and Phillips (1987), a highly persistent time series is typically modeled as one with an autoregressive root local to unity (\(\alpha = 1 + c/T\)), thereby permitting analysis of the stationary (\(|\alpha| < 1\)) and the nonstationary (\(\alpha = 1\)) cases within a unified asymptotic framework. Local-to-unity limit theory has been fruitfully employed to develop efficient unit root tests (e.g., Elliott et al., 1996), uniformly valid confidence intervals in autoregressive models (e.g., Hansen, 1999; Mikusheva, 2007) and robust inferential methods in predictive regressions (e.g., Phillips, 2014; 2015). The primary technical difficulty in this modeling framework arises from the fact that the noncentrality parameter \(c\) cannot be consistently estimated.

While a substantial body of work has addressed issues related to estimation and inference, the problem of forecasting a highly persistent time series has received relatively less attention. The essence of the forecasting problem lies in the bias-variance tradeoff whereby imposing a unit root reduces estimation uncertainty at the expense of potential model misspecification while unrestricted estimation can lead to high forecast risk due to variance inflation. Franses and Kleibergen (1996) apply the restricted and unrestricted models to the Nelson-Plosser dataset and argue that the restricted model is preferred in a variety of sample sizes and forecast horizons. Diebold and Kilian (2000) suggest that unit root pretesting improves forecast accuracy relative to restricted or unrestricted estimation. Kim (2001, 2003) and Clements and Kim (2007) investigate the impact of
various bias correction methods on point forecasts and prediction intervals for univariate autoregressive models and find that bias correction delivers considerable gains in forecast accuracy for unit root or near-unit root autoregressive models.

Forecast combination, pioneered by the work of Bates and Granger (1969) and Granger and Ramanathan (1984), provides a useful, practical approach to constructing forecasts that can effectively capture the bias-variance tradeoff inherent in the individual forecasts. In the present context of forecasting a highly persistent time series, Hansen (2010) suggests combining forecasts from the restricted and unrestricted models with weights determined by optimizing a Mallows criterion, designed to provide an approximately unbiased estimator of the in-sample asymptotic mean squared error. Hansen’s (2010) results strongly caution against using the pretesting method, which exhibits high risk over a range of persistence levels (values of $c$), while simulations show his Mallows model averaging forecast performs well relative to a number of commonly employed methods and dominates the unrestricted forecast uniformly in terms of finite sample forecast risk.

In the standard stationary framework, the classic result of Grenander and Rosenblatt (1957) shows that generalized least squares (GLS) and ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation of the deterministic components are asymptotically equivalent so that no efficiency gains are available from employing the former, at least in large samples. In a local-to-unity setup, however, the situation is different. Phillips and Lee (1996) and Canjels and Watson (1997) document the reduction in asymptotic variance afforded by GLS estimation while its implications for forecasting are explored in Stock (1996) and Ng and Vogelsang (2002).

Motivated by these findings, this paper develops a new approach to forecasting a highly persistent time series that employs feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) estimation of the deterministic components in conjunction with Mallows model averaging. Within a local-to-unity asymptotic framework, we derive analytical expressions for the in-sample asymptotic mean squared error (AMSE) and one-step ahead mean squared forecast risk (MSFE) of the proposed estimator and show that the optimal FGLS weights are different from their OLS counterparts. We also provide theoretical justification for a generalized Mallows averaging estimator that incorporates lag order uncertainty in the construction of the forecast. Specifically, the generalized Mallows criterion follows from an asymptotic framework where the coefficients of the lagged differences are modeled as local to zero simultaneously with the largest autoregressive root being modeled as local to unity. Monte Carlo simulations illustrate that the proposed procedure yields considerably lower finite sample forecast risk relative to OLS averaging, with the improvements being particularly pronounced when the model includes a deterministic trend. Finally, a comparative out-of-sample forecasting exercise applied to US macroeconomic time series demonstrates the potential of the advocated method and finds that both persistence and lag order uncertainty have important implications for the accuracy of forecasts.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the model setup and FGLS estimation procedures. Section 3 introduces our FGLS Mallows model averaging estimator. Section 4 discusses general Mallows averaging strategies with both OLS and FGLS estimation. Monte Carlo simulation results and comparisons are provided in section 5. Section 6 presents the empirical application and section 7 concludes. The Online Supplement includes three Appendices. Appendix A contains proofs of the theoretical

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1 In related work, Liu et al. (2016) propose model averaging based on feasible GLS to account for the presence of heteroskedastic errors in a standard stationary regression framework.
results, Appendix B contains detailed Monte Carlo results, and Appendix C contains additional empirical results.

2. MODEL AND ESTIMATION

We consider an observed time series composed of deterministic and stochastic components as in Hansen (2010):

\[ y_t = m_t + u_t \]
\[ m_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \ldots + \beta_p t^p \]
\[ u_t = \alpha u_{t-1} + \alpha_1 \Delta u_{t-1} + \cdots + \alpha_k \Delta u_{t-k} + e_t \]
\[ \alpha = 1 + \frac{ac}{T}, \quad a = 1 - \alpha_1 - \cdots - \alpha_k, \quad c \leq 0 \] (2.1)

where \( p \in \{0, 1\} \) is the order of the trend component and the stochastic component \( u_t \) follows an autoregressive process of order \((k + 1)\) process driven by the innovations \( e_t \). The persistence parameter \( \alpha \) is modeled as local to unity with \( c = 0 \) corresponding to the unit root case and \( c < 0 \) to the stationary case. The true lag order \( k \) is assumed known in this section. Lag order uncertainty will be addressed in section 4. The initial observations are set at \( u_0, u_{-1}, \ldots, u_{-k} = O_p(1) \). Our analysis is based on the following assumptions:

**Assumption 2.1.** The sequence \( \{e_t\} \) is a martingale difference sequence with \( E(e_t|e_{t-1}, e_{t-2}, \ldots) = 0 \) and \( E(e_t^2|e_{t-1}, e_{t-2}, \ldots) = \sigma^2 \).

**Assumption 2.2.** All roots of \( A(L) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i L^i \) lie outside the unit circle.

Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2 are standard and made in Hansen (2010) thereby allowing comparison with his analysis. We denote the optimal (infeasible) mean squared error minimizing one-step ahead forecast as \( y_{t+1|t} \). It is the conditional mean \( \mu_{t+1} \) given the true parameter values, namely,

\[ \mu_{t+1} = m_{t+1} + \alpha(y_t - m_t) + \alpha_1(\Delta y_t - \Delta m_t) + \cdots + \alpha_k(\Delta y_{t-k+1} - \Delta m_{t-k+1}) \] (2.2)

While \( \mu_{t+1} \) is unique, its feasible counterpart is not. Estimation of the conditional mean is associated with two important sources of uncertainty. The first emanates from uncertainty regarding the nature of persistence given that the parameter \( c \) is unknown and cannot be consistently estimated. Unrestricted estimation (i.e., simple OLS) avoids omitted variable bias while restricted \((c = 0)\) regression offers the possibility to achieve variance reduction. The local-to-unity parameterization ensures that squared model biases and estimator variances have the same order of magnitude. In order to optimize the bias-variance tradeoff, Hansen (2010) proposes averaging the unrestricted and restricted estimators with weights determined according to the Mallows criterion, which is designed to provide an approximately unbiased estimate of the in-sample AMSE. He derives analytical expressions for the AMSE and MSFE of unrestricted, restricted, pretest and the Mallows model averaging (MMA) estimators and finds they are functions only of \( c \), which facilitates graphical comparisons and provides the evolving patterns of the forecast risk

\[ \text{AMSE} = \text{Mean Square Error} \]

\[ \text{MSFE} = \text{Mean Squared Forecast Error} \]

\[ \text{MMA} = \text{Mallows Model Averaging} \]

2The conclusion for the subsequent analysis will not be affected as long as the initial observations are \( o_p(T^{1/2}) \).
of alternative methods with respect to $c$. His theoretical and numerical results support the use of the MMA estimator relative to its competitors.

A second source of uncertainty results from estimating the deterministic component with highly persistent errors. Grenander and Rosenblatt (1957) show that OLS and GLS estimates of the trend component are asymptotically equivalent in the standard stationary framework ($\alpha < 1$, $\alpha$ fixed). In the local-to-unity framework, however, Phillips and Lee (1996) and Canjes and Watson (1997) establish that GLS can be asymptotically more efficient than OLS with respect to estimation of the trend parameters while Ng and Vogelsang (2002) provide analytical and simulation evidence comparing OLS with two different FGLS estimators, namely those based on the Cochrane-Orcutt (CO) and Prais-Winsten (PW) transformations, and find that FGLS based on the latter transformation generally dominates the others in terms of forecast accuracy.

Our paper aims to integrate FGLS estimation with Mallows model averaging to investigate if further improvements in forecasting performance can be achieved in the presence of the two aforementioned sources of uncertainty. Specifically, we propose an averaging strategy combining unrestricted and restricted FGLS estimators, whose weights are determined by a Mallows criterion. In what follows, the unrestricted and restricted FGLS estimates of $\mu_t$ are denoted by $\hat{\mu}_t$ and $\tilde{\mu}_t$, respectively. We first state how unrestricted FGLS estimation works for model (2.1). For brevity, we enumerate the steps only for $p = 1$, with obvious modifications in place for $p = 0$.

**Step 1.** Estimate by OLS the regression

$$y_t = z_t^0 \beta^* + \alpha y_{t-1} + \alpha_1 \Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \alpha_k \Delta y_{t-k} + \epsilon_t, \quad t = k + 2, k + 3, \ldots, T$$

where $z_t = (1, t)'$, $\beta^* = (\beta_0^*, \beta_1^*)'$. Denote the estimate of $\alpha$ by $\hat{\alpha}$.

**Step 2.** Consider the Prais-Winsten (PW) transformation to quasi-difference $y^+_t$ and $z^+_t$: for $t = 2, 3, \ldots, T$, $y^+_t = y_t - \hat{\alpha} y_{t-1}$, $z^+_t = z_t - \hat{\alpha} z_{t-1}$, with $y^+_1 = y_1$ and $z^+_1 = z_1$.

**Step 3.** Regress quasi-differenced data $y^+_t$ on $z^+_t$ to get trend estimates: $\hat{\beta} = (z^+_t z^+_t)^{-1} (z^+_t y^+_t)$.

**Step 4.** Construct detrended data $\hat{u}_t = y_t - z^+_t \hat{\beta}$, regress detrended data on its lags:

$$\hat{u}_t = \alpha \hat{u}_{t-1} + \alpha_1 \Delta \hat{u}_{t-1} + \cdots + \alpha_k \Delta \hat{u}_{t-k} + \xi_t, \quad t = k + 2, \ldots, T$$

Obtain autoregressive parameter estimates $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\alpha}_1, \ldots, \hat{\alpha}_k$.

**Step 5.** Construct the feasible one-step ahead forecast $\hat{y}_{T+1}|T = \tilde{\mu}_{T+1} = z^+_T \hat{\beta} + \hat{\alpha} (y_T - z^+_T \hat{\beta}) + \hat{\alpha}_1 (\Delta y_T - \Delta z^+_T \hat{\beta}) + \cdots + \hat{\alpha}_k (\Delta y_{T-k+1} - \Delta z^+_T \hat{\beta})$.

To obtain the restricted FGLS estimate $\tilde{\mu}_t$, the procedure is same as that outlined above except that we impose $\alpha = 1$ in each step.\(^3\) For $p = 0$, the restricted FGLS estimate is identical to the restricted OLS estimate in Hansen (2010) while the two are asymptotically equivalent for $p = 1$. The difference in finite samples for the latter case arises from the difference between one-step estimation (Hansen, 2010) and two-step estimation (detrend first and then estimate the lag parameters separately). The large sample analysis for the restricted FGLS estimate thus directly follows from Hansen (2010) and is not repeated here to save space.

