

## An updated review of Goodness-of-Fit tests for regression models

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**Abstract** This survey intends to collect the developments on Goodness-of-Fit for regression models during the last 20 years, from the very first origins with the proposals based on the idea of the tests for density and distribution, until the most recent advances for complex data and models. Far from being exhaustive, the contents in this paper are focused on two main classes of tests statistics: smoothing-based tests (kernel-based) and tests based on empirical regression processes, although other tests based on Maximum Likelihood ideas will be also considered. Starting from the simplest case of testing a parametric family for the regression curves, the contributions in this field provide also testing procedures in semiparametric, nonparametric, and functional models, dealing also with more complex settings, as those ones involving dependent or incomplete data.

**Keywords** Bootstrap calibration · Empirical distribution of the residuals · Empirical regression process · Likelihood ratio tests · Smoothing tests

**Mathematics Subject Classification** 62G08 · 62G09 · 62G10

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## 1 Introduction. From density to regression

With the aim of testing if a data distribution belongs to a certain parametric family, Pearson introduced at the beginning of the twentieth century the term Goodness-of-Fit (GoF). Since then, there has been an enormous amount of papers on this topic. As an example, MathScinet database reported in October 2012 approximately 3000 references from the search by *Goodness-of-Fit*, referring the oldest entries to GoF for distribution models. On the other hand, the most recent papers on this topic consider much more complicated settings, such as diffusion models or multidimensional covariance structures. This simple notice states the impossibility of condensing in a single paper an exhaustive review of all the contributions in this field.

More recently, since the early 1990s, there has been also a large amount of contributions concerning GoF for regression models, which will be the focus of this work. Another search in MathScinet provides approximately 250 references on this topic, showing the interest that has been aroused within the statistical community in the last 20 years.

An up-to-date review of the most important recent contributions on GoF for regression models will be given in this paper. The final goal is to show the clear connection between the developments of GoF for regression models with the previous ideas on GoF for density or distribution, jointly with the possible extensions and applications to different contexts of increasing complexity, both regarding the data characteristics and/or the model assumptions. As will be soon noticed by the reader, and all along this paper, smoothing is crucial in most of the methodological developments, and the authors are concerned about kernel smoothing methods although other smoothing techniques could also be applied. Other testing procedures such as the ones considering empirical regression processes and related tests based on likelihood functions and residuals distributions will also be commented on.

In this introductory section, some basic ideas of classical tests for density and distribution functions will be presented, jointly with the first works on GoF for regression models, starting from the 1990s. Yet in these early works, two main approaches to the GoF testing problem can be considered: a first approach is based on smoothing methods for regression, whereas the second one considers the construction of empirical regression processes. Section 2 explores some more recent perspectives for GoF testing in regression models, introduced in the beginning of this century, collecting likelihood-based tests, tests based on the empirical distribution of the residuals, and also tests designed for avoiding the curse of dimensionality. Test calibration in practice and power analysis is briefly commented on in Sect. 3, and GoF tests in more complex semiparametric and nonparametric models are introduced in Sect. 4. Temporal and/or spatial correlation structures must be taking into account in order to adapt GoF tests to dependent data, and this issue is considered in Sect. 5. GoF tests with censored, truncated, and biased data and data with measurement errors are revised in Sect. 6, whereas the methodological related topic of comparison of regression curves is commented on in Sect. 7. Finally, some very recent advances on GoF testing are presented in Sect. 8, concerning models with random effects, quantile, and functional regression.

### 1.1 Distribution and density tests

The basic and fundamental ideas, in the roots of the recent developments on GoF theory for regression models, are limited to the comparison of a nonparametric pilot estimator of the distribution  $F$  or the density  $f$  of a certain random variable (r.v.)  $X$ , with a consistent (under the null hypothesis) estimator of the target function. The pilot estimator is usually given by the empirical cumulative distribution function, for the distribution  $F$ , and by a kernel density estimator for  $f$ . In 1973, two essential contributions for further methodological developments are published: the paper by Durbin (1973) on the distribution and the one by Bickel and Rosenblatt (1973) on the density.

The general statement of these tests is the following. Given a random sample  $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$  of a r.v.  $X$ , the goal is to test the following hypothesis in an omnibus way:

$$H_0 : F \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{dist}} = \{F_\theta\}_{\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^q}, \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_a : F \notin \mathcal{F}_{\text{dist}},$$

for the distribution function or, for the density:

$$H_0 : F \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{dens}} = \{f_\theta\}_{\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^q}, \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_a : F \notin \mathcal{F}_{\text{dens}},$$

assuming obviously that these functions exist. Formally, the test statistics are usually based on a discrepancy between the pilot estimator, which is universally consistent, and the corresponding consistent estimator under the null hypothesis  $H_0$ . Hence, for the distribution case, the test statistic can be written in generic form as

$$T_n = T(F_n, F_{\hat{\theta}}) \equiv T(\alpha_n), \tag{1}$$

where  $F_n(x) = n^{-1} \text{card}\{j; X_j \leq x\}$  is the empirical cumulative distribution function (where  $\text{card}$  denotes the cardinality of a set) and  $F_{\hat{\theta}}$  is a parametric estimator under  $H_0$ ,  $\hat{\theta}$  being a  $\sqrt{n}$ -consistent estimator of  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ , the true parameter under  $H_0$ . Expression (1) can also be written in terms of  $\alpha_n$ , which denotes an empirical process with estimated parameter  $\hat{\theta}$ . Specifically,  $\alpha_n(\cdot) = \sqrt{n}(F_n(\cdot) - F_{\hat{\theta}}(\cdot))$ . Weak convergence of  $\alpha_n$ , studied in detail by Durbin (1973), is the key for deriving the asymptotic behavior of any continuous functional of this process. For instance,  $T_n = \sup_x |\alpha_n(x)| = \|\alpha_n(\cdot)\|_\infty$  (where  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  denotes the supremum norm), corresponding to the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, or  $T_n = \int \alpha_n^2(x) dF_n(x)$ , the well-known Cramér–von Mises test. In general, the asymptotic behavior of the tests  $T(\alpha_n)$  is determined by the continuous functional operating on a Gaussian limit process, denoted by  $\alpha$  (see Durbin 1973 for further details).

The test statistic for a density can be written as  $T_n = T(f_{nh}, f_{\hat{\theta}})$ , or more exactly as

$$T_n = T(f_{nh}, \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}(f_{nh})) \equiv T(\tilde{\alpha}_n) \tag{2}$$

where  $f_{nh}(x) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n K_h(x - X_i)$  is the kernel density estimator (see Rosenblatt 1956 and Parzen 1962), with  $K$  a kernel density function and  $h$  the smoothing parameter or bandwidth.  $K_h$  denotes the rescaled kernel, which in the one-dimensional case

is  $K_h(x) = h^{-1}K(x/h)$ . Considering  $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}(f_{nh})$  in (2), with  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta}(f_{nh}(x)) = \int K_h(x - u) dF_{\theta}(u)$  instead of  $f_{\hat{\theta}}$ , avoids the bias inherent to nonparametric density estimation.

Similar to the distribution case (1), the test statistic in (2) can be expressed as  $T_n \equiv T(\tilde{\alpha}_n)$  where  $\tilde{\alpha}_n(\cdot) = \sqrt{nh}(f_{nh}(\cdot) - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}(f_{nh}(\cdot)))$  is the empirical process associated to the density whose limit process  $\tilde{\alpha}$  is also Gaussian (see Rosenblatt 1991). Unlike the limit process  $\alpha$  for the distribution case, the covariance structure of  $\tilde{\alpha}$  is independent of the distribution of  $\hat{\theta}$ . This alternative route for GoF is related to the seminal paper by Bickel and Rosenblatt (1973), whose ideas were extended to the  $p$ -dimensional setting in the 1990s. Specifically, an  $L^2$ -test in dimension  $p$  in given by  $T_n \equiv T(\tilde{\alpha}_n) = \int \tilde{\alpha}_n^2(x)\omega(x) dx$ , with  $\omega$  a weight function to mitigate edge-effects and, in this case,  $f_{nh}(x)$  a  $p$ -dimensional kernel density estimator (with  $K_h(x) = h^{-p}K(x/h)$  a  $p$ -dimensional rescaled kernel) and a rate  $\sqrt{nh^p}$  in the definition of the empirical process. Then, it can be seen that

$$h^{-p/2} \left( T_n - \int K^2(x) dx \int f(x)\omega(x) dx \right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N} \left( 0, 2 \int (K * K)^2(x) dx \int f^2(x)\omega^2(x) dx \right)$$

( $\xrightarrow{d}$  denoting convergence in distribution) where  $K * K$  denotes the self-convolution of the kernel,  $h \equiv h_n \rightarrow 0$  and  $nh^p \rightarrow \infty$  (see Fan 1994, 1998). This convergence result can be derived using arguments from continuous functionals on Gaussian processes, or Central Limit Theorems (CLT) for  $U$ -statistics with kernels varying with  $n$  (see, for instance, de Jong 1987). Analogous CLT structures to the one above will appear along this paper for GoF tests based on smooth estimators.

Bickel and Rosenblatt test has been the subject for a large collection of statistical papers, adjusting the methodology for different data contexts or exploring other functionals beyond the  $L^2$  distance. The adaptation of the test for multivariate probability density functions was studied by Ahmad and Cerrito (1993) while Gouriéroux and Tenreiro (2001) and Chebana (2004) derived its asymptotic power properties, under local alternatives. Location-scale invariant GoF tests are considered by Tenreiro (2007), for multidimensional random vectors, whereas test for assessing normality were studied by Tenreiro (2009). The Bickel and Rosenblatt test has also been adapted for diffusion processes by Lee (2006), showing also asymptotic normality. The law of the iterated logarithm for  $T_n$  was discussed by Liang and Jing (2007) under fixed alternatives, motivated by the previous work by Giné and Mason (2004). For weakly dependent observations, Neumann and Paparoditis (2000) modified  $T_n$  including a parametric estimate of the stationary density, using bootstrap for calibration. The asymptotic distribution of such a test statistic is derived by Lee and Na (2002) for autoregressive models. The initial distributional results on  $T_n$  were extended by Bachmann and Dette (2005) for fixed alternatives, explaining also the asymptotic behavior of the tests statistic proposed by Lee and Na (2002) in the autoregressive setting. From a different perspective, Chebana (2006) established the functional asymptotic normality of  $T_n$  as a process indexed on a family of weight functions, providing a finite-dimensional limit law and a result guaranteeing the stochastic equicontinuity

of the process. The discrepancy between the nonparametric estimator and the corresponding density under the null hypothesis may be measured with an  $L^1$  distance, as proposed by Cao and Lugosi (2005) and Albers and Schaafsma (2008). Liero et al. (1998) derived the behavior of a test based on the supremum norm, and compare its power behavior under Pitman alternatives with the classical test. Finally, inspired by the previous ideas, Fermanian (2005) proposed distribution free GoF for copulas, investigating their asymptotic distribution, and Bücher and Dette (2010) derived the asymptotic properties under fixed alternatives.

### 1.2 Basic ideas on GoF tests for regression

The ideas of GoF for density and distribution have been naturally extended in the 1990s to regression models. Considering as a reference a regression model with random design  $Y = m(X) + \varepsilon$ ,  $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  being a random sample of  $(X, Y) \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1}$  (that is,  $(X_i, Y_i)$  independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) as  $(X, Y)$ ), the goal is to test:

$$H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta = \{m_\theta\}_{\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^q}, \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_a : m \notin \mathcal{M}_\theta,$$

where  $m(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = x)$  is the regression function of  $Y$  over  $X$ , with  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|X) = 0$ . In the regression context, apart from the target function  $m$ , there are usually some nuisance functions such as the conditional variance  $\sigma^2(x) = \text{Var}(Y|X = x)$  or the density of the explanatory variable  $X$ , namely  $f$ , playing a role in the test statistics distribution.

*Smoothing-based tests* Although there exist a large variety of smoothing methods for regression models, this review will mainly consider kernel type estimators such as the Nadaraya–Watson estimator (Nadaraya 1964; Watson 1964), given by

$$m_{nh}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n W_{ni}(x)Y_i, \quad \text{with } W_{ni}(x) = \frac{K_h(x - X_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n K_h(x - X_j)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

With the same spirit as for the previous tests for the  $p$ -dimensional density function, the empirical process for the  $p$ -dimensional regression problem (in the sense that the dimension of the explanatory variable is  $p$ ) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\alpha}_n(x) &= \sqrt{nh^p} (m_{nh}(x) - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}(m_{nh}(x))) \\ &= \sqrt{nh^p} \sum_{i=1}^n W_{ni}(x) (Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)) \\ &= \sqrt{nh^p} \sum_{i=1}^n W_{ni}(x) \hat{\varepsilon}_{i0}, \end{aligned}$$

which can be interpreted as a smoothing over the residuals  $\{\hat{\varepsilon}_{i0}\}_{i=1}^n$ , with  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} = Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)$ , and providing  $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}$  an estimate of  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_0}$ ,  $\theta_0$  being the true parameter under  $H_0$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  a  $\sqrt{n}$ -consistent estimator of  $\theta_0$ , such as the one obtained by least squares or maximum likelihood for Gaussian errors.

Again, a general test based on  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  can be devised by applying a continuous functional on the empirical process, such as

$$T_n = \int \overline{\alpha}_n^2(x)\omega(x) dx. \tag{3}$$

The limit distribution of  $T_n$ , under some regularity conditions, can be obtained from empirical process theory or using the aforementioned results by de Jong (1987):

$$h^{-p/2} \left( T_n - \int K^2(x) dx \int \frac{\sigma^2(x)\omega(x)}{f(x)} dx \right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N} \left( 0, 2 \int (K * K)^2(x) dx \int \frac{\sigma^4(x)\omega^2(x)}{f^2(x)} dx \right). \tag{4}$$

Denoting by  $T_{1n}$  the test statistic introduced by Härdle and Mammen (1993)

$$T_{1n} = \int (m_{nh}(x) - m_{nh}(x, \hat{\theta}))^2 \omega(x) dx, \tag{5}$$

the test statistic  $T_n$  in (3) can be written as follows:

$$T_n = nh^p T_{1n} = nh^p \int (m_{nh}(x) - m_{nh}(x, \hat{\theta}))^2 \omega(x) dx, \quad \text{with}$$

$$m_{nh}(x, \hat{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n W_{ni}(x) m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)$$

the data smoother under  $H_0$ . A discretized version of this test statistic can be found in González-Manteiga and Cao (1993). In terms of  $T_{1n}$ , the limit distribution result in (4) can be rewritten as

$$nh^{p/2} \left( T_{1n} - (nh^p)^{-1} \int K^2(x) dx \int \frac{\sigma^2(x)\omega(x)}{f(x)} dx \right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N} \left( 0, 2 \int (K * K)^2(x) dx \int \frac{\sigma^4(x)\omega^2(x)}{f^2(x)} dx \right). \tag{6}$$

Moreover, the discretized version of  $T_{1n}$ , that is,  $T_{1n}^D = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (m_{nh}(X_i) - m_{nh}(X_i, \hat{\theta}))^2 \omega(X_i)$ , estimates consistently  $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}^2(\varepsilon_0|X)\omega(X))$  which is null under  $H_0$ , with  $\varepsilon_0 = Y - m_{\theta_0}(X)$ .

