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TESTING GENERALIZED REGRESSION MONOTONICITY

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We propose a test for a generalized regression monotonicity (GRM) hypothesis. The GRM hypothesis is the sharp testable implication of the monotonicity of certain latent structures, as we show in this article. Examples include the monotonicity of the conditional mean function when only interval data are available for the dependent variable and the monotone instrumental variable assumption of Manski and Pepper (2000). These instances of latent monotonicity can be tested using our test. Moreover, the GRM hypothesis includes regression monotonicity and stochastic monotonicity as special cases. Thus, our test also serves as an alternative to existing tests for those hypotheses. We show that our test controls the size uniformly over a broad set of data generating processes asymptotically, is consistent against fixed alternatives, and has nontrivial power against some $n^{-1/2}$ local alternatives.

1. INTRODUCTION

In this article, we construct a test for the generalized regression monotonicity (GRM) null hypothesis (H_0) against the alternative hypothesis (H_1) defined as:

$$H_0: E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X=x_1, Z=z] \geq E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X=x_2, Z=z], \quad \textbf{(1.1)}$$
$$\text{for all } x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X} \text{ and } x_1 \geq x_2, \text{ for all } z \in \mathcal{Z} \text{ and } \tau \in \mathcal{T},$$

$$H_1: E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau^*)|X=x_1^*, Z=z^*] < E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau^*)|X=x_2^*, Z=z^*], \quad \textbf{(1.2)}$$
$$\text{for some } x_1^*, x_2^* \in \mathcal{X} \text{ and } x_1^* \geq x_2^*, \text{ for some } z^* \in \mathcal{Z} \text{ and for some } \tau^* \in \mathcal{T},$$

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where $W = (Y', X', Z')'$ are observed random variables generated from a distribution P, and E_P denotes the expectation under P. Our null hypothesis generalizes the classical regression monotonicity hypothesis (e.g., Schlee, 1982, more references given later) in the sense that we allow the functions $f^{(1)}(W, \tau)$ and $f^{(2)}(W, \tau)$ on the two sides of the inequality to be different. We give two examples below where the generalization is necessary. We also allow them to be indexed by $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$, where $\mathcal{T}$ can be either finite or infinite, and allow the presence of control variables Z. The random vectors Y, X, and Z are of dimensions $d_y \geq 1$, $d_x \geq 1$, and $d_z \geq 0$, respectively.[1] The sets $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Z}$ are the support sets of X and Z, respectively. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\mathcal{X} \subseteq [0,1]^{d_x}$ and $\mathcal{Z} \subseteq [0,1]^{d_z}$.[2]

The null hypothesis in (1.1) is the sharp testable implication of the monotonicity of certain latent structures. One example is the monotonicity of the conditional mean of an interval-observed dependent variable. The interval data problem is wide-spread in empirical research either due to survey design, where people are asked to choose from several brackets rather than to report their actual value of a variable, or due to some inherent missing data problems, for example, potential wage for females. As a result, regressions using interval data as the dependent variable are unavoidable sometimes. In such situations, Manski and Tamer (2002) provide econometric tools for estimation, but a nonparametric test for the monotonicity of the regression function has not been studied.

Another example is the monotonicity of potential outcomes in an instrumental variable, better known as the monotone instrumental variable (MIV) assumption after Manski and Pepper (2000).[3] The MIV assumption has been recognized as a useful identification tool in Manski and Pepper (2000, 2009), Kreider and Pepper (2007), Kreider and Hill (2009), and Gundersen, Kreider, and Pepper (2012).[4] However, a test for MIV validity has not been developed.[5] We show that the sharp testable implications of both the latent regression monotonicity and the MIV assumption are in the form of GRM, and our test can be used for these hypotheses.

The GRM hypothesis also includes regression monotonicity and stochastic monotonicity as special cases. Thus, our test also offers an alternative to existing

[1] If $d_z = 0$, then there is no Z in the model.

[2] A strictly monotone transformation can always be applied to bring the support of each component to within $[0, 1]$ without changing the information content of the inequalities. We provide detailed suggestions for the transformation in Section 6.1.

[3] Note that Chetverikov and Wilhelm (2017) define a monotonicity condition which they also name monotone IV. Their monotone IV condition is different from that defined in Manski and Pepper (2000). In particular, it does not involve a partially observed variable. It is of the form of the stochastic monotonicity condition as studied in Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009), and is a direct special case of our null hypothesis (1.1).

[4] A Stata command for bounding treatment effects under the MIV and other related assumptions is developed by McCarthy, Millimet, and Roy (2015).

[5] Chetverikov (2013) develops a test for the related monotone treatment response and the monotone treatment selection assumptions. Kitagawa (2015) develops a test for IV validity in the context of local average treatment effect.

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tests of those. Regression monotonicity arises in a lot of problems in economics. For example, many comparative static hypotheses directly take the form of regression monotonicity. In addition, Chetverikov (2013) shows that regression monotonicity is a testable implication of the monotone treatment response assumption and monotone treatment selection assumption introduced in Manski and Pepper (2000). Existing tests for regression monotonicity have been proposed by Schlee (1982), Bowman, Jones, and Gijbels (1998), Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart (2000), Gijbels, Hall, Jones, and Koch (2000), Hall and Heckman (2000), Dumbgen and Spokoiny (2001), Durot (2003), Beraud, Huet, and Laurent (2005), Wang and Meyer (2011), and Chetverikov (2013).

Testing stochastic monotonicity is useful for bounding parameters in a selection model and for assessing the stationarity of a Markov process. See Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009) and Seo (2015) for details and further applications. Existing tests for stochastic monotonicity include Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009), Delgado and Escanciano (2012), and Seo (2015). We compare these existing tests with our test in Section 2.

To test the GRM, we adapt Andrews and Shi's (2013a, AS hereafter) instrumental function approach to transform the conditional inequality hypothesis into an inequality hypothesis that involves only unconditional moments without loss of information content of the original inequality hypothesis. The adaption is needed because each of our inequalities involves conditional moments evaluated at two *different* values of the conditioning variable, for which the AS approach does not apply.

After the transformation, we approximate each unconditional moment by its sample counterpart, and construct a Cramér-von Mises type test. Since our hypothesis is in the form of many inequalities, we employ the generalized moment selection method (GMS) to improve the power of the test as in AS, and propose both a bootstrap GMS critical value and a multiplier GMS critical value. We show that our test has uniform asymptotic size control over a broad set of data generating processes, is consistent against fixed alternatives, and has nontrivial local power against some $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives. We conduct Monte-Carlo simulations for two examples to examine the finite-sample properties of our test.

A different test from ours for the GRM may be constructed by verifying the conditions in Lee, Song, and Whang's (2016) recent article. Compared to such a test, our test has the advantage of not requiring a nonparametric estimator of the conditional moments.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. In Section 2, we give five motivating examples for testing GRM. We introduce the modified instrumental function approach, and propose our test in Section 3. Uniform size and power properties of our tests are given in Sections 4 and 5, respectively. Section 6 reports Monte-Carlo simulation results, and Section 7 extends our test to test the nonparametric generalized regression monotonicity. Section 8 concludes. All mathematical proofs are deferred to the Appendix.

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We adopt the following convention in the article: for $x_1, x_2 \in R^{d_x}$ with $d_x \geq 2$, we say that $x_1 \geq x_2$ iff $x_{1s} \geq x_{2s}$ for all $s = 1, \ldots, d_x$, where x_{js} is the sth element of vector x_j. Also, we say that $x_1 > x_2$ iff $x_{1s} \geq x_{2s}$ for all $s = 1, \ldots, d_x$, and $x_{1k} > x_{2k}$ for some $k \in \{1, \ldots, d_x\}$. Finally, $x_1 \gg x_2$ iff $x_{1s} > x_{2s}$ for all $s = 1, \ldots, d_x$.

2. EXAMPLES OF GRM

GRM hypotheses of the form in (1.1) are of interest in a wide array of econometric problems. We give five examples below. In the last three examples, the GRM hypotheses are the natural hypotheses of interest, while in the first two examples, the GRM hypotheses are sharp implications of hypotheses that are not directly testable because they involve latent variables.

2.1. GRM as Sharp Testable Implication of Hypotheses on Latent Variables

We first define the concept of sharp testable implication. Such a concept has not been formally defined, to our knowledge, but has been informally used by various people. Let all variables considered below take values in a Borel measurable subset of R^d for some positive integer d and be measurable with respect to the Borel sigma field.

DEFINITION 1. *Suppose that the random vector (X, U) takes values on the set $\mathcal{Z}$. Let H^{00} be a hypothesis on the distribution of (X, U). Let H^0 be a hypothesis on the marginal distribution of X. Suppose that the econometrician can only observe X and can potentially observe a large enough sample of X to infer its distribution. Then*

(*a*) *H^0 is a testable implication of H^{00} if H^0 is a necessary condition of H^{00}.*

(*b*) *H^0 is the sharp testable implication of H^{00} given the settings above, if H^0 being satisfied by the marginal distribution of X implies that there exists a random variable U such that the joint distribution of (X, U) has support on $\mathcal{Z}$ and satisfies H^{00}.*

Remark. When we test H^{00} through H^0, a rejection of H^0 implies a rejection of H^{00} if H^0 is a testable implication of H^{00}. However, it can happen that H^{00} is violated but H^0 holds, in which case any statistical test including ours will asymptotically detect the violation with probability less than or equal to size, if H^0 is the sharp testable implication of H^{00}. The sharpness captures the requirement that H^0 exploits all the population information useful for detecting the violation of H^{00}, and that H^0 cannot be strengthened without additional assumptions. The concept is analogous to the concept of sharp identified set defined in Berry and Tamer (2006). Just as a sharp identified set characterizes the strongest restriction of the model and data on the parameter, the sharp testable implication characterizes

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the strongest restriction of the model and the hypothesis of interest (H^{00}) on the distribution of the observables.[6]

2.1.1. Regression Monotonicity with an Interval-Observed Dependent Variable.

Example 2.1
Consider a dependent variable Y and covariate vectors X and Z. The researcher is interested in knowing whether $E[Y|X = x, Z = z]$ is monotonically increasing in x. However, Y is not observed. Instead, Y is known to lie in the observed random interval $[Y_\ell, Y_u]$, as considered in Manski and Tamer (2002). This interval may collapse to Y for some individuals in the sample, but may have positive length for other individuals. This may be a result of rounding, imprecise reporting of income in a survey, or missing data. The case of rounding is self-explanatory. In the case of imprecise reporting, $Y_u = Y_\ell$ for respondents giving a precise answer, $[Y_\ell, Y_u]$ is the bracket that the respondent chooses when she does not give a precise numerical answer, and $[Y_\ell, Y_u]$ is the interval formed by a logical or theoretical upper and lower bound of Y if the respondent does not give a response. The case of missing data is an extreme case of imprecise reporting where the respondent either gives a precise response or no response at all. Our test proposed below allows the rounding, the imprecision in reporting, and the data missingness to be endogenous, as do Manski and Tamer (2002).

Since Y is not perfectly observed, one cannot directly test the null hypothesis:

$$H_0^{LRM} : E[Y|X = x_1, Z = z] \geq E[Y|X = x_2, Z = z] \quad \text{for all } x_1 \geq x_2, \text{ and for all } z, \tag{2.1}$$

where LRM stands for "latent regression monotonicity." We show that H_0^{LRM} can be tested through a GRM-type hypothesis:

$$H_0^{GRM} : E[Y_u|X = x_1, Z = z] \geq E[Y_\ell|X = x_2, Z = z] \quad \text{for all } x_1 \geq x_2, \text{ for all } z. \tag{2.2}$$

We show in the next theorem that H_0^{GRM} in (2.2) is the sharp testable implication of H_0^{LRM}. The proof of this theorem is given in the appendix.

THEOREM 2.1. (*i*) *Suppose that the distribution of* (Y, X, Z) *satisfies* H_0^{LRM}, *and that* $Y \in [Y_u, Y_\ell]$. *Then* H_0^{GRM} *in* (*2.2*) *holds.*
(*ii*) *Suppose that the distribution of* (Y_u, Y_ℓ, X, Z) *satisfies* H_0^{GRM} *in* (*2.2*). *Then, there exists a random variable* Y *such that* $Y \in [Y_\ell, Y_u]$ *everywhere, and that the distribution of* (Y, X, Z) *satisfies* H_0^{LRM}.

Remark. In general, whether any test can have power against H_0^{LRM} through testing H_0^{GRM} depends on the functions $E[Y_u|X = x, Z = z]$ and $E[Y_\ell|X =$

[6] Indeed, Kitagawa (2015) calls testable implications with the same property strongest testable implications.

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$x, Z = z]$. The closer these two functions are, the more likely it is for us to detect the violation of H_0^{LRM} via H_0^{GRM}. In general, the narrower the random intervals $[Y_\ell, Y_u]$'s are for more individuals, the closer the two functions $E[Y_u|X = x, Z = z]$ and $E[Y_\ell|X = x, Z = z]$ are, and we will illustrate this in the simulations. In the case of rounding, the smaller the rounding errors are, the closer Y_ℓ is to Y_u for every individual. In the case of imprecise reporting and missing data, the more individuals giving precise answers, the closer $E[Y_u|X = x, Z = z]$ and $E[Y_\ell|X = x, Z = z]$ will be. The instrument Z is not necessary for there to be power, but can often help if Z moves $Y_u - Y_\ell$.

2.1.2. Hypotheses of Monotone Instrumental Variable (MIV).

Example 2.2
The MIV condition proposed by Manski and Pepper (2000) has been used to obtain tighter identification in a selection model. One can test the MIV condition by testing a hypothesis of the form of H_0 in (1.1). To fix ideas, let D be a binary treatment and $(Y(0), Y(1))$ be the potential outcomes. The variable $Y(0)$ is only observed when $D = 0$, and $Y(1)$ is only observed when $D = 1$. Let the observed outcome $Y = DY(1) + (1 - D)Y(0)$. Let X be a monotone IV in the sense of Manski and Pepper (2000):

$$H_0^{MIV} : E[Y(d)|X = x_1] \geq E[Y(d)|X = x_2], \quad \text{for all } x_1 \geq x_2, \text{ for } d = 0, 1. \tag{2.3}$$

Suppose that $Y(0)$ and $Y(1)$ lie in the known deterministic interval $[y_l, y_u]$. Then the MIV condition in (2.3) implies the following hypothesis:

$$H_0^{GRM} : E[f^{(1)}(Y, \tau)|X = x_1] \geq E[f^{(2)}(Y, \tau)|X = x_2], \quad \text{for all } x_1 \geq x_2, \text{ for } \tau = 1 \text{ and } 2, \tag{2.4}$$

and

$$f^{(1)}(Y, 1) = YD + y_u \cdot (1 - D), \qquad f^{(1)}(Y, 2) = y_u D + Y \cdot (1 - D),$$
$$f^{(2)}(Y, 1) = YD + y_l \cdot (1 - D), \qquad f^{(2)}(Y, 2) = y_l D + Y \cdot (1 - D). \tag{2.5}$$

In this example, X can be a vector. Additional control variables Z may be present.

As shown in the following theorem, H_0^{MIV} implies H_0^{GRM}, and thus should be rejected if the latter is rejected. The theorem also shows that H_0^{GRM} is the sharp testable implication of H_0^{MIV}. The proof of the theorem is given in the appendix.

THEOREM 2.2. (*i*) *Suppose that the distribution of* $(Y(1), Y(0), D, X)$ *satisfies* H_0^{MIV}, *and* $Y(1), Y(0) \in [y_\ell, y_u]$. *Then the distribution of* (Y, D, X) *satisfies* H_0^{GRM}.

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(*ii*) *Suppose that* $Y \in [y_\ell, y_u]$, *and the distribution of* (Y, D, X) *satisfies* H_0^{GRM}. *Then there exists* $(Y(1), Y(0))$ *such that* $Y = DY(1) + (1-D)Y(0)$, $y_\ell \le Y(1), Y(0) \le y_u$, *and the distribution of* $(Y(1), Y(0), D, X)$ *satisfies* H_0^{MIV}.

Remarks.

1. The existence of finite bounds y_u and y_ℓ is important for the testability of H_0^{MIV}. If $y_u = \infty$ and $y_\ell = -\infty$, H_0^{GRM} can never be violated and thus H_0^{MIV} is not testable. In fact, if $y_u = \infty$ and $y_\ell = -\infty$, it is not clear how the MIV assumption can be used for inference on treatment effects, either. For this reason, the finite bounds are usually assumed when MIV is used.
2. The remarks below Theorem 2.1 apply here as well, with H_0^{LRM} replaced by H_0^{MIV}, and with $E[Y_u|X=x, Z=z]$ and $E[Y_\ell|X=x, Z=z]$ replaced by $E[y_u \cdot (1-D)|X=x]$ and $E[y_\ell \cdot (1-D)|X=x]$ for $\tau = 1$, and $E[y_u D|X=x]$ and $E[y_\ell D|X=x]$ for $\tau = 2$, respectively. Note that for $\tau = 1$,

   $$E[y_u(1-D)|X=x] = E[y_u|D=0, X=x]P(D=0|X=x).$$

   We can see that the smaller $P(D=0|X=x)$ and the smaller the gap between y_u and y_ℓ, the more likely it is for us (or anyone with only the observables (Y, D, X) and the bounds $[y_\ell, y_u]$) to detect the violation of H_0^{MIV} through $f^{(1)}(Y, 1)$ and $f^{(2)}(Y, 1)$. Similarly, the smaller $P(D=1|X=x)$ is and the smaller the gap between y_u and y_ℓ, the easier it is to detect the violation of H_0^{MIV} through $f^{(1)}(Y, 0)$ and $f^{(2)}(Y, 0)$. We will demonstrate these in the simulations.
3. Note that the objective here is not to identify the treatment effect, but to test the validity of the MIV assumption. It is true that if X is completely irrelevant in that it does not affect either $Y(0), Y(1)$ or D, then the test cannot reject. It also is not supposed to reject because H_0^{MIV} is satisfied in this case. On the other hand, if X does not influence D and thus is an irrelevant IV in the traditional sense, but it influences $Y(0)$ and $Y(1)$ in a nonmonotonic fashion, it is still possible for H_0^{GRM} to be violated and thus rejected. Therefore, a strong first stage is not necessary for our test to have power.
4. As we mentioned in the Introduction, the only testing framework that covers Examples 2.1 and 2.2 is Lee, Song, and Whang's (2016).[7] To be specific, let $\tilde{x} = (x_1, x_2, z)$, $\widetilde{\mathcal{X}} = \{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Z} |\ x_1 \ge x_2\}$, $q_{\tau,1}(\tilde{x}) = E[f^{(1)}(Y, \tau)|X = x_1, Z = z]$ and $q_{\tau,2}(\tilde{x}) = E[f^{(2)}(Y, \tau)|X = x_2, Z = z]$, and let $\nu_\tau(\tilde{x}) = q_{\tau,2}(\tilde{x}) - q_{\tau,1}(\tilde{x})$. Then, (1.1) can be rewritten into Lee, Song and Whang's (2016) framework:

   $$H_0 :\ \nu_\tau(\tilde{x}) \le 0 \ \text{ for all } (\tilde{x}, \tau) \in \widetilde{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{T}. \tag{2.6}$$

[7] Lee, Song, and Whang (2016) is an extension of the seminal article Lee, Song, and Whang (2013). The latter deals with conditional moment inequalities where in each inequality, the conditional moment of some function evaluated at only one value not two values of the conditioning variable is involved. Thus the article does not cover the hypotheses that we consider.

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Lee, Song, and Whang's (2016) conditions for the validity of their test may cover hypothesis (2.6) under suitable primitive conditions. We do not aim to provide those primitive conditions in this article because we take a different approach toward testing the GRM hypothesis. Unlike their approach, ours does not require preliminary nonparametric estimation.

2.2. GRM as Natural Hypotheses of Interest

A GRM hypothesis may also be the natural hypothesis of interest. For example the hypotheses of regression monotonicity, stochastic monotonicity, and higher-order stochastic monotonicity can all be written as GRM hypotheses, as we describe in detail now.