To evaluate the quality of the unrestricted FGLS estimator, we derive expressions for the in-sample AMSE and one-step ahead MSFE as in Hansen (2010). To this end, define

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\(^3\)The procedures were also implemented using the Roy and Fuller (2001) bias correction. The results were found to be qualitatively similar and hence not reported. They are available upon request.
\( \bar{c} = \lim_{T \to \infty} T(\bar{\sigma} - 1)/a \) with \( \bar{c}^0 \) and \( \bar{c}^1 \) denoting the limits in the \( p = 0 \) and \( p = 1 \) cases, respectively. Next, define the stochastic process

\[
U_p(c, a, r) = \begin{cases} 
(c^0 - c)J_c(r) & \text{for } p = 0 \\
\gamma_1(1 - cr) + (\bar{c}^1 - c)P(r) & \text{for } p = 1
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \gamma_1[P(.)] \) is a random variable [stochastic process] depending on \( a \) and \( c \). Explicit expressions for these quantities are provided in Appendix A. We then have the following result:

**Theorem 2.1.** Under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2,

(a) (AMSE) \( m_1(c, a, p, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)^2 = E \left[ \int_0^1 U_p(c, a, r)^2 dr \right] + k \equiv m_1(c, a, p) + k. \)

(b) \( \lim_{c \to -\infty} m_1(c, a, p, k) = 1 + p + k. \)

(c) (MSFE) \( f_1(c, a, p, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{T}{T} E(\hat{\mu}_{T+1} - \mu_{T+1})^2 = E \left[ U_p(c, a, 1)^2 \right] + k. \)

**Remark 2.1.** Hansen (2010, Theorem 1) shows that the in-sample AMSE of the unconstrained OLS estimate is \( 2 + p + k \), while our result shows that in the FGLS case, the in-sample AMSE is only \( 1 + p + k \). This reduction reflects the fact that FGLS effectively eliminates the uncertainty about the unknown mean. This result thus directly quantifies the improvement from FGLS forecasting in local-to-unity models. Moreover, Theorem 2.1 extends Ng and Vogelsang’s (2002) asymptotic analysis to models with more than one autoregressive lag.

**Remark 2.2.** The random process \( U_p(c, a, \cdot) \) not only depends on \( c \) but also on \( a \) (for \( p = 1 \)). This is different from the OLS case, where the in-sample AMSE of the deterministic component and the AR(1) component are independent of the short-run dynamics. Thus \( m_1(c, a, p) \) depends on \( a \) for fixed \( c \) but becomes independent of \( a \) as \( c \to -\infty \).

With the restricted and unrestricted FGLS estimators in place, the GLS averaging estimator for a given weight vector \([w, 1 - w], w \in [0, 1] \) is defined as

\[
\hat{\mu}_t(w) = w\hat{\mu}_t + (1 - w)\hat{\mu}_t.
\]

Define the stochastic process \( V_p(c, \cdot) \) as

\[
V_p(c, r) = \begin{cases} 
-cJ_c(r) & \text{for } p = 0 \\
-cJ_{c}^1(r) + W(1) & \text{for } p = 1
\end{cases}
\]

with the associated quantities \( m_0(c, p) = E \left[ \int_0^1 V_p(c, r)^2 dr \right] \), \( m_0(c, a, p) = E \left[ \int_0^1 U_p(c, a, r) V_p(c, r) dr \right] \), \( f_1(c, a, p) = E[U_p(c, a, 1)^2] \), \( f_0(c, a, p) = E[V_p(c, 1)^2] \), \( f_0(c, a, p) = E[U_p(c, a, 1)V_p(c, 1)] \).

The in-sample AMSE and MSFE of the averaging estimator are given in the following corollary:

**Corollary 2.1.** (a) \( m_w(c, a, p, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E[\hat{\mu}_t(w) - \mu_t]^2 = w^2 m_1(c, a, p) + (1 - w)^2 m_0(c, a, p) + 2w(1 - w)m_01(c, a, p) + k. \)

(b) \( f_w(c, a, p, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{T}{T} E[\hat{\mu}_{T+1}(w) - \mu_{T+1}]^2 = w^2 f_1(c, a, p) + (1 - w)^2 f_0(c, a, p) + 2w(1 - w)f_01(c, a, p) + k. \)

(c) \( \lim_{c \to -\infty} m_01(c, a, p) = p. \)
As an alternative strategy, one can perform a pretest to choose between the restricted and unrestricted forecasts. Stock (1996) and Diebold and Kilian (2000) show that pretesting is useful for selection of forecasting models while Hansen's (2010) analysis cautions against pretesting due to high finite sample forecast risk for an intermediate range of the parameter (c) space. In the GLS framework, we adopt the Dickey-Fuller GLS ($DF^{GLS}$) $t$-test proposed by Elliott et al. (1996) with the lag length selected using the modified Akaike Information Criterion ($MAIC$) proposed by Ng and Perron (2001). We denote the pretest estimator $\hat{\mu}_{t} = \mu_{1}I(DF^{GLS} \leq cv_{p}) + \hat{\mu}_{1}(DF^{GLS} > cv_{p})$. The critical values $cv_{p}$ for $p = 0, 1$ are -1.98 and -2.91, respectively. Elliott et al. (1996) show that

$$DF^{GLS} \rightarrow \begin{cases} DF_{0}^{GLS} = \frac{1}{2}(J_{c}(1)^{2} - 1)/(\int_{0}^{1} J_{c}(r)^{2} dr)^{1/2} & \text{if } p = 0 \\
DF_{1}^{GLS} = \frac{1}{2}(V_{c}(1, \hat{c})^{2} - 1)/(\int_{0}^{1} V_{c}(r, \hat{c})^{2} dr)^{1/2} & \text{if } p = 1
\end{cases}$$

where

$$V_{c}(r, \hat{c}) = J_{c}(r) - r[\lambda J_{c}(1) + 3(1 - \lambda) \int_{0}^{1} s J_{c}(s) ds]$$

$$\lambda = (1 - \hat{c})/(1 - \hat{c} + 3/3), \quad \hat{c} = -7[1(p = 0)] - 13.5[1(p = 1)]$$

The in-sample AMSE and one-step MSFE of the $DF^{GLS}$ pretest estimator is summarized in the following corollary:

**Corollary 2.2.** (a) $m_{pt}(c, a, p, k) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_{t}^{pt} - \mu_{1})^{2} = E \left[ \int_{0}^{1} U_{p}(c, a, r)^{2} dr I(DF_{p}^{GLS} \leq cv_{p}) \right] + E \left[ \int_{0}^{1} V_{p}(c, r)^{2} dr I(DF_{p}^{GLS} > cv_{p}) \right] + k.$

(b) $f_{pt}(c, a, p, k) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T}{T} E(\hat{\mu}_{T+1}^{pt} - \mu_{T+1})^{2} = E \left[ U_{p}(c, a, 1)^{2} I(DF_{p}^{GLS} \leq cv_{p}) \right] + E \left[ V_{p}(c, 1)^{2} I(DF_{p}^{GLS} > cv_{p}) \right] + k.$

Figure 1 presents the in-sample AMSE and MSFE of various OLS/GLS estimators for $p = 1$. These include the FGLS pretest estimator (Pretest-GLS), unrestricted FGLS estimator (Unres-GLS), FGLS Mallows averaging estimator (GLS-Ave) and GLS optimal (infeasible) averaging estimator (GLS-Ave-Opt), as well as their OLS counterparts with corresponding labeling. It is clear that for each type of estimator (unrestricted, pretest, averaging), FGLS performs better than its OLS counterpart in terms of both in-sample AMSE and MSFE, except for the pretest estimator at values of $c$ close to 0, where OLS and FGLS are comparable to each other. The relative performance among different FGLS estimators is similar to that of the OLS estimators as analysed in Hansen (2010). Further, while pretesting continues to incur high risk even when employing the more efficient unit root test, FGLS averaging leads to uniformly lower risk compared to OLS averaging. Finally, the ranking of the estimators is invariant to whether evaluation is according to AMSE or MSFE. Similar results were obtained for $p = 0$ although the improvements from using FGLS are more discernible for $p = 1$.

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4These plots are computed on a grid of 101 evenly-spaced points from -20 to 0 for an AR(1) model ($a = 1$). We approximate the limiting distributions by simulating the random variables/processes using $T = 1000$. The number of replications is 500,000.
3. FGLS MALLOWS AVERAGING

The Mallows (1973) criterion was originally designed as an information criterion for the purpose of model selection which provides an unbiased estimate of the in-sample AMSE. The seminal work of Hansen (2007, 2008) has spawned a vast literature that employs Mallows model averaging for estimation and forecasting. The Mallows criteria for the

Figure 1: In-sample AMSE/MSFE of OLS and GLS estimators, $p = 1$
unrestricted and restricted models based on the FGLS estimates are as follows:

\[ M_0(c, a, p, k) = T \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 2\hat{\sigma}^2(m_{01}(c, a, p) + k) \quad (3.1) \]

\[ M_1(c, a, p, k) = T \hat{\sigma}^2 + 2\hat{\sigma}^2(m_{1}(c, a, p) + k) \quad (3.2) \]

where \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \) and \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \) are, respectively, the estimates of \( \sigma^2 \) from the unrestricted and restricted models, i.e., \( \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \hat{\mu}_t)^2 \), \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \tilde{\mu}_t)^2 \).

As in Hansen (2010), the dependence of \( M_0 \) and \( M_1 \) on the unknown parameter \( c \) make them infeasible in practice. Moreover, unlike OLS, the expressions in the FGLS case are now complicated by dependence on the short-run dynamics through the parameter \( a \).

We suggest obtaining feasible rules by taking limits of these expressions. In particular, we have

\[ M_0 = T \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 2\hat{\sigma}^2(p + k) \]

\[ M_1 = T \hat{\sigma}^2 + 2\hat{\sigma}^2(1 + p + k) \quad (3.3) \]

For a given weight vector \([w, 1-w]\), we construct the Mallows criterion for the averaging estimator as

\[ M_w(c) = T\tilde{\sigma}^2(w) + 2\hat{\sigma}^2(w\{m_{01}(c, a, p) + k\} + (1 - w)\{m_{1}(c, a, p) + k\}) \]

where \( \tilde{\sigma}^2(w) = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} [y_t - \tilde{\mu}(w)]^2 \). The feasible version of this criterion, using the previous results, is

\[ M_w = T\tilde{\sigma}^2(w) + 2\hat{\sigma}^2(w + p + k) \quad (3.5) \]

The Mallows selected weight \( \hat{w} \) is derived from minimizing (3.5) over \( w \in [0, 1] \). The solution is

\[ \hat{w} = \begin{cases} 
1 - 1/F_T & \text{if } F_T > 1 \\
0 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \]

The Mallows averaging estimator is then defined as
\[ \hat{\mu}_t = \hat{w}_t \hat{\mu}_t + (1 - \hat{w}_t) \tilde{\mu}_t = \begin{cases} (1 - \frac{1}{F_T}) \hat{\mu}_t + \frac{1}{F_T} \tilde{\mu}_t & \text{if } F_T \leq 1 \\ \tilde{\mu}_t & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \] (3.6)

4. GENERAL MALLOWS AVERAGING [GMA]

The foregoing analysis assumes that the true lag order \( k \) is known. In practice, lag order uncertainty needs to be addressed since omitting relevant lags will contribute to misspecification bias while including too many lags would lead to variance inflation. The traditional approach has been to employ model selection rules such as standard information criteria to choose the number of lags. Hansen (2010) proposes an alternative approach that averages over different lag orders in addition to averaging over the unit root restriction. In section 4.1, we first provide theoretical justification for Hansen’s general Mallows averaging (GMA) criterion that incorporates both lag order uncertainty and persistence uncertainty. The analysis is subsequently extended to the FGLS setting in section 4.2.

4.1. GMA for OLS

To obtain Hansen’s (2010) GMA criterion, we adopt a local asymptotic framework which models the coefficients of the short-run dynamics in a \( O(T^{-1/2}) \)-neighborhood around zero in addition to the \( O(T^{-1}) \) local-to-unity parameterization for the persistence parameter \( \alpha \), i.e., \( \alpha_i = \delta_i \sqrt{T} \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, k \) where \( \delta = (\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_k)’ \) is fixed and independent of \( T \). This particular rate ensures that the squared bias from omitting relevant lags is of the same order as the variance from estimating additional lags. In contrast, a fixed specification for the lagged coefficients would imply that the misspecification bias diverges to infinity with the sample size. The use of local asymptotic analysis in the frequentist model averaging literature was pioneered by Hjort and Claeskens (2003).