Alternatively, as can be seen in Zhang and Dette (2004), it is possible to define other test statistics based on consistent estimators of different characteristics of the null hypothesis to test. For instance, by estimating  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_0 \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_0|X) f(X) \omega(X))$  which is null under  $H_0$ . Except for a negligible bias term, a natural estimate for this quantity is given by

$$T_{2n} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j} K_h(X_i - X_j) (Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)) (Y_j - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_j)) \omega(X_i), \tag{7}$$

the test statistic introduced by Zheng (1996), which presents no asymptotic bias. A recent extension to the case where covariates may have a discrete component can be seen in Hsiao et al. (2007).

Also  $\mathbb{E}([\varepsilon_0^2 - (\varepsilon_0 - \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_0|X))^2]\omega(X))$  is null under  $H_0$  and an estimate for this quantity is

$$T_{3n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i))^2 \omega(X_i) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - m_{nh}(X_i))^2 \omega(X_i), \tag{8}$$

based on the differences of the error variance estimates in the regression model, introduced by Dette (1999) and closely related to the generalized likelihood ratio test (see Fan et al. 2001 and Fan and Jiang 2007) to be revised later.

Asymptotic distributions of both  $T_{2n}$  and  $T_{3n}$  follow a similar architecture to  $T_{1n}$  in (6). Precisely, for  $T_{2n}$ :

$$nh^{p/2}T_{2n} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(0, 2 \int K^2(x) dx \int \sigma^4(x) f^2(x) \omega^2(x) dx\right) \tag{9}$$

and for the variance difference statistic  $T_{3n}$ , with  $K^{2*} = 2K - K * K$ , the asymptotic distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} &nh^{p/2}\left(T_{3n} - (nh^p)^{-1} K^{2*}(0) \int \sigma^2(x) \omega(x) dx\right) \\ &\xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(0, 2 \int K^{2*}(x) dx \int \sigma^4(x) \omega^2(x) dx\right). \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Although other tests could be chosen in this preliminary section, it should be noticed that  $T_{1n}$ , as well as  $T_{2n}$  and  $T_{3n}$  are naturally motivated from conditions characterizing the null hypothesis.

The test proposed by Härdle and Mammen (1993) owns a large collection of variants, with different smooth estimators for the regression function, with alternative estimators under the null hypothesis or considering other discrepancy measures. For instance, Kozek (1991) presented a supremum-norm-based test comparing the nonparametric kernel estimate of a regression function with the corresponding least-squares estimator, under the null parametric hypothesis, proving the consistency of such a test and Koul and Ni (2004) studied a class of minimum distance tests for multidimensional covariates and heteroscedasticity. Alcalá et al. (1999) checked a parametric null hypothesis using local polynomial regression (see Fan and Gijbels 1996 for a survey on local polynomial modeling). Also based on local polynomial fitting, Liu et al. (2000) introduced a consistent model specification test and compared its performance with simple kernel regression estimators. Stute and González-Manteiga (1996) proposed a test for linearity based on the comparison of a nearest neighbor estimator and a parametric estimator of  $m$ . Li (2005) assessed the lack of fit of a nonlinear regression model, comparing the local linear kernel and parametric fits. Resembling the classical theory for the  $F$  test, Raz (1990) proposed an approximation to a permutation test where a kernel estimator is used. Müller (1992) compared a non-parametric fit with the least squares estimator by a kernel approach, for fixed design

regression models. Diagnostic tests have been proposed by Staniswalis and Severini (1991), comparing the fitted models in a collection of points, and by Samarov (1993), by means integral type functionals. A test for parametric nonlinearities has been also studied by Wooldridge (1992).

The use of the asymptotic distributions in (6), (9) or (10) for testing in practice, entails selecting the smoothing parameter  $h$ , a broadly studied problem in regression estimation but with serious gaps for testing problems. Hart (1997), Fan et al. (2001), and Eubank et al. (2005) gave some strategies on bandwidth selection. Although the literature is relatively scarce on this topic, it is worth citing the works by Kulasekera and Wang (1997), Zhang (2003, 2004) or more recently, Gao and Gijbels (2008). Added to this difficulty, there is also the need to estimate nonparametrically the nuisance functions, and also the slow rate of convergence to the Gaussian limit distribution.

Although this paper is focused on nonparametric kernel regression estimators, different pilot estimator such as splines, wavelets or orthogonal expansions can also be used for GoF tests. Eubank and Hart (1992) studied the large-sample properties of GoF for linearity, considering cubic smoothing splines over regression residuals whereas Hart and Wehrly (1992) introduced smoothing splines to deal with the edge-effect phenomenon in nonparametric regression and proposed a test for the adequacy of a polynomial regression function. Eubank and Hart (1993) also considered smoothing splines for comparing the performance of different type of tests. Eubank and LaRiccia (1993) proposed different tests based on weighted sums of Fourier coefficients and investigated their asymptotic properties.

It should also be mentioned the book by Hart (1997), which collects a survey on the use of nonparametric smoothing methods for testing the fit of a parametric model.

*Tests based on empirical regression processes* An alternative methodology for avoiding the selection of a smoothness parameter, inspired by the GoF methods for distributions, is based on the empirical estimator of the integrated regression function  $\mathcal{I}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x m(t) dF(t) = \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}(X \leq x))$ , where  $\mathbb{I}$  denotes the indicator function. The integrated regression function  $\mathcal{I}$  can be estimated by  $\mathcal{I}_n(x) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x)$  and a new empirical process can be constructed:

$$\overline{\alpha}_n(x) = \sqrt{n}(\mathcal{I}_n(x) - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}(\mathcal{I}_n(x))) = \sqrt{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x).$$

This empirical process can be taken again as the basis for generating test statistics, such as a Cramér–von Mises or Kolmogorov–Smirnov type tests, introduced for the distribution function case. The study of the asymptotic distribution of this type of tests is based on the weak convergence of  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  to a Gaussian limit process, being Stute (1997) an obliqued reference in this context, with a preliminary approximation given by Bierens (1982) and an earlier work by Su and Wei (1991). GoF tests based on empirical process for regression models with non-random design have been studied by Koul and Stute (1998) and Diebolt (1995), for a nonlinear parametric regression function. The extension to nonlinear and heteroscedastic regression is the goal of Diebolt and Zuber (1999, 2001).



### 1.3 Some notes for the reader

For the sake of simplicity, the notation that will be repeatedly used along this paper is introduced now, some already established in this first section. In a parametric setting,  $\mathcal{M}_\theta$  denotes a parametric family of regression functions, with  $\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^q$ . Note that  $q$  is the dimension of the parameter space, and  $p$  will be used for the dimension of the covariate in the regression model. Dimension of a vector or a matrix is denoted by  $\dim$ . A  $\sqrt{n}$ -consistent estimator for  $\theta$  will be denoted by  $\widehat{\theta}$ .

In the general formulation of smoothing-based tests, a nonnegative weight function is needed, and it will be denoted by  $\omega$ . The indicator function is written as  $\mathbb{I}$ . The superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose of a vector or a matrix,  $\|\cdot\|$  is the Euclidean norm, and  $*$  is the convolution operator.

Sup stands for the support of a random variable (with capital S) and sup denotes the supremum. The symbol  $\sim$  will be used to denote equality in distribution, whereas convergence in distribution is denoted as  $\xrightarrow{d}$ . As usual, iff is a shortcut for the if and only if condition.  $\text{RSS}_0$  and  $\text{RSS}_1$  denote the average residual sums of squares under the null and the alternative hypotheses.

A collection of test statistics for GoF in different contexts will be presented along this paper. A generic test statistic will be denoted by  $T_n$ , and its expression may be different according to the regression setting considered. For smoothing-based tests statistics, notation  $T_{1n}$ ,  $T_{2n}$  and  $T_{3n}$  is reserved for the tests presented above, specifically, in (5), (7) and (8), or suitable adaptations. Kolmogorov–Smirnov or Cramér–von Mises type tests, both computed from empirical processes or from the empirical distribution of the residuals, will be denoted by  $T_{nKS}$  and  $T_{nCM}$ , respectively. Empirical regression processes are denoted by  $\overline{\alpha}_n$ , as an abuse of notation, since they also depend on  $h$ , but the bandwidth dependence will be made explicit only if necessary. The Gaussian limit of such a process will be denoted by  $\alpha$  along the paper, except in Sect. 3, devoted to test calibration. In this section, following the standard notation,  $\alpha$  denotes the significance level of a test.

Finally, likelihood ratio test statistics will be denoted by  $\Lambda_n$  (generalized likelihood ratio test),  $\Lambda_n^E$  (generalized empirical likelihood ratio test) and  $\Lambda_n^L$  (local empirical likelihood ratio test).

## 2 Some recent tests from the last ten years

In the last decade, a variety of alternative procedures to the previous testing methods, based on smoothing techniques and empirical processes, have been introduced for solving the GoF problem. Some of them are inspired by the classical likelihood ratio test or in the novel notion of empirical likelihood; other ones make use of the empirical distribution of the residuals under the null hypothesis and some other tests are designed to avoid the curse of dimensionality. In what follows, these previous ideas will be revised and some references will be given for each of these methodological settings.

### 2.1 The generalized likelihood ratio test

Assuming that the error process  $\varepsilon$  in a regression models follows a Gaussian distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , it is possible to build the generalized likelihood ratio test (GLRT) as

$$\Lambda_n = l(m_{nh}, \hat{\sigma}) - l(m_{\hat{\theta}}, \hat{\sigma}_0)$$

where  $l(m, \sigma) = -n \log(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}) - (2\sigma^2)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - m(X_i))^2$  is the Gaussian log-likelihood with  $\hat{\sigma}_0^2 = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i))^2 = \text{RSS}_0$ , the maximum likelihood estimators for the error variance under  $H_0$  and  $\text{RSS}_1 = \hat{\sigma}^2 = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - m_{nh}(X_i))^2$ , the corresponding generalized maximum likelihood estimator in the non-parametric context. This testing procedure has been studied by Fan et al. (2001) and more recently by Fan and Jiang (2007), in a survey for *Test* journal. The proposed method is a natural extension of the classical likelihood ratio test where, under the alternative, the likelihood function is evaluated in a nonparametric estimator of the regression function. The GLRT test, as noted in Fan et al. (2001), is given by

$$\Lambda_n = \frac{n}{2} \log \frac{\text{RSS}_0}{\text{RSS}_1} \approx \frac{n}{2} \frac{\text{RSS}_0 - \text{RSS}_1}{\text{RSS}_1} \tag{11}$$

which resembles the  $F$ -test construction for regression models (see, for instance, Seber 1977 or Seber and Wild 1989). The numerator in (11) is essentially the test statistic in (8). See also Gijbels and Rousson (2001) for an  $F$ -test in local linear regression.

The asymptotic properties of the GLRT are similar to the previous tests, but a significant property of the GLRT is that the asymptotic distribution does not depend on nuisance functions, exhibiting what is known as Wilks phenomenon: the limit distribution of  $\Lambda_n$  in (11) is asymptotically  $\chi^2$ . Specifically,  $\tau \Lambda_n \sim \chi_{\mu_n}^2$ , with  $\mu_n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\tau$  a constant such that

$$(2\mu_n)^{-1/2} (\tau \Lambda_n - \mu_n) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \tag{12}$$

and neither  $\mu_n$  nor  $\tau$  in (12) depend on the nuisance parameters or functions (see Fan et al. 2001 and Fan and Jiang 2007 for details).

As an example, assume that  $\sigma^2(x) = \text{Var}(Y|X = x) = \sigma^2$ , the univariate explanatory variable  $X$  has density  $f$  with  $\text{Sup}(X) = [0, 1]$  and the error  $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ . When testing the null hypothesis of linearity, that is,  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  with  $\mathcal{M}_\theta = \{m_\theta : m_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x\}$ , then

$$\tau = \frac{K(0) - 2^{-1} \int K^2(x) dx}{\int (K(x) - 2^{-1}(K * K)(x))^2 dx} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mu_n = \frac{1}{h} \frac{(K(0) - 2^{-1} \int K^2(x) dx)^2}{\int (K(x) - 2^{-1}(K * K)(x))^2 dx}.$$

Regarding the structure of  $\Lambda_n$  in (11) as an approximated generalized  $F$ -test, another class of GoF tests for regression models can be introduced. Some early contributions to the  $F$ -test type procedures, with spline smoothing, are Ramil-Novo and

González-Manteiga (1998) and Ramil-Novo and González-Manteiga (2000). More recently, Huang and Chen (2008) used kernel smoothing for the same purpose. See also Huang and Davidson (2010) for an extension to partially linear models.

### 2.2 The empirical process based on the empirical likelihood ratio test

The ideas of empirical likelihood (see Owen 2001) can be used to provide likelihood ratio tests, representing also an option to the test based on the integrated regression function (Sect. 1) or simply using the local empirical likelihood as an alternative to smoothing methods, and that will be seen in next section.

Taking into account that establishing a null parametric hypothesis  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  is equivalent to set  $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}(X \leq x)(Y - m_{\theta_0}(X))) = 0$  for some  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$  and  $x \in \text{Sup}(X)$ , the empirical likelihood based on an i.i.d. sample of  $(X, Y) \sim \bar{F}$  can be written as

$$\max_{\bar{F}} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}_{\bar{F}}((X_i, Y_i) = (X, Y)) = L_{\bar{F}}, \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}(X \leq x)\varepsilon_0) = 0.$$

For instance, for a unidimensional  $X$ , the empirical likelihood is given by

$$L_{\bar{F}} = \prod_{i=1}^n (\bar{F}(X_i, Y_i) - \bar{F}(X_i^-, Y_i) - \bar{F}(X_i, Y_i^-) + \bar{F}(X_i^-, Y_i^-))$$

and the generalized empirical likelihood ratio test statistic is

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda_n^E(x) &= \frac{\sup\{L_{\bar{F}}; \mathbb{E}_{\bar{F}}(\mathbb{I}(X \leq x)(Y - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X))) = 0\}}{\sup L_{\bar{F}}} \\ &= \sup \left\{ n^n \prod_{i=1}^n p_i, p_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1, \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x)(Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)) = 0 \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

A test statistic can be given by any continuous functional on  $\Lambda_n^E$ , such as  $T_n = -2 \int \log \Lambda_n^E(x) \omega(x) dx$ . See the works by Hjort et al. (2009) and Van Keilegom et al. (2008b) for more details on this methodology.

### 2.3 The local empirical likelihood ratio test

A local version of the empirical likelihood for the test given in Sect. 2.2 is

$$\Lambda_n^L = -2 \int \log(L_n(\tilde{m}(x, \hat{\theta})n^n)) \omega(x) dx,$$

where  $L_n(\tilde{m}(x, \hat{\theta})) = \max \prod_{i=1}^n p_i(x)$ , subject to

$$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i(x) = 1, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n p_i(x) K_h(x - X_i)(Y_i - \tilde{m}(x, \hat{\theta})) = 0$$

with  $\hat{m}(x, \hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}}(m_{nh}(x))$  the empirical local likelihood under  $H_0$  (see Chen and Cui 2003 and Chen and Van Keilegom 2009b for more details). In the exhaustive review (with discussion) of Chen and Van Keilegom (2009b) in *Test*, the neat asymptotic result can be checked. Under  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$ , it can be established that

$$h^{-p/2}(\Lambda_n^L - 1) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(0, \frac{2 \int (K * K)^2(x) dx \int \omega(x) dx}{\int K^2(x) dx}\right) \tag{13}$$

under some regularity conditions, shows a distribution free asymptotic behavior similar to the Wilks phenomenon exhibited by (12). Some previous references on this methodology can be consulted in Tripathi and Kitamura (2003) and Kitamura et al. (2004), and an extension to multidimensional response models can be found in Chen and Van Keilegom (2009a).