Example 2.3
Suppose that $f^{(1)}(W,\tau) = f^{(2)}(W,\tau) = Y$ and Y is a scalar. Then H_0 in (1.1) reduces to:

$$H_0 : \ E[Y|X = x, Z = z] \text{ is weakly increasing in } x \in \mathcal{X}, \text{ for all } z \in \mathcal{Z}. \tag{2.7}$$

This is the usual regression monotonicity hypothesis. Testing H_0 is a nonparametric version of testing the sign of a regression coefficient in a linear regression model. For example, suppose Y is the survival of a patient and X is the daily dose of a certain drug given to the patient. Then H_0 implies that there is a monotone relationship between the daily dose and the survival rate as the dose varies in a chosen range $\mathcal{X}$. Note that if $d_z = 0$, then H_0 is the regression monotonicity hypothesis studied in Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart (2000) and Chetverikov (2013). See Chetverikov (2013) for more testing problems that can be formulated as (2.7) with $d_z = 0$.

Example 2.4
Suppose that $f^{(1)}(Y,\tau) = f^{(2)}(Y,\tau) = -1(Y \le \tau)$ for $\tau \in R$ and $d_z = 0$. Then H_0 reduces to:

$$H_0 : \ F_{Y|X}(\tau|x) \text{ is nonincreasing in } x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ for all } \tau \in R, \tag{2.8}$$

where $F_{Y|X}(\tau|x)$ denotes the conditional distribution of Y conditioning on $X = x$. Then H_0 is the stochastic monotonicity hypothesis studied in Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009), Delgado and Escanciano (2012), and Seo (2015).

Example 2.5
Suppose that $f^{(1)}(Y,\tau) = f^{(2)}(Y,\tau) = -\frac{1}{(j-1)!}1(Y \le \tau)(\tau - Y)^{j-1}$ for $\tau \in R$ and $d_z = 0$. Then H_0 reduces to:

$$H_0 : \mathcal{I}_j(\tau; F_{Y|X}(\cdot|x)) \text{ is nonincreasing in } x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ for all } \tau \in R, \tag{2.9}$$

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where $\mathcal{I}_j(.;F)$ is the function that integrates the function F to order $j-1$ so that,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{I}_1(\tau;F) &= F(\tau),\\
\mathcal{I}_2(\tau;F) &= \int_0^\tau F(t)dt = \int_0^\tau \mathcal{I}_1(t;F)dt,\\
&\vdots\\
\mathcal{I}_j(\tau;F) &= \int_0^\tau \mathcal{I}_{j-1}(t;F)dt.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, H_0 is the higher-order stochastic monotonicity hypothesis. Shen (2016) studies the conditional higher-order stochastic monotonicity at a fixed point of $X = x$. Our test covers the uniform version of Shen's (2016) hypothesis.

Remarks.

1. When Z contains only discrete random variables, the tests proposed in Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart (2000) and Chetverikov (2013) are applicable to Example 2.3, and the tests proposed in Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009), Delgado and Escanciano (2012), and Seo (2015) are applicable to Example 2.4. These tests do not apply when Z contains continuous random variables. In addition, the tests of Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart (2000), Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009), and Delgado and Escanciano (2012) rely on least-favorable case critical values, and can have poor power when the data generating process is not close to the least-favorable case. None of the tests in the five articles mentioned apply to Examples 2.1 and 2.2, where $f^{(1)}(Y,\tau) \neq f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)$.
2. Chetverikov (2013) considers a testable implication of the monotone treatment selection and monotone treatment response assumptions of Manski and Pepper (2000), which, in the notation of Example 2.2, is

$$E[Y|X = x_1] \geq E[Y|X = x_2], \quad \text{for all } x_1 \geq x_2. \tag{2.10}$$

This is a special case of Example 2.3.

3. PROPOSED TEST

3.1. Model Transformation

In order to form a test statistic, we transform the conditional inequality hypothesis into an inequality hypothesis that involves only unconditional moments. The transformation should preserve all the information content of the original inequality hypothesis, because otherwise the resulting test has no power against some fixed alternatives. The most closely related approach in the literature is AS, where conditional moment inequalities are transformed into unconditional ones using an

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infinite set of instrumental functions. Our problem is more complicated because our inequalities involve conditional moments evaluated at different values of the conditioning variable.

We propose a modification to AS's instrumental function approach. The basic idea of our modified approach is to use two different instrumental functions on the two sides of the inequalities. To be specific, we find a set, $\mathcal{G}$, of $g = (g_x^{(1)}, g_x^{(2)}, g_z)$ such that (1.1) is equivalent to

$$H_0 : \nu_P(\tau, g) \equiv m_P^{(2)}(\tau, g) w_P^{(1)}(g) - m_P^{(1)}(\tau, g) w_P^{(2)}(g) \le 0, \quad \text{for all } \tau \in \mathcal{T} \text{ and for all } g \in \mathcal{G}, \tag{3.1}$$

$$H_1 : \nu_P(\tau^*, g^*) > 0, \text{ for some } \tau^* \in \mathcal{T} \text{ and for some } g^* \in \mathcal{G}, \tag{3.2}$$

where, for $j = 1$ and 2,

$$m_P^{(j)}(\tau, g) = E_P[f^{(j)}(W, \tau) g_x^{(j)}(X) g_z(Z)], \quad w_P^{(j)}(g) = E_P[g_x^{(j)}(X) g_z(Z)]. \tag{3.3}$$

Like in AS, we also would like the set $\mathcal{G}$ to be simple enough in order for a certain uniform central limit theory to apply.

We consider two possible $\mathcal{G}$ choices, for both of which we define the following notation:

$$C_{x,r} \equiv \left(\prod_{j=1}^{d_x} [x_j, x_j + r] \right) \cap \mathcal{X} \text{ for } x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ and } r \in (0, 1],$$

$$C_{z,r} \equiv \left(\prod_{j=1}^{d_z} [z_j, z_j + r] \right) \cap \mathcal{Z} \text{ for } z \in \mathcal{Z} \text{ and } r \in (0, 1]. \tag{3.4}$$

For $\ell = (x_1, x_2, z, r) \in \mathcal{X}^2 \times \mathcal{Z} \times (0, 1]$, define

$$g_{x,\ell}^{(1)} = 1(\cdot \in C_{x_1,r}), \quad g_{x,\ell}^{(2)} = 1(\cdot \in C_{x_2,r}), \quad g_{z,\ell} = 1(\cdot \in C_{z,r}). \tag{3.5}$$

The first $\mathcal{G}$ we consider is the set of the indicator functions of countable hypercubes:

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}} = \left\{ g_\ell \equiv \left(g_{x,\ell}^{(1)}, g_{x,\ell}^{(2)}, g_{z,\ell} \right) : \ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}} \right\}, \text{ where} \tag{3.6}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}} = \Big\{ (x_1, x_2, z, r) : r = q^{-1}, \ q \cdot (x_1, x_2, z) \in \{0, 1, 2, \cdots, q-1\}^{2d_x + d_z}, \ x_1 \ge x_2, \text{ and } q = q_0, q_0 + 1, \cdots \Big\},$$

and q_0 is a natural number.[8]

[8] In cases where $f^{(1)}(W, \tau) = f^{(2)}(W, \tau)$ for all τ as in Examples 2.3–2.5, $\nu_P(\tau, \ell) = 0$ and $\hat{\nu}_n(\tau, \ell) = 0$ for all g_ℓ with $x_1 = x_2$ and we can remove these g_ℓ's from $\mathcal{G}$. However, including these g_ℓ's in $\mathcal{G}$ does not affect our theoretical results.

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The second $\mathcal{G}$ that we consider is the set of the indicator functions of a continuum of hypercubes:

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}} = \{g_\ell : \ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}\}, \text{ where} \tag{3.7}$$
$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}} = \{(x_1, x_2, z, r) : x_1, x_2 \in [0, 1-r]^{2d_x+d_z},\ x_1 \geq x_2,\ r \in (0, \bar{r}]\},$$

for some $0 < \bar{r} < 1$.

Because there is a one-to-one mapping between $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ (or $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$) and the set of indices $\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$ (or $\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$), for the remainder of the article, we will use ℓ to stand for g_ℓ when used inside a function to simplify notation. For example, $\nu_P(\tau, g_\ell)$ will be written as $\nu_P(\tau, \ell)$, $m_P^{(j)}(\tau, g_\ell)$ as $m_P^{(j)}(\tau, \ell)$, and $w_P^{(j)}(g_\ell)$ as $w_P^{(j)}(\ell)$.

Both are also rich enough to capture all the information provided by (1.1), which is shown in the following lemma.

Assumption 3.1. Suppose that for $j = 1$ and 2, $E_P[f^{(j)}(Y, \tau)|X = x, Z = z] : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Z} \to R$ is continuous on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Z}$ for all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$ under distribution P.

The continuity of the function $E_P[f^{(j)}(Y, \tau)|X = x, Z = z]$ on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Z}$ is only mildly restrictive when X and Z contain continuous random variables. If X and Z are discrete, then $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Z}$ only contain a finite number of discrete points. A function defined on a finite set of discrete points is automatically continuous on this set because any converging sequence in this set must be a constant sequence eventually.

LEMMA 3.1. *Suppose Assumption* 3.1 *holds. Then for* $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ *or* $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$, H_0 *and* H_1 *in* (*1.1*)–(*1.2*) *are equivalent to those in* (*3.1*)–(*3.2*).

The proof of the lemma is given in Appendix 3. The intuition for this lemma is that $m_P^{(j)}(\tau, g)/\omega_P^{(j)}(\tau, g)$ approaches the conditional expectation $E[f^{(j)}(X, \tau)|X = x, Z = z]$ under Assumption 3.1 when $g_x^{(j)}$ and g_z approach degenerate hypercubes with vertices x and z, respectively, and edge length zero. Thus, if the GRM hypothesis is violated at some (x_1, x_2, z), it must be true that $m_P^{(1)}(\tau, g)/\omega_P^{(1)}(\tau, g) < m_P^{(2)}(\tau, g)/\omega_P^{(2)}(\tau, g)$, or equivalently, $m_P^{(2)}(\tau, g)\omega_P^{(1)}(\tau, g) - m_P^{(1)}(\tau, g)\omega_P^{(2)}(\tau, g) > 0$, for some $g_x^{(1)}, g_x^{(2)}, g_z$ with vertices x_1, x_2, z and small enough edge length. That implies that H^0 in (3.1) must be violated at some $g \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ or $g \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ because $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ include instruments defined by hypercubes with arbitrarily small edge length and vertices dense in $\{(x_1, x_2, z) \in \mathcal{X}^2 \times \mathcal{Z} : x_1 \geq x_2\}$.

3.2. Estimation of $\nu_P(\tau, \ell)$

In the following, all results hold for both $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$, and thus for notational simplicity, we suppress the subscripts "c-cube" and "cube" and just write $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{L}$ unless necessary. Suppose we have an i.i.d. sample of size n.

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Now that we have transformed the conditional inequalities into unconditional inequalities, we are ready to introduce the test statistic. These inequalities are not moment inequalities like in AS, but inequalities about nonlinear functions of moments of observables. Nonetheless, we can define a test statistic in an analogous way to AS. For clarity, we choose a specific form of the test statistic rather than using the general form in AS. Define, for $j = 1, 2$,

$$m_i^{(j)}(\tau,\ell) = m^{(j)}(W_i,\tau,\ell) = f^{(j)}(Y_i,\tau) g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X_i) g_{z,\ell}(Z_i)$$
$$w_i^{(j)}(\ell) = w^{(j)}(W_i,\ell) = g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X_i) g_{z,\ell}(Z_i). \tag{3.8}$$

Let the sample means of them be

$$\hat{m}_n^{(j)}(\tau,\ell) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n m_i^{(j)}(\tau,\ell), \quad \hat{w}_n^{(j)}(\ell) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^{(j)}(\ell). \tag{3.9}$$

We estimate $\nu_P(\tau,\ell)$ by its sample analogue:

$$\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell) = \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell). \tag{3.10}$$

As we mentioned above, the simplicity of $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$, along with a manageability condition on $\mathcal{T}$ (given later) makes sure that $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell) - \nu_P(\tau,\ell))$ satisfies a functional central limit theorem.

3.3. Test Statistic

Here we define the test statistic $\widehat{T}_n$ for our test. First, we need to define a variance estimator. This variance estimator is more complicated than the analogous quantity in AS because we need to deal with nonlinear functions of moments rather than just moments of observables. Let $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell)$ be

$$\begin{aligned}&\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell)\\ &= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \Big\{ \hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell)\big(m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\big) + \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\big(w_i^{(1)}(\ell) - \hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell)\big)\\ &\qquad - \hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell)\big(m_i^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\big) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\big(w_i^{(2)}(\ell) - \hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell)\big)\Big\}^2,\end{aligned} \tag{3.11}$$

which is an estimator for the asymptotic variance of $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell) - \nu_P(\tau,\ell))$. Note that $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell)$ may be close to 0 with non-negligible probability for some $(\tau,\ell) \in \mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}$. This is not desirable, because the inverse of it needs to be consistent for its population counterpart uniformly over $\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}$ for the test statistics considered below. In consequence, as in AS, we consider a modification, denoted as $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}^2(\tau,\ell)$, that is bounded away from 0. For some fixed $\epsilon > 0$, define $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}^2(\tau,\ell)$ as

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}^2(\tau,\ell) = \max\{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell), \epsilon\}, \quad \text{for all } (\tau,\ell) \in \mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}. \tag{3.12}$$

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Note that unlike AS, the $\hat{\sigma}^2_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)$ in (3.12) is not scale-equivariant to the moment conditions, meaning that our test statistic defined below is not scale-invariant.[9] It is hard to get scale-equivariance in our case due to the presence of τ. See Andrews and Shi (2017) for the use of non-scale-equivariant weights as well.

Let Q be a probability measure on $\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}$, and our test statistic is defined as

$$\widehat{T}_n = \int \max\left\{\sqrt{n}\frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell). \tag{3.13}$$

The test statistic in (3.13) is similar to the Cramer-von Mises type statistic in AS. It is different from the test statistic in Lee, Song, and Whang (2013, 2016) which uses a nonparametric estimator of the conditional moment. Note that in our test statistic, in each $\nu_n(\tau,\ell)$, the $\hat{m}^j_n(\tau,\ell)$ is similar to the numerator and $\hat{\omega}^j_n(\ell)$ is similar to the denominator of the Nadaraya-Watson estimator of $E[f^{(j)}(W,\tau)|X,Z]$ using a uniform kernel, but (1) we do not stack them in ratios, and (2) we do not consider a single bandwidth that drifts to zero with the sample size, but use an infinite set of bandwidths for all sample sizes.[10] For this reason, our theory works differently and our test behaves differently than those based on traditional nonparametric estimators of the conditional mean. We discuss this more in Section 5 below.

We only consider the measures such that $Q(\tau,\ell) = Q_{\mathcal{T}}(\tau)Q_{\mathcal{L}}(\ell)$ for measures $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$ on $\mathcal{T}$ and $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ on $\mathcal{L}$ because such measures are sufficient for our purpose in all cases that we can think of. We require that the support of Q equal $\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}$. The support condition is needed to ensure that there is no information loss in the aggregation, and is formally stated in the next assumption. Let d_τ be a metric on $\mathcal{T}$ and d_ℓ be the Euclidean metric on $\mathcal{L}$. Let $B_c(\tau_*) = \{\tau\in\mathcal{T} : d_\tau(\tau,\tau_*)\le c\}$, and $B_c(\ell_*) = \{\ell\in\mathcal{L} : d_\ell(\ell,\ell_*)\le c\}$.

Assumption 3.2. For any $c>0$, any $\tau\in\mathcal{T}$, and any $\ell\in\mathcal{L}$, (a) $Q_{\mathcal{T}}(B_c(\tau))>0$, and (b) $Q_{\mathcal{L}}(B_c(\ell))>0$.

We give some examples of Q that satisfy Assumption 3.2. Because we only consider product measures, we can choose $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$ and $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ separately. For $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$, if $\mathcal{T}$ is a singleton or a finite set as in Examples 2.1–2.3, we let $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$ assign equal weight on each element in $\mathcal{T}$. If $\mathcal{T}$ contains a continuum of elements as in Examples 2.4 and 2.5, and $\mathcal{T}$ has a finite support, e.g., $[a,b]$, which would be true if we know in advance that Y has support on $[a,b]$, we can let $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$ be a uniform distribution on $[a,b]$. If $\mathcal{T}$ has support on the whole real line, we can let $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$ be from a standard normal distribution. For $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$, if $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$, we can let $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ assign weight $\propto q^{-2}$ on each q where $\propto$ stands for "is proportional to," and, for each q, let $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ assign

[9] $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)$ is not scale-equivariant in the sense that when we multiply the moments $f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)$ and $f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)$ by a constant, the resulting hypothesis is the same, but the test statistic and testing result can be different. That is, our test is not invariant to rescaling of the moment functions.

[10] In practice, one may use a finite set of bandwidths, and let the set expand to include smaller and smaller bandwidths as the sample size increases, as discussed in Section 6.1 below.

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equal weight on each instrumental function with $r = q^{-1}$.[11] If $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$, we can let the marginal of $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ on $(0, \bar{r}]$ be a uniform distribution and conditional on each r, let $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ induce a uniform distribution on $\{(x_1, x_2, z) \in [1-r]^{2d_x+d_z} : x_1 \geq x_2\}$.[12]

We next define the critical value for our test. Note that our null hypothesis involves inequality constraints. When testing multiple inequalities, it has been known since Wolak (1991) that an asymptotically valid data-free critical value is difficult to obtain, because the least favorable case of the null asymptotic distribution is elusive and does not necessarily occur when all inequalities are binding. Moreover, tests based on such critical values may have low power when the data do not come from the least favorable case. Thus, we propose two simulated data-dependent critical values instead.

The simulated critical value will be based on the asymptotic distribution of the test statistic. This asymptotic distribution under a sequence of null distributions (P_n) converging weakly to some P_c will be shown in Lemma A.3 to be:

$$\int \max\left\{\frac{\Psi(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_\epsilon(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell), \tag{3.14}$$

where $\Psi(\cdot)$ is a Gaussian process which is the limiting process of $\widehat{\Psi}_n(\cdot) \equiv \sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}_n(\cdot) - \nu_{P_n}(\cdot))$, $\delta(\tau,\ell)$ is the limit of $\sqrt{n}\nu_{P_n}(\tau,\ell)$, and $\sigma_\epsilon(\tau,\ell)$ is the limit of $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)$. Note that $\delta(\tau,\ell) = -\infty$ whenever $\nu_{P_c}(\tau,\ell) < 0$, that is, the inequality is slack at (τ,ℓ) under P_c. This limiting distribution cannot be directly simulated because $\delta(\tau,\ell)$ cannot be consistently estimated. In the next subsection we describe the generalized moment selection (GMS) approach in AS to provide an asymptotically valid upper bound for $\delta(\tau,\ell)$. In the subsequent subsection, we describe two procedures to simulate the Gaussian process $\Psi(\cdot)$.

3.4. Generalized Moment Selection

We employ the GMS approach in AS to select the likely binding moments to use in the critical value simulation. Let $\{\kappa_n : n \geq 1\}$ be a sequence of positive numbers that diverges to infinity as $n \to \infty$ and $\{B_n : n \geq 1\}$ be a nondecreasing sequence of positive numbers that diverges to infinity as $n \to \infty$ as well. Let the GMS function $\psi_n(\tau,\ell)$ be

$$\psi_n(\tau,\ell) = -B_n \cdot 1\left(\sqrt{n}\frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)} < -\kappa_n\right) \quad \text{for all } (\tau,\ell) \in \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}. \tag{3.15}$$

[11] Note that for each q, there are $(q(q+1)/2)^{d_x} \cdot q^{d_z}$ of instrumental functions with $r = q^{-1}$.

[12] There are many choices of Q satisfying Assumption 3.2. Different choices of Q will not affect the uniform asymptotic size property and the consistency against fixed alternatives of our test. However, our tests based on different choices of Q will have different power in finite samples and asymptotically against local alternatives. To discuss the properties of our tests equipped with different choices of Q is an interesting topic that we do not pursue in this article.