We consider restricted regression (setting \( c = 0 \)) and unrestricted regression, each with \( l \) lags. We include sub-models with \( l \in \{0, 1, \ldots, K\} \), \( K \geq k \), with the corresponding unrestricted and restricted estimates denoted by \( \tilde{\mu}_t(l) \) and \( \hat{\mu}_t(l) \), respectively.\(^5\) This gives a total of \( 2(K + 1) \) sub-models. We first analyse the unrestricted regression with \( l \) lags:

\[ y_t = z_t^\prime \beta^* + \alpha y_{t-1} + \alpha_1 \Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \alpha_l \Delta y_{t-l} + \epsilon_t, \quad t = l + 2, \ldots, T \] (4.1)

The feasible forecast is \( \hat{\mu}_t(l) = z_t^\prime \tilde{\beta}^* + \tilde{\alpha} y_{t-1} + \tilde{\alpha}_1 \Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \tilde{\alpha}_l \Delta y_{t-l} \). Define the quantities

\[ m_{0K}^{c,l}(c, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)(\hat{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_t) \]

\[ m_{1K}^{c,l}(c, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)(\tilde{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_t) \]

The Mallows criteria for restricted and unrestricted OLS estimators are constructed

\(^5\)We use the notation \( \hat{\mu}_t \) to denote both restricted OLS and restricted FGLS estimation, although it must be borne in mind that they are equivalent in finite samples only for \( p = 0 \), while the equivalence holds asymptotically for \( p = 1 \).
as

\[ M_{0}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) = T\hat{\sigma}_{l}^{2} + 2\hat{\sigma}_{K}^{2}m_{0}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) \]
\[ M_{1}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) = T\hat{\sigma}_{l}^{2} + 2\hat{\sigma}_{K}^{2}m_{1}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) \]

where \( \hat{\sigma}_{j}^{2} = T^{-1}\sum_{t=1}^{T}(y_{t} - \tilde{\mu}_{t}(j))^{2} \), \( j = l, K \) and \( \hat{\sigma}_{l}^{2} = T^{-1}\sum_{t=1}^{T}(y_{t} - \tilde{\mu}_{t}(l))^{2} \). The following theorem establishes that the criteria \( M_{0}^{ols} \) and \( M_{1}^{ols} \) are asymptotically unbiased estimates of the AMSE after normalization:

**Theorem 4.1.** Let \( m_{0}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma_{l}^{2}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\tilde{\mu}_{t}(l) - \mu_{t})^{2} \), \( m_{1}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma_{l}^{2}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\tilde{\mu}_{t}(l) - \mu_{t})^{2} \). Then we have, under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2,

\[ EM_{0}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) \sigma_{l}^{2} - T \to m_{0}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) \]
\[ EM_{1}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) \sigma_{l}^{2} - T \to m_{1}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) \]

As shown in the proof of Theorem 4.1, the quantities \( m_{0}^{ols} \) and \( m_{1}^{ols} \) are infeasible as they depend on \( c \). To obtain their feasible versions, we evaluate them at the limits of \( c \) which gives us the following result:

**Theorem 4.2.** Under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2,

\[ \lim_{c \to 0} m_{0}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) = p + l \]
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} m_{1}^{ols}(c, \delta, p, l) = 2 + p + l \]

The feasible Mallows criteria are then obtained as

\[ M_{0}^{ols}(p, l) = T\hat{\sigma}_{l}^{2} + 2\hat{\sigma}_{K}^{2}(p + l) \]
\[ M_{1}^{ols}(p, l) = T\hat{\sigma}_{l}^{2} + 2\hat{\sigma}_{K}^{2}(2 + p + l) \]

Now, the averaging estimator over all \( 2(K+1) \) sub-models can be constructed as

\[ \tilde{\mu}_{a}(w) = \sum_{l=0}^{K} (w_{0l}\tilde{\mu}_{l}(l) + w_{1l}\tilde{\mu}_{l}(l)) \]  \hspace{1cm} (4.2)

where the weights are non-negative and sum to one: \( w_{1l} \geq 0, w_{0l} \geq 0, \sum_{l=0}^{K}(w_{0l} + w_{1l}) = 1 \). Hence the feasible Mallows averaging criterion is obtained as

\[ M_{w}^{ols}(p, K) = T\hat{\sigma}_{w}^{2} + 2\hat{\sigma}_{K}^{2}\left(\sum_{l=0}^{K}|w_{0l} + w_{1l}(2 + l)| + p\right) \]

where \( \hat{\sigma}_{w}^{2} = T^{-1}\sum_{t=1}^{T}(y_{t} - \tilde{\mu}_{w}(w))^{2} \).

### 4.2. GMA for FGLS

We now develop the asymptotics of GMA for FGLS. Let the unrestricted FGLS estimate from the sub-model with \( l \) lags be denoted \( \hat{\mu}_{l}(l), l \in \{0, 1, ..., K\} \). Our goal is to combine
The estimates $\hat{\mu}_t(l)$ with $\tilde{\mu}_t(l)$ for each $l$ and average over all the sub-models. The procedure for unrestricted FGLS estimation with $l$ lags is exactly the same as that outlined in section 2. Analogous to the OLS case, define the quantities

$$m_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)(\hat{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_t)$$

$$m_{1K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)(\tilde{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_t)$$

The Mallows criteria based on FGLS estimation are constructed as

$$M_0^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = T \tilde{\sigma}_1^2 + 2\tilde{\sigma}_K^2 m_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)$$

$$M_1^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = T \tilde{\sigma}_1^2 + 2\tilde{\sigma}_K^2 m_{1K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)$$

where $\tilde{\sigma}_j^2 = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \tilde{\mu}_t(j))^2$, $j = l, K$. The asymptotic unbiasedness of $M_0^{gls}$ and $M_1^{gls}$ for the AMSE are established in the following result:

**Theorem 4.3.** Let $m_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)^2 = m_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)$, $m_{1K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)^2$. Then we have, under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2,

$$\lim_{c \to 0} \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{EM_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)}{\sigma^2} - T = \lim_{c \to 0} m_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)$$

$$\lim_{c \to -\infty} \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{EM_{1K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)}{\sigma^2} - T = \lim_{c \to -\infty} m_{1K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l)$$

The feasible versions of $m_{0K}^{gls}$ and $m_{1K}^{gls}$ are obtained from their respective limits:

**Theorem 4.4.** Under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2,

$$\lim_{c \to 0} m_{0K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = p + l$$

$$\lim_{c \to -\infty} m_{1K}^{gls}(c, a, \delta, p, l) = 1 + p + l$$

The feasible Mallows criteria are then obtained as

$$M_0^{gls}(p, l) = T \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 2\tilde{\sigma}_K^2 (p + l)$$

$$M_1^{gls}(p, l) = T \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 2\tilde{\sigma}_K^2 (1 + p + l)$$

The averaging estimator $\hat{\mu}_t(w)$ over all $2(K + 1)$ sub-models is constructed in the same way as in (4.2) except that $\hat{\mu}(l)$ replaces $\hat{\mu}(l)$. Hence the feasible Mallows averaging criterion is obtained as

$$M_w^{gls}(p, K) = T \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 2\tilde{\sigma}_K^2 \left( \sum_{l=0}^{K} \left[ w_l + w_{l+1}(1 + l) \right] + p \right)$$

where $\tilde{\sigma}^2(w) = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \hat{\mu}_t^a(w))^2$. 
5. MONTE CARLO SIMULATIONS

This section reports the results of a set of Monte Carlo experiments to assess the adequacy of the asymptotic approximations in finite samples and evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed approach relative to existing methods. To facilitate a direct comparison, we adopt the same design as Hansen (2010). In particular, the sample size $T \in \{50, 200\}$, the innovations $e_t \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, 1)$, the trend parameters are set at $\beta_0 = \beta_1 = 0$ and the true lag order $k \in \{0, 4, 8\}$. Two data generating processes (DGPs) are considered. The first DGP sets $\alpha_1 = \cdots = \alpha_k = 0$ in (2.1) while the second DGP sets $\alpha_j = -(-\theta)^j$ for $j = 1, \ldots, k$ and $\theta = 0.6$. Results are obtained for $p \in \{0, 1\}$. To save space, we present the results only for the second DGP and for $p = 1$. Qualitatively similar results were found for the first DGP and for $p = 0$, although the improvements offered by the proposed procedure are more pronounced for $p = 1$ than $p = 0$. The full set of results is available in Online Appendix B.

5.1. Forecast Risk with Known Lag Order

We first assume knowledge of the true order $k$ which enables us to delineate the effect of persistence uncertainty on the forecasts. The parameter $c$ varies from -20 to 0, which implies a range for $\alpha$ of $[0.6, 1]$ for $T = 50$ and a range of $[0.9, 1]$ for $T = 200$. For each parameter configuration, the finite sample forecast risk $TE[(\hat{\mu}_{t+1} - \mu_{t+1})^2]$ is calculated for six estimators: unrestricted FGLS estimator, $DFGLS$ pretest estimator and FGLS Mallows averaging estimator together with their three OLS counterparts. The risk is calculated using 500,000 Monte Carlo replications.

Figure 2 presents the results for $p = 1$. It is clear that FGLS incurs lower risk than OLS for all three types of estimators: unrestricted, pretest and averaging. This suggests that the efficiency gain of using FGLS not only lies in the unrestricted case, but is more broadly applicable to the pretesting and averaging schemes. Moreover, as in the OLS case illustrated by Hansen (2010), the FGLS pretest estimator exhibits high risk and the FGLS Mallows averaging estimator uniformly dominates the unrestricted FGLS estimator. In terms of comparison with OLS model averaging, the risk of the proposed estimator is uniformly smaller.\footnote{However, this is only observed in simulations; to have a concrete judgment, one might follow Zhang, Ullah and Zhao (2016) to derive sufficient conditions which involves sample size, the number of parameters and possibly the persistence parameter.} Overall, our FGLS Mallows averaging estimator performs well and displays lowest risk among all estimators for $c < -3$ when $p = 1$.

5.2. Forecast Risk with Unknown Lag Order

We next consider the situation where the number of autoregressive lags $k$ is unknown. Three types of estimators are compared: (1) the Mallows selection estimator (denoted S-OLS/FGLS), which selects unrestricted models from AR(1) through AR($K + 1$), i.e., $\hat{\mu}_t(0)$ through $\hat{\mu}_t(K)$; (2) the Mallows averaging estimator (denoted PA-OLS/FGLS, PA abbreviating partial averaging) that averages over this set of unrestricted models; (3) the general averaging estimator (denoted GA-OLS/FGLS) which combines all models from $\{\hat{\mu}_t(l)\}$ and $\{\tilde{\mu}_t(l)\}$ for $l \in \{0, 1, \ldots, K\}$.

Figure 3 present the results for the six forecast methods when $p = 1$. All three types of FGLS estimators uniformly dominate their OLS counterparts. The risk reduction is
substantial. Overall, FGLS general averaging achieves uniformly lowest risk among all averaging/selection strategies when $p = 1$. The results are very similar across all $K$ and $T$. Finally, a comparison of figures 1 and 2 indicates that the payoff from using FGLS averaging relative to unrestricted FGLS is more prominent when the lag length is treated as unknown.

Figure 2: Forecast risk of OLS averaging and GLS averaging, $p = 1$
Figure 3: Forecast risk of General OLS averaging and General GLS averaging, $p = 1$

6. EMPIRICAL APPLICATION

This section undertakes a pseudo out-of-sample forecasting exercise using a set of US macroeconomic time series to (i) evaluate the performance of the proposed approach relative to OLS-based methods; (ii) assess the relative contribution of persistence uncertainty and lag order uncertainty in determining the accuracy of forecasts. We employ the FRED-MD dataset compiled by McCracken and Ng (2016) and maintained/updated at the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. Our analysis is based on 123 monthly time
series over the period 1960:02-2018:12. McCracken and Ng (2016) provide a set of seven codes in order to transform the series to stationarity: (1) no transformation; (2) $\Delta y_t$; (3) $\Delta^2 y_t$; (4) $\log(y_t)$; (5) $\Delta \log(y_t)$; (6) $\Delta^2 \log(y_t)$; (7) $\Delta(y_t/y_{t-1} - 1)$. In order to ensure that the series fit our framework that allows for highly persistent time series with/without deterministic trends, we adopt the following modified codes: (1') no transformation; (2') $y_t$; (3') $\Delta y_t$; (4') $\log(y_t)$; (5') $\log(y_t)$; (6') $\Delta \log(y_t)$; (7') $(y_t/y_{t-1} - 1)$. For codes (1') and (4'), we use the forecasts from the model with no deterministic trend ($p = 0$) while for the remainder, we use the forecasts that allow for a deterministic trend ($p = 1$). In addition to analyzing the full set of time series, we also report results for eight core series as in Stock and Watson (2002a).

The out-of-sample results are based on a rolling window scheme with an initial estimation period 1960:02-1969:12 (119 observations) so that the forecast evaluation period is 1970:01-2018:12 (588 observations). We compare eight different methods in terms of MSFE: (1) S-GLS: unconstrained FGLS with lag selection using the Mallows criterion; (2) PA-GLS: partial FGLS Mallows averaging over the number of lags only; (3) GA-GLS: general FGLS Mallows averaging over the unit root restriction and the number of lags; (4) PT-GLS: the pretest GLS estimator based on the Dickey-Fuller GLS $t$-statistic with lag selection using the MAIC criterion of Ng and Perron (2001); (5)-(8): S-OLS, PA-OLS, GA-OLS, PT-OLS: the OLS counterparts of methods (1)-(4). The maximum number of allowable lags in each method is set at $K = 12$.