### 2.4 Tests based on the empirical distribution of the residuals

Assume that the regression model can be written in a location-scale form as

$$Y = m(X) + \sigma(X)\varepsilon,$$

with  $\varepsilon$  independent of  $X$  and with error distribution  $F_\varepsilon(y) = \mathbb{P}(\varepsilon \leq y) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{Y - m(X)}{\sigma(X)} \leq y\right)$ . If  $\tilde{\theta}_0$  denotes the argument that minimizes  $\mathbb{E}((m(X) - m_\theta(X))^2)$  over the parameter set  $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^q$ , then  $m_{\tilde{\theta}_0}$  is the parametric model with minimum distance to  $m$ , and the error distribution under this model is built as

$$F_{\varepsilon_0}(y) = \mathbb{P}(\varepsilon_0 \leq y) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{Y - m_{\tilde{\theta}_0}(X)}{\sigma(X)} \leq y\right).$$

Hence, the null hypothesis  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  is true if and only if the error distributions  $F_\varepsilon$  and  $F_{\varepsilon_0}$  are the same. This result opens a way for doing GoF by considering continuous functionals of the process  $\{\hat{F}_\varepsilon(\cdot) - \hat{F}_{\varepsilon_0}(\cdot)\}$ , where the estimators of the error distribution can be given by

$$\hat{F}_\varepsilon(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}\left(\frac{Y_i - m_{nh}(X_i)}{\hat{\sigma}(X_i)} \leq y\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(\hat{\varepsilon}_i \leq y)$$

and

$$\hat{F}_{\varepsilon_0}(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}\left(\frac{Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)}{\hat{\sigma}(X_i)} \leq y\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(\hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \leq y)$$

respectively, where the variance estimator is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n W_{ni}(x) Y_i^2 - m_{nh}^2(x)$$

$\{W_{ni}\}_{i=1}^n$  being a sequence of Nadaraya–Watson weights and  $\hat{\theta}$  a least squares estimator. See Van Keilegom et al. (2008a) and Khmadladze and Koul (2009) for  $p = 1$

(one-dimensional covariate) and Neumeyer (2009) and Neumeyer and Van Keilegom (2010) for  $p \geq 1$ .

Based on the empirical distribution of the residuals, the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Cramér–von Mises tests are given by

$$T_{nKS} = n^{1/2} \sup_{y \in \mathbb{R}} |\hat{F}_\varepsilon(y) - \hat{F}_{\varepsilon_0}(y)|, \quad \text{and} \quad T_{nCM} = n \int (\hat{F}_\varepsilon(y) - \hat{F}_{\varepsilon_0}(y))^2 d\hat{F}_{\varepsilon_0}(y). \tag{14}$$

From this methodology, a test for the error distribution can also be constructed, without further assumptions on  $m$  and  $\sigma$ , just comparing the empirical distribution of the residuals  $\{\hat{\varepsilon}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  with the one estimated under  $H_0 : F_\varepsilon \in \mathcal{F}_\theta$ .

A pioneer work for heteroscedastic regression models is the one by Akritas and Van Keilegom (2001). Jiménez-Gamero et al. (2005) studied the GoF testing problem in a multivariate linear model. Also for multivariate covariates, Müller et al. (2009) provided a result for the empirical distribution of the residuals when these are obtained from an undersmoothed local polynomial approximation. Mora and Pérez-Alonso (2009) tested a parametric family for the regression errors, considering a martingale transform of the empirical process. GoF tests for the error distribution were studied by Heuchenne and Van Keilegom (2010) without imposing a parametric for the regression or the variance.

The equality of the error distribution can also be interpreted in terms of the characteristic functions: if  $F_\varepsilon$  and  $F_{\varepsilon_0}$  coincide, the same happens with their characteristic functions. Hence, test statistics can be designed in terms of the corresponding empirical counterparts,  $\hat{\phi}_\varepsilon(t) = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{it\varepsilon_j}$  and  $\hat{\phi}_{\varepsilon_0}(t) = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{it\varepsilon_{j0}}$ , denoting  $i$  the imaginary number. This also extends to functionals on the empirical characteristic functions, such as

$$T_n = n \int |\hat{\phi}_\varepsilon(t) - \hat{\phi}_{\varepsilon_0}(t)|^2 \omega(t) dt, \tag{15}$$

among others (see Huskova and Meintanis 2009 for further details). Some other related papers are Huskova and Meintanis (2007, 2010).

Finally, it should be mentioned that the asymptotic limit distribution of (14) and (15) can be derived based on the weak convergence of the processes  $\{\hat{F}_\varepsilon(\cdot) - \hat{F}_{\varepsilon_0}(\cdot)\}$  and  $\{\hat{\phi}_\varepsilon(\cdot) - \hat{\phi}_{\varepsilon_0}(\cdot)\}$ , respectively, given that both tests are obtained from continuous functionals operating on these processes.

### 2.5 Tests design for avoiding the curse of dimensionality

A great deal of the theory developed during the 1990s, already introduced in Sect. 1, considers tests statistics constructed from the comparison of a nonparametric estimator of the regression model and an estimator under the null hypothesis (that is, based on the  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  process), or in the comparison of the corresponding integrated regression function estimators (based on the  $\overline{\overline{\alpha}}_n$  process). In both cases, the curse of dimensionality as  $p$  increases,  $p$  being the dimension of the explanatory variable, can be appreciated. For those tests based on  $\overline{\alpha}_n$ , the effect of the increasing dimension is clear when regarding the asymptotic power, although it is not that obvious for the other class of tests. Nevertheless, recent simulation studies have shown that

the curse of dimensionality for tests based on  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  also appears for small samples and some further comments on the asymptotic power of GoF tests will be given in next section.

The difficulties aforementioned lead to different modifications of the previous methods in order to avoid the curse of dimensionality. For the tests based on smoothing methods, corresponding to process  $\overline{\alpha}_n$ , the works by Lavergne and Patilea (2008) and Xia (2009) should be noticed. Inspired on the projection pursuit ideas, the null hypothesis  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  is true if and only if  $m = m_{\theta_0} \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$ , and this is also equivalent to  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|X) = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_0|X) = \mathbb{E}(Y - m_{\theta_0}(X)|X) = 0$ . In addition, this is also equivalent to:

$$\sup_{\beta, \|\beta\|=1} \sup_v |\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|\beta^t X = v)| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sup_{\beta, \|\beta\|=1} \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|\beta^t X)) = 0$$

under some regularity conditions, and this allows for the construction of some tests, similar to (7) (see Lavergne and Patilea 2008) which adapted to this context is given by

$$T_n = \sup_{\beta, \|\beta\|=1} \sum_{i < j} K_h(\beta^t(X_i - X_j))(Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i))(Y_j - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_j)).$$

Another interesting idea consists on projecting the covariate  $X$  in the direction of  $\beta = \beta_0$  such that  $\beta_0$  (with  $\|\beta_0\| = 1$ ) minimizes  $\mathbb{E}^2(\varepsilon - \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|\beta^t X)) = \mathbb{E}^2(\varepsilon - m_\beta(X))$ , the single-indexing procedure obtained through the corresponding empirical counterparts (see Xia 2009). This enables to construct test statistics such as

$$T_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \omega(X_i) (\hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} - \hat{m}_{\hat{\beta}_i}(\hat{\beta}_i^t X_i))^2,$$

where

$$\hat{\beta}_i = \arg \min_{\beta, \|\beta\|=1} \sum_{i \neq j} (\hat{\varepsilon}_{j0} - \hat{m}_\beta^i(X_j))^2, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

and

$$\hat{m}_\beta^i(x) = \frac{1}{n \hat{f}_\beta^i(X_i)} \sum_{i \neq j} K_h(\beta^t(x - X_j)) \hat{\varepsilon}_{j0}, \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_\beta^i(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \neq j} K_h(\beta^t(x - X_j)).$$

In Xia (2009), the author proposed a single-indexing cross-validation, as a measure for the fit of the residuals, concluding that if the residuals cannot be predicted from the covariates, then the model is adequate.

Regarding the tests based on empirical regression processes, in Stute et al. (2008), the authors replaced the empirical process  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  by

$$\overline{\alpha}_n^g(t) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n (g(X_i) - \bar{g}) \mathbb{I}(\hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \leq t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R} \tag{16}$$

indexed unidimensionally in  $t$ , with  $\bar{g} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n g(X_i)$ . The key for the adequate behavior of the tests based on (16) lies in the fourth term of the asymptotic representation (see Stute et al. 2008). Under the assumption that  $\varepsilon$  is independent of  $X$  in the

regression model, this term is given by the empirical counterpart of

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}[(g(X) - \mathbb{E}(g(X)))H(t, X, \tilde{\theta}_0)]$$

with  $H(t, x, \theta) = \mathbb{P}(\varepsilon \leq t + m_\theta(X) - m(X)|X = x)$  and  $\tilde{\theta}_0$  defined at the beginning of Sect. 2.4. If the null hypothesis  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  does not hold, then  $\mathcal{A} \neq 0$ , guaranteeing the power of the test for fixed alternatives. The selection of the function  $g$  is also discussed in Stute et al. (2008) with the goal of maximizing power.

It is also worth it mentioning the contribution made by Escanciano (2006b), based on the almost sure characterization of the null hypothesis as  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_0 \mathbb{I}(\beta^t X \leq u)) = 0$ , for some  $\theta_0 \in \Theta, \forall u \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\forall \beta$  such that  $\|\beta\| = 1$ . This leads to a process  $\overline{\alpha}_n(\beta, u) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \mathbb{I}(\beta^t X_i \leq u)$ , indexed in  $\beta$  and  $u$ . A detailed study on the distribution of functionals of  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  can be found in Escanciano (2004) and Escanciano and Velasco (2006b). Specifically, the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and the Cramér–von Mises tests can be extended to this setting, with the following statistics:

$$T_{nKS} = \sup_u \sup_{\beta, \|\beta\|=1} \left| n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \mathbb{I}(\beta^t X_i \leq u) \right| = \sup_u \sup_{\beta, \|\beta\|=1} |\overline{\alpha}_n(\beta, u)|,$$

$$T_{nCM} = \int_{\mathbb{S}^p \times \mathbb{R}} (\overline{\alpha}_n(\beta, u))^2 dF_{n\beta}(u) d\omega(\beta)$$

$F_{n\beta}$  being the empirical distribution of  $\{\beta^t X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\omega$  a weight function over the projection direction. To some extent,  $T_{nCM}$  can be interpreted as the average limit of the Cramér–von Mises statistic on the projection directions  $\beta$  with associated probability  $\omega$ .

### 3 Approximating the test distribution

Consider a generic testing problem in statistical inference,<sup>1</sup>

$$H_0 : g \in \mathcal{G} = \{g_\theta\}_{\theta \in \Theta}, \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_a : g \notin \mathcal{G}$$

to be solved by the construction of a test statistic  $T_n$ , where  $g$  may be the distribution  $F$ , the density  $f$ , the regression function  $m$  or the integrated regression function  $\mathcal{I}$ . Once a suitable test statistic is available, a crucial task is the calibration of critical points for a given level  $\alpha$ , namely  $c_\alpha$ . Usually, the estimation of these critical points  $c_\alpha$  such that  $\mathbb{P}_{H_0}(T_n \geq c_\alpha) = \alpha$  can be done by means of the asymptotic distribution, which is Gaussian for the tests designed for  $g = f$  and  $g = m$ , density and regression, (4), (6), (9) and (10) or taking advantage of the Wilks phenomenon for (11). This can also be done using the limit distribution of continuous functionals associated to the empirical process, for instance, for the distribution function in (1). For the regression setting, the same applies for functions over  $\Lambda_n^E$  in Sect. 2.2, or for functionals on the empirical process (14) or (15).

<sup>1</sup>Note that  $\alpha$  is the significance level of the test. Empirical processes are denoted by  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  or  $\overline{\alpha}_{nh}$ , to make the dependence on  $h$  explicit. Along this section,  $g$  denotes a target function to test (density, distribution or regression function).

### 3.1 Distribution approximation under $H_0$

The use of asymptotic theory for calibration poses some problems such as the need to estimate some nuisance functions, a slow convergence rate to the limit distribution, or the difficulty of determining the limit distribution associated to continuous functionals on Gaussian processes. Under these circumstances, calibration can be done by means of resampling procedures, such as bootstrap (see Efron 1979).

One of the earlier references in this approach for calibrating the distribution of  $T_n = T(F_n, F_{\hat{\theta}})$  can be found in Stute et al. (1993). Specifically, if  $T_n^* = T(F_n^*, F_{\hat{\theta}}^*)$  is the bootstrap test statistic, then  $c_\alpha$  can be estimated by  $\hat{c}_\alpha$  such that  $\mathbb{P}_{H_0}^*(T_n^* \geq \hat{c}_\alpha) = \alpha$ , where  $F_n^*$  and  $F_{\hat{\theta}}^*$  are obtained from a bootstrap sample  $\{X_1^*, \dots, X_n^*\}$  with  $\mathbb{P}^*$  denoting the probability in the resampling. The bootstrap sample is a collection of i.i.d. generations from  $X^* \sim F_{\hat{\theta}}$  (parametric bootstrap). This procedure is extended for the calibration of  $T_n = \int \bar{\alpha}_n^{-2}(x)\omega(x) dx$  by Härdle and Mammen (1993), using Nadaraya–Watson kernel estimation, or with local linear methods by Alcalá et al. (1999). Stute et al. (1998a) considered the same idea for calibrating tests based on empirical regression processes. Actually, most of the papers on GoF methods after the cited ones include details about bootstrap algorithms for calibrating the test statistic distribution. The idea in this setting is based on obtaining bootstrap samples  $\{(X_i^*, Y_i^*)\}_{i=1}^n$ , from the bootstrap regression model  $Y_i^* = \hat{m}_{H_0}(X_i^*) + \varepsilon_i^*$ . The errors in the bootstrap model  $\varepsilon_i^*$  may follow the empirical distribution of the residuals  $\{\varepsilon_{i0}\}_{i=1}^n$  (naive bootstrap), may be generated by wild bootstrap (see Wu 1986 or Liu 1988), or can be obtained by smooth bootstrap, considering the convolution of the empirical distribution function of the residuals with a kernel (see Van Keilegom et al. 2008a and Cao and González-Manteiga 1993 for other smoothing methods), among many other choices. The choice of the bootstrap resampling method (naive, wild or smooth) is driven by the different characteristics of the regression model. Hence, naive bootstrap works for homocedastic model, although it is proved to be inconsistent when heterocedasticity is present. In this case, wild bootstrap is the alternative. In addition, if there is information available on the regularity of the error distribution, then smooth bootstrap can be used.

It should also be mentioned that, in the bootstrap regression model,  $\hat{m}_{H_0}$  represents the estimation of the regression function under the null hypothesis, which can be obtained by parametric methods, nonparametrically or in a semiparametric way, as will be seen later.