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The function $\psi_n(\tau,\ell)$ will be used in place of $\delta(\tau,\ell)$ defined above, and we will show that it provides an asymptotically valid upper bound for the latter under the following assumption.

Assumption 3.3 (GMS). Assume that $\kappa_n \to \infty$, $B_n \to \infty$, $n^{-1/2}\kappa_n \to 0$, and $\kappa_n^{-1} B_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Assumption 3.3 imposes conditions on κ_n and B_n sequences, and is a combined version of Assumptions GMS1 and GMS2 of AS.

3.5. Null Distribution Approximation

We provide two approaches to simulate the process $\Psi(\cdot)$ defined above. We first introduce the multiplier method based on the conditional multiplier central limit theorem in Chapter 2.9 of van der Vaart and Wellner (1996). Let $\{U_i : i \geq 1\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables that is independent of the whole sample path $\{W_i : n \geq 1\}$ such that $E[U] = 0$, $E[U^2] = 1$, and $E[|U|^{\delta_1}] < C$ for some $2 < \delta_1 < \delta$ and $C < \infty$ where δ is the constant in Assumption 4.1 below. Define $\widehat{\Psi}_n^u(\tau,\ell)$ as

$$\begin{aligned}
&\widehat{\Psi}_n^u(\tau,\ell) \\
&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n U_i \Big\{ \hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell)\big(m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\big) + \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\big(w_i^{(1)}(\ell) - \hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell)\big) \\
&\qquad - \hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell)\big(m_i^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\big) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\big(w_i^{(2)}(\ell) - \hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell)\big) \Big\}. \quad \textbf{(3.16)}
\end{aligned}$$

Next we describe the bootstrap method to approximate $\widehat{\Psi}_n(\cdot)$. Let $\{W_i^b : i \leq n\}$ be an i.i.d. bootstrap sample drawn from the empirical distribution of $\{W_i : i \leq n\}$. Let $m_i^{(j)b}(\tau,\ell) = m^{(j)}(W_i^b,\tau,\ell)$ and $w_i^{(j)b}(\ell) = w^{(j)}(W_i^b,\ell)$ for $j = 1$ and 2. Define

$$\begin{aligned}
&\hat{v}_n^b(\tau,\ell) = \hat{m}_n^{(2)b}(\tau,\ell)\hat{w}_n^{(1)b}(\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)b}(\tau,\ell)\hat{w}_n^{(2)b}(\ell), \\
&\hat{m}_n^{(j)b}(\tau,\ell) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n m_i^{(j)b}(\tau,\ell), \quad \hat{w}_n^{(j)b}(\ell) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^{(j)b}(\ell). \quad \textbf{(3.17)}
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, define the bootstrap process $\widehat{\Psi}_n^b(\cdot)$ as

$$\widehat{\Psi}_n^b(\cdot) = \sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_n^b(\cdot) - \hat{v}_n(\cdot)). \quad \textbf{(3.18)}$$

Let the critical value statistics be

$$\widehat{T}_n^u = \int \max\left\{ \frac{\widehat{\Psi}^u(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)} + \psi_n(\tau,\ell), 0 \right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell), \quad \textbf{(3.19)}$$

$$\widehat{T}_n^b = \int \max\left\{ \frac{\widehat{\Psi}^b(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)} + \psi_n(\tau,\ell), 0 \right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell). \quad \textbf{(3.20)}$$

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We call $\widehat{T}_n^u$ the multiplier statistic and $\widehat{T}_n^b$ the bootstrap statistic. Their conditional distributions (given the original sample) asymptotically provide upper bounds for the null distribution of our test statistic.

3.6. GMS Critical Value

We are ready to define the multiplier GMS critical value $\hat{c}_\eta^u$ and the bootstrap GMS critical value $\hat{c}_\eta^b$:

$$\hat{c}_\eta^u = \sup\left\{q \middle| P^u\left(\widehat{T}_n^u \le q\right) \le 1-\alpha+\eta\right\}+\eta, \tag{3.21}$$

$$\hat{c}_\eta^b = \sup\left\{q \middle| P^b\left(\widehat{T}_n^b \le q\right) \le 1-\alpha+\eta\right\}+\eta, \tag{3.22}$$

where $\eta > 0$ is an arbitrarily small positive number, e.g., 10^{-6}, and P^u and P^b denote the multiplier probability measure and bootstrap probability measure, respectively. Note that $\hat{c}_\eta^u$ and $\hat{c}_\eta^b$ are defined as the $(1-\alpha+\eta)$-th quantiles of the multiplier null distribution and bootstrap null distribution plus η, respectively. AS call the constant η an infinitesimal uniformity factor that is used to avoid the problems that arise due to the presence of the infinite-dimensional nuisance parameter $\nu_P(\tau,\ell)$ and to eliminate the need for complicated and difficult-to-verify uniform continuity and strictly monotonicity conditions on the large sample distribution functions of the test statistic.[13]

3.7. Decision Rule

The decision rule is the following:

$$\text{Reject } H_0 \text{ in (3.1) if } \widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta, \tag{3.23}$$

where $\hat{c}_\eta$ can be $\hat{c}_\eta^u$ or $\hat{c}_\eta^b$.

4. UNIFORM ASYMPTOTIC SIZE

In this section, we show that our test has correct asymptotic size uniformly over a broad set of distributions. We impose conditions on $\{f^{(j)}(\tau,W):\tau\in\mathcal{T}\}$ for $j=1$ and 2 to regulate their complexity. It ensures that the empirical process $\widehat{\Psi}_n(\cdot)$ and its multiplier and bootstrap counterparts satisfy the functional central limit theorem under a drifting sequence of distributions.

Let the collection of distributions of our interest be denoted as $\mathcal{P}$.

Assumption 4.1. Let $(R^{d_w},\mathcal{B}(R^{d_w}))$ be the d_w-dimensional Borel-measurable space, where d_w is the dimension of W. Let $\mathcal{P}$ denote the collection of probability measures P on $(R^{d_w},\mathcal{B}(R^{d_w}))$ such that:

[13] In our simulations, we obtain identical results when setting $\eta = 0$. Note that it is possible to extend the anti-concentration arguments in Chernozhukov, Chetverikov, and Kato (2014, 2015a, 2015b) to formally show that we can actually set $\eta = 0$, especially if using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov type test. We thank a referee for pointing this out.

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(*a*) $\max\{|f^{(1)}(\tau, w)|, |f^{(2)}(\tau, w)|\} \leq F(w)$ for all $w \in \mathcal{W}_P$, for all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$ for some envelope function $F(w)$, where $\mathcal{W}_P$ is the support of W under P.

(*b*) $E_P F^{\delta}(W) \leq C < \infty$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$ for some $\delta > 2$ and for some $C > 0$.

(*c*) the processes $\{f^{(j)}(\tau, W_{n,i}) : \tau \in \mathcal{T}, i \leq n, 1 \leq n\}$ for $j = 1$ and 2 are manageable with respect to the envelope function $F(W_{n,i})$ where $\{W_{n,i} : i \leq n, 1 \leq n\}$ is a row-wise i.i.d. triangular array with $W_{n,i} \sim P_n$ for any sequence $\{P_n \in \mathcal{P}\}$.

The manageability condition in Assumption 4.1(c) is from Definition 7.9 of Pollard (1990); see Pollard (1990) for more details. Assumption 4.1(c) is not restrictive. For example, if $\mathcal{T}$ is finite as in Examples 2.1–2.3 or if $\{f^{(j)}(\tau, W) : \tau \in \mathcal{T}\}$ is a Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) class as in Examples 2.4 and 2.5, then Assumption 4.1(c) holds. Assumption 4.1(b) implies that $|E_P[m^{(j)}(\tau, \ell)]| \leq M$ for some $M > 0$ for all (τ, ℓ) uniformly over $P \in \mathcal{P}$. This ensures that the asymptotic covariance kernel of $\sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_n(\tau, \ell) - v_P(\tau, \ell))$ is uniformly bounded for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$.

To establish the uniform asymptotic size, we introduce some notation. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_{1,P}(\tau, \ell) &= E_P(\ddot{w}(W, \tau, \ell)), \text{ and} \\
h_{2,P}\big((\tau_1, \ell_1), (\tau_2, \ell_2)\big) &= Cov_P(\ddot{m}(\tau_1, \ell_1), \ddot{m}(\tau_2, \ell_2)), \text{ where} \\
\ddot{w}(W, \tau, \ell) &= (-w^{(2)}(W, \ell), w^{(1)}(W, \ell), -m^{(2)}(W, \tau, \ell), m^{(1)}(W, \tau, \ell))', \\
\ddot{m}(W, \tau, \ell) &= (m^{(1)}(W, \tau, \ell), m^{(2)}(W, \tau, \ell), w^{(1)}(W, \ell), w^{(2)}(W, \ell))'. \qquad \textbf{(4.1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

We define $h_{1,P}(\tau, \ell)$ and $h_{2,P}((\tau_1, \ell_1), (\tau_2, \ell_2))$ this way so that under suitable assumptions, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&Cov_P\Big(\sqrt{n}\big(\hat{v}_n(\tau_1, \ell_1) - v_P(\tau_1, \ell_1)\big), \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{v}_n(\tau_2, \ell_2) - v_P(\tau_2, \ell_2)\big)\Big) \\
&\approx h_{1,P}(\tau_1, \ell_1)' \cdot h_{2,P}\big((\tau_1, \ell_1), (\tau_2, \ell_2)\big) \cdot h_{1,P}(\tau_2, \ell_2). \qquad \textbf{(4.2)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, $h_{1,P}(\tau, \ell)$ determines $v_P(\tau, \ell)$ because

$$
v_P(\tau, \ell) = E_P[m^{(2)}(W, \tau, \ell)]E_P[w^{(1)}(W, \ell)] - E_P[m^{(1)}(W, \tau, \ell)]E_P[w^{(2)}(W, \ell)]. \qquad \textbf{(4.3)}
$$

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\mathcal{H}_1 = \{h_{1,P}(\cdot) : P \in \mathcal{P}\}, \quad \mathcal{H}_2 = \{h_{2,P}(\cdot, \cdot) : P \in \mathcal{P}\}, \\
&\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \times \mathcal{H}_2. \qquad \textbf{(4.4)}
\end{aligned}
$$

On the space of $\mathcal{H}$, we use the metric d defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
&d(h^{(1)}, h^{(2)}) = \max\{d_1(h_1^{(1)}, h_1^{(2)}), d_2(h_2^{(1)}, h_2^{(2)})\}, \\
&d_1(h_1^{(1)}, h_1^{(2)}) = \sup_{(\tau,\ell)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}} \|h_1^{(1)}(\tau, \ell) - h_1^{(2)}(\tau, \ell)\|, \qquad \textbf{(4.5)} \\
&d_2(h_2^{(1)}, h_2^{(2)}) = \sup_{(\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}} \|h_2^{(1)}\big((\tau_1, \ell_1), (\tau_2, \ell_2)\big) - h_2^{(2)}\big((\tau_1, \ell_1), (\tau_2, \ell_2)\big)\|,
\end{aligned}
$$

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where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean norms. For notational simplicity, we use d to denote d_1 and d_2 as well, and we suppress (τ, ℓ) whenever there is no confusion. For example, let $h_{1,P}$ denote $h_{1,P}(\cdot)$, and $h_{2,P}$ denote $h_{2,P}(\cdot,\cdot)$. For any $h \in \mathcal{H}$, define $h_{2,\nu} = h_1' \cdot h_2 \cdot h_1$ and for any P, define $h_{2,\nu,P}$ as $h_{1,P}' \cdot h_{2,P} \cdot h_{1,P}$. Let $\mathcal{H}_{2,\nu} \equiv \{h_{2,\nu} : \ h_{2,\nu} = h_1' \cdot h_2 \cdot h_1, \ h \in \mathcal{H}\}$. The metric d_ν on the space $\mathcal{H}_{2,\nu}$ is defined as

$$d_\nu(h_{2,\nu}^{(1)}, h_{2,\nu}^{(2)}) = \sup_{(\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}} |h_{2,\nu}^{(1)}\big((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)\big) - h_{2,\nu}^{(2)}\big((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)\big)|.$$

Let $\mathcal{P}^0$ denote a collection of null distributions in $\mathcal{P}$. We impose the following conditions on $\mathcal{P}^0$.

Assumption 4.2. The set $\mathcal{P}_0$ satisfies:

(*a*) $\mathcal{P}^0 \subseteq \mathcal{P}$.

(*b*) The null hypothesis H_0 defined in (3.1) holds under any $P \in \mathcal{P}^0$.

(*c*) $\mathcal{H}^0 \equiv \{(h_{1,P}, h_{2,P}) : P \in \mathcal{P}^0\} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is compact in the metric space $(\mathcal{H}, d)$ where d is defined in equation (4.5).

Let $\mathcal{H}_{2,\nu}^0 \equiv \{h_{2,\nu} : \ h_{2,\nu} = h_1' \cdot h_2 \cdot h_1, \ h \in \mathcal{H}^0\}$. The compactness of $\mathcal{H}^0$ in Assumption 4.2(c) implies the compactness of $\mathcal{H}_{2,\nu}^0$ in $(\mathcal{H}_{2,\nu} \equiv \{h_{2,\nu} : \ h_{2,\nu} = h_1' \cdot h_2 \cdot h_1, \ h \in \mathcal{H}\}, d_\nu)$. A slightly stronger compactness assumption is made in AS, Donald and Hsu (2016), and Hsu (2017) on $\mathcal{H}_{2,\nu}^0$. To gauge the plausibility of Assumption 4.2(c), note that $\mathcal{H}^0$ is a set of vector/matrix-valued functions on $\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}$, and this set is compact in $(\mathcal{H}, d)$ if $\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}$ is compact and $\mathcal{H}_0$ is a ball of finite radius in Hölder space $C^{0,\alpha}(\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}) \equiv \{h : \sup_{(\tau,\ell)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}} \|h(\tau,\ell)\| + \sup_{(\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}} \frac{\|h(\tau_1,\ell_1)-h(\tau_2,\ell_2)\|}{\|(\tau_1,\ell_1)-(\tau_2,\ell_2)\|^\alpha} < \infty\}$ for an $\alpha \in (0,1]$. This is implied by the Arzelà's theorem (ref. Theorem 4 of Kolmogorov and Fomin (1957)).[14]

The following theorem summarizes the uniform asymptotic size of our test. Additional notation is needed. Let

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{T}^o(P) \equiv \{\tau \in \mathcal{T} : \ &\exists\, x_{1\ell,\tau} \ll x_{1u,\tau}, \ x_{2\ell,\tau} \ll x_{2u,\tau}, \ z_{\ell,\tau} \ll z_{u,\tau}, \\ &x_{1\ell,\tau} \le x_{2\ell,\tau}, \ x_{1u,\tau} \le x_{2u,\tau}, \text{and for some constant } C_\tau \in R \\ &E_P[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X = x_1, Z = z] = E_P[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X = x_2, Z = z] = C_\tau, \\ &\text{for all } x_1 \in [x_{1\ell,\tau}, x_{1u,\tau}], x_2 \in [x_{2\ell,\tau}, x_{2u,\tau}], \text{ and } z \in [z_{\ell,\tau}, z_{u,\tau}].\}\end{aligned} \tag{4.6}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^o(\tau, P) \equiv \{\ell \in \mathcal{L} : \ \nu_P(\ell,\tau) = 0\} \tag{4.7}$$

$$(\mathcal{T}\mathcal{L})^o(P) \equiv \{(\tau,\ell) \in \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L} : \ \nu_P(\tau,\ell) = 0\} = \{(\tau,\ell) : \ \ell \in \mathcal{L}^o(\tau, P)\}. \tag{4.8}$$

[14] Note that we use Kolmogorov and Fomin's (1957, Sect. 16) definition of compactness of a set in a metric space, which is weaker than the compactness of the set in itself. We do not require $\mathcal{H}^0$ to be compact in itself, which means $\mathcal{H}^0$ does not need to be closed.

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The set $\mathcal{T}^o(P)$ denotes the collection of τ's such that the inequalities are binding over a hypercube of (x_1, x_2, z) under P. The set $\mathcal{L}^o(\tau, P)$ denotes the collection of ℓ's such that the unconditional moment defined by ℓ is binding at τ, and $(\mathcal{TL})^o(P)$ denotes the set of (τ, ℓ) such that the unconditional moment with (τ, ℓ) is binding. Under Assumption 3.2, it is straightforward to see that if $\tau \in \mathcal{T}^o(P)$, then $\int_{\mathcal{L}^o(\tau,P)} dQ_{\mathcal{L}}(\ell) > 0$, and that if $\int_{\mathcal{T}^o(P)} dQ_{\mathcal{T}}(\tau) > 0$, then $\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P)} dQ(\ell, \tau) > 0$.

Let $\Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ denote the mean-zero Gaussian process with covariance kernel function $h_{2,v}$. Let $\sigma^2_{\epsilon,h_{2,v}}(\tau, \ell) = \max\{h_{2,v}((\tau, \ell), (\tau, \ell)), \epsilon\}$.

Assumption 4.3. There exists a $P_c \in \mathcal{P}^0$ such that $\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau, \ell)/\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v}}(\tau, \ell), 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau, \ell) > 0$.

This assumption is satisfied as long as $(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)$ has positive Q measure. For the Q measures that we propose, when the $\mathcal{L}^{\text{cube}}$ is used, that holds as long as there is a set of (τ, ℓ) of positive Lebesgue measure such that the inequalities are binding, and when $\mathcal{L}^{\text{c-cube}}$ is used, that holds as long as there exists an $\ell \in \mathcal{L}^{\text{c-cube}}$ and a set of τ of positive measure such that the inequalities with (τ, ℓ) are binding. Note that Assumption 4.3 is not needed to guarantee that our test asymptotically controls size, but only needed to ensure asymptotic size-exactness, as shown in Theorem 4.1 below.

We restate the conditions on the multipliers $\{U_i : i \geq 1\}$ in the following assumption.

Assumption 4.4. Let $\{U_i : i \geq 1\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables independent with the original sample such that $E[U] = 0$, $E[U^2] = 1$, and $E[|U|^{\delta_1}] < C$ for some $2 < \delta_1 < \delta$ and some $C > 0$ where δ is the same as in Assumption 4.1.

Assumption 4.4 is needed for the multiplier method only. Note that standard normal multipliers always satisfy this assumption.

THEOREM 4.1. *Suppose that Assumptions 3.1, 3.3, and 4.1–4.2 hold, and that* $\alpha < 1/2$. *Let* $\hat{c}_\eta$ *be either* $\hat{c}^u_\eta$ *or* $\hat{c}^b_\eta$. *Suppose that Assumption 4.4 also holds when* $\hat{c}_\eta = \hat{c}^u_\eta$. *Then*

(*i*) $\limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup_{P\in\mathcal{P}^0} P(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta) \leq \alpha$;

(*ii*) *if Assumption 4.3 also holds, then* $\lim_{\eta\to 0} \limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup_{P\in\mathcal{P}^0} P(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta) = \alpha$.

Theorem 4.1(i) shows that our test has correct uniform asymptotic size over $\mathcal{P}^0$ defined by Assumptions 4.1–4.2. This result is similar to Theorem 2(a) of AS. Theorem 4.1(ii) shows that our test is at most infinitesimally conservative asymptotically when there exists at least one P_c that is at the boundary of the null hypothesis in the sense that the limiting distribution of $\widehat{T}_n$ is nondegenerate under P_c, which our Assumption 4.3 guarantees.

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5. POWER PROPERTIES

In this section, we show the consistency of our test against fixed alternatives and show that our test has nontrivial local power against some $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives.

5.1. Power against Fixed Alternatives

Define the collection of τ's at which the null hypothesis is violated as

$$\mathcal{T}^a(P) \equiv \Big\{\tau : E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X = x_1, Z = z] < E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X = x_2, Z = z], \text{ for some } z \in \mathcal{Z} \text{ and } x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X} \text{ with } x_1 \geq x_2\Big\}. \quad (5.1)$$

The following assumption specifies the fixed alternatives we consider.