Table 1 reports the percentage wins and losses based on MSFE for the 123 series, both pairwise and overall. In particular, it shows the percentage of the 123 series for which a method listed in a row outperforms a method listed in a column, as well as all methods (last column). The results clearly illustrate the overall superior performance of the GLS-based methods which dominate their OLS versions in about 74% of the series. The GA-GLS estimator delivers the most accurate forecasts for the majority (about 53%) of the series, consistent with our theoretical and simulation results. The pairwise comparisons reveal some interesting patterns. First, comparing GA-GLS with PA-GLS (or GA-OLS with PA-OLS) indicates that accounting for persistence uncertainty by averaging over the unit root restriction results in considerable forecasting gains compared to using the unconstrained FGLS estimator. Second, comparing PA-GLS to S-GLS (or PA-OLS with S-OLS) shows that accounting for lag order uncertainty by averaging over the number of lags in contrast to lag selection using an information criterion delivers more accurate forecasts in more than 95% of the series. Third, comparing GA-GLS with GA-OLS (or PA-GLS with PA-OLS) suggests that trend estimation by FGLS relative to OLS offers a substantial improvement in forecasting performance. Fourth, in more than 90% of the series, the best forecasting method involves some kind of averaging, whether over the unit root restriction or the number of lags or both.

To further understand the performance of the different methods for various types of series, Figures 4 and 5 plot the MSFE according to the eight groups defined in McCracken.

As of 2018:12, the dataset consisted of 128 raw series of which 5 series had at least 30 observations missing and were dropped from the analysis. These are: (1) VXOCLSx (CBOE S&P 100 Volatility Index); (2) ACOGNOx (Real Value of Manufacturers’ New Orders Consumer Goods Industries deflated by Core PCE); (3) ANDENOx (Real Value of Manufacturers’ New Orders for Capital Goods: Nondefense Capital Goods Industries deflated by Core PCE); (4) UMCSENTx (University of Michigan: Consumer Sentiment); (5) TWEXMMTH (Trade Weighted U.S. Dollar Index: Major Currencies).

The results for a large number of series can be succinctly summarized in this way as in Boot and Nibbering (2019).
Table 1: Percentage wins/losses of different forecasting methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>S-GLS</th>
<th>PA-GLS</th>
<th>GA-GLS</th>
<th>PT-GLS</th>
<th>S-OLS</th>
<th>PA-OLS</th>
<th>GA-OLS</th>
<th>PT-OLS</th>
<th>ALL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>45.53</td>
<td>80.49</td>
<td>27.64</td>
<td>18.70</td>
<td>43.90</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>96.75</td>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>83.74</td>
<td>95.12</td>
<td>85.37</td>
<td>52.03</td>
<td>81.30</td>
<td>13.01</td>
<td>53.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA-GLS</td>
<td>95.12</td>
<td>78.86</td>
<td>93.50</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>92.68</td>
<td>73.98</td>
<td>93.50</td>
<td>53.66</td>
<td>53.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
<td>54.47</td>
<td>16.26</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>23.58</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-OLS</td>
<td>19.51</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>22.76</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>23.58</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA-OLS</td>
<td>72.36</td>
<td>14.63</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>57.72</td>
<td>95.12</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>59.35</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA-OLS</td>
<td>81.30</td>
<td>47.97</td>
<td>26.02</td>
<td>78.05</td>
<td>99.19</td>
<td>93.50</td>
<td>78.05</td>
<td>23.58</td>
<td>23.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT-OLS</td>
<td>56.10</td>
<td>18.70</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>49.59</td>
<td>76.42</td>
<td>40.65</td>
<td>21.95</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: this table shows the percentage of the 123 series for which a method listed in a row outperforms a method in a column, include the other all in the last column.

and Ng (2016): (1) output and income; (2) labor market; (3) housing; (4) consumption, orders, and inventories; (5) money and credits; (6) interest and exchange rates; (7) prices; (8) stock market. Figure 4 shows that most of the improvements offered by FGLS relative to OLS are concentrated in groups 2, 4, 6, 7. The top panel of Figure 5 compares GA-GLS to PA-GLS to identify those groups most sensitive to the unit root restriction. The plot indicates that the advantage of the former over the latter is discernible primarily for the series in groups 1, 2, 7, 8. The bottom panel of Figure 5 compares PA-GLS with S-GLS in an attempt to uncover the types of series most susceptible to lag order uncertainty. Averaging over the number of lags as opposed to lag selection is found to be the dominant approach mainly for all series in group 8, 85% of the series in group 7 and 57% of the series in group 4 with improvements in at least some series in each of the other groups. Our analysis therefore suggests that addressing both sources of uncertainty through model averaging can be helpful in generating reliable forecasts.

Finally, we consider the relative predictive ability of the methods with respect to the eight core series analysed in Stock and Watson (2002a): four real variables (industrial production, real personal income less transfers, real manufacturing and trade sales, number of employees on nonagricultural payrolls) and four price indices (the consumer price index, the personal consumption expenditure implicit price deflator, the consumer price index less food and energy, the producer price index for finished goods). Table 2 reports the MSFE of the eight different methods relative to that of the OLS estimator using twelve autoregressive lags of the first differences of the variable. Hence, a number less than one indicates a lower MSFE relative to the OLS benchmark and vice-versa. The best method for a given series is highlighted in bold. The GA-GLS estimator turns out to be the best method in seven out of the eight series, the exception being nonagricultural employment for which S-GLS dominates the other methods. These results further confirm the effectiveness of the proposed approach when forecasting US macroeconomic time series.

Two additional sets of empirical results are reported in Supplemental Appendix C. First, we provide results for multi-step forecasts constructed iteratively from the simple recursion in Step 5 of Algorithm 1. Second, we present results for both one-step and multi-step forecasts based on transforming the data to stationarity as suggested by McCracken and Ng (2016). This set of results includes forecasts obtained by selecting the number of lags using AIC. Both sets of results show that our preferred approach based on FGLS averaging continues to dominate its competitors, although in the second case, the marginal gains from averaging over the unit root restriction are smaller, as expected. Further details are provided in Appendix C.
Table 2: Relative MSFE of eight core macroeconomic time series

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Industrial production</th>
<th>Personal income</th>
<th>Mfg &amp; trade sales</th>
<th>Nonag. employment</th>
<th>CPI</th>
<th>Consumption deflator</th>
<th>CPI excl. food</th>
<th>PPI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>.962**</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.915***</td>
<td>.973</td>
<td>.995</td>
<td>.976</td>
<td>.983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>.961**</td>
<td>.958*</td>
<td>.967**</td>
<td>.919***</td>
<td>.958</td>
<td>.957**</td>
<td>.958*</td>
<td>.942**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA-GLS</td>
<td>.960***</td>
<td>.950**</td>
<td>.963**</td>
<td>.921***</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.951**</td>
<td>.955**</td>
<td>.936**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
<td>.961**</td>
<td>.983</td>
<td>.965**</td>
<td>.921***</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.974*</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-OLS</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.995</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.946***</td>
<td>.979</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>.990</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA-OLS</td>
<td>.972**</td>
<td>.960</td>
<td>.983</td>
<td>.954***</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>.961**</td>
<td>.961*</td>
<td>.948**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA-OLS</td>
<td>.965**</td>
<td>.954*</td>
<td>.968**</td>
<td>.946***</td>
<td>.955</td>
<td>.955**</td>
<td>.957**</td>
<td>.942**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT-OLS</td>
<td>.960**</td>
<td>.983</td>
<td>.965**</td>
<td>.931***</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.993</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td>1.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * denotes 10%, ** denotes 5%, and *** denotes 1% significance level for a two-sided Diebold and Mariano (1995) test. The benchmark is an unrestricted OLS estimation method with 12 lags.

Figure 4: FRED-MD: forecast accuracy comparison between FGLS and OLS.

7. CONCLUSION

This paper is concerned with developing a new forecast combination approach for highly persistent univariate autoregressions which entails a feasible generalised least squares Mallows averaging estimator that combines the unrestricted and restricted estimators. Our contributions are three-fold. First, we derive analytical results for the in-sample AMSE and MSFE of the proposed estimator and show that the optimal averaging weights are different from the OLS weights studied in Hansen (2010). Second, our analysis fills a gap in the literature in terms of providing a theoretical basis for the generalised mallows averaging estimator by modeling the coefficients of the short-run dynamics as local to zero. Third, our simulation and empirical results indicate that the proposed approach yields considerable improvement over existing univariate methods in terms of finite sample forecast risk which should be appealing to practitioners. The new procedure can also
potentially serve as a useful univariate benchmark for evaluating forecasts based on exploiting information in large datasets (e.g., the diffusion index methodology of Stock and Watson, 2002a,b).

At least two possible extensions of our paper are worth noting. First, our analysis assumes homoskedastic innovations so an interesting extension would be to the heteroskedastic case which could potentially be achieved by adapting the jackknife method of Hansen and Racine (2012) to the present context. Second, our framework does not allow for the possibility of structural breaks, an important source of misspecification in practice. Hansen (2009) develops a Mallows averaging estimator that averages over the no-break and break estimators within an asymptotic framework that models the break magnitude as local to zero, but does not address the issue of persistence or lag uncertainty. A general, unified framework that addresses structural break uncertainty in addition to persistence and lag uncertainty appears highly desirable from a practical standpoint. Such an analysis is likely to be complicated by the multiplicity of local parameters arising from the different sources of uncertainty that cannot be consistently estimated.

REFERENCES


Online Supplement: Proofs, Detailed Monte Carlo Results, and Additional Empirical Results

Mohitosh Kejriwal and Xuewen Yu

APPENDIX A: PROOFS OF RESULTS

Let $W(.)$ denote a standard Brownian motion on $[0,1]$ and define the diffusion process: 
\[ dJ_c(r) = cJ_c(r) + dW(r). \]
Define the demeaned and detrended versions of $J_c(.)$ as follows:
\[ \bar{J}_c(r) = J_c(r) - \int_0^1 J_c(s)ds, \]
\[ \tilde{J}_c(r) = J_c(r) - (4 - 6r) \int_0^1 J_c(s)ds - (12r - 6) \int_0^1 sJ_c(s)ds. \]

Let $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1)'$, $z_t = (1, t)'$. For brevity, all proofs are provided only for the case $p = 1$. The proofs for $p = 0$ follow analogous arguments. We first state two lemmas that will be useful in developing the proofs of the results.

**Lemma A.1.** Let $\cdot$ and $\tilde{\cdot}$ denote the first stage and the second stage estimates of parameters in the unrestricted FGLS procedure. Under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2, as $T \to \infty$, we have
\[ T(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) \stackrel{d}{\to} \begin{cases} a \frac{\int_0^1 \tilde{J}_c dW(r)}{\int_0^1 \tilde{J}_c^2 dr} & \text{for } p = 1 \\ a \frac{\int_0^1 J_c dW(r)}{\int_0^1 J_c^2 dr} & \text{for } p = 0 \end{cases} \]
\[ T \tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \stackrel{d}{\to} a^{-1} \gamma_1 \]
\[ T \tilde{\beta}_0 - \beta_0 \stackrel{d}{\to} 0 \]
where $\gamma_1 = (1 - \alpha \tilde{c} + \frac{1}{3}(\alpha \tilde{c})^2)^{-1} \int_0^1 (1 - \alpha \tilde{c})d\tilde{W}(s), d\tilde{W}(s) = dW(s) - (\alpha \tilde{c} - c)J_c(s)ds.$

**Lemma A.2.** Under Assumptions 2.1 and 2.2, as $c \to -\infty$, we have
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\int_0^1 crJ_c(r)dr]^2 = \frac{1}{3} \]
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\int_0^1 crJ_c(r)dr] = -\frac{1}{3} \]
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\gamma_1^2 \int_0^1 (cr - 1)^2 dr] = 1 \]
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[(\tilde{c} - c)^2 \int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr] = 1 \]
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\gamma_1 (\tilde{c} - c) \int_0^1 (cr - 1)P(r)dr] = 0 \]
By the Beveridge-Nelson decomposition, \( \alpha \)

**Proof of Lemma A.1:** (a) From Lemma 1 of Hansen (1995), we have \( \frac{u_t}{\sqrt{T}} \overset{d}{\rightarrow} a^{-1}J_c(r) \).

Denoting \( \tilde{y}_t \) as the residual from regressing \( y_t \) on \( z_t \), it follows that \( \frac{\tilde{y}_t}{\sqrt{T}} \overset{d}{\rightarrow} a^{-1}J_c(r) \).