An alternative to bootstrap methods for calibration can be found in the martingale transform of the empirical processes (see Stute et al. 1998b and Khmadladze and Koul 2004), or also in Monte Carlo methods as proposed by Zhu (2005), introducing a randomization of the addends in the i.i.d. representation of the test statistics by some noise with zero mean and unit variance. See, for instance, Cao and González-Manteiga (2008) as an example of the application of this technique in some new tests based on smoothing methods. A comparison between the bootstrap and the martingale transform was provided by Koul and Sakhanenko (2005), and a recent contribution on the martingale approach was given by Song (2010). A justification for the accuracy of bootstrap can be always found in the high order expansions for the test statistic distributions (see Fan and Linton 2003).



### 3.2 Power comparison

Once a test has been properly calibrated for a certain level  $\alpha$ , the one with maximum power should be chosen. In the regression setting, this can be done considering Pitman alternatives, that is:

$$H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta, \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_a : m \equiv m_n = m_\theta + c_n d$$

where  $c_n \rightarrow 0$  and  $d$  is a deterministic function collecting the deviation direction for the alternative hypothesis. Among all those tests with level  $\alpha$ , the most powerful is that one with asymptotic power tending to one with a smallest  $c_n$ . As an example, the classical  $F$ -test for parametric regression models and parametric alternative with higher dimension verifies that  $c_n \sim n^{-1/2}$ , a parametric rate.

A test for a linear null hypothesis  $H_0 : m_\theta(x) = \theta^t x$  based on smoothing the residuals such as  $T_n = \int \overline{\alpha}_n^2(x) \omega(x) dx$ , and all the previous tests based on smoothing, verify that  $c_n \sim n^{-1/2} h^{-p/4}$ . This is the price to pay for setting a nonparametric estimation under the alternative hypothesis, namely a contiguous or Pitman alternative. A parametric rate for  $c_n$  can be achieved for  $T_n = \int \overline{\alpha}_n^2(x) dF_n(x)$  (see Stute 1997). These remarks on the convergence rates also hold for the two testing approaches, based on smoothing or based on empirical regression processes, for more complex hypothesis, discussed in next sections.

From the previous considerations, could it be concluded that tests based on empirical regression processes are more powerful than tests based on smoothed residuals? Although this assertion holds asymptotically, it is not the same for small samples as shown by different simulation studies, as the one carried out by Miles and Mora (2002). Actually, the convergence rate for smoothed residuals test can be improved by using the following modified test statistic:

$$T_n = \max_{h \in H_n} \frac{\int \overline{\alpha}_{nh}^2(x) \omega(x) dx - \widehat{\mathbb{E}}_{H_0}(\int \overline{\alpha}_{nh}^2(x) \omega(x) dx)}{\widehat{\text{Var}}^{1/2}(\int \overline{\alpha}_{nh}^2(x) \omega(x) dx)}, \tag{17}$$

which is just a studentized version of  $T_n$  for different  $h \in H_n$ , a suitably chosen grid for the bandwidth values. Although (17) considers an  $L_2$  norm, this philosophy is directly applied to other tests. In Horowitz and Spokoiny (2001), it can be seen that the former test has a rate  $c_n \sim n^{-1/2} (\log \log n)^{1/2}$  (see also Spokoiny 2001 for mathematical details). In addition, the data-driven modification in Guerre and Lavergne (2005) leads to rates close to  $c_n \sim n^{-1/2}$ . The rate  $n^{-1/2} h^{-p/4}$ , for the smoothed tests, clearly highlights the curse of dimensionality, can be ameliorated following Lavergne and Patilea (2008). In general, as noticed by Hall and Yatchew (2005), those tests based on  $\sqrt{n}$ -rate estimates of characteristics under the null hypothesis, detect alternatives at this same rate. As an example, tests based on the empirical distribution of the residuals also achieve this rate.

Another way of analyzing the asymptotic power of a test is considering Ingster's minimax approximation (see Ingster 1982, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c). From this perspective,  $m$  is assumed to belong to a certain space of differentiable functions on  $\mathbb{R}^p$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{B}$ , departing from the null hypothesis at a distance  $c_n \rightarrow 0$ . The goal of the minimax approach is to find the  $c_n$  rate with the fastest convergence to zero,

guaranteeing that the test is uniformly consistent in  $\mathcal{B}$ , leading to the optimal rate of testing.

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \in \mathcal{B}} \mathbb{P}(\text{Reject } H_0 | m) = 1$ , then a test is uniformly consistent in a space  $\mathcal{B}$ . Thus, for Hölder, Sobolev, and Besov spaces with derivatives of order  $s \geq p/4$  and known  $s$ , the rate is  $n^{-2s/(4s+p)}$  (see Ingster works and Guerre and Lavergne 2002). For unknown  $s$ , Spokoiny (1996) showed that the rate is  $(n^{-1} \sqrt{\log \log n})^{2s/(4s+p)}$  and for  $s < p/4$ , it is shown in Guerre and Lavergne (2002) that the rate is  $n^{-1/4}$ . The modified test statistic in (17) achieves the optimal minimax rate.

### 4 Goodness-of-Fit in semiparametric and nonparametric models

This section revises different procedures for testing more complex hypotheses for the regression model, beyond the purely parametric case, as well as hypothesis about the nuisance functions appearing in the model, such as the conditional variance.

#### 4.1 Tests on the regression function

After the extensive statistical literature on parametric regression models from the first half of the 1990s, the spotlight turned later to more complex nonparametric and semi-parametric hypotheses. The primary goal is the statement of GoF tests for simplified models, with higher interpretability or tests for mitigating the curse of dimensionality.

Along this section, GoF tests for the following hypotheses will be commented:

- Partially linear model, with a linear function on a set of covariates  $X_1$ :

$$H_{0PL} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \theta_0^t X_1 + m_2(X_2) \tag{18}$$

with  $X = (X_1, X_2)$  and  $\dim(X_1) = p_1, \dim(X_2) = p_2$  (with  $p_1 + p_2 = p$ ).

- Simplified model, with regression function depending only on a part of the covariates:

$$H_{0SM} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = m_1(X_1) \tag{19}$$

with  $\dim(X_1) = p_1$ .

- Additive model:

$$H_{0AM} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = c + m_1(X_1) + \dots + m_p(X_p) \tag{20}$$

with  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$ .

- Single index model, with unknown link function  $\mathcal{H}$ :

$$H_{0SIM} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \mathcal{H}(\theta_0^t X). \tag{21}$$

- Generalized additive model, with link function  $\mathcal{H}$ , including possible interactions of different orders:

$$H_{0GAM} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \mathcal{H} \left( c + \sum_{d=1}^p m_d(X_d) + \sum_{i < j} m_{ij}(X_i, X_j) + \dots \right), \tag{22}$$

$m_{ij}$  representing the function associated with coordinates  $i, j$  of the predictor vector  $X$ .

The testing problem in (18) has been solved both using smoothing methods and empirical regression processes. For instance, the test statistic  $T_{2n}$  in (7) can be adapted to this setting. Denote the errors in the model under  $H_{0PL}$  by  $\varepsilon_{i0} = Y_i - \theta_0^t X_{1i} - m_2(X_{2i})$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . The null hypothesis  $H_{0PL}$  holds if and only if  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_{i0} \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_{i0} | X_i)) = 0$  and a natural estimator of this characteristic is given by

$$T_{2n}^{PL} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i \neq j} K_h(X_i - X_j) \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{j0} \widehat{f}_2(X_{2i}) \widehat{f}_2(X_{2j}),$$

with  $\widehat{f}_2$  is a  $p_2$ -dimensional kernel density estimator (to avoid a random denominator), and  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} = Y_i - \widehat{\theta} X_{1i} - \widehat{m}_{2\tilde{h}}(X_{2i})$ , with bandwidth  $\tilde{h}$  associated to a Nadaraya–Watson  $p_2$ -dimensional weight, estimated in two stages (see Robinson 1988 or Speckman 1988). Asymptotic theory results for  $nh^{p/2} T_{2n}^{PL}$  can be found in Fan and Li (1996), obtaining an asymptotic variance equal to

$$2 \int K^2(x) dx \int \sigma^4(x) f^2(x) f_2^4(x) dx,$$

$f_2$  being the density of the  $X_2$  component.

A similar argument also holds for  $H_{0SM}$ . Now, the model errors are  $\varepsilon_{i0} = Y_i - m_1(X_{1i})$  and the test in (7) can be adapted as

$$T_{2n}^{SM} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i \neq j} K_h(X_i - X_j) \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{j0} \widehat{f}_1(X_{1i}) \widehat{f}_1(X_{1j}),$$

with  $\widehat{f}_1$  a  $p_1$ -dimensional kernel density estimator,  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} = Y_i - \widehat{m}_{1\tilde{h}}(X_{1i})$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , and  $\widehat{m}_{1\tilde{h}}$  being a  $p_1$ -dimensional Nadaraya–Watson estimator with smoothing parameter  $\tilde{h}$ .

The asymptotic behavior of  $nh^{p/2} T_{2n}^{SM}$  was derived by Fan and Li (1996) where the asymptotic variance is equal to  $2 \int K^2(x) dx \int \sigma^4(x) f^2(x) f_1^4(x) dx$ . The previous asymptotic expressions are useful for test calibration based on the limit distribution. In Li and Wang (1998) and Gu et al. (2007), for instance, some other alternatives based on bootstrap methods for calibration were explored.

Regarding  $H_{0SIM}$  in (21) for the single index model, and denoting by  $\varepsilon_{i0} = Y_i - \mathcal{H}(\theta_0^t X_i)$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , a test statistic could be based on an adequate estimate of

$$\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_{i0} f_{\theta_0}(\theta_0^t X_i) \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_{i0} f_{\theta_0}(\theta_0^t X_i) | X_i) f(X_i))$$

where  $f_{\theta_0}$  denotes the density of  $\theta_0^t X_i$ , also avoiding random denominators in kernel smoothing. The analogous test statistic is given by

$$T_{2n}^{SIM} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i \neq j} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{j0} \widehat{f}_{\widehat{\theta}}(\widehat{\theta}^t X_i) \widehat{f}_{\widehat{\theta}}(\widehat{\theta}^t X_j) K_h(X_i - X_j).$$

The asymptotic variance of the rescaled previous test  $nh^{p/2}T_{2n}^{SIM}$ , for the single index model, is equal to  $2 \int K^2(x) dx \int \sigma^4(x) f^2(x) f_{\theta_0}^4(\theta_0^t x) dx$ . One could proceed similarly adapting the tests in (5) and (8), based on smoothing methods.

The alternative testing route based on empirical regression processes was studied in Zhu and Ng (2003) and Delgado and González-Manteiga (2001). For instance, for the testing problem associated with  $H_{0SM}$ , it is enough to consider the empirical process

$$\tilde{\alpha}_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{f}_1(X_{1i}) \hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x) \tag{23}$$

which results from the almost sure characterization of  $H_{0SM}$  as

$$f_1(X_1) \mathbb{E}(Y - m(X_1)|X) = 0 \Leftrightarrow T(x) = \mathbb{E}(f_1(X_1)(Y - m_1(X_1)) \mathbb{I}(X \leq x)) = 0,$$

for all  $x \in \text{Supp}(X)$ , which has a Gaussian limit (see Delgado and González-Manteiga 2001 for details). Similarly, for the partial linear model,  $H_{0PL}$  holds almost surely iff  $\mathbb{E}[(Y - \mathbb{E}(Y|X_2)) - \theta_0^t(X_1 - \mathbb{E}(X_1|X_2))] \mathbb{I}(X \leq x) f_2(X_2) = 0$  for all  $x \in \text{Supp}(X)$  and the associated empirical process is (see Delgado and González-Manteiga 2001)

$$\tilde{\tilde{\alpha}}_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \hat{f}_2(X_{2i}) \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x). \tag{24}$$

With respect to the single index model,  $H_{0SIM}$  is almost surely equivalent to  $\mathbb{E}((Y - \mathcal{H}(\theta_0^t X)) \mathbb{I}(X \leq x)) = 0$ , for all  $x \in \text{Supp}(X)$ , and the empirical process is now given by

$$\tilde{\tilde{\tilde{\alpha}}}_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \hat{f}_{\hat{\theta}}(\hat{\theta}^t X_i) \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x), \tag{25}$$

whose asymptotic behavior was studied by Xia et al. (2004), jointly with different estimators for  $\theta_0$ .

For the calibration of the previous tests distribution, based on (23), (24) and (25), the bootstrap ideas introduced in Stute et al. (1998a) can be adapted. It should also be mentioned that, regarding the power and the asymptotic properties of the tests based on smoothing methods or in empirical regression processes, the remarks in Sect. 4 for parametric regression models also apply in these settings. Besides, a simple modification of  $\Lambda_n^E$  ( $\Lambda_n^L$ ) in the empirical process based on the global (or local) empirical likelihood, replacing the error estimates for the corresponding ones according to the hypothesis to test, allows the extension of the methodology discussed in Sects. 2.2 and 2.3 to these general contexts (see Van Keilegom et al. 2008b).

Apart from the smoothing and empirical processes-based tests, there are also other alternatives in the literature. For instance, Stute and Zhu (2005a) propose a score-type test for  $H_{0SIM}$ , which detects Pitman alternatives at a  $\sqrt{n}$ -rate, and also peak alternatives, being undetectable for the previous tests, as discussed in Horowitz and Spokoiny (2001).

From the former work by Eubank et al. (1995), there has been an extensive literature on tests for  $H_{0AM}$  in (20), such as the contributions by Dette and von Lieres und Wilkau (2001), Gozalo and Linton (2001), Härdle et al. (2001), Derbort et al. (2002), and Fan and Jiang (2005). Denoting by  $\widehat{m}$  the general nonparametric estimator and  $\widehat{m}_0$  the estimator under the null hypothesis, usually obtained by backfitting or marginal integration (see Sperlich et al. 1999 for a comparison of both methods), the following test statistic can be constructed:

$$T_{1n}^{AM} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\widehat{m}(X_i) - \widehat{m}_0(X_i))^2, \tag{26}$$

which is just a natural generalization of the tests in  $T_{1n}$  in (5) or its discretized version  $T_{1n}^D$ , with asymptotic bias and variance as in (4). Motivated by the incorrelation between  $\varepsilon_0$  and  $(m(X) - m_0(X))$  (see Gozalo and Linton 2001), the following test statistic:

$$T_{1n}^{AM*} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\widehat{m}(X_i) - \widehat{m}_0(X_i)) \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \tag{27}$$

has asymptotic bias  $K(0) \int \sigma^2(x) dx$  and asymptotic variance

$$2 \int K^2(x) dx \int \sigma^4(x) dx.$$

Following the test statistic in (8),

$$T_{3n}^{AM} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0}^2 - \widehat{\varepsilon}_i^2) \tag{28}$$

has asymptotic bias and variance similar to (10), and following the construction in (7)

$$T_{2n}^{AM} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j} K_h(X_i - X_j) \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i0} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{j0}, \tag{29}$$

presents asymptotic behavior mimicking (9). Finally, the GLRT test in (11), can be adapted to this context as

$$A_n^{AM} = \frac{n}{2} \log \frac{RSS_0}{RSS_1} \approx \frac{n}{2} \frac{RSS_0 - RSS_1}{RSS_1}, \tag{30}$$

with  $RSS_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \widehat{c} - \sum_{j=1}^p \widehat{m}_j(X_{ij}))^2$  and  $RSS_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \widehat{m}(X_i))^2$ .

The test statistics in (26)–(30) follow the same asymptotic distributions as the corresponding ones in the fully parametric context, also for Pitman alternatives. This is a consequence of the CLT in de Jong (1987), related to the asymptotic behavior of  $U$ -statistics, recalling that although the additive model is nonparametric, its dimension is lower than under the general hypothesis. Similar comments can be made regarding fixed alternatives (see Dette et al. 2005).