Assumption 5.1. The distribution $P_* \in \mathcal{P}$ satisfies:

(*a*) $\mathcal{T}^a(P_*)$ contains $B_c(\tau_*)$ for some $c > 0$ and some $\tau_* \in \mathcal{T}$,
(*b*) Assumption 3.1 holds under P_*, and
(*c*) Assumption 4.1 holds with P_* in place of P_n and $P \in \mathcal{P}$.

Assumption 5.1(a) together with Assumption 3.2 ensures that $\mathcal{T}^a(P_*)$ has strictly positive measure under Q. This automatically holds when $\mathcal{T}$ is finite and $\mathcal{T}^a(P_*)$ is nonempty. The following theorem shows the consistency of our test against the fixed alternatives satisfying Assumption 5.1.

THEOREM 5.1. *Suppose that Assumptions 3.2–3.3 and 5.1, and* $\alpha < 1/2$. *Then we have* $\lim_{n\to\infty} P_*(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta) = 1$.

The proof is done by showing that $\widehat{T}_n$ diverges to positive infinity, and that $\hat{c}_\eta$ is bounded in probability.

5.2. Asymptotic Local Power

We consider the local power of our tests in this section. The class of $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives that we consider is defined in the following assumptions.

Let P_{xz} denote the marginal distribution of (X, Z) under P. Consider a sequence of $P_n \in \mathcal{P}\backslash\mathcal{P}^0$ that converges to some $P_c \in \mathcal{P}^0$ under the Kolmogorov-Smirnov metric where $A\backslash B \equiv \{x : x \in A \text{ but } x \notin B\}$ for any two sets A and B.

Assumption 5.2. The sequence $\{P_n \in \mathcal{P}\backslash\mathcal{P}^0 : n \geq 1\}$ satisfies:

(*a*) for some $P_c \in \mathcal{P}^0$ that satisfies Assumption 4.3,

$$E_{P_n}[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X,Z] = E_{P_c}[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X,Z] + \gamma\,\delta_1(X,Z,\tau)/\sqrt{n},$$
$$E_{P_n}[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X,Z] = E_{P_c}[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X,Z] + \gamma\,\delta_2(X,Z,\tau)/\sqrt{n},$$

where $\gamma > 0$ is a constant, and δ_1 and δ_2 are two functions.

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(*b*) $P_{n,xz} = P_{c,xz}$ for all $n \geq 1$.

(*c*) for $j = 1$ and 2, $\delta_j(x, z, \tau)$ is continuous on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Z}$ for all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$.

(*d*) $\delta_1(x_1, z, \tau) \leq \delta_2(x_2, z, \tau)$ for all $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $x_1 \geq x_2$, $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ and for all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$.

(*e*) for some $\tau \in \mathcal{T}^o(P_c)$, $\delta_1(x_1, z, \tau) < \delta_2(x_2, z, \tau)$ for some $x_1 \in (x_{1\ell,\tau}, x_{1u,\tau})$, $x_2 \in (x_{2\ell,\tau}, x_{2u,\tau})$ such that $x_1 > x_2$, and some $z \in (z_{\ell,\tau}, z_{u,\tau})$, where $x_{1\ell,\tau}$, $x_{1u,\tau}$, $x_{2\ell,\tau}$, $x_{2u,\tau}$, $z_{\ell,\tau}$, and $z_{u,\tau}$ are some values satisfying the conditions defining $\mathcal{T}^o(P_c)$ in (4.6).

(*f*) $d(h_{P_n}, h_{P_c}) \to 0$.

Assumption 5.2(a) requires that for $j = 1, 2$, the difference between the conditional mean of $f^{(j)}(W, \tau)$ on X and Z under P_n and that under P_c is of order $n^{-1/2}$. Assumption 5.2(b) requires that the marginal distribution of X and Z remains the same along the sequence. With some minor modifications of our proof, this condition can be relaxed. Assumption 5.2(c) along with Assumption 3.1 ensures that the conditional means of $f^{(1)}(W, \tau)$ and $f^{(2)}(W, \tau)$ under P_n are continuous on $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Z}$. Assumption 5.2(e) ensures that the null hypothesis does not hold under P_n for $n \geq 1$, i.e., $P_n \notin \mathcal{P}^0$. Assumption 5.2(f) implies that $d(h_{2,\nu,P_n}, h_{2,\nu,P_c}) \to 0$, which specifies the asymptotic covariance kernel of $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}_n(\cdot) - \nu_{P_c}(\cdot))$.

Let $x_{1\ell,\tau}$, $x_{1u,\tau}$, $x_{2\ell,\tau}$, $x_{2u,\tau}$, $z_{\ell,\tau}$, and $z_{u,\tau}$ be the values specified in Assumption 5.2(e). Define $\mathcal{T}^+(P_c)$ as

$$\mathcal{T}^+(P_c) \equiv \{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^o(P_c) : \delta_1(x_1, z, \tau) < \delta_2(x_2, z, \tau) \text{ for some } x_1 \in (x_{1\ell,\tau}, x_{1u,\tau}), \\ x_2 \in (x_{2\ell,\tau}, x_{2u,\tau}) \text{ such that } x_1 > x_2, \text{ and some } z \in (z_{\ell,\tau}, z_{u,\tau})\}. \quad \textbf{(5.2)}$$

Assumption 5.3. Assume that $\int_{\mathcal{T}^+(P_c)} dQ_{\mathcal{T}} > 0$ where $\mathcal{T}^+(P_c)$ is defined in (5.2).

Assumption 5.3 holds if $\mathcal{T}^+(P_c)$ contains an open ball around τ_* for some τ_* in $\mathcal{T}$ by Assumption 3.2.

The following theorem shows the local power of our test.

THEOREM 5.2. *Suppose Assumptions 3.1–3.3, 5.2, and 5.3 hold, and* $\alpha < 1/2$. *Then*

(*i*) $\lim_{\eta \to 0} \liminf_{n \to \infty} P_n(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta) \geq \alpha$.

(*ii*) $\lim_{\gamma \to \infty} \liminf_{n \to \infty} P_n(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta) = 1$.

Part (i) of the theorem shows the near asymptotic unbiasedness of our test against the $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives defined by Assumptions 5.2 and 5.3. Part (ii) of the theorem implies that as long as the $n^{-1/2}$-local alternative defined in Assumption 5.2 is far enough from the null (that is, γ is large enough), the asymptotic power of our test is strictly greater than size.

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The $n^{-1/2}$-local power is a distinctive feature of our test compared to tests based on nonparametric estimators of the conditional mean.[15] The intuition is that, along the $n^{-1/2}$ local alternative sequence defined above, the null hypothesis is violated in a fixed set of (x, z, τ) of positive measure by an amount that is uniformly of the order $n^{-1/2}$ on this set. As a result, $\nu_P(\tau, \ell) \leq 0$ is violated by an amount of the same order on a fixed set of (τ, ℓ) of positive measure. Since our test statistic is based on a sample analogue estimate of $\nu_P(\tau, \ell)$ that is $n^{-1/2}$-consistent, it is sensitive to a $n^{-1/2}$-violation of $\nu_P(\tau, \ell) \leq 0$. By contrast, a test statistic based on a nonparametric estimator of the conditional mean is not sensitive to alternatives drifting to the null faster than the convergence rate of the nonparametric estimator, and thus typically does not have nontrivial power against $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives.

Finally, we would like to point out that the class of $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives that we consider is not an exhaustive set of $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives. For example, Assumption 5.3 rules out $\int_{\mathcal{T}^o(P_c)} dQ_{\mathcal{T}} = 0$, which is the case when the local alternatives converge to a null distribution under which the inequalities are only binding on a measure zero set.

6. MONTE CARLO SIMULATION

To implement our test, one needs to pick several user-chosen parameters in advance. In this section, we first make suggestions on how to pick these parameters. We then report Monte Carlo results for four examples. The first example is a test of regression monotonicity with an interval-observed dependent variable. The second example is a test of the monotone instrumental variable assumption. The third example is a test of regression monotonicity, as also considered in Chetverikov (2013). The fourth example is a test of stochastic monotonicity, as also considered in Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009).

6.1. Implementation

We make the following suggestions.

1. **Support of covariates:** Transform the support of each covariate, X_j, to unit interval by applying the following mapping. If X_j has support $[a, b]$, then define $X_j^* = (X - a)/(b - a)$. If X_j has support on the whole real line, define $X_j^* = \Phi(\hat{\sigma}_j^{-1}(X_j - \hat{\mu}_j))$ where $\hat{\sigma}_j$ is the sample standard deviation of X_{ji}'s, $\hat{\mu}_j$ is the sample mean of X_{ji}'s, and $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the standard normal CDF function. Apply the same mapping to each Z_j.
2. **Instrumental functions:** Use the set of the indicator functions of countable hypercubes $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ or a continuum of hypercubes $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$. For $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$, use the

[15] The same feature is shared by the AS test, which is also based on an equivalent unconditional representation of the conditional null hypothesis.

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countable hypercube instrumental functions on the transformed conditioning variables:

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}} = \left\{ g_\ell \equiv \left(g^{(1)}_{x^*,\ell}, g^{(2)}_{x^*,\ell},\ g_{z^*,\ell} \right) : \ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}} \right\}, \text{ where} \tag{6.1}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}} = \Big\{ (x_1^*, x_2^*, z^*, r) : r = q^{-1},\ q \cdot (x_1^*, x_2^*, z^*) \in \{0, 1, 2, \cdots, q-1\}^{2d_x + d_z},$$
$$x_1^* \geq x_2^*, \text{ and } q = 2, 3, \cdots, q_1 \Big\},$$

where q_1 is a natural number and is picked such that the expected sample size of the smallest cube is around 15 as suggested by AS.[16] Our simulations show that the results are robust to various expected sample sizes. We report results for 15 in the main text. Results for 10, 20, 25 are reported in Appendix 5.

For $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$, use a continuum of hypercube instrumental functions on the transformed conditioning variables:

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}} = \{ g_\ell : \ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}} \}, \text{ where} \tag{6.2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}} = \left\{ (x_1^*, x_2^*, z^*, r) : x_1^*, x_2^* \in [0, 1-r]^{2d_x + d_z},\ x_1^* \geq x_2^*,\ r = \frac{1}{q_1}, \ldots, \frac{q_1 - 1}{q_1} \right\}.$$

3. **Selection of τ's:** If $\mathcal{T}$ is of finite elements as in Examples 2.1–2.3, use all elements in $\mathcal{T}$. If $\mathcal{T}$ contains a continuum of elements as in Examples 2.4 and 2.5, pick a finite number of τ's and allow the number of τ's to grow with the sample size. For Examples 2.4 and 2.5, we specifically suggest considering the finite subset $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ of $\mathcal{T}$ that is also used in Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009).
4. **$Q(\tau, \ell)$:** The distribution $Q_{\mathcal{T}}$ assigns uniform weight on $\mathcal{T}$. For $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$, the distribution $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ assigns weight $\propto q^{-2}$ on each q and for each q, $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ assigns equal weight on each instrumental function with $r = q^{-1}$. Recall that for each q, there are $(q(q+1)/2)^{d_x} \cdot q^{d_z}$ instrumental functions with $r = q^{-1}$. For $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$, the distribution $Q_{\mathcal{L}}$ assigns equal weight on each instrumental function.
5. **$\epsilon, \kappa_n, B_n, \eta$:** Based on the experiments in the simulations, we suggest setting $\epsilon = 10^{-6}$, $\kappa_n = 0.15 \cdot \ln(n)$, $B_n = 0.85 \cdot \ln(n) / \ln\ln(n)$, and $\eta = 10^{-6}$. These choices are used in all the simulations that we report below and seem to perform well.

For the first three Monte Carlo examples below, we consider samples of sizes $n = 100$, 200, and 500, and for the fourth example, we consider samples of sizes $n = 50$, 100, and 200. For q_1, we set $q_1 = 3$ when $n = 50$, $q_1 = 6$ when $n = 100$, $q_1 = 13$ when $n = 200$, and $q_1 = 33$ when $n = 500$. The expected sample sizes of the smallest cube are 16.6, 16.6, 15.3 and 15.1, respectively. All our simulation results are based on 500 simulation repetitions, and for each repetition, the critical value is approximated by 500 bootstrap replications. The nominal size of the test is set at 10% for the first three examples and 5% for the fourth example.

[16] The expected sample size of the smallest cube is equal to $nq_1^{-(d_x + d_z)}$.

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6.2. Testing Regression Monotonicity with an Interval-Observed Dependent Variable

We consider the finite-sample performance of our test for Example 2.1. We generate the data as follows:

$$Y = 2 - X + U, \quad X \sim U[0,1], \quad U \sim U[-1,1].$$

Note that $E[Y|X=x] = 2-x$, which is decreasing in X, so the H_0^{LRM} is violated.

We consider a case close to rounding, when Y is observed only up to some coarse brackets for everyone in the sample. We want to examine when the violation of H_0^{LRM} stops being detectable as the brackets get coarser and coarser. We consider the following five specifications of the brackets: (1) Y is perfectly observed (benchmark); (2) 8 brackets; (3) 6 brackets; (4) 4 brackets; (5) 3 brackets.

Note that it is straightforward to see that no matter how the intervals are defined, both $E[Y^u|X=x]$ and $E[Y^\ell|X=x]$ are deceasing in x and the violation of H_0^{LRM} cannot be detected when $E[Y^u|X=1] \geq E[Y^\ell|X=0]$. The support of Y is $[0,3]$. Also, $Y|X=1 \sim U[0,2]$ and $Y|X=0 \sim U[1,3]$. It is straightforward to see that $E[Y^u|X=1] \geq E[Y^\ell|X=0]$ when there are only 2 brackets ([0,1.5), [1.5,3)) since certainly $Y^u \geq Y^\ell$ in this case. When there are 3 brackets: $[0,1)$, $[1,2)$ and $[2,3)$, then

$$E[Y^u|X=1] = \frac{1}{2}\cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2}\cdot 2 = 1.5,$$
$$E[Y^\ell|X=0] = \frac{1}{2}\cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2}\cdot 2 = 1.5.$$

Thus $E[Y^u|X=1] = E[Y^\ell|X=0]$ and the violation of H_0^{LRM} is not detectable.

When there are 4 brackets: $[0, 0.75)$, $[0.75, 1.5)$, $[1.5, 2.25)$ and $[2.25, 3)$, then

$$E[Y^u|X=1] = \frac{3}{8}\cdot 0.75 + \frac{3}{8}\cdot 1.5 + \frac{2}{8}\cdot 2.25 = 1.40625,$$
$$E[Y^\ell|X=0] = \frac{2}{8}\cdot 0.75 + \frac{3}{8}\cdot 1.5 + \frac{3}{8}\cdot 2.25 = 1.59375.$$

Thus $E[Y^u|X=1] < E[Y^\ell|X=0]$ and the violation of H_0^{LRM} should be detectable with a large enough sample.

Table 1 shows the rejection probabilities for our test, and the results are consistent with our theoretical findings. The rejection probabilities are greater than the nominal size 0.1 in cases (1)–(3) when H_0^{GRM} is violated and thus the violation of H_0^{LRM} is detectable. In these cases, the rejection probabilities of the multiplier version (GMS-u) and the bootstrap version (GMS-b) for both countable hypercubes $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ and a continuum of hypercubes $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ are similar. The power increases with the sample size, and with the number of brackets used. For the case with 4 brackets, it is very hard to detect the violation.[17] For the case

[17] Our simulations show that the sample size would have to be greater than 2,000 to have the rejection probability greater than the nominal size 0.1.

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TABLE 1. Rejection probabilities of our test for LRM ($\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

Cases	n	$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$	
		GMS-u	GMS-b	GMS-u	GMS-b
(1): Y is observed	100	1.000	1.000	0.998	0.998
	200	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(2): 8 brackets	100	0.514	0.516	0.446	0.406
	200	0.724	0.724	0.632	0.598
	500	0.976	0.980	0.976	0.976
(3): 6 brackets	100	0.154	0.168	0.156	0.148
	200	0.238	0.236	0.218	0.190
	500	0.576	0.580	0.594	0.560
(4): 4 brackets	100	0.010	0.008	0.014	0.006
	200	0.010	0.020	0.004	0.004
	500	0.024	0.028	0.012	0.004
(5): 3 brackets	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

with 3 brackets, H_0^{GRM} is not violated and thus the violation of H_0^{LRM} is not detectable. As a result neither version of our test has any power.

6.3. Testing the Monotone Instrumental Variable Assumption

We then consider the finite-sample performance of our test for Example 2.2. Without loss of generality, we assume that $Y(0) = 0$. Then, we only need to consider the null that $E[f^{(1)}(Y,1)|X = x_1] \geq E[f^{(2)}(Y,1)|X = x_2]$ whenever $x_1 \geq x_2$.

As discussed in the Remarks below Theorem 2.2, violations of H_0^{MIV} are not always statistically detectable regardless of sample size or testing method. It is also pointed out there that the smaller $P(D = 0|X = x)$ is and the smaller the gap between y_u and y_ℓ, the more likely for the violation to be detectable. Therefore, we consider the cases where the MIV assumption is violated and control these two factors to make the violation statistically detectable or not detectable.

Case (1). Let $Y(1) = -2X + \epsilon,\ X \sim U[0,1]$,

$\epsilon \sim U[-0.1, 0.1],\ D = 1(U \leq 0.8),$ and $U \sim U[0,1]$,

where X, ϵ, U are mutually independent, and $U[a,b]$ stands for the uniform distribution on the interval $[a,b]$. Here $y_u = 0.1$ and $y_\ell = -2.1$. In this case, the MIV is violated, and it is detectable because H_0^{GRM} is also violated.

Case (2). Let $Y(1) = -2X + \epsilon,\ X \sim U[0,1]$,

$\epsilon \sim U[-1,1],\ D = 1(U \leq 0.5),$ and $U \sim U[0,1]$,

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where X, ϵ, U are mutually independent. Here $y_u = 1$ and $y_\ell = -3$. In this case, we can verify that the MIV is violated, but the violation is not statistically detectable because H_0^{GRM} is not violated.

Case (3). Let $Y(1) = -2X + \epsilon,\ X \sim U[0,1],$

$\epsilon \sim U[-0.1, 0.1],\ D = 1(U \leq 0.2 + 0.8X),$ and $U \sim U[0,1],$

where X, ϵ, U are mutually independent. Here $y_u = 0.1$ and $y_\ell = -2.1$. In this case, we can verify that the MIV is violated, and the violation is detectable because H_0^{GRM} is also violated.

Case (4). Let $Y(1) = -2X + \epsilon,\ X \sim U[0,1],$

$\epsilon \sim U[-1,1],\ D = 1(U \leq 0.9 - 0.8X),$ and $U \sim U[0,1],$

where X, ϵ, U are mutually independent. Here $y_u = 1$ and $y_\ell = -3$. In this case, we can verify that the MIV is violated, but the violation is not statistically detectable because H_0^{GRM} is not violated.

In the simulations we consider two possibilities: (a) y_u and y_ℓ are known, and (b) y_u and y_ℓ are unknown but we replace y_u and y_ℓ with $\max_i Y_i$ and $\min_i Y_i$, respectively. Note that $\max_i Y_i \xrightarrow{p} y_u$ and $\min_i Y_i \xrightarrow{p} y_\ell$ at a faster rate than $n^{-1/2}$, which implies that the estimation effects of $\max_i Y_i$ and $\min_i Y_i$ can be ignored asymptotically. On the other hand, $\max_i Y_i \leq y_u$ and $\min_i Y_i \geq y_\ell$, so we expect the power of case (b) to be better than (a) when the violation is statistically detectable.

