Robust Unit Root and Cointegration Rank Tests for Panels and Large Systems *

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Abstract: This study develops new tests for unit roots and cointegration rank in heterogeneous time series panels using methods that are robust to the presence of both incidental trends and dynamic cross sectional dependency of unknown form. Furthermore, the procedures do not require a choice of lag truncation or bandwidth to accommodate higher order serial correlation. The cointegration rank tests can also be implemented in relatively large dimensioned systems of equations for which conventional VECM based tests become infeasible. Monte Carlo simulations demonstrate that the procedures have high power and good size properties even in panels with relatively small dimensions.

Keywords: Panel Unit Roots, Cointegration Rank Tests, Robust Autocovariance Estimation

JEL Classifications: C22, C23.

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1. Introduction

This study develops new unit root and cointegration rank tests for time series panels that are robust to a number of important features, including heterogeneous dynamics, incidental trends and cross sectional dependency of unknown form, including the possibility of cross sectional dependency in the form of cointegrating relationships that run across the individual members of the panel. We show that the tests have good finite sample size properties and strong power even in the presence of incidental trends. Another important practical feature, particularly for the cointegration rank tests, is that they can be implemented in panels with relatively large cross sectional dimensions, or equivalently in large systems of equations, without the need to restrict the form of cross sectional or cross equation dependencies. This is an attractive feature relative to panel VECM based approaches, which either are limited to panels with very limited cross sectional dimensions, or else require very strong restrictions on the form of permissible cross sectional dependencies. All of the tests are simple to implement, and each of the tests that we present in this study is able to accommodate higher order serial correlation that varies across individual members of the panel without the need to choose lag truncations or bandwidths.

The analytic results of this paper are presented in three main sections. The first section examines the properties of untruncated kernel based estimators for unit root tests in panels with heterogeneous dynamics. In doing so, we first set aside issues of cross sectional dependency and incidental trends in order to focus on the performance of tests that use all available sample autocovariances. In the conventional time series case, although HAC estimators without truncation are asymptotically invariant to nuisance parameters and can be used for testing as demonstrated in Kiefer and Vogelsang (2002), they are inconsistent in the sense that they do not
converge to the true long run variance. In this paper we demonstrate that in the panel context a transformation of such an estimator also becomes consistent as the panel dimensions grows large. A practical consequence of this is that the limiting distributions for the panel test statistics become standard normal even when no truncation is used for the kernel. We study the properties of two such tests, one based on an unweighted pooled variance ratio test, and the other based on a weighted pooled variance ratio test.

The next section expands on this idea by developing tests that use all available sample autocovariances and are robust to the presence of incidental trends and cross sectional dependency. The first of these can be thought of as a multivariate version of the J-test, first introduced in Park (1990) and Park and Choi (1988). The second of these can be thought of as analogous to a multivariate version of a unit root test first studied in Breitung (2002). We demonstrate that a multivariate trace statistic based on these two types of tests perform well and retain strong power in the presence of incidental trends in small samples. This is an important advance relative to earlier panel unit root tests, since many such tests have very low power when incidental trends are included. Finally, we show analytically that the tests are invariant to the presence of dynamic short run cross sectional dependency, and illustrate by Monte Carlo simulation that they have good size properties in small samples with cross sectional dependency.

In the next section, section 4, we also investigate the properties of these tests when cointegration is present across the individual members of the panels. Specifically, we show how the tests can be used to test for the rank of a panel or a large system of equations in a way that is robust to the presence of incidental trends and cross sectional dependency of unknown form. Most importantly, we show that these tests are feasible and perform well even when the cross
sectional dimension is fairly large. This is very important in practice, because existing rank tests based on maximum likelihood methods for VECMs either require strong restrictions on the type of cross sectional dependency or else quickly become infeasible in the absence of such restrictions as the cross sectional dimension becomes large.

Finally, in section 5 we investigate the small sample properties of each of these tests by way of some preliminary Monte Carlo simulations, and section 6 offers some concluding remarks. The mathematical proofs for each of the propositions in sections 2 through 4 are collected in the technical appendix. The remainder of this introductory section briefly discusses some of the other related literature on panel unit roots.