By Frisch-Waugh-Lovell theorem and the independence of the estimates between the nonstationary and stationary components, we have

\[
T(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \tilde{y}_te_t}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \tilde{y}_t^2/T^2} + o_p(1) \overset{d}{\rightarrow} \frac{\sigma^2 a^{-1} \int_0^T \tilde{J}_cW(r)dr}{\sigma^2 a^{-2} \int_0^T \tilde{J}_c^2 dr} = a \int_0^T \tilde{J}_cW(r)dr \tag{A.1}
\]

(b) Denote the quasi-differenced error \( \hat{v}_t = u_t - \hat{\alpha}u_{t-1} \), we have \( \hat{v}_t = u_t - \hat{\alpha}u_{t-1} = (u_t - \alpha u_{t-1} - (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)u_{t-1} \). We first derive the limit of \( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} \hat{v}_t \). Denoting \( g(L) = \alpha_1L + ... + \alpha_kL^k \), we have

\[
u_t - \alpha u_{t-1} = g(L)(u_t - u_{t-1}) + e_t = g(L)(u_t - \alpha u_{t-1} + \alpha u_{t-1} - u_{t-1}) + e_t = (1 - g(L))^{-1}g(L)(\alpha - 1)u_{t-1} + (1 - g(L))^{-1}e_t
\]

By the Beveridge-Nelson decomposition,

\[
\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} \hat{v}_t = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} [u_t - \alpha u_{t-1} - (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)u_{t-1}]
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \{(1 - g(L))^{-1}g(L)(\alpha - 1) \sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} u_{t-1} + (1 - g(L))^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} e_t - (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) \sum_{t=1}^{[rT]} u_{t-1} \} + o_p(1)
\]

\[
\overset{d}{\rightarrow} a^{-1} \times (1 - a) \times ac \times a^{-1} \int_0^r J_c(s)ds + a^{-1}W(r) - (\hat{c} - c) \int_0^r J_c(s)ds
\]

\[
= a^{-1}[W(r) - (ac - c) \int_0^r J_c(s)ds] := a^{-1}\hat{W}(r)
\tag{A.2}
\]

From Theorem 5(b) in Canjels and Watson (1997),

\[
\frac{\sqrt{T}}{\sigma} (\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) = \frac{T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{v}_t(1 - ac)}{\sigma (1 - ac + \frac{1}{2}(ac)^2)} + o_p(1)
\]

\[
\overset{d}{\rightarrow} (1 - ac + \frac{1}{3}(ac)^2)^{-1} \int_0^1 (1 - acs)d\hat{W}(s) := a^{-1}\gamma_1
\tag{A.3}
\]

where \( \gamma_1 = (1 - ac + \frac{1}{2}(ac)^2)^{-1} \int_0^1 (1 - acs)dW(s) \), \( d\hat{W}(s) = dW(s) - (ac - c)J_c(s)ds \).

The second result in (b) can be shown by a simple algebraic exercise using results from Canjels and Watson (1997) and is hence omitted.

(c) We have

\[
\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \hat{u}_{[rT]} = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} (y_{[rT]} - \tilde{y}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1[rT])
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} u_{[rT]} - \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} (\tilde{y}_0 - \beta_0) = \frac{\sqrt{T}}{\sigma} (\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1)[rT] \overset{d}{\rightarrow} a^{-1}J_c(r) - 0 = a^{-1}\gamma_1 r = a^{-1}(J_c(r) - \gamma_1 r) := a^{-1}P(r)
\tag{A.4}
\]

(d) Note that \( \hat{u}_t = u_t - (\tilde{y}_0 - \beta_0) - (\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1)t \), \( \Delta \hat{u}_t = \Delta u_t - (\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) \). Defining
\[ \tilde{\beta} = (\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1)' \text{, the effective error is} \]
\[ \xi_t = e_t - (u_t - \hat{u}_t) + \alpha (u_{t-1} - \hat{u}_{t-1}) + \alpha_1 (\Delta u_{t-1} - \Delta \hat{u}_{t-1}) + \cdots + \alpha_k (\Delta u_{t-k} - \Delta \hat{u}_{t-k}) \]
\[ = e_t - \sigma_t' (\tilde{\beta} - \beta) + (1 + \frac{ac}{T}) \sigma_t' (\tilde{\beta} - \beta) + \alpha_1 (\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) + \cdots + \alpha_k (\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) \]
\[ = e_t + \frac{ac}{T} (\tilde{\beta}_0 - \beta_0) + \left( \frac{t - 1}{T - 1} a (\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) \right) \] (A.5)

which gives
\[ T(\tilde{a} - a) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{u}_t \xi_t / T}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{u}_t^2 / T} + o_p(1) \]
\[ = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{u}_t e_t / T + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{u}_t \sigma_t (\tilde{\beta}_0 - \beta_0) / T + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{u}_t (\frac{t - 1}{T - 1} a (\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) / T)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{u}_t^2 / T} \]
\[ \approx \sigma^2 a^{-1} \int_0^1 P(r) dW(r) + 0 + \sigma^2 a^{-2} \gamma_1 \int_0^1 (cr - 1) P(r) dr \]
\[ \sigma^2 a^{-2} \int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr \]
\[ \approx a \int_0^1 P(r) dW(r) + \gamma_1 \int_0^1 (cr - 1) P(r) dr \]
\[ \frac{\int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr}{\int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr} \] (A.6)

d thereby proving (d).

(e) From (d), \( \Delta \hat{u}_t = \Delta u_t + O_p(T^{-1/2}) \) so that \( \hat{L}_t = L_t + O_p(T^{-1/2}) \). Recalling the independence of the estimates between the nonstationary and stationary components, we have
\[ \frac{T^2}{\sigma^2} \left( \tilde{a}_1 - a_1, \cdots, \tilde{a}_k - a_k \right)' = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{L}_t \hat{L}'_t \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{L}_t e_t \right) + o_p(1) \]
\[ = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{L}_t \hat{L}'_t \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} L_t e_t \right) + o_p(1) \]
\[ \Rightarrow R \sim N(0, Q^{-1}). \] (A.7)

where \( Q = E(L_t L'_t) \).

**Proof of Lemma A.2:** (a) We have \( J_c(r) = \int_0^1 e^{c(r-s)} dW(s) \). It follows that
\[ \lim_{c \to -\infty} E \left[ \int_0^1 cr J_c(r) dr \right]^2 = \lim_{c \to -\infty} E \left[ \int_0^1 cr \int_0^r e^{c(r-s)} dW(s) dr \right]^2 \]
\[ = \lim_{c \to -\infty} E \left[ \int_0^1 cr e^{c(r-s)} dr dW(s) \right]^2 = \lim_{c \to -\infty} E \left[ \int_0^1 (1 - \frac{1}{c}) e^{(1-s)} - s + \frac{1}{c} dW(s) \right]^2 \]
\[ = \lim_{c \to -\infty} \left[ \int_0^1 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{c} \right) e^{2c - \frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{c^2} + 2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{c} \right) - \frac{1}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2} \right] = \frac{1}{3} \] (A.8)
(b) Similar to (a), we have
\[
\lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\int_{0}^{1} c r J_c(r) dr \int_{0}^{1} r dW(r)] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\int_{0}^{1} c r \int_{0}^{r} e^{c(r-s)} dW(s) dr \int_{0}^{1} r dW(r)] \\
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\int_{0}^{1} ((1 - \frac{1}{c}) e^{c-r} - s + \frac{1}{c}) dW(s) \int_{0}^{1} r dW(r)] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} \int_{0}^{1} ((1 - \frac{1}{c}) e^{c-r} - s + \frac{1}{c}) ds \\
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} [(1 - \frac{1}{c}) (1 - \frac{e^c - 1}{e}) - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{2c}] = -\frac{1}{3}
\]
(A.9)

(c) From lemma A.1 (a) we know \( \hat{c} - c = \frac{\int_{0}^{1} J_c dW(r)}{\int_{0}^{1} J_c^2 dr} \). As \( c \to -\infty \), Phillips (1987) shows
\[
\left( \int_{0}^{1} J_c^2 \right)^{-1} \int_{0}^{1} J_c dW(r) = O_p(|c|^{1/2}).
\]
Using techniques of Phillips (2014), we can easily verify this result also applies for the trend case, i.e., \( \hat{c} - c = \left( \int_{0}^{1} J_c^2 \right)^{-1} \int_{0}^{1} J_c dW(r) = O_p(|c|^{1/2}) \), which implies \( \hat{c}/c = 1 + O_p(|c|^{-1/2}) \). Then it follows that
\[
\lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\gamma^2_{1} \int_{0}^{1} (\sigma - 1)^2 ds] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} \left( \frac{1}{3} \sigma^2 - c + 1 \right) E[(1 - a\hat{c} + \frac{1}{3} (a\hat{c})^2)^{-1} \int_{0}^{1} (1 - a\hat{c}) ds] \\
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} \left( \frac{1}{3} \sigma^2 - c + 1 \right) E[(1 - a\hat{c} + \frac{1}{3} (a\hat{c})^2)^{-1} \int_{0}^{1} (1 - a\hat{c}) ds] \\
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} \left( \frac{1}{3} \sigma^2 - 3 + 1 \right) E[\sigma^2 a J_c(s) ds] \\
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} 3a^{-2} E[\int_{0}^{1} s dW(s) + \int_{0}^{1} (1 - a)c J_c(s) ds]^2
\]
(A.10)

With results (a) and (b) in hand, we have
\[
\lim_{c \to -\infty} 3a^{-2} E[\int_{0}^{1} s dW(s) + \int_{0}^{1} (1 - a)c J_c(s) ds]^2 \\
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} 3a^{-2} E[\int_{0}^{1} s dW(s)^2 + \int_{0}^{1} (1 - a)c J_c(s) ds)^2 + 2 \int_{0}^{1} s dW(s) \int_{0}^{1} (1 - a)c J_c(s) ds]^2 \\
= 3a^{-4} \left( \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} (1 - a)^2 - 2(1 - a) \right) \left( \frac{1}{3} \right) = 1
\]
(A.11)

(d) From the proof of Lemma A.2 (c), we know \( \gamma_1 = O_p(|c|^{-1}) \). Phillips (2014) shows as \( c \to -\infty \), \( \int_{0}^{1} J_c(r) dr = O_p(|c|^{-1}) \), \( \int_{0}^{1} r J_c(r) dr = O_p(|c|^{-1}) \), \( \int_{0}^{1} J_c(r) dW(r) = O_p(|c|^{-1/2}) \). Recalling \( P(r) = J_c(r) - \gamma_1 r \), it is easy to show \( \int_{0}^{1} P(r) dW(r) = O_p(|c|^{-1/2}) \), \( \int_{0}^{1} (c r - 1)P(r) dr = O_p(1) \). Then it follows \( \gamma_1 \int_{0}^{1} (c r - 1)P(r) dr = O_p(|c|^{-1}) \), which is of smaller order than \( \int_{0}^{1} P(r) dW(r) \). From Phillips (1987), as \( c \to -\infty \), \( (-2c) \int_{0}^{1} J_c(r)^2 dr \overset{p}{\to} 1 \), \( (-2c)^{-1/2} \int_{0}^{1} J_c(r) dW(r) \overset{d}{\to} N(0,1) \). It is easy to show that the two limits hold when \( J_c(r) \) is replaced with \( P(r) \). Thus, \( \left( \int_{0}^{1} P(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int_{0}^{1} P(r) dW(r) \overset{d}{\to} N(0,1) \) as \( c \to -\infty \).
\( -\infty \). Then we have

\[
\lim_{c \to -\infty} E[(\bar{c} - c)^2] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} \left[ E\left( \int_0^1 P(r) dW(r) + \gamma_1 \int_0^1 (cr - 1) P(r) dr \right)^2 \right] \int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr
\]

\[
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} E\left[ \int_0^1 P(r) dW(r) \left( \int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr \right)^{1/2} \right]^2 + o(1) = 1 \quad (A.12)
\]

(c) Using the results stated in the foregoing parts, it follows \( \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\gamma_1 (\bar{c} - c) \int_0^1 (cr - 1) P(r) dr] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[O_p(|c|^{-1}) O_p(|c|^{1/2}) O_p(1)] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} O(|c|^{-1/2}) = 0. ~\)