Finally, for the generalized additive model (22), or its simpler version (21) with known link  $\mathcal{H}$ , Stute and Zhu (2005b) extended the empirical regression process for generalized linear models (GLMs). Rodríguez-Campos et al. (1998) (and also Azzalini and Bowman 1993 and Azzalini et al. 1989 as previous references) adapt the test from González-Manteiga and Cao (1993) for GLMs and Härdle et al. (1998) and Müller (2001) provided an extension for the generalized partial linear model (GPLM)

$$H_{0\text{GPL}} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \mathcal{H}(\theta_0^t X_1 + m_2(X_2)), \quad (31)$$

in an approach inspired by the likelihood ratio test. Sperlich et al. (2002) and Roca-Pardiñas et al. (2005) studied interaction tests under a generalized additive model (22), and Liang et al. (2010), using generalized versions of the GLRT, introduced test statistics for the more general partial linear single index model

$$H_{0\text{PLSIM}} : \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \theta_0^t X_1 + \mathcal{H}(\bar{\theta}_0^t X_2). \quad (32)$$

An exhaustive comparative study for different testing methods for (21), (22) and (31) is given by Roca-Pardiñas and Sperlich (2007).

The immense flow of contributions on GoF tests for complex regression models, such as (32), in the last decade, makes it extremely difficult to condense a detailed list of reference. Some alternatives to the aforementioned test can be found in Escanciano and Song (2009), Song (2010), and Maity et al. (2009).

#### 4.2 Tests for the variance function

In testing methods for the regression function, from parametric, nonparametric or semiparametric settings, in order to use the asymptotic distribution or to obtain a simpler functional formulation, the nuisance functions behavior must be determined. Among the possible nuisance functions, the conditional variance  $\sigma^2(x) = \text{Var}(Y|X = x)$ , is the most frequent one, existing many contributions devoted to test  $H_0 : \sigma^2 \in \mathcal{S}$  vs.  $H_a : \sigma^2 \notin \mathcal{S}$ . The homocedasticity test, ( $\sigma^2$  constant), is a particular case. Tests for constant variance have been studied by Diblasi and Bowman (1997), smoothing the residuals on a suitably transformed scale, and Dette and Munk (1998). A residual-based tests for heteroscedasticity was proposed by Dette (2002) and Liero (2003) derived a tests for checking the hypothesis of constant conditional variance against its dependence on the design of the covariate. The empirical process approach has been considered by Zhu et al. (2001) in this context. See also the book by Carroll and Ruppert (1988) for previous references on the topic.

For a location-scale model,  $Y = m(X) + \sigma(X)\varepsilon$ , with  $\varepsilon$  independent of  $X$ , a more general hypothesis than homocedasticity may be of interest:

$$H_0 : \sigma^2 \in \mathcal{S}_\gamma = \{\sigma_\gamma^2, \gamma \in \Gamma\}, \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_a : \sigma^2 \notin \mathcal{S}_\gamma.$$

Considering  $\varepsilon = (Y - m(X))/\sigma(X)$  and  $\varepsilon_0 = (Y - m(X))/\sigma_{\tilde{\gamma}_0}(X)$ , with

$$\tilde{\gamma}_0 = \arg \min_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \mathbb{E}^2((Y - m(X))^2 - \sigma_\gamma^2(X)) = \arg \min_{\gamma \in \Gamma} (\sigma^2(X) - \sigma_\gamma^2(X))^2,$$

the null hypothesis  $H_0$  holds iff the distributions of the errors  $\varepsilon$  and  $\varepsilon_0$  are the same. Hence, the methodology for GoF tests for regression based on the empirical distribution of the residuals can be generalized for testing about the variance (see Dette et al. 2007 for further details)  $m$  being the nuisance function in this scenario.

Apart from these previous ideas, there have been also other proposals for tests on the variance inspired by the estimation of the regression and the integrated regression functions, as detailed in Chap. 7 in Zhu (2005) or, more recently, by Samarakoon and Song (2010). It is also possible to test other hypothesis about  $\sigma^2$ , with nonparametric or semiparametric assumptions on  $m$ , similar to Sect. 5.1. For some examples, see You and Chen (2005), Dette and Marchlewski (2008), and Wong et al. (2009).

## 5 Testing when dependence is present

As in many other areas of statistical inference, GoF methods for regression models have been also adapted to account for dependent data. In this section, testing on the trend and on the correlation function for fixed and random design models will be revised, both in time series, spatial and spatio-temporal models and for continuous time processes.

### 5.1 Testing in time series

Consider the following simple fixed design regression model:

$$Y_i = m(x_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (33)$$

where  $m$  is the regression function (or trend, in the time series glossary),  $x_i$  is an empirical known predictor. For instance,  $x_i = i/n$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  a sequence of time moments which is typically assumed to belong to the unit interval,  $x_i \in [0, 1]$ . This predictors are linked to some particular design, such as  $i/n = \int_0^{x_i} f(t) dt$   $f$  being the design density, allowing this formulation also for non-equally spaced moments. In addition, the zero-mean error sequence  $\{\varepsilon_i\}_{i=1}^n$  in (33) is assumed to show a certain second-order stationary dependence structure, with covariance function  $C(k) = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_{k+1})$ . This stationarity condition means that the covariance is just a function of the lag between two time moments.

Most of the test based on smoothing methods and described in Sect. 1 can be adapted to this context for assessing  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$ . Specifically, the tests statistic  $T_{1n}$  in (5) or its discretized version,  $T_{1n}^D$ , can be directly applied for this testing problem, as well as the test  $T_{3n}$  in (7). The key is using a smoothing method suitably adapted for fixed design (see, for instance, Priestley and Chao 1972 or Gasser and Müller 1979).

The asymptotic behavior of the smoothed test statistics with time dependence is quite similar to the independent case, just replacing the conditional variance by the covariance sum,  $\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} C(k)$ .

GoF tests in linear regression models with correlated errors have been studied by González-Manteiga and Vilar-Fernández (1995), considering a MA( $\infty$ ) structure. Bootstrap calibration of tests with ARMA structure was performed by Vilar-

Fernández and González-Manteiga (1996, 2000). Biederman and Dette (2000) extended the results in González-Manteiga and Vilar-Fernández (1995) under fixed alternatives. GoF testing with dependent data have been also extended to partial linear regression models (see González-Manteiga and Aneiros-Pérez 2003), also under long-memory dependence (see Aneiros-Pérez et al. 2004). Biederman and Dette (2001) proposed optimal designs for testing the functional form of a regression model, under fixed design with heterocedastic errors and their ideas could be extended to the dependent case.

In a random design problem, the random sample is given by  $\{(X_t, Y_t)\}_{t=1}^n$ , a collection of  $(p + 1)$ -dimensional vectors from a series  $\{(X_t, Y_t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ , following the model  $Y_t = m(X_t) + \varepsilon_t$ . Considering a strictly stationary distribution  $\bar{F}(x, y)$  associated with a prototype variable  $(X_0, Y_0)$ , a test for the trend function can be done based on the smoothed tests with convenient modifications, usually assuming that  $\{\varepsilon_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  is a strictly stationary process with  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t | \mathcal{F}_t) = 0$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_t$  being the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the past observation of the process up to a time  $t$ ,  $\{(X_k, Y_{k-1})\}_{k \leq t}$ . A suitable adaptation of (5) is

$$T_{1n}^{TS} = \int \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n K_h(x - X_t)(Y_t - \widehat{m}_{H_0}(X_t)) \right)^2 \omega(x) dx \tag{34}$$

with  $\widehat{m}_{H_0}$  a consistent estimator under the null hypothesis to test, which may be parametric, nonparametric or semiparametric. It turns out that the asymptotic bias of  $nh^{p/2}T_{1n}^{TS}$  is given by

$$h^{-p/2} \int K^2(u)\omega(x + hu)\Pi(x)\sigma^2(x) dx du$$

and the asymptotic variance

$$2 \int \sigma^4(x)\Pi^2(x)\omega(x) dx \int K(u)K(v)K(u - z)K(v - z) du dv dz,$$

where  $\sigma^2(x) = \text{Var}(Y_t | X_t = x)$  denotes the conditional variance and  $\Pi$  is the stationary density of  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ . Hence, the asymptotic bias and variance of the previous test is the same as for the original  $T_{1n}$ , as long as the dimension of the null hypothesis is smaller than the nonparametric dimension of the alternative. Similar results can also be seen in González-Manteiga et al. (2002).

Kreiss et al. (2008) provided an extensive review on this type of tests, justifying the consistency of a variety of resampling procedures for test calibration (see also Franke et al. 2002). In Gao (2007), the adaptation of the test (7) can be found. For other tests based on empirical likelihood ideas, see Chen et al. (2003) and Chen and Gao (2007).

There are also some previous works on simpler hypothesis, such as the linearity of the trend, which implies that  $X_t = (Y_{t-1}, \dots, Y_{t-k})$ , defining an AR( $k$ ) model (see Hjellvik and Tjøstheim 1995, 1996, and Hjellvik et al. 1998). Also for this AR( $k$ ) model, Li and Tkacz (2006) propose a testing procedure for a parametric model for



the conditional density:  $H_0 : \Pi(y|x) = \Pi(y|x, \theta)$ ,  $\Pi(\cdot|x)$  being the stationary density of  $Y_t | (Y_{t-1}, \dots, Y_{t-k}) = x$ .

The adaptation of empirical processes based GoF tests for AR( $k$ ) processes is also possible. Consider  $X_t = (Y_{t-1}, \dots, Y_{t-k}, Z_t)$  with  $k \leq t$  and  $Z_t$  a  $p$ -dimensional variable. For testing  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$ , the following empirical process can be constructed:

$$\alpha_n^*(x, \omega) = \sqrt{n} \sum_{t=k}^n (Y_t - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_t)) \omega(X_t, x).$$

The convergence of  $\alpha_n^*$ , as well as the properties of the associated tests and resampling methods for calibration, have been studied by different authors. Koul and Stute (1999) considered the case  $X_t = Y_{t-1}$  (Markovian hypothesis of order one) with  $\omega(X_t, x) = \mathbb{I}(X_t \leq x)$ . With the same weight function, Dominguez and Lobato (2003) considered a Markovian hypothesis of higher order, also studied by Stute et al. (2006) for a general linear model.

GoF tests for a parametric time series using empirical regression processes have been proposed by Escanciano (2006a, 2007a), establishing weak convergence of the process and investigating the asymptotic properties under the null hypothesis and for Pitman alternatives, being bootstrap an option for calibration. For possibly non-stationary time series, under martingale conditions, Escanciano (2007b) proved the weak convergence of a class of empirical processes. In related works, Escanciano and Velasco (2006a) and Escanciano (2009) proposed tests for the martingale difference hypothesis.

Also in this context, model identification based on cumulative lagged conditional mean and variance, for a parametric time series model, was earlier studied by McKeague and Zhang (1994). Diagnostic tests for self-exciting threshold autoregressive models have been proposed by Koul et al. (2005) whereas the extension to a multivariate context was studied by Chabot-Hallé and Duchesne (2008).

Weak convergence of the process  $\alpha_n^*$  is obtained by martingale difference theory, which is also useful for tests in the spectral domain (see Escanciano and Velasco 2006a), playing a key role for testing about the dependence structure.

For dependent data in general, and for a second-order stationary time series  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  in particular, it is also worthwhile to assess hypotheses about the dependence structure, characterized by the covariance function  $C(k) = \text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t+k})$  or by its Fourier transform, the spectral density,  $f$ . The spectral density can be estimated nonparametrically by the periodogram

$$I(\lambda_k) = \frac{1}{2\pi n} \left| \sum_{t=1}^n X_t e^{-it\lambda_k} \right|^2, \quad \lambda_k = \frac{2\pi k}{N}, \quad k = 1, \dots, N = \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \right\rfloor$$

with  $\lambda_k$  the Fourier frequencies. If  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  admits a linear representation, the periodogram can be written as the response variable in the following regression model:

$$I(\lambda_k) = f(\lambda_k) V_k + R_k \tag{35}$$

with  $\{V_k\}_{k=1}^N$ , a sequence of independent standard exponential random variables, and  $R_k$  an asymptotically negligible term (see Brockwell and Davis 1991). Taking loga-

rithms in (35), and denoting by  $Y_k = \log I(\lambda_k)$ , it is easy to see that

$$Y_k = m(\lambda_k) + z_k + r_k \quad (36)$$

with  $m = \log f$ , the log-spectral density,  $\{z_k\}_{k=1}^N$  are i.i.d. random variables with Gumbel(0, 1) distribution and  $r_k = \log(1 + R_k/(f(\lambda_k)V_k))$ . Ignoring the negligible terms in models (35) and (36), these expressions can be interpreted as a multiplicative and an additive regression model respectively.

Based on model (35), Paparoditis (2000) proposed a GoF for a parametric model for the spectral density, following the ideas in Bickel and Rosenblatt (1973). Specifically, for testing  $H_0 : f \in \mathcal{F}_\theta$  vs.  $H_a : f \notin \mathcal{F}_\theta$  and based on representation (35), the author considered the test statistic

$$T_n = nh^{-1/2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=-N}^N K_h(\lambda - \lambda_k) \left( \frac{I(\lambda_k)}{\hat{f}_\theta(\lambda_k)} - 1 \right) \right)^2 d\lambda,$$

which has asymptotic distribution-free bias and variance,

$$h^{-1/2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K^2(x) dx, \quad \pi^{-1} \int_{-2\pi}^{2\pi} \left( \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K(u)K(u+x) du \right)^2 dx.$$

Focusing on the regression model in the log-spectral scale (36), Fan and Zhang (2004) proposed a testing method for assessing a parametric model for the log-spectral density function ( $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  vs.  $H_a : m \notin \mathcal{M}_\theta$ ) using the GLRT theory introduced in Fan et al. (2001) and discussed in Sect. 2. Ignoring  $r_k$  in model (36), the log-likelihood function is given by  $\sum_{k=-N}^N (Y_k - m(\lambda_k) - e^{Y_k - m(\lambda_k)})$ . A parametric estimator under the null hypothesis can be obtained by Whittle's log-likelihood, whereas local linear smoothing is used for the nonparametric estimator under the general model. The GLRT in this context also exhibits the Wilks phenomenon mentioned before.

Apart from these procedures which make use of smoothing methods, some other tests have been proposed based on the ideas of the integrated regression function on the ratio between the periodogram and the parametric spectral density. See Delgado et al. (2005), Hidalgo and Kreiss (2006), and Delgado and Velasco (2010).

There are also quite recent contributions in this topic, such as the proposal of a GoF tests based on the supremum norm in the time domain (see Hidalgo 2008) or a testing procedure for nonstationary models (see Gao et al. 2009). Confidence bands for the spectral density have been developed by Neumann and Paparoditis (2008a). GoF for multivariate covariance structures have been studied by Eichler (2008), Dette and Paparoditis (2009), and Dette and Hildebrandt (2012). A general Markovian hypothesis has been tested by Neumann and Paparoditis (2008b). There are also some further works on GoF tests in the spectral domain as Sergides and Paparoditis (2007, 2009), Paparoditis (2009, 2010).