Tables 2 and 3 show the rejection probabilities for our test when y_u and y_ℓ are known and unknown, respectively, and it confirms our theoretical findings. The rejection probabilities are greater than the nominal size 0.1 in cases (1) and (3) where the GRM and the MIV are both violated. In these cases, the rejection probabilities of the multiplier version (GMS-u) and the bootstrap version (GMS-b) are similar, both increase with the sample size, and both are higher when y_u and y_ℓ are estimated. In Case (1), $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ has slightly better power than $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$, while in Case (3), $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ has much better power than $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$. Neither version of our test has any power in cases (2) and (4). This is consistent with Theorem 2.2, which implies that no test can have power greater than size in those cases because the sharp testable implication of MIV is not violated.

6.4. Testing Regression Monotonicity

We next consider a Monte Carlo demonstration of our test for a regression monotonicity example. We use the same designs as in Chetverikov (2013), where there is no Z in the model and X is a scalar. Let X be a uniform distribution on $[-1,1]$ and ξ be a normal distribution or uniform distribution with mean zero and standard deviation equal to σ_ξ. The variable Y is generated as

$$Y = c_1 X - c_2 \phi(c_3 X) + \xi, \tag{6.3}$$

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TABLE 2. Rejection probabilities of our test for MIV (y_u and y_ℓ are known, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$	
Cases	n	GMS-u	GMS-b	GMS-u	GMS-b
(1): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.912	0.918	0.868	0.878
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.994	0.992	0.986	0.986
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(2): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
(3): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.230	0.218	0.384	0.388
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.472	0.472	0.626	0.624
	500	0.910	0.910	0.924	0.920
(4): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

where $c_1, c_2, c_3 \geq 0$ and $\phi(\cdot)$ is the pdf of the standard normal distribution. As in Chetverikov (2013), we consider four sets of parameters:

Case (1). $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = 0$ and $\sigma_\xi = 0.05$.

Case (2). $c_1 = c_3 = 1$, $c_2 = 4$ and $\sigma_\xi = 0.05$.

Case (3). $c_1 = 1$, $c_2 = 1.2$, $c_3 = 5$ and $\sigma_\xi = 0.05$.

Case (4). $c_1 = 1$, $c_2 = 1.5$, $c_3 = 4$ and $\sigma_\xi = 0.1$.

TABLE 3. Rejection probabilities of our test for MIV (y_u and y_ℓ are unknown, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$	
Cases	n	GMS-u	GMS-b	GMS-u	GMS-b
(1): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.954	0.954	0.918	0.906
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	1.000	1.000	0.990	0.992
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(2): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
(3): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.306	0.292	0.448	0.444
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.584	0.596	0.720	0.716
	500	0.944	0.950	0.958	0.958
(4): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

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TABLE 4. Rejection probabilities of our test (GMS-u, GMS-b), Chetverikov's (2013) test (CS-SD, IS-SD) and Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart's (2000) test (GSV) for regression monotonicity (ξ is normal, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$				
Case	n	GMS-u	GMS-b	GMS-u	GMS-b	CS-SD	IS-SD	GSV
(1)	100	0.106	0.100	0.106	0.110	0.128	0.164	0.118
	200	0.118	0.116	0.106	0.086	0.114	0.149	0.091
	500	0.090	0.090	0.134	0.136	0.114	0.133	0.086
(2)	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.008	0.024	0
	200	0.002	0.002	0.010	0.012	0.010	0.017	0
	500	0.004	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.007	0.016	0
(3)	100	0.008	0.008	0.006	0.008	0.433	0.000	0
	200	0.706	0.674	0.334	0.286	0.861	0.650	0.010
	500	0.996	0.996	0.998	0.998	0.997	0.995	0.841
(4)	100	0.156	0.164	0.342	0.326	0.223	0.043	0.037
	200	0.408	0.378	0.338	0.288	0.506	0.500	0.254
	500	0.884	0.880	0.914	0.888	0.826	0.822	0.810

It can be verified that H_0 holds in Cases (1) and (2), and H_1 holds in Cases (3) and (4). Tables 4 and 5 show the rejection probabilities for our test with both the multiplier critical value (GMS-u) and the bootstrap critical value (GMS-b). The columns of CS-SD, IS-SD, and GSV are taken from Chetverikov (2013). CS-SD refers to the step-down procedure with consistent sigma estimator, IS-SD refers

TABLE 5. Rejection robabilities of our test (GMS-u, GMS-b), Chetverikov's (2013) test (CS-SD, IS-SD) and Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart's (2000) test (GSV) for regression monotonicity (ξ is uniform, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$				
Case	n	GMS-u	GMS-b	GMS-u	GMS-b	CS-SD	IS-SD	GSV
(1)	100	0.100	0.088	0.122	0.104	0.122	0.201	0.109
	200	0.126	0.136	0.134	0.114	0.121	0.160	0.097
	500	0.118	0.110	0.114	0.098	0.092	0.117	0.077
(2)	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.007	0.033	0.001
	200	0.002	0.004	0.006	0.008	0.010	0.024	0
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.021	0
(3)	100	0.010	0.008	0.004	0.004	0.449	0.000	0
	200	0.712	0.678	0.344	0.310	0.839	0.617	0.009
	500	1.000	1.000	0.990	0.992	0.994	0.990	0.811
(4)	100	0.152	0.156	0.320	0.326	0.217	0.046	0.034
	200	0.386	0.342	0.318	0.276	0.478	0.456	0.197
	500	0.904	0.890	0.904	0.886	0.846	0.848	0.803

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to the step-down procedure with inconsistent sigma estimator and GSV refers to Ghosal, Sen, and van der Vaart's (2000) test. For details of the procedures CS-SD, IS-SD and GSV see Chetverikov (2013).

As we can see from Tables 4 and 5, our test controls the size well in Cases (1) and (2), and the rejection rates increase with the sample size in Cases (3) and (4). $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ has similar performance to $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ in Cases (1), (2), (4), and $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ outperforms $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ in Case (3). The performance of our tests is comparable to the tests proposed by Chetverikov (2013) and has better power properties than the GSV test.

6.5. Testing Stochastic Monotonicity

We next consider a Monte Carlo demonstration of our test for a stochastic monotonicity example. We use the same designs as in Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009), where there is no Z in the model and X is a scalar. Let U be a normal distribution with mean zero and standard deviation equal to 0.1. We consider two cases. For Case (1), $Y \equiv U$ and H_0 holds. For Case (2), Y is generated as $Y = X(1-X)+U$, where $X \sim U[0,1]$, and H_1 holds.

Table 6 shows the rejection probabilities for our test with both the multiplier critical value (GMS-u) and the bootstrap critical value (GMS-b). The columns of LLW-F and LLW-E are taken from Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009). LLW-F refers to the test statistic using critical values obtained from the asymptotic expansion F_n of the limiting distribution, and LLW-E refers to the test statistic using critical values obtained from the type I extreme value distribution. The bandwidth for both LLW-F and LLW-E is 0.5. For details of the procedures LLW-F and LLW-E, see Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009).

As we can see from Table 6, our test controls the size well in Case (1). For Case (2), the rejection rates increase with the sample size, and both versions of our tests based on $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ have better power than those based on $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$. The performance of our tests based on $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ is comparable to the tests proposed by Lee, Linton, and Whang (2009).

TABLE 6. Rejection probabilities of our test (GMS-u, GMS-b) and Lee, Linton, and Whang's (2009) test (LLW-F, LLW-E) for stochastic monotonicity ($\alpha = 0.05$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$			
Cases	n	GMS-u	GMS-b	GMS-u	GMS-b	LLW-F	LLW-E
(1):H_0 is true	50	0.072	0.078	0.078	0.072	0.021	0.017
	100	0.090	0.066	0.104	0.048	0.033	0.024
	200	0.030	0.018	0.044	0.010	0.031	0.021
(2):H_0 is false	50	0.154	0.134	0.562	0.492	0.762	0.693
	100	0.574	0.420	0.978	0.902	0.988	0.976
	200	0.994	0.974	1.000	0.996	1.000	1.000

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7. EXTENSION

In this section, we extend our tests to test the nonparametric generalized regression monotonicity in the form of

$$H_0: E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X=x_1,Z=z,A=a_0] \geq E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X=x_2,Z=z,A=a_0], \quad \text{for all } x_1,x_2 \in \mathcal{X} \text{ and } x_1 \geq x_2, \text{ for all } z \in \mathcal{Z} \text{ and } \tau \in \mathcal{T}, \tag{7.1}$$

where a_0 defines a specific subpopulation of interest. Due to the conditioning on $A \in R^{d_a}$ at a single point a_0, the generalized regression monotonicity relation varies with a_0, so we call it nonparametric generalized regression monotonicity (NGRM). Let $f_A(a)$ denote the probability density function of A, and we suppress the dependence on P for notational simplicity. For $j=1$ and 2, and $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$ or $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$, let

$$\begin{aligned} m_P^{(j)}(\tau,\ell,a_0) &= E_P[f^{(j)}(W,\tau)g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X)g_{z,\ell}(Z)|A=a_0]\cdot f_A(a_0) \\ w_P^{(j)}(\ell,a_0) &= E_P[g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X)g_{z,\ell}(Z)|A=a_0]\cdot f_A(a_0), \end{aligned} \tag{7.2}$$

where $g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}$ and $g_{z,\ell}$ are defined in (3.5). Under a continuity assumption of the function $E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X=x,Z=z,A=a_0]$ and $E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X=x,Z=z,A=a_0]$ in x and z that is similar to Assumption 3.1, we can show that the null hypothesis in equation 7.1 is equivalent to

$$H_0: \nu_P(\tau,\ell,a_0) \equiv m_P^{(2)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)w_P^{(1)}(\ell,a_0) - m_P^{(1)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)w_P^{(2)}(\ell,a_0) \leq 0, \quad \text{for all } \tau \in \mathcal{T} \text{and for all } \ell \in \mathcal{L}, \tag{7.3}$$

where $\mathcal{L}$ can be $\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$ or $\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$.

Let $K(\cdot)$ denote a kernel function and b_n be a bandwidth. Then for $j=1$ and 2, we can nonparametrically estimate $m_P^{(j)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ and $w_P^{(j)}(\ell,a_0)$ by

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{m}_n^{(j)}(\tau,\ell,a_0) &= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{1}{b_n^{d_a}}K\Big(\frac{A_i-a_0}{b_n}\Big)m_i^{(j)}(W_i,\tau,\ell), \\ \hat{w}_n^{(j)}(\ell,a_0) &= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{1}{b_n^{d_a}}K\Big(\frac{A_i-a_0}{b_n}\Big)w_i^{(j)}(W_i,\ell). \end{aligned} \tag{7.4}$$

Under suitable regularity conditions, we can show that $\hat{m}_n^{(j)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ and $\hat{w}_n^{(j)}(\ell,a_0)$ are consistent estimators for $m_P^{(j)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ and $w_P^{(j)}(\ell,a_0)$ uniformly over $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$. Then $\nu_P(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ is estimated by

$$\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell,a_0) \equiv \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell,a_0) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell,a_0).$$

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Let the estimated influence function be

$$
\begin{aligned}
&I_{ni}^{u}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\\
&=\frac{1}{\sqrt{nb_n^{dz}}}K\Big(\frac{A_i-a_0}{b_n}\Big)\Big\{\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell,a_0)\big(m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)-\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\big)\\
&\quad+\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\big(w_i^{(1)}(\ell)-\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell,a_0)\big)-\hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell,a_0)\big(m_i^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)-\hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\big)\\
&\quad-\hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell,a_0)\big(w_i^{(2)}(\ell)-\hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell,a_0)\big)\Big\}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Similar to (3.11), we define $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ to be

$$
\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell,a_0)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}I_{ni}^{u}(\tau,\ell,a_0)^2,
$$

which is an estimator for the asymptotic variance of $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell,a_0)-\nu_P(\tau,\ell,a_0))$. Then similar to (3.12), for some fixed $\epsilon>0$, define $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}^2(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ as

$$
\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}^2(\tau,\ell,a_0)=\max\{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\tau,\ell,a_0),\epsilon\},\quad\text{for all }(\tau,\ell)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}.
$$

Our test statistic for (7.3) is then defined as

$$
\widehat{T}_{n,a_0}=\int\max\Big\{\sqrt{nb_n^{d_a}}\,\frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell,a_0)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell,a_0)},0\Big\}^2dQ(\tau,\ell).
$$

Let the GMS function $\psi_n(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ be

$$
\psi_n(\tau,\ell,a_0)=-B_n\cdot1\Big(\sqrt{nb_n^{d_a}}\,\frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell,a_0)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell,a_0)}<-\kappa_n\Big)\quad\text{for all }(\tau,\ell)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}.
$$

Define the simulated multiplier bootstrap process $\widehat{\Psi}_n^u(\tau,\ell,a_0)$ as

$$
\widehat{\Psi}_n^u(\tau,\ell,a_0)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}U_i\cdot I_{ni}^{u}(\tau,\ell,a_0)
$$

and let the critical value statistics be

$$
\widehat{T}_{n,a_0}^u=\int\max\Big\{\frac{\widehat{\Psi}^u(\tau,\ell,a_0)}{\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon(\tau,\ell,a_0)}+\psi_n(\tau,\ell,a_0),0\Big\}^2dQ(\tau,\ell).
$$

Define the multiplier GMS critical value $\hat{c}_{\eta,a_0}^u$ as:

$$
\hat{c}_{\eta,a_0}^u=\sup\Big\{q\,\Big|\,P^u\big(\widehat{T}_{n,a_0}^u\le q\big)\le1-\alpha+\eta\Big\}+\eta.
$$

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The decision rule is the following:

Reject H_0 in (7.3) if $\widehat{T}_{n,a_0} > \hat{c}^u_{\eta,a_0}$. **(7.5)**

Under suitable regularity conditions that are similar to Andrews and Shi (2014), we can show that our test for H_0 in (7.3) has asymptotic size control uniformly over a broad set of data generating processes, is consistent against any fixed alternative hypothesis and has nontrivial local power against some $\sqrt{nb_n^{d_a}}$ local alternatives. Note that we consider the multiplier statistic only. Extending the results to cover nonparametric bootstrap critical values just requires a suitable bootstrap empirical process result.

8. CONCLUSION

In this article, we construct a test for the hypothesis of generalized regression monotonicity. The GRM is the sharp testable implication of monotonicity in certain latent structures. Examples include the monotonicity of a nonparametric mean regression function when the dependent variable is only observed with interval values and the monotone instrumental variable assumption. The GRM also includes regression monotonicity and stochastic monotonicity as special cases. Our tests are shown to have uniform size control asymptotically, to be consistent against fixed alternatives, and to have nontrivial local power against some $n^{-1/2}$-local alternatives. For future studies, it would be interesting to extend our tests to allow for the cases in which X or/and Z include generated regressors or single indices.

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APPENDIX A: Auxiliary Lemmas

For any covariance kernel function h, let Ψ_h denote the mean-zero Gaussian process with covariance kernel function h. Define

$$\hat{\chi}_P(\tau,\ell) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{m}^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - m_P^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\big) \\ \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{m}^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - m_P^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\big) \\ \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{w}^{(1)}(\ell) - w_P^{(1)}(\ell)\big) \\ \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{w}^{(2)}(\ell) - w_P^{(2)}(\ell)\big) \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\widehat{\Psi}_P(\tau,\ell) \equiv \sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_n(\tau,\ell) - v_P(\tau,\ell)). \tag{A.1}$$

When P_{a_n} is in place of P, we have a_n in place of n in previous notations. Also, define

$$\hat{h}_{1,P}(\cdot) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ddot{w}(W_i,\cdot), \qquad \widehat{\ddot{m}}_P(\cdot) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ddot{m}(W_i,\cdot),$$

$$\hat{h}_{2,P}(\cdot,\cdot) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \big(\ddot{m}(W_i,\cdot) - \widehat{\ddot{m}}_P(\cdot)\big)\big(\ddot{m}(W_i,\cdot) - \widehat{\ddot{m}}_P(\cdot)\big)',$$

$$\hat{h}_P = (\hat{h}_{1,P}, \hat{h}_{2,P}), \qquad \hat{h}_{v,P} = \hat{h}'_{1,P} \cdot \hat{h}_{2,P} \cdot \hat{h}_{1,P}.$$

LEMMA A.1. *Suppose Assumption 4.1 holds. For a sequence* $\{P_{a_n} \in \mathcal{P} : n \geq 1\}$ *for a subsequence* $\{a_n\}$ *of* $\{n\}$, *suppose that* $d(h_{P_{a_n}}, h) \to 0$ *for some* $h \in \mathcal{H}$. *Then we have*

(*i*) $d(\hat{h}_{P_{a_n}}, h) \xrightarrow{p} 0$ *and*
(*ii*) $\hat{\chi}_{P_{a_n}} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_2}$.

The following lemma summarizes relevant results regarding $\hat{v}_n(\tau,\ell)$.

LEMMA A.2. *Suppose Assumption 4.1 holds. For a sequence* $\{P_{a_n} \in \mathcal{P} : n \geq 1\}$ *for a subsequence* $\{a_n\}$ *of* $\{n\}$, *suppose that* $d(h_{P_{a_n}}, h) \to 0$ *for some* $h \in \mathcal{H}$. *Then we have*

(*i*) $d(h_{2,v,P_{a_n}}, h_{2,v}) \to 0$,
(*ii*) $d(\hat{h}_{2,v,P_{a_n}}, h_{2,v}) \xrightarrow{p} 0$,
(*iii*) $\widehat{\Psi}_{P_{a_n}} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$,
(*iv*) $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_{a_n}} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ *conditional on the sample path with probability one,*

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(v) $\widehat{\Psi}^b_{P_{a_n}} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ *conditional on the sample path with probability one,*

(vi) $\sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} |\hat{\sigma}^{-1}_{\epsilon,a_n}(\tau,\ell) - \sigma^{-1}_{\epsilon,h_{2,v}}(\tau,\ell)| \xrightarrow{p} 0$ *where* $\sigma^2_{\epsilon,h_{2,v}}(\tau,\ell) = \max\{h_{2,v}((\tau,\ell),(\tau,\ell)),\epsilon\}$,

(vii) $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_{a_n}}(\cdot)/\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,a_n}(\cdot) \Rightarrow \cdot\Psi_{h_{2,v}}(\cdot)/\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v}}(\cdot)$ *conditional on the sample path with probability one, and*

(viii) $\widehat{\Psi}^b_{P_{a_n}}(\cdot)/\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,a_n}(\cdot) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}(\cdot)/\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v}}(\cdot)$ *conditional on the sample path with probability one.*

LEMMA A.3. *Suppose Assumptions 3.3 and 4.1 hold. For a sequence* $\{P_{a_n} \in \mathcal{P} : n \geq 1\}$ *for a subsequence* $\{a_n\}$ *of* $\{n\}$*, suppose that (a)* $d(h_{P_{a_n}}, h) \to 0$ *for some* $h \in \mathcal{H}$*, and that (b)* $v_{P_{a_n}}(\tau,\ell) = v_{P_c}(\tau,\ell) + \delta(\tau,\ell)/\sqrt{n}$ *for some* $P_c \in \mathcal{P}^0$ *and some function* $\delta : \mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L} \to R$*. Then we have*

(i) $\widehat{T}_n \xrightarrow{d} \int_{(\mathcal{T}\mathcal{L})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)$.

(ii) $\widehat{T}^u_n \xrightarrow{d} \int_{(\mathcal{T}\mathcal{L})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)$ *conditional on almost all paths of the original sample.*

(iii) $\widehat{T}^b_n \xrightarrow{d} \int_{(\mathcal{T}\mathcal{L})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)$ *conditional on almost all paths of the original sample.*

APPENDIX B: Proofs of Theorems

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Part (i) is obvious, thus its proof is omitted.