**Proof of Theorem 2.1**: (a) The forecast error can be expressed as

\[
\frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} \bar{\hat{u}}_{[r|T]} = \frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} (\hat{\mu}_{[r|T]} - \mu_{[r|T]})
\]

\[
= \frac{ac}{\sigma} T^{-1/2} (\bar{u}_{[r|T]} - u_{[r|T]}) + T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\beta_1 - \beta_1) + T \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) T^{-1/2} \bar{u}_{[r|T]}
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^k T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\Delta \hat{u}_{[r|T]-i} - \Delta u_{[r|T]-i}) + \sum_{i=1}^k T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\hat{\alpha}_i - \alpha_i) \Delta \hat{u}_{[r|T]-i}
\]

\[
= \frac{ac}{\sigma} T^{-1/2} (\bar{u}_{[r|T]} - u_{[r|T]}) + a T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\beta_1 - \beta_1) + T \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) T^{-1/2} \bar{u}_{[r|T]}
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^k T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\hat{\alpha}_i - \alpha_i) \Delta \hat{u}_{[r|T]-i}
\]

\[
= A_{[r|T]} + B_{[r|T]} \quad (A.13)
\]

since \( \Delta \hat{u}_{[r|T]-i} - \Delta u_{[r|T]-i} = \beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1 \). We have

\[
A_{[r|T]} = \frac{ac}{\sigma} T^{-1/2} (\bar{u}_{[r|T]} - u_{[r|T]}) + a T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\beta_1 - \beta_1) + T \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) T^{-1/2} \bar{u}_{[r|T]}
\]

\[
d \to ac (a^{-1} P(r) - a^{-1} J_c(r)) + a a^{-1} \gamma_1 + a (\bar{c} - c) a^{-1} P(r)
\]

\[
= c (P(r) - J_c(r)) + \gamma_1 + (\bar{c} - c) P(r)
\]

\[
= \gamma_1 (1 - cr) + (\bar{c} - c) P(r) \stackrel{d}{=} U_1(c, a, r)
\]

\[
B_{[r|T]} = \sum_{i=1}^k T^{1/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sigma} (\hat{\alpha}_i - \alpha_i) \Delta \hat{u}_{[r|T]-i} = -\hat{R'} \hat{L}_{[r|T]} \quad (A.14)
\]

It follows that

\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T A_t^2 = \int_0^1 U_1(c, a, r)^2 dr
\]

\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T B_t^2 = \lim_{T \to \infty} R' \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{L}_{[t]} \hat{L}_{[t]}' R \right) R \sim \chi_k^2
\]

\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T A_t B_t = 0 \quad (A.15)
\]
For in-sample AMSE:

\[
m_1(c, a, 1, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)^2
\]

\[
= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{T} (A_t^2 + B_t^2 + 2A_tB_t)
\]

\[
= E \left[ \int_0^1 U_1(c, a, r)^2 \, dr \right] + k
\]  

(A.16)

(b) As \( c \to -\infty \),

\[
\lim_{c \to -\infty} E \left[ \int_0^1 U_1(c, a, r)^2 \, dr \right] = \lim_{c \to -\infty} E \left[ \int_0^1 \gamma_1^2 (1 - cr + (\bar{c} - c)P(r))^2 \, dr \right]
\]

\[
= \lim_{c \to -\infty} E[\gamma_1^2 \int_0^1 (cr - 1)^2 \, dr + E[(\bar{c} - c)^2 \int_0^1 P(r)^2 \, dr] + 2E[\gamma_1 (\bar{c} - c) \int_0^1 (cr - 1)P(r) \, dr]
\]

\[
= 1 + 1 + 2 \cdot 0 = 2 \quad \text{[By Lemma A.2]}
\]

(A.17)

Then, as \( c \to -\infty \), (A.16) equals 2 + k.

(c) For MSFE:

\[
f_1(c, a, 1, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{T}{\sigma^2} E(\hat{\mu}_{T+1} - \mu_{T+1})^2
\]

\[
= \lim_{T \to \infty} E(A_{T+1}^2 + B_{T+1}^2 + 2A_{T+1}B_{T+1})
\]

\[
= E[U_1(c, a, 1)^2] + E(R' (\hat{L}_{T+1} \hat{L}_{T+1}^\prime) R) + 0
\]

\[
= E[U_1(c, a, 1)^2] + k
\]  

(A.18)

since \( E(R' (\hat{L}_{T+1} \hat{L}_{T+1}^\prime) R) = tr \left[ E(\hat{L}_{T+1} \hat{L}_{T+1}^\prime RR^\prime) \right] = E(R' QR) = k. \)

**Proof of Corollary 2.1:** (a) First, note that the expression for \( V_1(c, r) \) is derived from Hansen (2010) by transforming vector stochastic integrals to explicit Brownian motion processes. Following Lemma A.1 and Theorem 2.1 we have the restricted FGLS estimator as \( V_1^{\text{gls}}(c, r) = J_c(1) - cJ_c(r) \), the same as Hansen’s (2010) restricted OLS estimator (note that \( J_c(1) = c \int_0^1 J_c(r) \, dr + W(1) \)). So we simply drop the superscript gls to save notation. Using the definition of \( V_1(c, r) \), we have \( m_0(c, 1) = E[\int_0^1 V_1(c, r)^2 \, dr] + k, f_0(c, 1) = \)
Proof of Theorem 3.1:

For the averaging estimator, it follows that

\[
m_w(c, a, 1, k) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(\hat{\mu}_t(w) - \mu_t)^2
\]

\[
= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} E(w \hat{\mu}_t + (1-w)\mu_t - \mu_t)^2
\]

\[
= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left[ w^2 E \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)^2 \right) + (1-w)^2 E \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\mu_t - \mu_t)^2 \right) + 2w(1-w)E \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)(\mu_t - \mu_t) \right) \right]
\]

\[
= w^2 \left[ E \int_0^1 U_1(c, a, r)^2 dr + k \right] + (1-w)^2 \left[ E \int_0^1 V_1(c, r)^2 dr + k \right] + 2w(1-w) \left[ E \int_0^1 U_1(c, a, r)V_1(c, r)dr + k \right]
\]

\[
= w^2 m_1(c, a, 1) + (1-w)^2 m_0(c, 1) + 2w(1-w)m_{01}(c, a, 1) + k
\]

(b) The MSFE \( f_w(c, a, 1, k) \) of the averaging estimator can be derived in a manner similar to that in (a) and is hence omitted.

(c) We have

\[
\lim_{c \to 0} m_{01}(c, a, 1) = \lim_{c \to 0} E \int_0^1 U_1(c, a, r)V_1(c, r)dr
\]

\[
= \lim_{c \to 0} E \int_0^1 [\gamma_1(1-cr) + (\tilde{c} - c)P(r)][W(1) - cJ_0(r)]dr
\]

\[
= \lim_{c \to 0} E[\gamma_1 W(1)] + \lim_{c \to 0} E \left[ (\tilde{c} \int_0^1 P(r)dr)W(1) \right]
\]

\[
= 1 + 0 = 1
\]

The first term in (A.19) is \( E[\gamma_1 W(1)] \) and the second term is zero. That the second term is zero follows from the law of iterated expectations.

Proof of Corollary 2.2: The proof is straightforward following the proof of Corollary 2.1 and is hence omitted.

Proof of Theorem 3.1: We have

\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{M_0(c, a, 1, k)}{\sigma^2} - T \delta^2
\]

\[
= \lim_{T \to \infty} E \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\epsilon_t^2 - \sigma^2) + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)^2 + \frac{2\gamma^2}{\sigma^2} (m_{01}(c, a, 1) + k) - \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \epsilon_t (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t) \right]
\]

\[
= 0 + m_0(c, 1) + k + 2(m_{01}(c, a, 1) + k) - \lim_{T \to \infty} E \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \epsilon_t (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)
\]
The last term is -2 times
\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} E \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t) = E \int_0^1 [-c \bar{J}_c(r) + W(1)] dW(r) + E \chi_k^2 \tag{A.21}
\]

As \( c \to 0 \), we have \( E \int_0^1 [-c \bar{J}_c(r) + W(1)] dW(r) \to EW(1)^2 = 1 \), so the last term amounts to -2 times \( \lim_{c \to 0} [m_0(c, a, 1) + k] \) so that the limit of (A.20) is \( \lim_{c \to 0} [m_0(c, 1) + k] \).

For the unrestricted case,
\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} E \frac{M_1(c, a, 1, k)}{\sigma^2} - T \sigma^2
\]
\[
= \lim_{T \to \infty} E \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)^2 + \frac{2}{\sigma^2} (m_1(c, a, 1) + k) - \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t)
\]
\[
= 0 + m_1(c, a, 1) + k + 2(m_1(c, a, 1) + k) - \lim_{T \to \infty} E \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t) \tag{A.22}
\]

The last term is -2 times
\[
\lim_{T \to \infty} E \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\hat{\mu}_t - \mu_t) = E \int_0^1 [\gamma_1(1 - cr) + (\bar{c} - c)P(r)] dW(r) + E \chi_k^2 \tag{A.23}
\]

Using Lemma A.2, we have
\[
\lim_{c \to 0} \int_0^1 \gamma_1(1 - cr) dW(r) = \lim_{c \to 0} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{a - c} \frac{1}{3} (a c)^2 - 1 \int_0^1 (1 - a c) dW(s) \int_0^1 (1 - cr) dW(r)
\]
\[
= \lim_{c \to 0} \int_0^1 (1 - a c) dW(s) \int_0^1 (1 - cr) dW(r)
\]
\[
+ \int_0^1 (1 - a c) dW(s) \int_0^1 (1 - cr) dW(r)) = 3a^2 (\frac{1}{3} a - \frac{1}{3} a (1 - a)) = 1 \tag{A.24}
\]

\[
\lim_{c \to 0} E \int_0^1 (\bar{c} - c)P(r) dW(r) = \lim_{c \to 0} E \left[ \frac{\int_0^1 P(r) dW(r)}{\int_0^1 P(r)^2 dr} + \phi_p(1) \right] = 1 \tag{A.25}
\]

Substituting (A.24) and (A.25) in (A.23) establishes that the limit of (A.22) equals \( \lim_{c \to \infty} [m_1(c, a, 1) + k] \). □

**Proof of Theorem 4.1:** To prove this result, we need to derive the explicit forms of \( m_{1K}^{OL} \) and \( m_{0K}^{OL} \). We first consider the case where \( l \leq k \). Let \( H_l = (\Delta y_{l-1}, ..., \Delta y_{l-k})' \) and for \( i \leq j \), \( H_{i,j} = (\Delta y_{i-1}, ..., \Delta y_{j-1})' \). Define \( \alpha_{i,j} = (\alpha_i, ..., \alpha_j)' \). Let \( x_t = (t, y_{t-1})' \). Define the orthogonalized series \( H_t[x_t^*] \) as the residuals from regressing \( H_t[x_t] \) on a constant. Let
\[
\Sigma = E(H_t^* H_t'^*) = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix} \tag{A.26}
\]

For unrestricted estimation, we reformulate the regression as
\[
\Delta y_t = \theta_0 + x_t^* \theta_1 + H_t^* t = \theta_0 + H_t^* t \]
where the effective error is \( \epsilon_t = H_t^* t \theta_0 + H_t^* t \theta_1 + \epsilon_t \), with \( H_t^* t \theta \) defined analogously to \( H_t[x_t] \theta_0 \), and \( \theta_0 \) and \( \theta_1 \) are functions of the true parameters; specifically, \( \theta_1 = (\beta_1(\alpha - 1), \alpha - 1) \).
1). From this regression, it follows that

\[ T^{1/2}(\hat{\alpha}_{[1,l]} - \alpha_{[1,l]}) = \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1,l],t}^* H_{[1,l],t}^{*\prime} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1,l],t}^* e_t^* \right) + o_p(1) \]

\[ = \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1,l],t}^* H_{[1,l],t}^{*\prime} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1,l],t}^* e_t \right) \]

\[ + \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1,l],t}^* H_{[1,l],t}^{*\prime} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1,l],t}^* e_t \right) \]

\[ + o_p(1) \]

\[ \overset{d}{\rightarrow} N(0, \sigma^2 \Sigma_{11}^{-1} + \Sigma_{11}^{-1} \Sigma_{12} \alpha_{[l+1,K]}) \] (A.27)

with \( \alpha_{[l+1,K]} = (\alpha_{l+1}, ..., \alpha_k, \alpha_{k+1}, ..., \alpha_K)' \), where \( (\alpha_{k+1}, ..., \alpha_K)' = (0, ..., 0)' \). We can write

\[ \tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t = (\tilde{\theta}_0 - \theta_0) + x_t^* (\tilde{\theta}_1 - \theta_1) + H_{[1,l],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[1,l]} - \alpha_{[1,l]}) - H_{[l+1,K],t}^* \alpha_{[l+1,K]} \] (A.28)

We now calculate the cross product of the misspecified unrestricted estimator with the estimator from the largest unrestricted model. Denoting \( \tilde{\theta}_K^0, \tilde{\theta}_K^1, \tilde{\alpha}_{[1,l]}^K, \) and \( \tilde{\alpha}_{[l+1,K]}^K \) as the estimates from the largest model, we have:

\[ \tilde{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_t = (\tilde{\theta}_0^K - \theta_0) + x_t^* (\tilde{\theta}_1^K - \theta_1) + H_{[1,l],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[1,l]}^K - \alpha_{[1,l]}) + H_{[l+1,K],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l+1,K]}^K - \alpha_{[l+1,K]}) \] (A.29)