## 5.2 Testing in spatial and spatio-temporal models

Literature on GoF tests with spatial or spatio-temporal dependent data, inspired by GoF tests from time series models, is quite recent. In spatial statistics (see Cressie

1993), the dependence structure of second-order stationary processes can be modeled by the covariogram (or by the variogram, in an intrinsic stationary context). Denoting the spatial process by  $Z(s)$ , with  $s \in \mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  (and  $d = 2$  for spatial data), second-order stationarity implies that  $\mathbb{E}(Z(s)) = \mu$ ,  $\forall s \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $\text{Cov}(Z(s_1), Z(s_2)) = C(s_1 - s_2)$ ,  $\forall s_1, s_2 \in \mathcal{D}$ . Under intrinsic stationarity, the dependence structure can be described by the variogram function  $2\gamma(s_1 - s_2) = \text{Var}(Z(s_1) - Z(s_2))$ , being the variogram and the covariogram related for a second-order stationary process:  $2\gamma(s) = 2(C(0) - C(s))$ . Determining the dependence is crucial for spatial and spatio-temporal prediction.

Estimation of the covariogram and the variogram function, given a realization of a spatial process  $\{Z(s_1), \dots, Z(s_n)\}$ , is a well-studied problem in the spatial statistical literature, but this is not the case for testing problems. Diblasi and Bowman (2001) proposed a test for independence for the spatial case, which in terms of the variogram (or more precisely, in terms of the semivariogram  $\gamma$ ) can be written as  $H_0 : \gamma = \sigma^2$  vs.  $H_a : \gamma \neq \sigma^2$ . The test statistic is based on the comparison of smooth estimators of the semivariogram, similar to an  $F$ -test. The idea was extended by Diblasi and Maglione (2004) for testing a parametric family for the variogram.

For second-order stationary spatial processes, similar to time series, tests about the dependence structure can be formulated from the spectral domain. The spatial spectral density (bidimensional Fourier transform of the spatial covariance) can be estimated nonparametrically by the spatial periodogram, with suitable modifications to guarantee consistency (see Guyon 1982). Adaptations of the test proposed by Paparoditis (2000) and the GLRT test can be found in Crujeiras et al. (2010a), where the hypothesis to test is  $H_0 : f \in \mathcal{F}_\theta$ ,  $f$  being the spatial spectral density. Hidalgo (2009) presented an alternative method based on empirical processes associated with the spatial periodogram. In these works, bootstrap calibration procedures are also detailed.

One of the simplifying assumptions in spatio-temporal processes is separability. Separability implies that the covariance structure can be factorized as a product of a spatial and a temporal covariance functions. That is, for a spatio-temporal process  $\{Z(s, t), s \in \mathcal{D}, t \in \mathcal{T}\}$ , the covariance  $\text{Cov}(Z(s + u, t + v) - Z(s, t)) = C(u, v)$  can be written as  $C(u, v) = C_S(u)C_T(v)$ , where  $C_S$  and  $C_T$  are spatial and temporal covariance functions, respectively. It is straightforward to check that, under separability, the log-spectral density is the sum of a spatial log-spectral density  $\log f_S$  plus a temporal log-spectral density  $\log f_T$ . Hence, testing for separability can be seen as testing for additivity in the log-spectral domain. Crujeiras et al. (2010b) propose testing procedures for separability adapting additivity tests described in Sect. 5.

### 5.3 Testing in continuous time models

Consider a continuous time diffusion process, commonly used to model the dynamics of interest rates or stock prices exchanges in finance:

$$dX_t = m(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dW_t, \quad t \in \mathcal{T} \subset \mathbb{R}^+ \quad (37)$$

where  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}}$  is a continuous time process,  $m$  is the drift function and  $\sigma$  is the diffusion function, with  $\{W_t\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}}$  a standard Brownian motion. It may be of interest

to test a null hypothesis such as  $H_0 : dX_t = m_\theta(X_t) dt + \sigma_\theta(X_t) dW_t$  with  $\theta \in \Theta$ . As a special case in the financial context,  $X_t = r_t$  may be an interest rate process, which has motivated a significant amount of papers related to the study of (37).

A reasonable strategy consists in discretizing Eq. (37) for  $\{X_t\} = \{r_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$ , observed at time moments  $t_i = i\Delta$ , for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$  (with spacing  $\Delta > 0$ ). The discretized version of (37) is then given by

$$Y_{t_i} = r_{t_{i+1}} - r_{t_i} = m(r_{t_i})\Delta + \sigma(r_{t_i})(W_{t_{i+1}} - W_{t_i}),$$

for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ , which can be rewritten as a regression model as

$$\Delta^{-1}Y_{t_i} = m(r_{t_i}) + \sigma(r_{t_i})\frac{\varepsilon_{t_i}}{\sqrt{\Delta}}, \quad (38)$$

with  $\varepsilon_{t_i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  independent of  $r_{t_i}$ . Hence, taking as initial random sample  $\{(r_{t_i}, \Delta^{-1}Y_{t_i})\}_{i=0}^{n-1}$ , the previous GoF testing techniques can be adapted for the drift function: smoothed-based tests, tests using empirical regression process, GLRT, ... always testing a null hypothesis over a continuous time model by a discretized approximation.

There is a large collection of references on this topic, which could be classified attending to the target function to test. For instance, Aït-Sahalia (1996) proposed testing parametric models for the marginal density of  $X_t$  rates by comparing the implied density with a nonparametric estimator, without considering discrete approximations to the process, whereas Corradi and Swanson (2005) discussed GoF tests by comparing cumulative distribution functions instead of densities. Tests for marginal density functions have been also studied by Gao and King (2004) and Hong and Li (2005), involving kernel estimators, as well as Arapis and Gao (2006) and the Bickel and Rosenblatt test was adapted by Lee (2006) for diffusion processes.

GoF tests for the drift coefficient were studied by Negri and Nishiyama (2009), using empirical processes and by Negri and Nishiyama (2010), based on continuous observations. Kutoyants (2010) considered the problem of testing a simple null hypothesis for the drift coefficient, based on a Cramér–von Mises test. Gao and Casas (2008) proposed tests for the specification of the drift and the volatility functions of a semiparametric diffusion process, under a discrete approximation, using nonparametric estimation methods.

With respect to the variance, specification tests have been analyzed by Corradi and White (1999), Dette and von Lieres und Wilkau (2003), and Li (2007) without requiring a complete knowledge of the functional form of the drift model. Dette et al. (2006) and Dette and Podolskij (2008) assessed the parametric form based on estimations and stochastic processes of the integrated volatility.

Finally, joint model specification problems have been also analyzed. A test for a parametric model specification, based on kernel estimation and using the ideas of empirical likelihood, was proposed by Chen et al. (2008). Kristensen (2011) introduced misspecification tests for semiparametric and fully parametric univariate diffusion models. GLRT methodology has been also adapted to diffusion process by Fan and Zhang (2003) and Fan et al. (2003). Martingale theory has been used by Masuda et al. (2010) and Song (2011) for constructing GoF tests for diffusion models. Aït-Sahalia

et al. (2010) proposed procedures to test a Markov hypothesis in a mixing stationary process. Lee and Wee (2008) studied the residual empirical processes for model (37) and Monsalve-Cobis et al. (2011) introduce a bootstrap GoF tests based on empirical processes for testing parametric hypothesis on the drift and the volatility functions.

## 6 Goodness-of-fit tests for regression models with complex data

Usually, the sample at hand does not provide complete information about the underlying population, posing some problems for the application of GoF tests. Apart from the dependent data case, data may also be censored and/or truncated, some data may be missing, present some error measurement or even length-bias.

### 6.1 Censored and/or truncated data

The main motivation for the analysis of censored and/or truncated data can be found in survival and reliability analysis, and more recently, also in econometrics. Truncation appears when the individual lifetime finishes before the study follow up (left truncation, LT) whereas censoring happens when the individual lifetime is not observed until its end due to a previous censoring event (right censoring, RC).

In this general context, information for each individual is given by the value of  $(X, T, Z, \delta)$ , where  $X$  is a vector of covariates,  $T$  denotes the truncation time,  $Z = \min\{Y, C\}$  is the observed value where  $Y$  is the lifetime of the individual and  $C$  is the censoring time and  $\delta = \mathbb{I}(Y \leq C)$ . The vector is completely observed if  $T \leq Z$ .

Some GoF tests for different models based on an observed sample denoted by  $\{(X_i, T_i, Z_i, \delta_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  were proposed by Cao and González-Manteiga (2008) in the following scenarios:

– Polynomial regression model:

$$H_{0PR} : \Psi(F(\cdot|X = x)) = A^t(X)\theta \tag{39}$$

with  $A : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^q$ ,  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^q$  and  $\Psi(Q) = \int_0^1 Q^{-1}(s)J(s)ds$  for any distribution  $Q$  with quantile function  $Q^{-1}(s) = \inf\{u; Q(u) \geq s, \}$ , for  $s \in [0, 1]$ .  $J$  is a non-negative function such that  $\int_0^1 J(s)ds = 1$  and  $F(\cdot|X = x)$  denotes the conditional distribution of  $Y|X = x$ . If  $J$  is taken as the uniform density, then  $\Psi(F(\cdot|X = x)) = A^t(X)\theta = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = x)$ . For  $p = 1$  and  $A(x) = (1, x, \dots, x^{q-1})$ , the polynomial regression model is obtained.

– Proportional hazard model:

$$H_{0PH} : \lambda(t|X = x) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(A^t(X)\theta), \tag{40}$$

where  $\lambda(\cdot|X = x)$  is the conditional hazard rate of  $Y|X = x$  and  $\lambda_0$  is a baseline function. The model in  $H_{0PH}$  is the well-known Cox regression model, introduced by Cox (1972).

– Additive risk models:

$$H_{0AR} : \lambda(t|X = x) = \lambda_0(t) + A^t(X)\theta. \tag{41}$$

– Proportional odds model:

$$H_{\text{OPO}} : \text{logit}(1 - \exp(-\Lambda(t|X = x))) = \log\left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y \leq t|X = x)}{\mathbb{P}(Y > t|X = x)}\right) \tag{42}$$

$$= \alpha_0(t) + A^t(X)\theta, \tag{43}$$

with  $\text{logit}(u) = \log(u/(1 - u))$ ,  $\alpha_0$  an increasing function and  $\Lambda(\cdot|X = x)$  the cumulative hazard rate function.

Estimation of the previous models have been studied by Grigoletto and Akritas (1999). For instance, considering  $A(x) = (1, x, \dots, x^{q-1})$ , a suitable statistic for testing problems (39)–(43) is

$$T_n = \arg \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\widehat{\Omega}_r - (\theta_0 + \theta_1 X_i + \dots + \theta_p X_i^{q-1}))^2,$$

with  $\widehat{\Omega}_r$  an estimator of  $\Omega_r = \Omega(X_r)$ , an adequate transform of  $\Lambda(\cdot|X)$  for obtaining a regression model. Specifically, for (39), this  $\Omega$  transform is  $\Omega(x) = \Psi(F(\cdot|X = x))$ ; for (40) is  $\Omega(x) = \int_0^\infty \log \Lambda(s|X = x) d\omega(s)$  with  $\omega$  a nonnegative weight function such that  $\int_0^1 d\omega(s) = 1$ ; for (41),  $\Omega(x) = \int_0^\infty \Lambda(s|X = x) d\tilde{\omega}(s)$  with  $\tilde{\omega}(s) = \omega(s) / \int_0^\infty u d\omega(u)$ ; finally, for (43),  $\Omega(x) = \int_0^\infty \text{logit}(1 - \exp(-\Lambda(s|X = x))) d\omega(s)$ .

The key issue is the nonparametric estimation of  $\Omega(x)$  via the estimation of  $F(\cdot|X = x)$  under censoring and/or truncation. In Iglesias-Pérez and González-Manteiga (1999), a generic estimator for this conditional distribution function was established. Based on an i.i.d. representation of  $\hat{F}(\cdot|X = x)$ , Cao and González-Manteiga (2008) derive the limit behavior for  $nh^{1/2}T_n$ , and calibration is performed by Monte Carlo methods. For the complete data case,  $\mathbb{E}(Y|X = x) = \Psi(F(\cdot|X = x))$  resulting the discretized version of (5),  $T_{1n}^D$  for polynomial regression as a particular case. A generalization of hypothesis (39) is  $H_0 : \Psi(F(u|X = x)) = A_u^t(x)\theta$  with time  $u$ , was analyzed in Teodorescu and Van Keilegom (2010) and Teodorescu et al. (2010).

All these proposals use a generalized Kaplan–Meier estimator, following Iglesias-Pérez and González-Manteiga (1999), under the assumption of conditional independence between  $Y$  and  $C$  given  $X$ . In the particular case of no truncation and assuming that  $Y$  and  $C$  are independent and  $\mathbb{P}(\delta = 1|X, Y) = \mathbb{P}(\delta = 1|Y)$  (see Stute 1993 for some insight in this assumption), we have  $\mathbb{E}(\frac{\delta}{1-G(Z^-)} \Phi(X, Z)|X) = \mathbb{E}(\Phi(X, Z)|X)$ , for any functional  $\Phi$ , with  $G$  the distribution of the censoring variable. This allows for an adaptation to the GoF for regression models theory with  $\Phi(X, Z) = Z$ , considering  $\hat{Y}_i^* = \delta_i Z_i / (1 - \hat{G}(Z_i))$  the new response values and  $\hat{G}$  the Kaplan–Meier estimator of  $G(t) = \mathbb{P}(C \leq t)$ . In Lopez and Patilea (2009), the test statistic (7) was adapted to this context. That is, under a parametric null hypothesis  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$ , the residual  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{0i} = Y_i - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)$  is replaced by  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{0i}^* = \hat{Y}_i^* - m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)$ , with  $\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i^* - m_{\theta}(X_i))^2$ , a least squares estimator as proposed by Koul et al. (1981). This reasoning can be extended to other testing procedures, and

also adapted for more complex hypothesis such as additivity (see Debbbarh and Viallon 2008). Another alternative is to change the estimation of  $\theta$  and consider

$$\tilde{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n (Z_i - m_{\theta}(X_i))^2 W_{in} = \arg \min_{\theta} \int (y - m_{\theta}(x))^2 d\widehat{F}_n(x, y),$$

$\widehat{F}_n$  being the generalized Kaplan–Meier estimator with covariates (see Stute 1993, 1996, 1999; Stute et al. 2000), and  $W_{in} = \frac{\delta_i}{n(1-G(Z_i^-))}$ , the Kaplan–Meier weights over the response variable  $Y$ . The residuals are now given by  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{0i}^* = \frac{\delta_i}{1-G(Z_i^-)}(Z_i - m_{\tilde{\theta}}(X_i))$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Tests based on empirical regression processes can also be adapted, estimating the integrated regression function  $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}(X \leq x))$  by  $\int z\mathbb{I}(u \leq x) d\widehat{F}_n(u, z)$  (see Stute et al. 2000 and Sánchez-Sellero et al. 2005).

Under the assumption of conditional independence between  $Y$  and  $C$  given  $X$ , there is another alternative to GoF testing, by generating a random variable that estimates  $\Upsilon(X, Y)$  properly, being this function  $\Upsilon(x, y) = y$  or  $\Upsilon(x, y) = (y - m_{\theta_0}(x))^2$ , for instance. Thus,  $\Upsilon^*(X, Z, \delta) = \Upsilon(X, Z)\delta + \mathbb{E}(\Upsilon(X, Z)|Y > C, X)(1 - \delta)$ , and in this case  $\mathbb{E}(\Upsilon^*(X, Z, \delta)|X) = \mathbb{E}(\Upsilon(X, Y|X))$ . For generating such a random variable,  $\Upsilon^*$  is estimated by the conditional Kaplan–Meier under censoring (see Beran 1981 for its introduction and González-Manteiga and Cadarso-Suárez 1994). In González-Manteiga et al. (2007), using the generalized integrated regression  $\mathbb{E}(\Upsilon(X, Z)\mathbb{I}(X \leq x))$  with artificial sample  $\{(X_i, \widehat{Y}_i^*)\}_{i=1}^n$ , some GoF tests based on empirical processes for the regression function were proposed, as well as some other tests for the conditional variance.