We show part (ii) by construction. Let $f_u(x,z)$ denote $E[Y_u|X=x,Z=z]$, and let $f_\ell(x,z)$ denote $E[Y_\ell|X=x,Z=z]$. Let

$$f(x,z) = \sup_{a\leq x} f_\ell(a,z). \tag{B.1}$$

Then, by definition, $f(x,z)$ is increasing in x for any z. And by H_0^{GRM} in (2.2), $f(x,z) \in [f_\ell(x,z), f_u(x,z)]$ for all x,z. Let

$$\lambda(x,z) = \frac{f_u(x,z) - f(x,z)}{f_u(x,z) - f_\ell(x,z)}, \tag{B.2}$$

where $0/0$ is taken to be 0. Then, $\lambda(x,z) \in [0,1]$ for all x,z. Let

$$Y = Y_\ell\lambda(X,Z) + Y_u(1-\lambda(X,Z)). \tag{B.3}$$

By construction, $Y \in [Y_\ell, Y_u]$. Also it is elementary that

$$E[Y|X,Z] = f_\ell(X,Z)\lambda(X,Z) + f_u(X,Z)(1-\lambda(X,Z)) = f(X,Z). \tag{B.4}$$

That means that the distribution of (Y,X,Z) satisfies H_0^{LRM}. This concludes the proof of part (ii). ■

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Proof of Theorem 2.2. First, we show part (i). Observe that, for $x_1 \geq x_2$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&E[f^{(1)}(Y,1)|X=x_1] = E[YD + y_u \cdot (1-D)|X=x_1] \\
=&E[Y(1)D + Y(1)(1-D) + (y_u - Y(1)) \cdot (1-D)|X=x_1] \\
=&E[Y(1) + (y_u - Y(1)) \cdot (1-D)|X=x_1] \\
\geq&E[Y(1)|X=x_1] \\
\geq&E[Y(1)|X=x_2] \\
\geq&E[Y(1)D + Y(1)(1-D) + (y_l - Y(1)) \cdot (1-D)|X=x_2] \\
=&E[YD + (y_l) \cdot (1-D)|X=x_2] = E[f^{(2)}(Y,1)|X=x_2], \qquad \textbf{(B.5)}
\end{aligned}$$

where the second line holds because $YD = Y(1)D$, the fourth line holds because $y_u - Y(1) \geq 0$ by assumption, and by similar arguments the last two lines hold. Similarly, $E[f^{(1)}(Y,2)|X=x_1] \geq E[f^{(2)}(Y,2)|X=x_2]$ when $x_1 \geq x_2$. Part (i) follows.

We show part (ii) by construction. Let

$$\begin{aligned}
I_1(x) &= \sup_{a \leq x} \Big(E[DY|X=a] + y_\ell E[1-D|X=a] \Big) \\
I_2(x) &= \sup_{a \leq x} \Big(E[(1-D)Y|X=a] + y_\ell E[D|X=a] \Big). \qquad \textbf{(B.6)}
\end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned}
Y(1) &= DY + (1-D)\frac{I_1(X) - E(DY|X)}{1 - E(D|X)} \\
Y(0) &= (1-D)Y + D\frac{I_2(X) - E[(1-D)Y|X]}{E(D|X)}. \qquad \textbf{(B.7)}
\end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see that

$$E[Y(1)|X] = I_1(X), \text{ and } E[Y(0)|X] = I_2(X). \qquad \textbf{(B.8)}$$

By the construction of $I_1(\cdot)$ and $I_2(\cdot)$, they are increasing. Thus, H_0^{MIV} is satisfied with $(Y(1), Y(0), D, X)$.

Now we only need to verify that $Y(1), Y(0)$ are bounded between y_ℓ and y_u. Consider the derivation:

$$\begin{aligned}
&H_0^{GRM} \\
\Rightarrow\ &E[DY|X=a] + E[(1-D)y_\ell|X=a] \leq E[DY|X=x] + E[(1-D)y_u|X=x] \ \text{ for all } a \leq x \\
\Rightarrow\ &I_1(X) \leq E[DY|X] + E[(1-D)y_u|X] \\
\Rightarrow\ &E[DY|X] + E[(1-D)y_\ell|X] \leq I_1(X) \leq E[DY|X] + E[(1-D)y_u|X] \\
\Rightarrow\ &y_\ell \leq \frac{I_1(X) - E(DY|X)}{1 - E(D|X)} \leq y_u \\
\Rightarrow\ &y_\ell \leq Y(1) \leq y_u \qquad \textbf{(B.9)}
\end{aligned}$$

where the second line holds the definition of H_0^{GRM}. The third and fourth lines follow from the definition of $I_1(X)$. The fifth line follows from rearranging terms, and the last line holds because $Y \in [y_\ell, y_u]$. Similarly, we can show that H_0^{GRM} implies $y_\ell \leq Y(0) \leq y_u$ as well. Therefore, the constructed $Y(0)$ and $Y(1)$ are bounded between y_ℓ and y_u. ■

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Proof of Theorem 4.1. We prove the case for $\hat{c}_\eta = \hat{c}^u_\eta$. The proof for $\hat{c}_\eta = \hat{c}^b_\eta$ is similar and we omit it. Our proof is similar to that of Theorem 6.3 of Donald and Hsu (2016) and that of Hsu (2017). Let $\mathcal{H}_{1,\nu}$ denote the set of all functions from $\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}$ to $[-\infty, 0]$. Let $h_\nu = (h_{1,\nu}, h_{2,\nu})$, where $h_{1,\nu} \in \mathcal{H}_{1,\nu}$ and $h_{2,\nu} \in \mathcal{H}_{2,\nu}$, and define

$$T(h_\nu) = \int \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,\nu}}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,\nu}}(\tau,\ell)} + h_{1,\nu}(\tau,\ell), 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell).$$

Define $c_0(h_{1,\nu}, h_{2,\nu}, 1-\alpha)$ as the $(1-\alpha)$-th quantile of $T(h_\nu)$.

Similar to Lemma A2 of AS, we can show that for any $\xi > 0$,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup_{P\in\mathcal{P}^0} P\left(\widehat{T}_n > c_0(h^P_{1,\nu,n}, h_{2,\nu,P}, 1-\alpha) + \xi\right) \le \alpha, \tag{B.10}$$

where $h^P_{1,\nu,n} = \sqrt{n}\nu_P(\cdot,\cdot)$ and $h^P_{1,\nu,n}$ belongs to $\mathcal{H}_{1,\nu}$ under $P \in \mathcal{P}^0$. Also, similar to Lemma A3 of AS, we can show that for all $\alpha < 1/2$

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup_{P\in\mathcal{P}_0} P\left(c_0(\psi_n, h_{2,\nu,P}, 1-\alpha) < c_0(h^P_{1,\nu,n}, h_{2,\nu,P}, 1-\alpha)\right) = 0. \tag{B.11}$$

As a result, to complete the proof of Theorem 4.1, it suffices to show that for all $0 < \delta < \eta$

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup_{P\in\mathcal{P}^0} P\left(\hat{c}^u_\eta < c_0(\psi_n, h_{2,P}, 1-\alpha) + \xi\right) = 0. \tag{B.12}$$

Let $\{P_n \in \mathcal{P}^0 : n \ge 1\}$ be a sequence for which the probability in the statement of (B.12) evaluated at P_n differs from its supremum over $P \in \mathcal{P}^0$ by δ_n or less, where $\delta_n > 0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} \delta_n = 0$. By the definition of lim sup, such a sequence always exists. Therefore, it is equivalent to show that for $0 < \xi < \eta$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P\left(\hat{c}^u_\eta < c_0(\psi_n, h_{2,\nu,P}, 1-\alpha) + \xi\right) = 0. \tag{B.13}$$

So far, we have suppressed the dependence of $\hat{c}^u_\eta$ on n. For the rest of the proof, it is useful to make the dependence on n explicit and write $\hat{c}^u_\eta$ as $\hat{c}^u_{n,\eta}$ instead.

Given that $\mathcal{H}^0$ is compact in the metric space $(\mathcal{H}, d)$, there exists a subsequence k_n of n such that $h_{P_{k,n}} \to h^*$ for some $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$ and this implies that $h_{2,\nu,P_{k_n}}$ converges to $h^*_{2,\nu}$. By Lemma A.2, we have $\Psi^u_{P_{k_n}}(\cdot)/\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,k_n}(\cdot) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h^*_{2,\nu}}(\cdot)/\sigma_{\epsilon,h^*_{2,\nu}}(\cdot)$ conditional on the sample path in probability. Then there exists a further subsequence m_n of k_n such that $\Psi^u_{P_{m_n}}(\cdot)/\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,m_n}(\cdot) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h^*_{2,\nu}}(\cdot)/\sigma_{\epsilon,h^*_{2,\nu}}(\cdot)$ conditional on the sample path almost surely.

For any $\omega \in \left\{\omega \in \Omega : \Psi^u_{P_{k_n}}(\cdot)/\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,k_n}(\cdot) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h^*_{2,\nu}}(\cdot)/\sigma_{\epsilon,h^*_{2,\nu}}(\cdot)\right\} \equiv \Omega_1$, by the same argument for Theorem 1, specifically that for (12.28), of AS we can show that for any constant $a_{m_n} \in R$ which may depend on h_1 and P and for any $0 < \xi_1$,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup_{h_{1,\nu}\in\mathcal{H}_{1,\nu}} P_u\left(\int \max\left\{\frac{\Psi^u_{P_{m_n}}(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,m_n}(\tau,\ell)}(\omega) + h_{1,\nu}(\tau,\ell), 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) \le a_{m_n}\right)$$
$$- P\left(T(h_\nu) \le a_{m_n} + \xi_1\right) \le 0. \tag{B.14}$$

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(B.14) is similar to (12.28) in AS. By (B.14) and by an argument similar to Lemma A.5 of AS, we have that for all $0 < \xi < \xi_1 < \eta$,

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} \hat{c}^u_{m_n,\eta}(\omega) \geq c_0(\psi_{m_n}, h_{2,\nu,P_{m_n}}, 1-\alpha) + \xi_1. \tag{B.15}$$

Therefore, for any $\omega \in \Omega_1$, (B.15) holds. Given that $P(\Omega_1) = 1$, we have that for all $0 < \xi < \xi_1 < \eta$

$$P\left(\left\{\omega : \liminf_{n\to\infty} \hat{c}^u_{m_n,\eta}(\omega) \geq c_0(\psi_{m_n}, h_{2,\nu,P_{m_n}}, 1-\alpha) + \xi_1\right\}\right) = 1,$$

which implies that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(\hat{c}^u_{m_n,\eta} < c_0(\psi_{m_n}, h_{2,\nu,P_{m_n}}, 1-\alpha) + \delta) = 0. \tag{B.16}$$

Note that for any convergent sequence A_n, if there exists a subsequence A_{m_n} converging to A, then A_n converges to A as well. Therefore, (B.16) is sufficient for (B.13). Theorem 4.1(a) is shown by combining (B.10), (B.11), and (B.12).

To show Theorem 4.1(ii), note that, under the P_c specified in Assumption 4.3, Lemma A.3(i) implies that

$$\widehat{T}_n \xrightarrow{d} \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,\nu,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,\nu,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell). \tag{B.17}$$

This limiting distribution is nondegenerate by Assumption 4.3. Let $H(a)$ denote the CDF of the limiting distribution defined in (B.17). By similar arguments as those for Lemma B.3 of AS, we can show that $H(a)$ is continuous and strictly increasing on $a \in [0,\infty)$ with $H(0) > 1/2$ under Assumption 4.3. Therefore, the $(1-\alpha)$ quantile of the limiting distribution defined in (B.17) is strictly greater than 0 when $\alpha \leq 1/2$, and we denote it as $c_0(1-\alpha)$. Also, $c_0(1-\alpha)$ is continuous on $\alpha \in (0, 1/2]$.

By the same proof for part (i), it is true that $\hat{c}^u_\eta \xrightarrow{p} c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta$, and by the continuity of $c_0(1-\alpha)$, we have $\lim_{\eta\to 0} c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta \to c_0(1-\alpha)$. Therefore, $\lim_{\eta\to 0} \limsup_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}^u_\eta) = \alpha$. ■

Proof of Theorem 5.1. Assumptions 3.2(a) and 5.1(a) together imply that

$$\int_{\mathcal{T}^a(P^*)} dQ(\tau) > 0. \tag{B.18}$$

For any $\tau \in \mathcal{T}^a(P_*)$, there exist $x_1^{**} \geq x_2^{**}$ and z^* such that $E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X = x_1^{**}, Z = z^*] < E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X = x_2^{**}, Z = z^*]$. By the continuity of the conditional moment functions, there exist x_1^* and x_2^* such that $x_1^* \gg x_2^*$ and that $E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X = x_1^*, Z = z^*] < E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X = x_2^*, Z = z^*]$

If two vectors $a, b \in R^d$ such that $a \ll b$, let $[a,b]$ denote the hypercube $\Pi_{j=1}^d [a_j, b_j]$, where a_j and b_j are the jth elements of a and b, respectively.

Now that $x_1^* \gg x_2^*$, by continuity of the conditional moment function, there exist $r^* > 0$ such that $x_1^* - r^* \geq x_2^* + r^*$, and that for all $x_1 \in [x_1^* - r^*, x_1^* + r^*]$, $x_2 \in [x_2^* - r^*, x_2^* + r^*]$ and $z \in [z^* - r^*, z + r^*]$, and that $E_P[f^{(1)}(W,\tau)|X = x_1, Z = z] < E_P[f^{(2)}(W,\tau)|X =$

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$x_2, Z = z]$. Then for all $\ell = (x_1, x_2, z, r)$ such that $x_1 \in [x_1^* - r^*, x_1^* + r^*]$, $x_2 \in [x_2^* - r^*, x_2^* + r^*]$, $z \in [z^* - r^*, z + r^*]$ and $r \le r^*$, we have $v_{P_*}(\tau, \ell) > 0$.

Let

$$\mathcal{L}^*(\tau) = [x_1^* - r^*, x_1^* + r^*] \times [x_2^* - r^*, x_2^* + r^*] \times [z^* - r^*, z + r^*] \times (0, r^*]. \tag{B.19}$$

By Assumption 3.2, we have $\int_{\mathcal{L}^*(\tau)} Q(\ell) > 0$ and this implies

$$\int_{\mathcal{L}^*(\tau)} \max\left\{\frac{v_{P_*}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_*}}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 Q(\ell) = \int_{\mathcal{L}^*(\tau)} \left(\frac{v_{P_*}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_*}}(\tau,\ell)}\right)^2 Q(\ell) > 0 \tag{B.20}$$

because $v_{P_*}(\tau, \ell) > 0$ when $\ell \in \mathcal{L}^*(\tau)$. Next we have

$$\begin{aligned} A^* &\equiv \int \max\left\{\frac{v_{P_*}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_*}}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 Q(\tau,\ell) \\ &\ge \int_{\mathcal{T}^a(P_*)} \int_{\mathcal{L}^*(\tau)} \left(\frac{v_{P_*}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_*}}(\tau,\ell)}\right)^2 Q(\ell) Q(\tau) > 0. \end{aligned} \tag{B.21}$$

Note that $n^{-1}\widehat{T}_n \xrightarrow{p} A^* > 0$ under P_*. Therefore, $\widehat{T}_n$ diverges to positive infinity in probability, but $\hat{c}_\eta^u$ is bounded in probability. Therefore, $\lim_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n > \hat{c}_\eta^u) = 1$. The proof for the bootstrap critical value is the same and thus omitted. ■

Proof of Theorem 5.2. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} m_{P_n}^{(j)}(\tau,\ell) &= E_{P_n}[f^{(j)}(Y,\tau) g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)] \\ &= E_{P_{n,xz}}\left[E_{P_n}[f^{(j)}(Y,\tau)|X,Z] \cdot g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)\right] \\ &= E_{P_{c,xz}}\left[E_{P_c}[f^{(j)}(Y,\tau)|X,Z] \cdot g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)\right] \\ &\quad + E_{P_{c,xz}}\left[\gamma\, \delta_j(X,Z,\tau) \cdot g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)\right]/\sqrt{n} \\ &= m_{P_c}^{(j)}(\tau,\ell) + \gamma\, \delta_j(\tau,\ell)/\sqrt{n}, \end{aligned} \tag{B.22}$$

where $\delta_{(j)}(\tau,\ell) = E_{P_{c,xz}}\left[\delta_j(X,Z,\tau) \cdot g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)\right]$. The third equality holds because of Assumptions 5.2(a) and (b). Also,

$$\begin{aligned} w_{P_n}^{(j)}(\tau,\ell) &= E_{P_n}[g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)] = E_{P_{n,xz}}[g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)] \\ &= E_{P_{c,xz}}[g_{x,\ell}^{(j)}(X) g_{z,\ell}(Z)] = w_{P_c}^{(j)}(\tau,\ell), \end{aligned} \tag{B.23}$$

where the third equality holds because $P_{n,xz} = P_{c,xz}$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} v_{P_n}(\tau,\ell) &= m_{P_n}^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) w_{P_n}^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - m_{P_n}^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) w_{P_n}^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) \\ &= m_{P_c}^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) w_{P_c}^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - m_{P_c}^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) w_{P_c}^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) \\ &\quad + \gamma\left(\delta_{(2)}(\tau,\ell) w_{P_c}^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - \delta_{(1)}(\tau,\ell) w_{P_c}^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\right)/\sqrt{n} \\ &= v_{P_c}(\tau,\ell) + \gamma\, \delta_v(\tau,\ell)/\sqrt{n}, \end{aligned} \tag{B.24}$$

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where $\delta_v(\tau,\ell) \equiv \delta_{(2)}(\tau,\ell) w^{(1)}_{P_c}(\tau,\ell) - \delta_{(1)}(\tau,\ell) w^{(2)}_{P_c}(\tau,\ell)$. Under Assumption 5.2(d), we have

$$\delta_v(\tau,\ell) \geq 0 \text{ for all } \tau,\ell. \tag{B.25}$$

In addition, under Assumptions 5.2(e) and 5.3, we have,

$$\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^+(P_c)} dQ(\tau,\ell) > 0, \text{ where } (\mathcal{TL})^+(P_c) = \{(\tau,\ell) \in (\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c) : \delta_v(\tau,\ell) > 0\}. \tag{B.26}$$

Under the local alternative sequence $\{P_n\}_{n\geq 1}$, using B.24, Lemma A.3(i) shows that

$$\widehat{T}_n \xrightarrow{d} \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell) + \gamma\,\delta_v(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell). \tag{B.27}$$

Also, Lemma A.3(ii) shows that the critical value statistic

$$\widehat{T}^u_n \xrightarrow{d} \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) \tag{B.28}$$

conditional on almost all sample paths. Note that the limiting distribution defined in (B.28) is identical to that in (B.17). We denote its cumulative distribution function as $H(a)$.

We consider two cases, depending on whether the limiting distribution defined in (B.28) is degenerate or not. First, suppose that it is nondegenerate. By the proof for part (ii) of Theorem 4.1, we have that $H(a)$ is continuous and strictly increasing on $a \in [0,\infty)$. We also have that the $(1-\alpha)$ quantile of the right-hand side of (B.28), $c_0(1-\alpha)$, satisfies: $c_0(1-\alpha) > 0$ if $\alpha < 1/2$, and it is continuous on $\alpha \in (0,1/2)$. Because $\delta_v(\tau,\ell) \geq 0$ for all τ and ℓ, we have that the limiting distribution of the test statistic defined in (B.27) is nondegenerate, strictly increasing on $[0,\infty)$, and first-order stochastically dominant to that in (B.28). It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\lim_{\eta\to 0}\lim_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n \geq \widehat{c}^{\,u}_\eta) \\
&= \lim_{\eta\to 0} P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell) + \gamma\,\delta_v(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) \geq c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta)\Big) \\
&\geq \lim_{\eta\to 0} P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v},P_c}(\tau,\ell)}, 0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) \geq c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta)\Big) \\
&= \alpha,
\end{aligned} \tag{B.29}$$

where the first equality holds because the test statistic defined in (B.27) is nondegenerate and strictly increasing on $[0,\infty)$, and the first inequality holds because the limiting distribution of the test statistic defined in (B.27) first-order stochastically dominates that in (B.28). The last equality holds because the distribution defined in (B.28) is continuous and strictly increasing on $[0,\infty)$. This shows part (i) of the theorem for the nondegenerate case.