Here \( \sqrt{T}(\tilde{\alpha}_{[1,K]}^K - \alpha_{[1,K]}) \) is \( \sqrt{T}(\tilde{\alpha}_{[1,l]}^K - \alpha_{[1,l]}^K, \tilde{\alpha}_{[l+1,K]}^K - \alpha_{[l+1,K]}^K)' \) \( \overset{d}{\rightarrow} N(0, \sigma^2 \Sigma^{-1}) \). Let \( H_{[1,l]}^* = (H_{[1,l],l+2}^*, ..., H_{[1,l],T}^*)' \), \( H^* = (H_{[l+2}, ..., H_{[T]}^*) \). For \( m_{[K]}(c, \delta, 1, l) \), we calculate
\[
m_{1K}^{\bar{\alpha}}(c, \delta, 1, l) = E\left[ \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_1)(\hat{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_1) \right]
\]
\[
= E\left[ \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{T}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\theta}_0 - \theta_0)' (\hat{\theta}_0 - \theta_0) + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta_1)' \sum_{t=1}^{T} x_t^* x_t^* (\hat{\theta}_1^* - \theta_1) \right]
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1} - \alpha_{1,1})' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{1,1,t}' H_{1,1,t} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1}^* - \alpha_{1,1})
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1} - \alpha_{1,1})' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{1,1,t}' H_{[1+1,K],t} (\hat{\alpha}_{[1+1,K]}^* - \alpha_{[1+1,K]})
\]
\[
- \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \alpha_{[t+1,k]}' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[t+1,k],t}' H_{[t+1,k],t} (\hat{\alpha}_{[1,K]}^* - \alpha_{[1,K]})
\]
\[
- \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \alpha_{[t+1,k]}' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[t+1,k],t}' H_{[t+1,k],t} (\hat{\alpha}_{[1,K]}^* - \alpha_{[1,K]}) + o_p(1)
\]
\[
= 1 + E(F_{1c}) + E\left[ \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1} - \alpha_{1,1})' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{1,1,t}' H_{1,1,t} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1}^* - \alpha_{1,1}) \right]
\]
\[
= E(F_{1c}) + 1 + \lim_{T \to \infty} \text{tr}(H_{1,1}'(H_{1,1}H_{1,1})^{-1}H_{1,1}'(H'H')^{-1}H') + 0
\]
\[
= E(F_{1c}) + 1 + l \quad (A.30)
\]

where \( F_{1c} = \lim_{c \to -\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta_1)' \sum_{t=1}^{T} x_t^* x_t^* (\hat{\theta}_1^* - \theta_1) = O_p(1) \) with \( E(F_{1c}) \xrightarrow{\text{as}} 2 \), as \( c \to -\infty \). [see equations (15) and (36) in Hansen, 2010]. The last two equalities in (A.30) hold since

\[
E\left[ \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1} - \alpha_{1,1})' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{1,1,t}' H_{1,1,t} (\hat{\alpha}_{1,1}^* - \alpha_{1,1}) \right] = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \alpha_{[t+1,k]}' \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[t+1,k],t}' H_{[t+1,k],t} (\hat{\alpha}_{[1,K]}^* - \alpha_{[1,K]})
\]

using the properties of a projection matrix. Hence (A.30) reduces to \( 2 + 1 + l \) as \( c \to -\infty \).
For the restricted model, we can write

\[ \tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t = (\tilde{\theta}_0 - \theta_0) + H''_{[l],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l]} - \alpha_{[l]}) - H''_{[l+1,k],t}^* \alpha_{[l+1,k]} - \frac{ac}{T} y_{t-1}^* \] (A.32)

Then we calculate

\[ m_{0K}^{ols} (c, \delta, 1, l) = E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^T (\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)(\tilde{\mu}_t(K) - \mu_t) \]

\[ = E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{T}{\sigma^2} (\tilde{\theta}_0 - \theta_0)^' (\tilde{\theta}_0^K - \theta_0) - \frac{ac}{T \sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^T y_{t-1}^* x_t^* (\tilde{\theta}_0^K - \theta_1) \]

\[ + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l]} - \alpha_{[l]} )' \sum_{t=1}^T H''_{[l],t}^* H''_{[l],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l]}^K - \alpha_{[l]}) \]

\[ + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l]} - \alpha_{[l]} )' \sum_{t=1}^T H''_{[l+1,k],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l+1,k]} - \alpha_{[l+1,k]}) \]

\[ - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l+1,k]} - \alpha_{[l+1,k]})' \sum_{t=1}^T H''_{[l+1,k+1],t}^* (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l+1,k+1]} - \alpha_{[l+1,k+1]}) + o_p(1) \]

\[ = E(F_{01c}) + 1 + l \] (A.33)

where \( F_{01c} = \lim_{T \to \infty} - \frac{ac}{T \sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^T y_{t-1}^* x_t^* (\tilde{\theta}_0^K - \theta_1) = O_p(1) \). It follows \( F_{01c} \to 0 \) as \( c \to 0 \). So (A.33) reduces to \( 1 + l \) as \( c \to 0 \).

We next consider the case where \( l > k \), and show the results for \( m_{0K}^{ols} \) and \( m_{0K}^{ols} \) remain the same. For unrestricted estimation, similar to (A.26), we reformulate the regression as

\[ \Delta y_t = \theta_0 + x_t^* \theta_1 + H''_{[l],t}^* \alpha_{[l]} + \epsilon_t^* \] (A.34)

The effective error is \( \epsilon_t^* = -H'_{[k+1,l],t} \alpha_{[k+1,l]} + e_t \), where \( \alpha_{[l]} = (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k, ..., \alpha_l)' \) are the parameters corresponding to the selected lags and \( \alpha_{[k+1,l]} = (\alpha_{k+1}, ..., \alpha_l)' \) are the parameters corresponding to the over-specified lags. Note that the true parameters \( \alpha_{[k+1,l]} = (\alpha_{k+1}, ..., \alpha_l)' = (0, ..., 0)' \). In this regression, it follows that \( T^{1/2} (\tilde{\alpha}_{[l]} - \alpha_{[l]}) \to N(0, \sigma^2 \Sigma_{[l]}^{-1}) \), which is different from (A.27). Nevertheless, the subsequent calculations are exactly the same as in (A.30 – A.31), so the result remains the same. The same conclusion applies to the restricted counterpart.

Now we prove the unbiasedness property. We elaborate on the steps to prove the result for the case \( l \leq k \), with similar steps applicable to the case \( l > k \) with the same conclusion.
Firstly, for the restricted case

\[ E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{M_0^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) - T\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} \]

\[ = E \lim_{T \to \infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (e_t^2 - \sigma^2) + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)^2 + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} (m_{0K}^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l)) + \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t) \right] \]

\[ = 0 + m_0^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) + 2m_{0K}^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) - E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t) \quad (A.35) \]

The last term is -2 times

\[ E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t) \]

\[ = E \lim_{T \to \infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\tilde{\theta}_0 - \theta_0) - \frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t y_{t-1}^* \right. \]

\[ + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t H_{[1, l], t}^c(\tilde{\alpha}_{[1, l]} - \alpha_{[1, l]}) - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t H_{[1, l], t}^c \]

\[ = 1 + E(F_{01c}) + E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t H_{[1, l], t}^c \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} H_{[1, l], t}^c H_{[1, l], t}^c \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{T} H_{[1, l], t} e_t \right) + 0 \]

\[ = 1 + E(F_{01c}) + l \quad (A.36) \]

which is \( m_{0K}^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) \). Note that here we have \( \frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t y_{t-1}^* \overset{d}{\to} F_{01c} \). To show

\[ -\frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t y_{t-1}^* \]

and \( \frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_{t-1}^* x_t^* (\tilde{\theta}_1^K - \theta_1) \) follow the same limit \( F_{01c} \), notice that \( y_{t-1}^* = S x_t^* \), where \( S = [0, 1] \). We have

\[ \lim_{T \to \infty} -\frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_{t-1}^* x_t^* (\tilde{\theta}_1^K - \theta_1) = \left( -\frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t y_{t-1}^* \right) \]

\[ = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} S x_t^* x_t^* \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} x_t^* e_t - \frac{1}{T} S x_t^* e_t \right) \]

\[ = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{ac}{T\sigma^2} \left( S \sum_{t=1}^{T} x_t^* e_t - S \sum_{t=1}^{T} x_t^* e_t \right) = 0 \quad (A.37) \]

Then, adding the terms in \((A.35)\) yields the final result \( m_0^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) \).

For the unrestricted case,

\[ E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{M_1^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) - T\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} \]

\[ = E \lim_{T \to \infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (e_t^2 - \sigma^2) + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t)^2 + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} (m_{1K}^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l)) + \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t) \right] \]

\[ = 0 + m_1^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) + 2m_{1K}^{ols}(c, \delta, 1, l) - E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t(\tilde{\mu}_t(l) - \mu_t) \quad (A.38) \]
The last term is -2 times
\[
E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t (\hat{\beta}_t(l) - \mu_t)
= E \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t (\hat{\theta}_0 - \theta_0) + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t x_t' (\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta_1)
+ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t H_{[1,l],t} (\hat{\alpha}_{[1,l]} - \alpha_{[1,l]}) - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t H_{[l+1,k],t} \alpha_{[l+1,k]}
= 1 + E(F_{1,c}) + l
\] (A.39)
which is \( m_{1,c}^{\text{ols}}(c, \delta, 1, l) \). Hence, adding the terms in (A.38), we obtain the final result
\[
m_{1,c}^{\text{gl}(s)}(c, \delta, 1, l) \]

**Proof of Theorem 4.2:** This result is proved in Theorem 4.1; see (A.30-A.33).

**Proof of Theorem 4.3:** We follow the steps as in the proof of Theorem 4.1. First we derive the explicit forms of \( m_{1,K}^{\text{gl}} \) and \( m_{0,K}^{\text{gl}} \). For \( l < k \) (the misspecified case), Lemma A.1 (a)-(d) still holds, and compared to (e) of Lemma A.1 now we have
\[
T^{1/2} (\hat{\alpha}_{[1,l]} - \alpha_{[1,l]}) \overset{d}{\to} N(0, \sigma^2 Q_{11}^{-1}) + Q_{121}^{-1} Q_{120}^{-1} \]
(A.40)
where
\[
Q = E(L_t L_t') = \begin{bmatrix}
Q_{11} & Q_{12} \\
Q_{21} & Q_{22}
\end{bmatrix}
\]
For any \( i \leq j \), define \( L_{[i,j],t} = (\Delta u_{t-\cdot,i}, \ldots, \Delta u_{t-\cdot,j})' \). Following the steps in proving Theorem 2.1, the forecast error from the misspecified FGLS model can be expressed as
\[
\frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} \bar{c}_{[rT]} = \frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} (\bar{\mu}_{[rT]} - \mu_{[rT]})
= A_{[rT]} + \hat{B}_{[rT]} + C_{[rT]}
\] (A.41)
where \( A_{[rT]} \) is defined as in (A.14) and
\[
\hat{B}_{[rT]} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} (\bar{\alpha}_i - \alpha_i) \Delta \hat{u}_{[rT] - i} = \frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} (\bar{\alpha}_{[1,l]} - \alpha_{[1,l]})' \hat{L}_{[1,l],[rT]}
\]
\[
C_{[rT]} = -\sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} \bar{\alpha}_i \Delta u_{[rT] - i} = -\frac{T^{1/2}}{\sigma} \alpha_{[l+1,K]} \hat{L}_{[l+1,K],[rT]}
\] (A.42)
Following the results of Theorem 2.1, Corollary 2.1 and proof of Theorem 4.1, the cross products \( m_{1,K}^{\text{gl}}(c, a, \delta, 1, l) \), \( m_{0,K}^{\text{gl}}(c, a, \delta, 1, l) \) can be easily derived:
\[
\lim_{c \to -\infty} m_{1,K}^{\text{gl}}(c, a, \delta, 1, l) = 1 + 1 + l
\]
\[
\lim_{c \to 0} m_{0,K}^{\text{gl}}(c, a, \delta, 1, l) = 1 + l
\] (A.43)
which also hold for \( l > k \). The subsequent unbiasedness property can be established in a manner similar to the proof of Theorem 4.1 and is hence omitted. ▲

**Proof of Theorem 4.4:** This result is proved in Theorem 4.3.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX B: DETAILED MONTE CARLO RESULTS

This section reports the results of a set of Monte Carlo experiments to assess the adequacy of the asymptotic approximations in finite samples and evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed approach relative to existing methods. To facilitate a direct comparison, we adopt the same design as Hansen (2010). In particular, the sample size \( T \in \{50, 200\} \), the innovations \( e_t \sim i.i.d N(0, 1) \), the trend parameters are set at \( \beta_0 = \beta_1 = 0 \) and the true lag order \( k \in \{0, 4, 8\} \). Results are presented for \( p \in \{0, 1\} \).