The methodology based on the empirical distribution of the residuals, with the conditional independence assumption, can also be extended to this context replacing the residuals obtained with complete data by the following ones:

$$\left\{ \frac{Z_i - m_{\widehat{\theta}}(X_i)}{\widehat{\sigma}(X_i)}, \delta_i \right\}_{i=1}^n, \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \frac{Z_i - \widehat{m}(X_i)}{\widehat{\sigma}(X_i)}, \delta_i \right\}_{i=1}^n.$$

With these residuals, the error distribution was obtained adapting the Kaplan–Meier estimator (see Pardo-Fernández et al. 2007a). See also Dette and Heuchenne (2012) for a test on the variance function in this setting.

### 6.2 Missing data

Given a regression model in location-scale form,  $Y = m(X) + \sigma(X)\varepsilon$ , there may be missing data (missing at random, along this section) in the sample, possibly since the response variable  $Y$  cannot be observed. Hence, each data is  $(X_i, Y_i)$  if  $Y$  is observed and  $(X_i, \cdot)$  if the response value is not recorded. In order to model this scenario, a new variable  $\delta$  is introduced, such that  $\delta_i = 1$  if  $Y_i$  is observed and  $\delta_i = 0$  if not. The *missing at random* assumption states that  $\mathbb{P}(\delta = 1|Y, X) = \mathbb{P}(\delta = 1|X)$  for  $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . In González-Manteiga and Pérez-González (2006), the test statistic (5) was adapted to this context comparing which is a best option: (a) using the complete information

(observed data) through the test statistic

$$n|H|^{1/4}T_{1n}^{M1} = n|H|^{1/4} \int (m_{nH}(x) - m_{\hat{\theta}}(x))^2 \omega(x) dx,$$

with  $m_{nH}$  the (multidimensional) Nadaraya–Watson or the local-linear estimator with smoothing matrix  $H$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  a  $\sqrt{n}$ -consistent estimator with the complete sample, or (b) using imputed values for the unobserved data via the statistic

$$n|H|^{1/4}T_{1n}^{M2} = n|H|^{1/4} \int (m_{nH\tilde{H}}^I(x) - m_{\hat{\theta}}(x))^2 \omega(x) dx,$$

with  $m_{nH\tilde{H}}^I$  the smooth estimator with the imputed sample  $\{(X_i, \delta_i Y_i + (1 - \delta_i)m_{n\tilde{H}}(X_i))\}_{i=1}^n$ , where a smoothing matrix  $\tilde{H}$  is used for imputation. For the particular case  $p = 1$  and complete data,  $n|H|^{1/4}T_{1n}^{M1} = n|H|^{1/4}T_{1n}^{M2} = nh^{1/2}T_{1n}$ , obtaining the test in Alcalá et al. (1999). The choice between both options (a) and (b) is done based on the ratio  $|\tilde{H}|^{1/2}/|H|^{1/2}$ , summarizing if the imputation is convenient. If the ratio tends to infinity as the sample size increases, this indicates that there is oversmoothing in the imputation, leading to large bias, so imputation is not reasonable. On the other hand, if the ratio tends to zero, both tests are equivalent, and the benefit of imputation is achieved when the ratio tends to a positive finite value. Recently, Li (2012) suggested a test for a similar situation but with imputation under the null hypothesis, that is, considering the sample  $\{(X_i, \delta_i Y_i + (1 - \delta_i)m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i))\}_{i=1}^n$ , avoiding a discussion about the pilot smoothing matrix  $\tilde{H}$ .

Tests based on empirical processes can also be used with missing data. For instance, the test proposed by Stute (1997) can be used replacing in the empirical process  $\overline{\alpha}_n$  the response  $Y_i$  by the imputed values under the null hypothesis  $(\delta_i Y_i + (1 - \delta_i)m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i))$  (see Sun and Wang 2009 for the linear model  $m_{\theta}(X) = A^T(X)\theta$ , and also Sun et al. 2009 for the extension to partially linear models).

A different problem is the absence of data in the covariates, but literature on this topic is much more scarce. We should mention the work by Zhu et al. (2009) where the methodology based on empirical regression processes was applied to tackle this problem.

### 6.3 Data with measurement error

Another interesting situation, with quite recent contributions, is GoF for regression when observations are given with some measurement error. Specifically, consider the following regression model  $Y = m(X) + \varepsilon$ , where the covariate  $X$  is not observable and  $E(\varepsilon) = 0$ . In this setting, what the practitioner gets is a sample  $\{(Z_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , with each  $Z_i$  an observation from a random variable  $Z$  such that  $X = Z + \eta$ , with  $E(\eta) = 0$ . Usually,  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\eta$  and  $Z$  are assumed to be mutually independent.

The problem of estimating a parametric model for the regression function (known as Berkson’s parametric model (Berkson 1950)) has been widely studied. In order to test a parametric model, that is, testing  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_{\theta}$ , some of the previous test statistics can be adapted. First, denote by  $f_{\varepsilon}$ ,  $f_X$ ,  $f_{\eta}$  and  $f_Z$  the density functions of  $\varepsilon$ ,  $X$ ,  $\eta$  and  $Z$  have densities, respectively, and assume that  $f_{\eta}$  is known.



Then, it is possible to obtain generalized tests. Assume first that  $f_\eta$  is known. Then  $f_X(x) = \int f_Z(z)f_\eta(x - z) dz$  and a kernel estimator of this density is given by  $\hat{f}_X(x) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_h(x, Z_i)$  with  $\bar{K}_h(x, z) = \int K_h(z - y)f_\eta(x - y) dy$ .

Define the following functions:  $\Psi(z) = \mathbb{E}(m(X)|Z = z)$  and  $J(x) = \mathbb{E}(\Psi(Z)|X = x)$ . A natural kernel estimator for the regression function is given by

$$\hat{m}_h(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_h(x, Z_i)Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_h(x, Z_i)}$$

However, this estimator is consistent for  $J(x)$  but not for  $m(x)$ . In order to obtain a test statistic for  $H_0$  it should be noticed that, if this hypothesis holds, then  $\Psi(z) = \Psi_\theta(z) = \mathbb{E}(m_\theta(X)|Z = z)$  and  $J(x) = J_\theta(x) = \mathbb{E}(\Psi_\theta(Z)|X = x)$ . Hence, an adaptation of the test (5) can be constructed as

$$T_{1n}^{ME} = nh^{p/2} \int \left( \frac{1}{n \hat{f}_X(x)} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_h(x, Z_i)(Y_i - \Psi_{\hat{\theta}}(Z_i)) \right)^2 \omega(x) dx,$$

where  $\hat{\theta}$  is a consistent estimator for  $\theta$  under  $H_0$ ,  $\hat{f}_X$  is the kernel density estimator for  $f_X$  and  $\bar{K}_h(x, Z_i)$  has been introduced above. See details in Song (2008) and Koul and Song (2009).

From another point of view, and bearing in mind that  $\Psi(z) = \mathbb{E}(Y|Z = z)$ , one may consider the regression model,  $Y = \Psi(Z) + \zeta$ , with  $\mathbb{E}(\zeta|Z) = 0$ . In this setting, testing the null hypothesis  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  is equivalent to test  $H_0 : \Psi \in \{\Psi_\theta\}_{\theta \in \Theta}$ . For constructing a test statistic, a nonparametric estimator for  $\Psi$  is required and it is given by

$$\hat{\Psi}_h(z) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K_h(z - Z_i)Y_i}{n \hat{f}_{Z\tilde{h}}(z)}, \quad \text{with } \hat{f}_{Z\tilde{h}}(z) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n K_h^*(z - Z_i),$$

with  $K_h^*$  a kernel with bandwidth  $\tilde{h}$ , and the test statistic is

$$T_n = nh^{p/2} \int \left( \frac{1}{n \hat{f}_{Z\tilde{h}}(z)} \sum_{i=1}^n K_h(z - Z_i)(Y_i - \Psi_{\hat{\theta}}(Z_i)) \right)^2 \omega(z) dz, \tag{44}$$

which extends the test in Koul and Ni (2004), and for  $\tilde{h} = h$ , the test in Härdle and Mammen (1993). Asymptotic behavior of the test can be seen in Koul and Song (2009).

An alternative way for building test based on smoothing methods is using deconvolution, based on characteristic functions: let  $f$  be a density in  $\mathbb{R}^p$  with characteristic function  $\Phi_f$  and consider

$$f_h(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^p} \int_{\mathbb{R}^p} e^{-itx} \frac{\Phi_f(t)}{\Phi_K(t/h)} dt,$$

where  $K$  is a kernel function in  $\mathbb{R}^p$ . Again, recall that under the parametric null hypothesis, the function  $\Psi(z) = \Psi_\theta(z)$  has also a parametric form. In the context

described at the beginning of this section, a deconvolution estimator for  $f_X$  is given by

$$\hat{f}_{Xh}(x) = \frac{1}{nh^p} \sum_{i=1}^n f_h\left(\frac{x - Z_i}{h}\right).$$

Noticing that

$$\Psi(z) = \frac{\int m(x) f_X(x) f_\eta(z - x) dx}{\int f_X(x) f_\eta(z - x) dx},$$

an estimator for  $\Psi$  under the null hypothesis (assuming that  $f_\eta$  is known), is given by

$$\hat{\Psi}_\theta(z) = \frac{\int m_\theta(x) \hat{f}_{Xh}(x) f_\eta(z - x) dx}{\int \hat{f}_{Xh}(x) f_\eta(z - x) dx},$$

and a test statistic similar to  $T_n$  in (44) can be constructed. Splitting sample methods for designing test statistics are used by Song (2008), overcoming the slow convergence rate of deconvolution estimators.

All the tests in this section are based on smoothing methods, but it is also possible to extend those tests dealing with empirical regression processes, which may be suitably adapted by taking

$$\hat{\alpha}_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \Psi_\theta(Z_i)) \mathbb{I}(Z_i \leq x),$$

or rescaled versions of this process (see Koul and Song 2008). Recently, Koul and Song (2010) proposed a test for the partial linear model in this context. Some additional recent references are Hall and Ma (2007), Carroll et al. (2011), and Ma et al. (2011).

### 6.4 Length-biased data

In some situations, the sample from  $(X, Y)$  associated to the regression model  $Y = m(X) + \varepsilon$  is not i.i.d. and what is available is just a biased version from the previous variable:  $(X^\omega, Y^\omega)$  with distribution

$$dF^\omega(x, y) = f^\omega(x, y) dx dy = \frac{\omega(x, y) f(x, y)}{\mu_Y} dx dy$$

with  $F$  and  $f$  the distribution and density functions of  $(X, Y)$ , respectively, and  $\mu_Y$  the marginal expected value of  $Y$ . Selection bias is introduced via  $\omega$ , whereas  $F^\omega$  and  $f^\omega$  are the distribution and density of the biased population. We have

$$\mathbb{E}^\omega(Y|X = x) = m(x) \left( 1 + \frac{\text{Cov}(Y, \omega(X, Y)|X = x)}{m(x)\mathbb{E}(\omega(X, Y)|X = x)} \right)$$

and estimation procedures relying on the data sample do not lead to the estimation of the regression function, which makes it difficult to test a null hypothesis such as the parametric one  $H_0 : m \in \mathcal{M}_\theta$  based on the biased sample.

The bias sampling problem appears in several applications (see Cox 1969) and estimation methods should account for this fact. For instance, for the particular case of length-biased data,  $\omega(x, y) = y$ , the least squares estimation of  $\theta$  is given by

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{Y_i} (Y_i - m_{\theta}(X_i))^2,$$

and the nonparametric local-linear estimator is  $\widehat{m}_{nh}(x) = \widehat{\beta}_0(x)$  such that

$$(\widehat{\beta}_0(x), \widehat{\beta}_1(x)) = \arg \min_{(\beta_0, \beta_1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{Y_i} (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1(X_i - x))^2 K_h(x - X_i).$$

The test in (5) can be easily extended for length-biased data (see Ojeda et al. 2008). The methodology based on empirical regression processes can also be adapted by setting

$$\overline{\overline{\alpha}}_n^{\omega}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{Y_i} (Y_i - m_{\widehat{\theta}}(X_i)) \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x)$$

as studied in Ojeda et al. (2011). The use of the empirical distribution of the residuals for testing in this context has been analyzed by Ojeda and Van Keilegom (2009).

A common property of the tests for complex data situations is that convergence rates are similar to those ones for complete data presented in Sect. 1, and a similar discussion can be done about power comparison. Obviously, bootstrap calibration can be suitably adapted accounting for the complexity nature under the null hypothesis. In the references along this section, there are several alternatives for these adjustments.

### 7 Some related tests: comparison of regression curves and applications

The comparison of two or more groups of variables is one of the principal problems in statistical inference. Checking means, medians or other characteristics of the variable of interest across groups enables this comparison. When the variable of interest  $Y$  is accompanied by a regression covariable  $X$  a more ambitious objective is to compare the regression functions  $m_l(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y_l|X_l = x)$ , with  $l = 1, \dots, L$ , labeling the groups.

For parametric models in the different groups,  $m_l = m_{\theta_l}$ , with  $\theta_l \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^q$ , one may perform a classical covariance analysis. However, when no parametric assumptions are made and  $\{m_l\}_{l=1}^L$ , with  $m_l \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mathcal{M}$  a functional space satisfying some regularity conditions, the problem is more complicated.

For the fixed design case, the regression model can be compactly written as

$$Y_{li} = m_l(t_{li}) + \sigma_l(t_{li})\varepsilon_{li}, \quad l = 1, \dots, L, \quad i = 1, \dots, n_l \tag{45}$$

where  $\varepsilon_{li}$  are zero mean i.i.d. random variables,  $m_l$  and  $\sigma_l^2$  are the regression and variance function in the  $l$ th group and  $t_{li} \in [0, 1]$ , without loss of generality and  $N = \sum_{l=1}^L n_l$ . The testing problem  $H_0 : m_1 = \dots = m_L$  vs.  $H_1 : \exists(k, l)$  such that

$m_k \neq m_l$ , can be approached from different perspectives, specifically, using smoothing methods, based on empirical regression processes or considering the empirical distribution of the residuals.

An  $L^2$  distance may be used to compare the regression curves in the groups. The discrepancy  $D = \sum_{k < l} \int_0^1 (m_k(t) - m_l(t))^2 dt$  is null iff the null hypothesis of equality holds and a test statistic which estimates  $D$  is

$$T_N = \sum_{k < l} \int_0^1 (\widehat{m}_k(t) - \widehat{m}_l(t))^2 \omega_{kl}(t) dt,$$

where  $\{\omega_{kl}\}_{k < l}$  are weight functions and  $\widehat{m}_l(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} W_{li}(t) Y_{li}$  is the nonparametric kernel estimator of the regression function in each group  $l = 1, \dots, L$ .