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We now show part (ii) for the nondegenerate case. Consider the derivation

$$\begin{aligned}
&\lim_{\gamma\to\infty}\lim_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n \geq \widehat{c}_\eta^u) \\
&= \lim_{\gamma\to\infty} P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\Big\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)+\gamma\,\delta_v(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)},0\Big\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) \geq c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta)\Big) \\
&\geq \lim_{\gamma\to\infty} P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^+(P_c)} \max\Big\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)+\gamma\,\delta_v(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)},0\Big\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) \geq c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta)\Big) \\
&= 1, \qquad \textbf{(B.30)}
\end{aligned}$$

where the last equality holds by (B.26). This shows part (ii) of the theorem for the nondegenerate case.

Now we consider the second case, where the limiting distribution in (B.28) is degenerate. The limiting distribution in (B.28) is degenerate iff the measure of $\{(\tau,\ell)\in(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c): h_{2,v,P_c}((\tau,\ell),(\tau,\ell))>0\}$. is zero. Let

$$S=\{(\tau,\ell)\in(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c): h_{2,v,P_c}((\tau,\ell),(\tau,\ell))=0\}. \qquad \textbf{(B.31)}$$

Equation (B.26) implies that $\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} dQ(\tau,\ell) > 0$ because $(\mathcal{TL})^+(P_c)\subseteq(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)$. That and the degeneracy of the limiting distribution in (B.28) imply that the limiting distribution in (B.27) reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_S \max\Big\{\frac{\delta_v(\tau,\ell)}{\sqrt{\epsilon}},0\Big\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell) &= \int_S \frac{\delta_v^2(\tau,\ell)}{\epsilon} dQ(\tau,\ell) \\
&\geq \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^+(P_c)} \frac{\delta_v^2(\tau,\ell)}{\epsilon} dQ(\tau,\ell) \\
&> 0, \qquad \textbf{(B.32)}
\end{aligned}$$

where the strict inequality holds by (B.26).

Because the limiting distribution in (B.28) is degenerate, $\widehat{c}_\eta^u \xrightarrow{p} c_0(1-\alpha+\eta)+\eta=\eta$. Therefore, for η is small enough that $\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^+}\delta_v^2(\tau,\ell)\epsilon^{-1}dQ(\tau,\ell)>\eta$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n \geq \widehat{c}_\eta^u) = 1. \qquad \textbf{(B.33)}$$

This shows both part (i) and part (ii) of the theorem for the degenerate case. ■

APPENDIX C: Proof of Lemmas

Proof of Lemma 3.1. We first show that (3.1) implies (1.1) by contradiction. For this direction, we show the case for $\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$ and given that $\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$ is a subset of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$, the case for $\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$ follows.

Suppose that (1.1) is not true, then there exist $x_1 > x_2$, $\tau\in\mathcal{T}$ and z such that $E_P[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X=x_1,Z=z] < E_P[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X=x_2,Z=z]$. By continuity, there exist $[x_{1\ell},x_{1u}]$, $[x_{2\ell},x_{2u}]$ and $[z_l,z_u]$ with $x_{1\ell}\ll x_{1u}$, $x_{2\ell}\ll x_{2u}$, $z_l\ll z_u$, $x_{1\ell}\geq x_{2\ell}$, $x_{1u}\geq x_{2u}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}
&E_P[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X=x_1,Z=z] < E_P[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X=x_2,Z=z] \\
&\qquad \text{for all } x_1\in[x_{1\ell},x_{1u}], x_2\in[x_{2\ell},x_{2u}], z\in[z_l,z_u]. \qquad \textbf{(C.1)}
\end{aligned}$$

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Given that rational numbers are dense and $x_{1\ell} \geq x_{2\ell}$, $x_{1u} \geq x_{2u}$, we can find x_1^*, x_2^*, z^* and a natural number q^* that is large enough such that

$$q^* \cdot (x_1^*, x_2^*, z^*) \in \{0, 1, \ldots, q^* - 1\}^{2d_x + d_z},$$
$$x_1^* \leq x_2^*,$$
$$[x_1^*, x_1^* + (q^*)^{-1}] \subseteq [x_{1\ell}, x_{1u}],\ [x_2^*, x_2^* + (q^*)^{-1}] \subseteq [x_{2\ell}, x_{2u}],\ [z^*, z^* + (q^*)^{-1}] \subseteq [z_\ell, z_u].$$

Let $\ell^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, z^*, (q^*)^{-1})$ and it is obvious that $\ell^* \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$. Equation (C.1) implies that

$$E_P\Big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)\big|X \in C_{x_1^*, r_x^*}, Z \in C_{z^*, r_z^*}\Big] < E_P\Big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)\big|X \in C_{x_2^*, r_x^*}, Z \in C_{z^*, r_z^*}\Big], \tag{C.2}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{m_P^{(1)}(\tau,\ell^*)}{w_P^{(1)}(\ell^*)} &= \frac{E_P[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau) g_{x,\ell^*}^{(1)}(X) g_{z,\ell^*}(Z)]}{E_P[g_{x,\ell^*}^{(1)}(X) g_{z,\ell^*}(Z)]} \\ &< \frac{E_P[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau) g_{x,\ell^*}^{(2)}(X) g_{z,\ell^*}(Z)]}{E_P[g_{x,\ell^*}^{(2)}(X) g_{z,\ell^*}(Z)]} = \frac{m_P^{(2)}(\tau,\ell^*)}{w_P^{(2)}(\ell^*)}.\end{aligned} \tag{C.3}$$

Therefore, there exist $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$ and $\ell^* \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$ such that

$$\nu_P(\tau,\ell^*) = m_P^{(2)}(\tau,\ell^*) w_P^{(1)}(\ell^*) - m_P^{(1)}(\tau,\ell^*) w_P^{(2)}(\ell^*) > 0, \tag{C.4}$$

i.e., (3.1) is violated.

Next, we show that (1.1) implies (3.1). It is sufficient to show the $\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$ case since $\mathcal{L}_{\text{c-cube}}$ is a subset of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{cube}}$. For notational simplicity, we consider the case where $d_x = 1$ and $d_z = 0$, and the proof for cases where $d_x \geq 2$ and/or $d_z \geq 1$ is similar. When $d_x = 1$ and $d_z = 0$, we have $\ell = (x_1, x_2, r)$. Note that we only need to consider those ℓ's such that $E[g_{x,\ell}^{(1)}] = P(X \in C_{x_1,r}) > 0$ and $E[g_{x,\ell}^{(2)}] = P(X \in C_{x_2,r}) > 0$ because $E[g_{x,\ell}^{(1)}] = P(X \in C_{x_1,r}) = 0$ implies that $m_P^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) = 0$ and $w_P^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) = 0$ for all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$. This further implies that $\nu_P(\tau,\ell) = 0$ for all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$. For any $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $E[g_{x,\ell}^{(1)}] > 0$ and $E[g_{x,\ell}^{(2)}] > 0$, there are three different cases to consider:

First, $x_1 = x_2$.

Second, $x_1 > x_2$, and $x_1 \geq x_2 + r$.

Third, $x_1 > x_2$, and $x_1 < x_2 + r$.

For the first case, clearly, $g_{x,\ell}^{(1)} = g_{x,\ell}^{(2)}$ and

$$\nu_P(\tau,\ell) = E_P\big[\big(f^{(2)}(Y,\tau) - f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)\big) g_{x,\ell}^{(1)}(X)\big] \cdot E_P[g_{x,\ell}^{(1)}(X)]. \tag{C.5}$$

By (1.1), we have

$$E[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X = x] \geq E[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X = x] \quad \text{for all } x \in [x_1 - r, x_1 + r], \tag{C.6}$$

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and by the law of iterated expectations,

$$E_P\big[(f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)-f^{(1)}(Y,\tau))g^{(1)}_{x,\ell}(X)\big]=E_{P_x}\Big[E_P\big[(f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)-f^{(1)}(Y,\tau))|X\big]g^{(1)}_{x,\ell}(X)\Big]\leq 0. \tag{C.7}$$

This implies that $v_P(\tau,\ell)\leq 0$ for the first case.

For the second case, we have $x_1'\geq x_2'$ for all $x_1'\in[x_1,x_1+r]$ and $x_2'\in[x_2,x_2+r]$. By (1.1),

$$E[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X=x_1']\geq E[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X=x_2'] \quad \text{for all } x_1'\in[x_1,x_1+r],\ x_2'\in[x_2,x_2+r]. \tag{C.8}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)g^{(1)}_{x,\ell}(X)\big]}{E_P\big[g^{(1)}_{x,\ell}(X)\big]}&=E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_1+r]\big]\\&\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_2+r]\big]=\frac{E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)g^{(2)}_{x,\ell}(X)\big]}{E_P\big[g^{(2)}_{x,\ell}(X)\big]}.\end{aligned} \tag{C.9}$$

This implies that $v_P(\tau,\ell)\leq 0$ for the second case.

For the third case, it is true that $x_1+r>x_2+r>x_1>x_2$. Therefore, $[x_2,x_2+r]=[x_2,x_1]\cup[x_1,x_2+r]$ and $[x_1,x_1+r]=[x_1,x_2+r]\cup[x_2+r,x_1+r]$. By a similar argument in the first case and the second case,

$$\begin{aligned}&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r]\big]\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\\&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r]\big]\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big]\\&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\\&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big].\end{aligned} \tag{C.10}$$

These imply that

$$\begin{aligned}&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r]\big]\\&\geq\frac{P(X\in[x_1,x_2+r])}{P(X\in[x_2,x_2+r])}E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]+\\&\quad\frac{P(X\in[x_2,x_1])}{P(X\in[x_2,x_2+r])}E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big]\\&\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big],\ \text{and}\end{aligned} \tag{C.11}$$

$$E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big]. \tag{C.12}$$

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It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_1+r]\big]\\
&=\frac{P(X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r])}{P(X\in[x_1,x_1+r])}E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r]\big]+\\
&\quad\frac{P(X\in[x_1,x_2+r])}{P(X\in[x_1,x_1+r])}E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\\
&\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big]. \qquad \textbf{(C.13)}
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_1+r]\big]\\
&=\frac{P(X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r])}{P(X\in[x_1,x_1+r])}E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2+r,x_1+r]\big]+\\
&\quad\frac{P(X\in[x_1,x_2+r])}{P(X\in[x_1,x_1+r])}E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\\
&\geq E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]. \qquad \textbf{(C.14)}
\end{aligned}$$

These results together imply that

$$\begin{aligned}
&E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_1+r]\big]\\
&=\frac{P(X\in[x_2,x_1])}{P(X\in[x_2,x_2+r])}E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_1+r]\big]+\\
&\quad\frac{P(X\in[x_1,x_2+r])}{P(X\in[x_2,x_2+r])}E_P\big[f^{(1)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_1+r]\big]\\
&\geq\frac{P(X\in[x_2,x_1])}{P(X\in[x_2,x_2+r])}E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_1]\big]+\\
&\quad\frac{P(X\in[x_1,x_2+r])}{P(X\in[x_2,x_2+r])}E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_1,x_2+r]\big]\\
&=E_P\big[f^{(2)}(Y,\tau)|X\in[x_2,x_2+r]\big]. \qquad \textbf{(C.15)}
\end{aligned}$$

That is, $v_P(\tau,\ell)\leq 0$ for the third case.

This completes the proof for Lemma 3.1. ■

APPENDIX D: Proofs of Auxiliary Lemmas

Proof of Lemma A.1. For notational simplicity, we prove it for the sequence $\{n\}$ and all of the arguments go through with $\{a_n\}$ in place of $\{n\}$.

We apply Lemma E.2 of Andrews and Shi (2013b; AS2 hereafter) to show part (i). It is sufficient to show that every element of $\hat{h}_{P_n}$ converges to h uniformly. Note that $\{m^{(j)}(\omega,W_{n,i},\tau,\ell):\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ \ell\in\mathcal{L},\ i\leq n,\ n\geq 1\}$ is manageable with respect to envelopes $\{(F_{n,1}(\omega),\ldots,F_{n,n}(\omega)):\ n\geq 1\}$ because $m^{(j)}(W,\tau,\ell)=f^{(j)}(W,\tau)\cdot g^{(j)}_{x,\ell}(X)\cdot g_{z,\ell}(Z)$, and $\{f^{(j)}(\omega,W_{n,i},\tau):\ \tau\in\mathcal{T},\ i\leq n,\ n\geq 1\}$, $\{g^{(j)}_{x,\ell}(\omega,X_{n,i}):\ \ell\in\mathcal{L},\ i\leq n,\ n\geq 1\}$

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and $\{g_{z,\ell}(\omega, Z_{n,i}) : \ \ell \in \mathcal{L},\ i \le n,\ n \ge 1\}$ are manageable with respect to envelopes $\{(F_{n,1}(\omega), \ldots, F_{n,n}(\omega)) : n \ge 1\}$, $\{(1, \ldots, 1) : n \ge 1\}$ and $\{(1, \ldots, 1) : n \ge 1\}$, respectively. By Assumption 4.1, there exists $0 < \eta\, n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_{P_n} F_{n,i}^{1+\eta} \le M$ for some $0 < M < \infty$ for all $n \ge 1$. Then by Lemma E.2 of AS2, we have

$$\sup_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}, \ell \in \mathcal{L}} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m^{(j)}(W_{n,i}, \tau, \ell) - E_{P_n} m^{(j)}(W, \tau, \ell) \right| \xrightarrow{p} 0. \tag{D.1}$$

Similar arguments apply to $w^{(j)}(W, \ell)$. This shows that $d(\hat{h}_{P_n,1}, h_1) \xrightarrow{p} 0$.

The proof for $d(\hat{h}_{P_n,2}, h_2) \xrightarrow{p} 0$ is identical to the proof of Lemma A.1(b) of AS2 after we replace their D_F with an identity matrix and their $\widehat{\Sigma}_n(\theta, g, g*)$ with $\hat{h}_{2,P}(\cdot, \cdot)$, so we omit it for brevity. This completes part (i).

The proof for Part (ii) is a nonstandardized version of Lemma A.1(a) of AS2, and the proof is identical to that for Lemma A.1(a) of AS2. We omit it for brevity. ■

Proof of Lemma A.2. For notational simplicity, we prove Lemma A.2 for the sequence $\{n\}$ and all of the arguments go through with $\{a_n\}$ in place of $\{n\}$. Part (i) follows from the fact that $d(h_{P_n}, h) \to 0$ and the definitions of h_{2,ν,P_n} and $h_{2,\nu}$. Part (ii) follows from Lemma A.1(i).

For part (iii), note that uniformly over $(\tau, \ell) \in \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sqrt{n}\big(\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)]E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)]\big) \\
&= E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)]) \\
&\quad + E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)]) \\
&\quad + \sqrt{n}(\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)])(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)]) \\
&= E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)]) \\
&\quad + E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)]) + o_p(1),
\end{aligned} \tag{D.2}$$

where the $o_p(1)$ in the last line follows from Lemma A.1(ii). Similar expansion applies to $\sqrt{n}\big(\hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)\hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)]E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)]\big)$. Therefore, uniformly over $(\tau, \ell) \in \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{L}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\widehat{\Psi}_{P_{a_n}}(\tau,\ell) &= \sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}_n(\tau,\ell) - \nu_{P_n}(\tau,\ell)) \\
&= E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)]) \\
&\quad + E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)]) \\
&\quad - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)]) \\
&\quad - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)] \cdot \sqrt{n}(\hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)]) + o_p(1) \\
&= h_{P_n,1} \cdot \hat{\chi}_{P_n}(\tau,\ell) + o_p(1).
\end{aligned} \tag{D.3}$$

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By Lemma A.1(ii) and the fact that $d(h_{P_n}, h) \to 0$, we have $h_{P_n,1} \cdot \hat{\chi}_{P_n}(\tau,\ell) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$. Equation (D.3) is equivalent to that $\sup_{(\tau,\ell)\in\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}} |\widehat{\Psi}_{P_{a_n}}(\tau,\ell) - h_{P_n,1} \cdot \hat{\chi}_{P_n}(\tau,\ell)| \xrightarrow{p} 0$ and by Lemma 1.10.2 of van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), this suffices to show that $\widehat{\Psi}_{P_{a_n}}(\tau,\ell) = \sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_n(\tau,\ell) - v_{P_n}(\tau,\ell)) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$.

For part (iv), we define $\beta_n(W_i,\tau,\ell)$ as

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_n(W_i,\tau,\ell) = {} & E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)] \cdot \left(m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)]\right) \\ & + E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)] \cdot \left(w_i^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)]\right) \\ & - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)] \cdot \left(m_i^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)]\right) \\ & - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)] \cdot \left(w_i^{(2)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)]\right), \end{aligned} \tag{D.4}$$

and we denote it as $\beta_{n,i}(\tau,\ell)$. It is straightforward to see that $\widehat{\Psi}_{P_{a_n}}(\tau,\ell) = n^{-1/2}\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{n,i}(\tau,\ell) + o_p(1)$ from (D.3). Also, define

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_{n,i}(\tau,\ell) = {} & \hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) \cdot (m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)) + \hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) \cdot (w_i^{(1)}(\ell) - \hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell)) \\ & - \hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell) \cdot (m_i^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)) - \hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) \cdot (w_i^{(2)}(\ell) - \hat{w}_n^{(2)}(\ell)), \end{aligned} \tag{D.5}$$

which is the sample counterpart of $\beta_{n,i}(\tau,\ell)$. It is true that $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_n} = n^{-1/2}\sum_{i=1}^n U_i \cdot \hat{\beta}_{n,i}(\tau,\ell)$.

Because Ψ_{h_v} is Borel measurable and separable, then by Section 1.12 (page 73) of van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_n} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ conditional on the sample path with probability one iff $\sup_{g\in BL_1} |E_u g(\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_n}) - E[g(\Psi_{h_{2,v}})]| \xrightarrow{p} 0$ where BL_1 denotes the set of all real functions on $\ell^\infty(\mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L})$ with a Lipschitz norm bounded by 1 and E_u denotes the expectation w.r.t. U_i's. Then by Lemma 1.9.2 of van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), $\sup_{g\in BL_1} |E_u g(\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_n}) - E[g(\Psi_{h_{2,v}})]| \xrightarrow{p} 0$ iff for any subsequence $\{b_n\}$ of $\{n\}$, there exists a further subsequence of $\{k_n\}$ such that $\sup_{g\in BL_1} |E_u g(\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_n}) - E[g(\Psi_{h_{2,v}})]| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$, which is equivalent to that for any subsequence $\{b_n\}$ of $\{n\}$, there exists a further subsequence of $\{k_n\}$ such that $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_{k_n}} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ conditional on the sample path almost surely. Hence, to show part (iv), it is sufficient to show that for any subsequence $\{b_n\}$ of $\{n\}$, there exists a further subsequence of $\{k_n\}$ such that $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_{k_n}} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ conditional on the sample path almost surely.

First, let $M_g > 1$ be some constant such that $E_{P_n}[m_n^{(j)}(W,\tau,\ell)] \le M_g$ and $E_{P_n}[w_n^{(j)}(W,\ell)] \le M_g$ for all $n \ge 1$. Such M_g exists because of Assumption 4.1(b). Under Assumption 4.1 and by the law of large numbers (LLN), we have $n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n (F_{n,i} + M_g)^2 - E_{P_n}[(F_{n,i} + M_g)^2] \xrightarrow{p} 0$.

Also, by LLN, we have $n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n (F_{n,i} + M_g)^{\delta_1} - E_{P_n}[(F_{n,i} + M_g)^{\delta_1}] \xrightarrow{p} 0$ where δ is as defined in Assumption 4.1 and it is true that $\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i} + M_g)^{\delta_1}] < \infty$.