### B.1. Forecast Risk with Known Lag Order

The first two experiments assume knowledge of the true order \( k \) thereby enabling us to delineate the effect of persistence uncertainty on the forecasts. With reference to equation (2.1), the first data generating process (DGP) sets \( \alpha_1 = \cdots = \alpha_k = 0 \), varies \( c \) from -20 to 0, which implies a range for \( \alpha \) of \([0.6, 1]\) for \( T = 50 \) and a range of \([0.9, 1]\) for \( T = 200 \). For each parameter configuration, the finite sample forecast risk
\[
\mathrm{TE}[\hat{\mu}_{T+1} - \mu_{T+1}]^2
\]
is calculated for six estimators: unrestricted FGLS estimator, DFGLS pretest estimator and FGLS Mallows averaging estimator together with their three OLS counterparts. The risk is calculated using 500,000 Monte Carlo replications.

Figures B.1 and B.2 present the results for the first DGP for \( p = 0 \) and \( p = 1 \), respectively. It is clear that FGLS incurs lower risk than OLS for all three types of estimators: unrestricted, pretest and averaging. This suggests that the efficiency gain of using FGLS not only lies in the unrestricted case, but is more broadly applicable to the pretesting and averaging schemes. Moreover, as in the OLS case illustrated by Hansen (2010), the FGLS pretest estimator exhibits high risk and the FGLS Mallows averaging estimator uniformly dominates the unrestricted FGLS estimator for \( p = 1 \).\(^1\) For \( p = 0 \), the superiority of the proposed estimator over unrestricted FGLS estimation is only discernible for \( c > -5 \). In terms of comparison with OLS model averaging, the risk of the proposed estimator is uniformly smaller for \( p = 1 \) and nearly uniformly smaller for \( p = 0 \). Overall, our FGLS Mallows averaging estimator performs well and displays lowest risk among all estimators for \( c < -5 \) when \( p = 1 \).

The second DGP sets \( \alpha_j = -(-\theta)^j \) for \( j = 1, \ldots, k \) and \( \theta = 0.6 \). The results are presented in Figures B.3 and B.4, which exhibit the same overall pattern as observed in Figures B.1 and B.2, respectively, i.e., the FGLS estimators dominate their OLS counterparts, and for a large range of \( c \) values (around \( c < -3 \)), the FGLS averaging estimator has the smallest forecast risk among all estimators when the model includes a deterministic trend.

### B.2. Forecast Risk with Unknown Lag Order

We next consider the situation where the number of autoregressive lags \( k \) is unknown. Three types of estimators are compared: (1) the Mallows selection estimator (denoted S-OLS/FGLS), which selects unrestricted models from AR(1) through AR(\( K + 1 \)), i.e., \( \hat{\mu}_t(0) \) through \( \hat{\mu}_t(K) \); (2) the Mallows averaging estimator (denoted PA-OLS/FGLS, PA

\(^1\)However, this is only observed in simulations; to have a concrete judgment, one might follow Zhang, Ullah and Zhao (2016) to derive sufficient conditions which involves sample size, the number of parameters and possibly the persistence parameter.
abbreviating partial averaging) that averages over this set of unrestricted models; (3) the general averaging estimator (denoted GA-OLS/FGLS) which combines all models from $\{\hat{\mu}(l)\}$ and $\{\tilde{\mu}(l)\}$ for $l \in \{0, 1, ..., K\}$. Again, we set $\alpha_j = (-\theta)^j$ for $j = 1, ..., k$ and $\theta = 0.6$.

Figures B.5 and B.6 present the results for the six forecast methods. All three types of FGLS estimators uniformly dominate their OLS counterparts. The risk reduction is substantial. Overall, FGLS general averaging achieves uniformly lowest risk among all averaging/selection strategies when $p = 1$ and is competitive with the best estimator (which turns out to be PA-FGLS for an intermediate range of $c$ values when $T = 200$) for each value of $c$ when $p = 0$. The results are very similar across all $K$ and $T$. 
Figure B.1. Forecast risk of OLS averaging and GLS averaging, $p = 0$
Figure B.2. Forecast risk of OLS averaging and GLS averaging, $p = 1$
Figure B.3. Forecast risk of OLS averaging and GLS averaging, $p = 0$
Figure B.4. Forecast risk of OLS averaging and GLS averaging, $p = 1$
Figure B.5. Forecast risk of General OLS averaging and General GLS averaging, $p = 0$
Figure B.6. Forecast risk of General OLS averaging and General GLS averaging, $p = 1$
This appendix provides additional empirical results pertaining to multi-step forecasts as well as results based on the data transformed to stationarity as in McCracken and Ng (2016).

**C.1. Multi-Step Forecasts**

While the focus of our paper is on one-step ahead forecasts, we also present some empirical results for multi-step forecasts. These forecasts are obtained iteratively using the simple recursion in step 5 of Algorithm 1. In particular, the $h$-step ahead unrestricted GLS forecast is constructed by iterating on

$$\hat{y}_{T+j} = z_{T+j} + \bar{\alpha}(\hat{y}_{T+j-1} - z_{T+j-1}) + \bar{\alpha}_1(\Delta\hat{y}_{T+j-1} - \Delta z_{T+j-1}) + \cdots + \bar{\alpha}_k(\Delta\hat{y}_{T+j-k} - \Delta z_{T+j-k})$$

for $j = 1, \ldots, h$, with $\hat{y}_{T} = y_T$ if $T < T$. The OLS-based forecasts are constructed similarly (see Hamilton, 1994, p. 80-82). Then the Mallows criteria for the restricted and unrestricted models and the corresponding weights are obtained as in sections 3 and 4. For strictly stationary data satisfying certain mixing conditions, Hansen (2010) suggests an alternative approach based on multi-step cross validation. While outside the scope of the present paper, a systematic comparison of the two approaches within the near unit root framework is an interesting topic for future research.

Tables C.1 and C.2, which are the analogues of tables 1 and 2 respectively in the main text, present the results for 6-month and 12-month ahead forecasts. The results in table C.1 show that the GLS-based methods still dominate the OLS-based methods: GA-GLS stands out as the best for 6-month ahead forecasts and PA-GLS is the best for 12-month ahead forecasts although in the latter case, GA-GLS is better than PA-GLS in terms of pairwise comparison, with the percentage of wins at 56.1%. These results are consistent with those reported in table C.2 where the GLS-based methods dominate their OLS counterparts for at least six core macroeconomic series regardless of forecast horizon.

**C.2. Forecasts using the McCracken and Ng (2016) Transformation**

In this section, we present results for the case where the data are transformed to stationarity according to the codes provided by McCracken and Ng (2016). The results are reported in tables C.3 and C.4. As suggested by a referee, this set of results includes forecasts obtained by selecting the number of lags using AIC (labeled S-AIC-GLS and S-AIC-OLS). The results show that our preferred approach based on GLS averaging continues to dominate OLS-based methods. In contrast, selection from a set of models with different lags based on AIC underperforms compared to the averaging methods, which applies to both GLS-based or OLS-based model selection. For multi-step forecasts, PA-GLS dominates the other methods, which is not unexpected as the benefits of averaging over the unit root restriction are likely to be smaller when applied to stationary data.


### Table C.1: Percentage wins/losses of different forecasting methods, multi-step \( h = 6, 12 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( h )</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>S-GLS</th>
<th>PA-GLS</th>
<th>GA-GLS</th>
<th>PT-GLS</th>
<th>S-OLS</th>
<th>PA-OLS</th>
<th>GA-OLS</th>
<th>PT-OLS</th>
<th>ALL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>19.51</td>
<td>13.01</td>
<td>49.59</td>
<td>80.49</td>
<td>63.42</td>
<td>39.02</td>
<td>44.72</td>
<td>9.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>80.49</td>
<td>28.46</td>
<td>62.60</td>
<td>85.37</td>
<td>53.66</td>
<td>60.16</td>
<td>17.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GA-GLS</td>
<td>86.99</td>
<td>71.55</td>
<td>69.92</td>
<td>94.31</td>
<td>75.61</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
<td>50.41</td>
<td>37.40</td>
<td>30.08</td>
<td>73.17</td>
<td>65.04</td>
<td>50.41</td>
<td>48.78</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>19.51</td>
<td>25.20</td>
<td>59.35</td>
<td>82.93</td>
<td>69.92</td>
<td>54.47</td>
<td>58.54</td>
<td>7.32</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>80.49</td>
<td>43.90</td>
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<td>84.55</td>
<td>84.55</td>
<td>84.55</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>GA-GLS</td>
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<td>56.10</td>
<td>78.86</td>
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<td>82.93</td>
<td>77.24</td>
<td>13.82</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
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<td>33.33</td>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>73.17</td>
<td>65.85</td>
<td>65.85</td>
<td>35.77</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: this table shows the percentage of the 123 series for which a method listed in a row outperforms a method in a column, include the other all in the last column.

### Table C.2: Relative MSFE of eight core macroeconomic time series, multi-step \( h = 6, 12 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( h )</th>
<th>Industrial production</th>
<th>Personal income</th>
<th>Mfg &amp; trade sales</th>
<th>Nonag. employment</th>
<th>CPI</th>
<th>Consumption deflator</th>
<th>CPI exc. food</th>
<th>PPI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>.960</td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>.967</td>
<td>.864***</td>
<td>1.080</td>
<td>.996</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>.946</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>.948</td>
<td>.865**</td>
<td>.996</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GA-GLS</td>
<td>.943</td>
<td>.901*</td>
<td>.932</td>
<td>.879**</td>
<td>.974</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>.889**</td>
<td>1.014</td>
<td>.990</td>
<td>.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.891</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td>.820**</td>
<td>1.008</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.822**</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>.891</td>
<td>.834*</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.848**</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
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<td>.840**</td>
<td>.925</td>
<td>.874*</td>
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<td>.999</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>.946</td>
<td>.937</td>
<td>.918**</td>
<td>.973</td>
<td>.961</td>
<td>.970</td>
</tr>
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<td>.923</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>.903**</td>
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<td>.891</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td>.820**</td>
<td>1.008</td>
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<td>.899</td>
<td>.822**</td>
<td>.980</td>
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<td>.961</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.891</td>
<td>.834*</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.848**</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PT-GLS</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td>.840**</td>
<td>.925</td>
<td>.874*</td>
<td>1.007</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S-OLS</td>
<td>.994</td>
<td>1.039</td>
<td>.994</td>
<td>.951**</td>
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<td>1.015</td>
<td>.978</td>
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<tr>
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<td>PA-OLS</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>.955*</td>
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<td>.989</td>
<td>.956*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GA-OLS</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>.899*</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td>.900***</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td>.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>PT-OLS</td>
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<td>.840**</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td>.887*</td>
<td>.988</td>
<td>.994</td>
<td>.973</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *denotes 10%, **denotes 5%, and ***denotes 1% significance level for a two-sided Diebold and Mariano (1995) test. The benchmark is an unrestricted OLS estimation method with 12 lags.
Table C.3. Percentage wins/losses of different forecasting methods [McCracken-Ng transformation]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>S-GLS</th>
<th>PA-GLS</th>
<th>GA-GLS</th>
<th>PT-GLS</th>
<th>S-AIC-GLS</th>
<th>S-OLS</th>
<th>PA-OLS</th>
<th>GA-OLS</th>
<th>PT-OLS</th>
<th>S-AIC-OLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mfg &amp; trade</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonag. CPI</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPI</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table C.4. Relative MSFE of eight core macroeconomic time series [McCracken-Ng transformation]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>h</th>
<th>Industrial production</th>
<th>Personal income</th>
<th>Mfg &amp; trade sales</th>
<th>Nonag. employment</th>
<th>CPI</th>
<th>Consumption deflator</th>
<th>CPI excl. food</th>
<th>PPI</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>S-GLS</td>
<td>.969**</td>
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<td>.992</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>.992</td>
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<tr>
<td>PA-GLS</td>
<td>.963**</td>
<td>.979**</td>
<td>.969**</td>
<td>.945**</td>
<td>.975**</td>
<td>.979</td>
<td>.975**</td>
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<td>.979**</td>
<td>.969**</td>
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<td>.978**</td>
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<td>.977**</td>
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<td>1.026</td>
<td>1.011</td>
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<td>.993</td>
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<td>.974**</td>
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Note: * denotes 10%, ** denotes 5%, and *** denotes 1% significance level for a two-sided Diebold and Mariano (1995) test. The benchmark is an unrestricted OLS estimation method with 12 lags.

Proofs, Detailed Monte Carlo and Empirical Results

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