A general result on the previous test statistic distribution is derived in Vilar-Fernández and González-Manteiga (2004) for model (45), considering a correlation structure in the error. Specifically, for  $L = 2$ , we have

$$nh^{1/2} \left( T_N - \frac{1}{nh} \int \omega(t) dt \Gamma_\Delta \int K^2(t) dt \right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_T^2),$$

with  $\Gamma_\Delta = \sum_{k=-\infty}^\infty C_\Delta(k)$  and  $\sigma_T^2 = 2\Gamma_\Delta^2 \int (K * K)^2(t) dt \int \omega^2(t) dt$ , with  $C_\Delta$  denoting the covariance of the error differences between two groups, with  $n_1 = n_2 = n$  and  $t_{li} = i/n_l$  for  $l = 1, 2$ .

Similar asymptotic results can be obtained for other tests, for instance, considering the variance difference test in (8), with corresponding test statistic

$$T_{3N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} (Y_{li} - \widehat{m}(t_{li}))^2 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{l=1}^L n_l \widehat{\sigma}_l^2,$$

where  $\widehat{\sigma}_l^2 = n_l^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} (Y_{li} - \widehat{m}_l(t_{li}))^2$ . An ANOVA-type test statistic such as

$$T_N^{\text{ANOVA}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} (\widehat{m}(t_{li}) - \widehat{m}_l(t_{li}))^2$$

is also an alternative. Asymptotic results can also be derived studying the behavior of  $U$ -statistics with kernels changing with the sample size.

Suppose that there is a common covariate  $X$  for two groups (with  $n_1 = n_2 = n$ ), that is, the samples are observed from  $(X, Y^1)$  and  $(X, Y^2)$ , and the goal is to test if

$$H_0 : \mathbb{E}(Y^1 | X = x) = \mathbb{E}(Y^2 | X = x), \quad \forall x \in I \subset \mathbb{R},$$

$I$  being any subinterval in  $\mathbb{R}$ . This is equivalent to test  $H_0 : \mathbb{E}(Y^1 - Y^2 | X = x) = 0$ , for all  $x \in I$ . The empirical regression process for this case can be built as

$$\alpha_N(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x) (Y_i^1 - Y_i^2),$$

which has an asymptotic Gaussian limit process. The different class of tests can be obtained as continuous functionals of this process. See Delgado (1993) or, more recently, Ferreira and Stute (2004) for dependent data.

However, the covariates in each group can be different and random, so a more general test can be built on the following empirical regression process:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\alpha}_N(x) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} f_{1i} \mathbb{I}(X_{1i} \leq x) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} f_{2i} \mathbb{I}(X_{2i} \leq x), \quad \text{with} \\ f_{li} &= \frac{N}{n_l} \frac{Y_{li} - \widehat{m}(X_{li})}{\widehat{f}_l(X_{li})}, \end{aligned}$$

for  $l = 1, 2$  and  $i = 1, \dots, n_l$ ,  $\widehat{f}_l$  being the corresponding kernel density estimator for the covariate (see Neumeyer and Dette 2003).

In more recent papers, there are more complex testing procedures, for instance, comparing autoregressive time series models. Consider  $\{X_t\}, \{Y_t\}$  two location-scale time series:

$$\begin{aligned} X_t &= m_1(X_{t-1}, \dots, X_{t-k}) + \sigma_1(X_{t-1}, \dots, X_{t-k})\varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n_1, \\ Y_t &= m_2(Y_{t-1}, \dots, Y_{t-k}) + \sigma_2(Y_{t-1}, \dots, Y_{t-k})\eta_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n_2, \end{aligned}$$

with  $\varepsilon_t$  and  $\eta_t$  zero-mean innovations. The testing problem  $H_0 : m_1 = m_2$  is studied in Dette and Weissbach (2009).

Finally, the empirical distribution of the residuals can also be used for comparing regression curves. Consider again a location-scale regression model

$$Y_l = m_l(X_l) + \sigma_l(X_l)\varepsilon_l, \quad l = 1, \dots, L$$

with a random sample  $\{(X_{li}, Y_{li})\}_{i=1, \dots, n_l}$ , for  $l = 1, \dots, L$ . Testing the equality of the regression curves in the  $L$  groups can be done by comparing the empirical distribution of the residuals

$$\widehat{F}_{\varepsilon_l}(y) = \frac{1}{n_l} \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} \mathbb{I}\left(\frac{Y_{li} - \widehat{m}_l(X_{li})}{\widehat{\sigma}_l(X_{li})} \leq y\right)$$

with the corresponding estimators under the null hypothesis

$$\widehat{F}_{\varepsilon_{l0}}(y) = \frac{1}{n_l} \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} \mathbb{I}\left(\frac{Y_{li} - \widehat{m}(X_{li})}{\widehat{\sigma}_l(X_{li})} \leq y\right),$$

with  $\widehat{m}_l, \widehat{\sigma}_l$  the Nadaraya–Watson estimators for the regression and variance functions in each group and  $\widehat{m}$  the estimator under  $H_0 : m_1 = \dots = m_L$ , with the whole sample. Based on the empirical process  $\alpha_l(y) = n_l^{1/2}(\widehat{F}_{\varepsilon_l}(y) - \widehat{F}_{\varepsilon_{l0}}(y))$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, L$ , the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Cramér–von Mises tests can be constructed as

$$T_{\text{NKS}} = \sum_{l=1}^L \sup_y |\alpha_l(y)|, \quad T_{\text{NCM}} = \sum_{l=1}^L \int \alpha_l^2(y) d\widehat{F}_{\varepsilon_{l0}}(y).$$

See Pardo-Fernández et al. (2007b) for details on these tests. See also Pardo-Fernández (2007) for tests on the equality of the error distributions, extending the work by Mora (2005) for linear  $m$  and Pardo-Fernández and Van Keilegom (2006) for the equality of regression curves with censored response. The use of the SiZer exploratory tool is illustrated in Park and Kang (2008).

From any of the three previous testing approaches (based on smoothing methods, on empirical processes or on the empirical distribution of the residuals), a resampling calibration procedure is required. In Vilar-Fernández et al. (2007), a comparative review of different bootstrap methods for fixed design and correlated errors is provided.

The problem of comparing nonparametric regression curves has been previously considered by Hall and Hart (1990), who proposed a bootstrap test and by Härdle and Marron (1990). A test for the equality of two regression curves has been proposed by King et al. (1991) based on the difference between linear but nonparametric estimators. Srihera and Stute (2010) based their approach on a weighted comparison of nonparametric estimators. Nonparametric analysis of covariance has been initially performed by Young and Bowman (1995). Dette and Neumeyer (2001) discussed different procedures for testing the equality of a collection of regression curves. Munk and Dette (1998) develop exact and asymptotic theory for comparing regression functions whereas Munk et al. (2007) extended the results for inhomogeneous and heteroskedastic errors. See also Neumeyer and Sperlich (2006) for an example where calibration must be done via subsampling. The comparison of regression curves using quasi-residuals was studied by Kulasekera (1995), who also considered the problem of smoothing parameter selection for maximizing the power of the test (see Kulasekera and Wang 1997, 1998). The problem of unbalanced groups has been considered by Munk and Dette (1998) and by Lavergne (2001). Munk and Dette (1998) and Hall et al. (1997) have been also concerned with the implications of different regressors designs and variation among covariates. More recently, Lin and Kulasekera (2010) addressed the comparison of nonparametric regression curves for single index models.

The comparison of regression curves can be useful in other contexts such as time series (see Dette and Paparoditis 2009) or spatio-temporal models, allowing for a comparison of correlation structures from the spectral domain. Based on the periodogram representation (36) Crujeiras et al. (2007, 2008) proceeded to the comparison of spatial spectral density by means of an  $L^2$  distance.

## 8 Some recent directions

Just to finish this survey, some advances in random effects models, quantile, and functional regression will be presented. For each scenario, some of the current challenges in the development of GoF tests will be briefly discussed.

### 8.1 Testing regression models with random effects

Consider a regression model

$$\mathcal{H}(\mathbb{E}(Y_{li}|u_l, T_{li}, X_{li})) = m(T_{li}) + X_{li}^l \beta + Z_{li}^l u_l, \quad \text{where } l = 1, \dots, L \quad (46)$$

denotes the number of sample subgroups,  $n_l$  is the sample size in each of them ( $N = \sum_{l=1}^L n_l$ ) and  $\{(Y_{li}, X_{li}, Z_{li}, T_{li})\}_{i=1}^{n_l}$  are the corresponding observations in each group, with dimension  $(1 + p + r + q)$ ,  $X_{li}$  and  $Z_{li}$  being observable with  $Z_{li} \subseteq (1, X_{li})^t$ . In (46),  $\{u_l\}_{l=1}^L$  represents the (independent) random effects,  $Y_{li}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n_l$ ) are conditionally independent given  $(u_l, T_{li}, X_{li})$  and  $\Sigma_u$  is the covariance matrix for the random effects. Finally,  $\mathcal{H}$  denotes the link function, which is usually unknown.

For instance, Pan and Lin (2005) considered the case  $m(T) = 0$  and test the hypothesis (46) with empirical regression processes. In Henderson et al. (2008), testing of the randomness of  $u_d$  with kernel smoothing, for  $Z_{li} = 1$ , was considered. See also Lombardía and Sperlich (2008) for tests about  $m$  extending the works by Härdle et al. (1998) and Müller (2001) to the random effects context. Sperlich and Lombardía (2010) adapted the previous study to random effects in small areas, with local polynomial smoothing. Based on the empirical distribution of the residuals, see Sánchez et al. (2009) and Meintanis and Portnoy (2011) for a test on the random effect of  $u_l$  based on the characteristic function of the residuals.

Calibration of the test statistics distribution for random effects model poses some challenges, given that in the resampling process, not only the error distribution must be taken into account, but also the random effect involved in the model.

### 8.2 Testing about quantile functions

Until now, this review has considered a regression function as  $m(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = x)$  with  $m(x) = \hat{a}$  such that  $\hat{a} = \arg \min_a \mathbb{E}((Y - a)^2|X = x)$ . However, the interest may be focused on the quantile function

$$Q_p(x) = \inf\{y|F(y|X = x) \geq p\}, \quad p \in (0, 1)$$

which results from minimizing  $\mathbb{E}(\rho_p(y - a) - \rho_p(y)|X = x)$ , with  $\rho_p(\varepsilon) = p\varepsilon^+ + (1 - p)\varepsilon^-$ ,  $\varepsilon^+$  and  $\varepsilon^-$  being the positive and negative parts of  $\varepsilon$ , respectively (see Koenker and Basset 1978). Under continuity of the conditional distribution, it can be seen that  $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}(Y \leq Q_p(X))|X = x) = p$ , motivating the development of GoF tests for the conditional  $p$ -quantile function. Setting the model under the null hypothesis as

$$H_0 : Y_i = Q_p(X_i) + u_i = m(X_i, \theta_0) + u_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \tag{47}$$

for a random sample  $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  with  $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^q$  and with the conditional quantile of  $u_i$  given  $x_i$  as  $Q_p(x_i) = m_{\theta_0}(x_i)$ , it can be proved that (47) can be equivalently written as  $H_0 : \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}(Y_i \leq m_{\theta_0}(X_i))|X_i) = p$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Hence, taking  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{i0} = \mathbb{I}(Y_i \leq m_{\hat{\theta}}(X_i)) - p$ , Zheng (1998) extended the test statistic (7) to this context. Quite recently, Wang (2008) adapted the procedure for censored response. An adaptative optimal rate for  $p = 0.5$  was given by Horowitz and Spokoiny (2002).

He and Zhu (2003) consider the alternative based on empirical processes, taking

$$\alpha_n^p(t) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^n \Psi(\varepsilon_j) X_j \mathbb{I}(X_j \leq t),$$

as an empirical process generator for linearity tests on  $Q_p(x)$ , where  $\Psi(r) = p\mathbb{I}(r > 0) + (p - 1)\mathbb{I}(r < 0)$  and  $\varepsilon_i = (Y_i - \hat{\theta}^t X_i)$ . More recently, based on the proposal in Härdle and Mammen (1993) but applying Jackknife bias reduction methods on the local kernel estimator of the quantile function, Zhou (2010) extended the theory of this type of tests to nonstationary time series. See also Escanciano and Velasco (2010) for generalizations of the empirical process approach to dependent data for dynamic quantile functions. Finally, for comparisons between quantile curves, see Sun (2006) and Dette et al. (2011).

There is a quite extensive literature in quantile regression estimation, and more contributions are expected briefly. There is still advantage to take from the extension and adaptation of quantile regression to other settings, such as those dealing with incomplete information or complex data.

### 8.3 Testing with functional data

Functional data analysis (FDA) has deserved an increasing attention in this last decade, specially motivated by the practical needs derived from dealing with high-dimensional data (see Ramsay and Silverman 2005 and Ferraty and Vieu 2006). Among the techniques, both exploratory and inferential, gathered under the FDA framework, regression models with functional regressors and (possibly) functional response have been also introduced. Consider the functional regression model

$$Y(t) = m(t, \eta(Z)) + \varepsilon(t),$$

where  $Y$  is a function response variable with  $t \in \mathcal{T}$  an interval and  $\eta$  is a function of the covariate  $Z$  that may also be functional, and

$$\mathbb{E}(Y(t)) = \mathbb{E}(m(t, \eta(Z))) = \mu_Y(t), \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon(t)) = 0.$$

Although there are several works on the estimation of this model (see Ferraty and Romain 2010 for a recent handbook), the literature concerning GoF tests is scarce. Cuesta-Albertos et al. (2007) obtained some results on GoF for the distribution of functional variables and Chiou and Muller (2007) developed some tests based on functional residuals,  $R(t) = Y(t) - \hat{Y}(t)$ ,  $t \in \mathcal{T}$ , with the linear functional model (with functional response) as a particular case:

$$Y(t) = \mu_Y(t) + \int_{\mathcal{J}} \beta(s, t)(Z(s) - \mu_Z(s)) ds,$$

$\mathcal{J}$  being the set of indices characterizing the functional data  $Z$ .

In Bücher et al. (2011), the authors state some tests for a fixed design model with covariates in the unit interval, extending the tests developed by Dette (1999) for scalar response.

Following some of the ideas of Ferraty and Vieu (2006), considering pseudometrics for measuring distances between functional data, the test proposed by Härdle and Mammen (1993) was adapted by Delsol et al. (2011a, 2011b) for the scalar response



model  $Y = m(Z) + \varepsilon$  ( $Z$  being a functional covariate), taking as test statistic

$$T_n = \int \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \widehat{m}_{H_0}(Z_i)) K \left( \frac{d(z, Z_i)}{h} \right) \right)^2 \omega(z) dP_Z(z),$$

$d$  being a pseudometric,  $K$  a kernel and  $P_Z$  the probability measure over the functional space of the covariate.

Some of the challenges in testing for FDA is the extension of empirical processes based GoF tests given that, in this setting, empirical processes will be indexed on an infinite-dimensional space.

This brief section is just an example of some of the ongoing GoF tests research in different statistical areas. It can be clearly seen how the developments on GoF methods for regression have been adapted to other settings, deserving also attention in the analysis of other characteristic curves, such as ROC curves, or with other data scenarios, such as directional data. In addition, some advances on statistical inference for GoF have been also made in order to obtain robustified tests. Although a complete and detailed review of all the contributions on GoF literature, specially the most recent ones, is beyond our means, we hope that this review will provide some insights on GoF tests for regression and their adaptability to other contexts.

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