As a result, for any subsequence $\{b_n\}$ of $\{n\}$, there exists a further subsequence of $\{k_n\}$ such that

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$$d(\hat{h}_{P_{k_n}}, h) \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^2 - E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^2] \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0, \text{ and}$$

$$\frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^{\delta} - E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^{\delta}] \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0. \tag{D.6}$$

Define

$$\Omega_1 \equiv \Big\{\omega\in\Omega:\ d(\hat{h}_{P_{k_n}}, h)(\omega)\to 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^2(\omega) - E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^2]\to 0, \text{ and}$$

$$\frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^{\delta_1}(\omega) - E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i}+M_g)^{\delta_1}] \to 0\Big\}. \tag{D.7}$$

By construction, $P(\Omega_1)=1$. We show that $k_n^{-1/2}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot\hat{\beta}_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell)(\omega) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,\nu}}(\tau,\ell)$ for all $\omega\in\Omega_1$. First, we rewrite

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot\hat{\beta}_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell)(\omega)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot\beta_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell)(\omega)$$

$$+(\hat{\omega}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])(\omega)\cdot\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot(m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)])(\omega)$$

$$+(\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)])(\omega)\cdot\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot(w_i^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])(\omega)$$

$$-(\hat{\omega}_n^{(2)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)])(\omega)\cdot\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot(m_i^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)])(\omega)$$

$$-(\hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)])(\omega)\cdot\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\cdot(w_i^{(2)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)])(\omega)$$

$$+(\hat{\omega}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])^2(\omega)\cdot\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i + (\hat{m}_n^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)])^2(\omega)\times$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i$$

$$-(\hat{\omega}_n^{(2)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(2)}(\ell)])^2(\omega)\cdot\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i - (\hat{m}_n^{(1)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(1)}(\tau,\ell)])^2(\omega)\times$$

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$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i$$
$$= A + B_1 + B_2 - B_3 - B_4 + C_1 + C_2 - C_3 - C_4, \tag{D.8}$$

where A, B_j's and C_j's are defined term by term. It is sufficient for us to show that $A \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$, and B_j's and C_j's are all $o_p(1)$ uniformly over $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$ and $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$.

We use Theorem 10.6 (functional central limit theorem) of Pollard (1990) to show $A \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$. Define

$$g_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell) = \frac{U_i}{\sqrt{k_n}}\beta_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell)(\omega), \tag{D.9}$$
$$G_{k_n,i} = \frac{U_i}{\sqrt{k_n}} 4M_g\left(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g\right).$$

By Lemma E.1 of AS2 and the manageability of every element of $\beta_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell)$, we have that $\{g_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell,\omega_u) : \tau \in \mathcal{T},\ \ell \in \mathcal{L},\ i \le k_n,\ n \ge 1\}$ is manageable with respect to envelopes $\{(G_{k_n,1}(\omega_u), \ldots, G_{k_n,k_n}(\omega_u) : n \ge 1\}$. Hence, (i) of Theorem 10.6 of Pollard (1990) holds. Let $\zeta_{k_n}(\tau,\ell) = \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} g_{k_n,i}(\tau,\ell)$. By definition, $E_u[\zeta_{k_n}(\tau_1,\ell_1)\zeta_{k_n}(\tau_2,\ell_2)] = h'_{1,P_{k_n}}\tilde{h}_{2,P_{k_n}}h_{1,P_{k_n}}((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2))$ where

$$\tilde{h}_{2,P_{k_n}} = \frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}\left(\ddot{m}(W_i,\cdot) - E_{P_{k_n}}[\ddot{m}(\cdot)]\right)\left(\ddot{m}(W_i,\cdot) - E_{P_{k_n}}[\ddot{m}(\cdot)]\right)'. \tag{D.10}$$

Also,

$$\tilde{h}_{2,P_{k_n}} = \hat{h}_{2,P_{k_n}}(\omega) - \left(\hat{\ddot{m}}_{P_{k_n}}(\cdot) - E_{P_{k_n}}[\ddot{m}(\cdot)]\right)\left(\hat{\ddot{m}}_{P_{k_n}}(\cdot) - E_{P_{k_n}}[\ddot{m}(\cdot)]\right)'(\omega). \tag{D.11}$$

Equation (D.11) and $d(\hat{h}_{P_{k_n}}(\omega), h) \to 0$ imply that $d(\tilde{h}_{2,P_{k_n}}(\omega), h_2) \to 0$. By assumption, we have that $d(h_{1,P_{k_n}}, h_1) \to 0$, so $\tilde{h}_{2,v,P_{k_n}} \equiv h'_{1,P_{k_n}}\tilde{h}_{2,P_{k_n}}h_{1,P_{k_n}} \to h_{2,v}$. That is, (ii) of Theorem 10.6 of Pollard (1990) holds. Note that $\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g)^2 - E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g)^2] \to 0$ and $E_{P_{k_n}}[(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g)^2] < C$ for some constant C. These imply that, for some constant C, $\limsup_{n\to\infty} k_n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g)^2 < C$. Also, consider the derivation

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_u\Big[\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} G_{k_n,i}^2\Big] = \limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}\left[4M_g\left(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g\right)\right]^2 < 16M_g^2 C < \infty. \tag{D.12}$$

That is, part (iii) of Theorem 10.6 of Pollard (1990) holds. By a similar argument of (16.39) of AS, we have, for any $\epsilon \in (0,\infty)$,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} E_u\left[G_{k_n,i}^2(\omega)\cdot 1(G_{k_n,i} > \epsilon)\right] &\le \epsilon^{-\delta_1}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} E_u\left[\left|\frac{U_i}{\sqrt{k_n}}\ddot{F}_{k_n,i}(\omega)\right|^{\delta_1}\right] \\ &\le \frac{C}{k_n^{\delta/2-1}\epsilon^{\delta_1}}\cdot\frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n}\left|\left(F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g\right)\right|^{\delta_1} \\ &\to 0,\end{aligned} \tag{D.13}$$

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where the C in the second inequality comes from $E[|U|^{2+\delta_1}] < C$ and the convergence result in the last line holds because $k_n^{-\delta_1/2+1} \to 0$ and $\limsup_{n\to\infty} k_n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} |F_{k_n,i}(\omega) + M_g|^{\delta_1}(\omega) < \infty$. That is, (iv) of Theorem 10.6 of Pollard (1990) holds. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\rho_{k_n}((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} E_u\big[g_{k_n,i}^2(\tau_1,\ell_1) + g_{k_n,i}^2(\tau_2,\ell_2) - 2g_{k_n,i}(\tau_1,\ell_1)g_{k_n,i}(\tau_2,\ell_2)\big] \\
&= \frac{1}{k_n}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} \beta_{k_n,i}^2(\tau_1,\ell_1)(\omega) + \beta_{k_n,i}^2(\tau_2,\ell_2)(\omega) - 2\beta_{k_n,i}(\tau_1,\ell_1)(\omega)\beta_{k_n,i}(\tau_2,\ell_2)(\omega) \\
&= \tilde{h}_{2,\nu,P_{k_n}}((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_1,\ell_1)) + \tilde{h}_{2,\nu,P_{k_n}}((\tau_2,\ell_2),(\tau_2,\ell_2)) - 2\tilde{h}_{2,\nu,P_{k_n}}((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)) \\
&\to h_{2,\nu}((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_1,\ell_1)) + h_{2,\nu}((\tau_2,\ell_2),(\tau_2,\ell_2)) - 2h_{2,\nu}((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)) \\
&\equiv \rho((\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2)), \qquad \textbf{(D.14)}
\end{aligned}
$$

uniformly over $(\tau_1,\ell_1),(\tau_2,\ell_2) \in \mathcal{T}\times\mathcal{L}$. This is sufficient for (v) of Theorem 10.6 of Pollard (1990). Therefore, we have $\zeta_{k_n} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,\nu}}$ by Theorem 10.6 of Pollard (1990).

For B_1 term, notice that by the same argument for A, we have

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i \cdot \big(m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)]\big)(\omega) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,\nu}(1,1)}, \qquad \textbf{(D.15)}
$$

where $h_{2,\nu}(1,1)$ denotes the $(1,1)$-th element of $h_{2,\nu}$. Note that $\sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} |\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])|(\omega) \to 0$, so it is true that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} |B_1| &\le \sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} \big|(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])(\omega)\big| \times \\
&\qquad \sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} \Big|\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i \cdot (m_i^{(2)}(\tau,\ell) - E_{P_n}[m^{(2)}(\tau,\ell)])(\omega)\Big| \\
&= o(1)\cdot O_p(1) = o_p(1). \qquad \textbf{(D.16)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $B_j = o_p(1)$ for all $j = 1,\dots,4$. For C_1 term, we have

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i = O_p(1) \qquad \textbf{(D.17)}
$$

and $\sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} \big|(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])(\omega)\big|^2 = o(1)$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} \Big|(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])^2(\omega)\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\Big| \\
&= \Big|\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_n}}\sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i\Big| \cdot \sup_{\tau\in\mathcal{T},\ell\in\mathcal{L}} \Big|(\hat{w}_n^{(1)}(\ell) - E_{P_n}[w^{(1)}(\ell)])\Big|^2(\omega)
\end{aligned}
$$

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$$= O_p(1) \cdot o(1) = o_p(1). \tag{D.18}$$

Similarly, $C_j = o_p(1)$ for $j = 2, 3$ and 4.

These results are sufficient to show that $k_n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} U_i \cdot \hat{\beta}_{k_n,i}(\tau, \ell)(\omega) \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ for all $\omega \in \Omega_1$ with $P(\Omega_1) = 1$. This shows $\widehat{\Psi}^u_{P_n} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_{2,v}}$ conditional on the sample path with probability one.

For part (v), let

$$\hat{\chi}^b_{P_n}(\tau, \ell) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{m}_n^{(1)b}(\tau, \ell) - \hat{m}^{(1)}(\tau, \ell)\big) \\ \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{m}_n^{(2)b}(\tau, \ell) - \hat{m}^{(2)}(\tau, \ell)\big) \\ \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{w}_n^{(1)b}(\tau, \ell) - \hat{w}^{(1)}(\ell)\big) \\ \sqrt{n}\big(\hat{w}_n^{(2)b}(\tau, \ell) - \hat{w}^{(2)}(\ell)\big) \end{pmatrix}. \tag{D.19}$$

By part 8 of Lemma D.2 of Bugni, Canay, and Shi (2015), we have $\hat{\chi}^b_{P_n} \Rightarrow \Psi_{h_2}$ conditional on almost all sample paths. Next, by the same arguments for part (iii), we can show part (v).

To show part (vi), we have $\sup_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}, \ell \in \mathcal{L}} |\hat{h}_{2,v,P_{a_n}}((\tau, \ell), (\tau, \ell)) - h_{2,v}((\tau, \ell), (\tau, \ell))| \xrightarrow{p} 0$ from part (ii). By the fact that $\max\{a, \epsilon\}$ is a continuous function, it follows that

$$\sup_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}, \ell \in \mathcal{L}} |\max\{\hat{h}_{2,v,P_{a_n}}((\tau, \ell), (\tau, \ell)), \epsilon\} - \max\{h_{2,v}((\tau, \ell), (\tau, \ell)), \epsilon\}| \xrightarrow{p} 0, \tag{D.20}$$

so $\sup_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}, \ell \in \mathcal{L}} |\sigma^2_{\epsilon,a_n}(\tau, \ell) - \sigma^2_\epsilon(\tau, \ell)| \xrightarrow{p} 0$. Given that $\epsilon > 0$, we have $\sigma^2_\epsilon(\tau, \ell) \geq \epsilon > 0$ for all τ, ℓ. Hence, it follows that $\sup_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}, \ell \in \mathcal{L}} |\sigma^{-1}_{\epsilon,a_n}(\tau, \ell) - \sigma^{-1}_\epsilon(\tau, \ell)| \xrightarrow{p} 0$ and this shows part (vi).

Part (vii) follows from parts (iv) and (vi), and part (viii) follows from parts (v) and (vi). ■

Proof of Lemma A.3. To show part (i), for $\iota > 0$, define $(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c) = \{(\tau, \ell) : \nu_{P_c}(\tau, \ell) \geq -\iota \cdot \sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau, \ell)\}$, and $(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)^c$ denote the complement of $(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)$. Note that by Lemma A.2(v)–(vi) and condition (b) of the present lemma, we have

$$\sup_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}, \ell \in \mathcal{L}} \left| \frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau, \ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau, \ell)} - \frac{\nu_{P_c}(\tau, \ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau, \ell)} \right| \xrightarrow{p} 0. \tag{D.21}$$

Then it follows that, with probability approaching one,

$$\sup_{(\tau,\ell) \in (\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)^c} \frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau, \ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau, \ell)} \leq -\iota/2. \tag{D.22}$$

This implies that

$$\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)^c} \max\left\{ \sqrt{n} \frac{\hat{\nu}_n(\tau, \ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau, \ell)}, 0 \right\}^2 dQ(\tau, \ell) = o_p(1). \tag{D.23}$$

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Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{T}_n &= \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)} \max\left\{\sqrt{n}\frac{\hat{v}_n(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)+o_p(1)\\ &\le \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)} \max\left\{\sqrt{n}\frac{\hat{v}_n(\tau,\ell)-v_{P_n}(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)/\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)+o_p(1),\end{aligned} \tag{D.24}$$

where the equality holds by the previous equation. The inequality holds because condition (a) holds and $v_{P_c}(\tau,\ell)\le 0$ and $\max\{a^2,0\}$ is nondecreasing in a. Therefore,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n\le t)\le P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)\le a\Big). \tag{D.25}$$

Note that ι is any arbitrary positive number, so letting $\iota\to 0$ and using the facts that $\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)}$ is a tight Gaussian process and that $\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^\iota(P_c)\setminus(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} dQ(\tau,\ell)\to 0$, we have, for any $t\in R$,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n\le t)\le P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)\le t\Big). \tag{D.26}$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\widehat{T}_n\ge \int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\sqrt{n}\frac{\hat{v}_n(\tau,\ell)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon,n}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell). \tag{D.27}$$

It follows that, for all $t\in R$,

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n\le t)\ge P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)\le t\Big). \tag{D.28}$$

Equations (D.26) and (D.28) together imply that, for all $t\in R$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(\widehat{T}_n\le t)= P\Big(\int_{(\mathcal{TL})^o(P_c)} \max\left\{\frac{\Psi_{h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)+\delta(\tau,\ell)}{\sigma_{\epsilon,h_{2,v,P_c}}(\tau,\ell)},0\right\}^2 dQ(\tau,\ell)\le t\Big). \tag{D.29}$$

This concludes the proof of part (i).

Part (ii) and part (iii) can be proved following the same steps, except one uses parts (vii) and (viii) of Lemma A.2 instead of (v) and (vi) of that lemma, and one eliminates $\delta(\tau,\ell)$ using Assumption 3.3. Details are omitted for brevity. ■

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APPENDIX E: Additional Simulation Results

In this section we investigate the robustness of the performance of our test to the choice of q_1. We consider only the multiplier bootstrap version of the test, because this is the version that performed uniformly better in the simulations reported in Tables 1–6. Let N denote the expected sample size of the smallest cube. We consider three alternative choices of q_1, each resulting in $N = 10$, 20, and 25, respectively. All other settings of the tests and the examples are the same as the simulations in the main text.

The results are reported in Tables A1–A6. As we can see, for the latent regression monotonicity test (Table A1), the choice of q_1 does not affect test performance much when $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ is used, and lower q_1 increases the power of the test when $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ is used. This makes sense, because the test using $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ does not down-weight smaller cubes, and thus is more negatively affected by the noise of the smaller cubes. As a result, when the noisiest cubes are removed from consideration, the test using $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ improves. The same improvement (as q_1 gets lower and thus N gets bigger) also occurs for the test using $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ in other examples for samples sizes greater than or equal to 100. On the other hand, smaller q_1 (larger N) hurts the power of the test using $\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$ in most settings, and hurts the power of the test using $\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$ at the extremely small sample size 50. However, overall, the performance of our tests is reasonably robust to q_1 at sample sizes 100 or up.

TABLE A1. Rejection probabilities of our multiplier version test for LRM ($\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$			$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$		
Cases	n	N=10	N=20	N=25	N=10	N=20	N=25
(1): Y is observed	100	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.998	0.998	0.998
	200	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(2): 8 brackets	100	0.518	0.504	0.494	0.318	0.438	0.520
	200	0.704	0.700	0.696	0.562	0.672	0.728
	500	0.956	0.958	0.958	0.940	0.966	0.972
(3): 6 brackets	100	0.152	0.152	0.150	0.104	0.174	0.234
	200	0.202	0.198	0.200	0.160	0.280	0.308
	500	0.556	0.556	0.556	0.554	0.656	0.696
(4): 4 brackets	100	0.008	0.008	0.006	0.006	0.032	0.030
	200	0.016	0.018	0.018	0.004	0.012	0.008
	500	0.028	0.028	0.030	0.008	0.012	0.012
(5): 3 brackets	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000
	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

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TABLE A2. Rejection probabilities of our multiplier version test for MIV (y_u and y_ℓ are known, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

Cases	n	$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$			$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$		
		N=10	N=20	N=25	N=10	N=20	N=25
(1): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.902	0.906	0.904	0.798	0.878	0.898
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.970	0.988	0.992
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(2): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
(3): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.200	0.118	0.076	0.332	0.308	0.266
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.430	0.390	0.370	0.536	0.612	0.612
	500	0.874	0.868	0.864	0.898	0.938	0.944
(4): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

TABLE A3. Rejection probabilities of our multiplier version test for MIV (y_u and y_ℓ are unknown, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

Cases	n	$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$			$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$		
		N=10	N=20	N=25	N=10	N=20	N=25
(1): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.882	0.932	0.934
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.992	0.994	0.994
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(2): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
(3): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.256	0.168	0.100	0.412	0.404	0.364
H_0^{GRM} violated	200	0.538	0.492	0.454	0.622	0.708	0.712
	500	0.922	0.922	0.916	0.938	0.972	0.974
(4): H_0^{MIV} violated	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
H_0^{GRM} holds	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.002
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

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TABLE A4. Rejection Probabilities of our multiplier version test for regression monotonicity (ξ is normal, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$			$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$		
Cases	n	N=10	N=20	N=25	N=10	N=20	N=25
(1)	100	0.110	0.114	0.112	0.098	0.114	0.114
	200	0.084	0.084	0.084	0.088	0.104	0.100
	500	0.120	0.120	0.120	0.136	0.136	0.140
(2)	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000
	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.006	0.000
	500	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.008
(3)	100	0.138	0.000	0.000	0.304	0.000	0.000
	200	0.748	0.648	0.606	0.642	0.724	0.788
	500	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.996	1.000
(4)	100	0.132	0.008	0.000	0.180	0.008	0.000
	200	0.408	0.372	0.324	0.398	0.550	0.522
	500	0.912	0.916	0.914	0.908	0.910	0.898

TABLE A5. Rejection probabilities of our multiplier version test for regression monotonicity (ξ is uniform, $\alpha = 0.1$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$			$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$		
Cases	n	N=10	N=20	N=25	N=10	N=20	N=25
(1)	100	0.096	0.096	0.102	0.108	0.120	0.130
	200	0.120	0.118	0.118	0.122	0.128	0.134
	500	0.110	0.110	0.110	0.104	0.102	0.108
(2)	100	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.000
	200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.008	0.000
	500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002
(3)	100	0.124	0.000	0.000	0.272	0.000	0.000
	200	0.704	0.638	0.608	0.616	0.716	0.794
	500	0.996	0.998	0.996	0.992	0.986	0.998
(4)	100	0.138	0.004	0.000	0.154	0.004	0.000
	200	0.388	0.356	0.312	0.366	0.554	0.470
	500	0.900	0.898	0.898	0.900	0.894	0.878

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TABLE A6. Rejection probabilities of our multiplier version test for stochastic monotonicity ($\alpha = 0.05$, number of simulation repetitions = 500, critical value simulation draws = 500)

		$\mathcal{G}_{\text{c-cube}}$			$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cube}}$		
Cases	n	N=10	N=20	N=25	N=10	N=20	N=25
(1):H_0 is true	50	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.100	0.072	0.072
	100	0.092	0.088	0.086	0.080	0.080	0.090
	200	0.028	0.030	0.028	0.044	0.046	0.046
(2):H_0 is false	50	0.258	0.054	0.054	0.738	0.054	0.054
	100	0.646	0.542	0.454	0.962	0.966	0.974
	200	0.994	0.992	0.990	1.000	1.000	1.000

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