1.1 Related Literature

The literature on testing for unit roots in panels has expanded dramatically in the last decade. Early unit root studies that dealt with the case of panels with common homogeneous dynamics include Breitung and Meyer (1994), Quah (1994). Later studies that permitted heterogenous dynamics in the higher order serial correlation in panel unit root tests included the works of Levin, Lin and Chu (2002) and Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003). The Levin, Lin and Chu tests included both semi-parametric versions and ADF parametric versions of the tests. Im, Pesaran and Shin used only parametric ADF style tests, but permitted the autoregressive root to vary under the stationary alternative. All of the parametric based tests require the serial correlation to be fitted individually for each member of the panel, which involves the choice of a finite truncation value. All of the semiparametric tests require a bandwidth choice that truncates the number of autocovariances that are estimated.
Versions of each of these tests were also constructed to allow for incidental trends. But as Breitung (2000) points out, in practice these tests tend to have very little or almost no power when incidental trends are estimated. Each of these tests were also constructed under the assumption of independence across members of the panel. More recently, many different approaches have been proposed to deal with the issue of cross sectional dependence in panel unit root tests, though none of these deal with the issue of low power in the presence of incidental trends. For example, Chang (2004) studies a bootstrap approach that conditions on the estimated cross sectional dependency to compute appropriate critical values. Chang (2002) examines the use of nonlinear instrumental variables to render the panel statistics asymptotically invariant to cross sectional dependency. Another line of research has attempted to model the cross sectional dependency in the form of a low dimensional common factor model, which is estimated and conditioned out prior to construction of the panel unit root test. Examples of this approach include Bai and Ng (2004), Moon and Perron (2004) and Phillips and Sul (2003) as well as the related approach of Pesaran (2004). Finally in the context of cointegration, another approach has been through the judicious use of restrictions in maximum likelihood estimation of VECM systems. Examples of this approach include Larsson, R., J. Lyhagen, and M. Löthgren (2001), Groen and Kleibergen (2002) as well as others. Recent Monte Carlo studies of the role of cross member cointegration includes Banerjee, Marcellino and Osbat (2004) and Gengenbach, Urbain and Palm (2004). For recent reviews of the literature we refer readers to Harris and Solis (2003) and Pedroni and Urbain (2005). Earlier reviews include Banerjee (1999), Baltagi and Kao (2000) and Phillips and Moon (2000).
2. Robust panel unit root tests with untruncated kernels and the treatment of cross-sectional heterogeneity.

A basic premise for the use of panel unit root tests is that there may be some commonality related to the hypothesis of interest that runs across members of the panel which can be exploited by the use of panel based tests. In some cases, this may be as simple as positing that under the null hypothesis all members of the panel follow a unit root process, while under the alternative hypothesis all members of the panel follow a stationary processes. In other cases, the unit root properties of the panel may be mixed, and one is interested to know under the null hypothesis whether most of the members follow a unit root process as compared to the alternative hypothesis that a substantial fraction follow stationary processes. Under either scenario, the idea is that by pooling the information regarding the null hypothesis, one can construct tests that have high power even when the time series dimension is small enough such that traditional single time series tests for unit roots tend to have unacceptably low small sample power.

However, an important complicating issue for this strategy is that unit root tests must typically be constructed in a manner that makes them invariant to a host of other features of the data that can impact the distributional properties of the tests but that are not directly relevant for the hypothesis of interest. A prime example of such features are the unknown higher order serial correlation properties of the data. In order to ensure that the limiting distributions of the tests statistics do not contain nuisance parameters associated with these unknown features, the dynamics associated with the serial correlation must either be modeled and estimated parametrically or must be accommodated by nonparametric estimation of the associated moments.
In a panel setting, there is the added complication that these unknown features of the data typically differ across members of the panel, so that they must be dealt with in a way that accounts for the cross sectional heterogeneity.

The standard approach to account for this heterogeneity is to treat the higher order serial correlation as a member specific process and construct the tests accordingly. When the serial correlation is modeled parametrically, this typically involves fitting lagged differences individually for each member of the panel prior to constructing the panel statistic. This is the approach taken for the ADF style panel unit tests studied in Levin, Lin and Chu (2002) and Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003). Similarly, when the serial correlation is accommodated nonparametrically, this typically involves estimating autocovariances individually for each member of the panel using kernel estimators prior to construction of the panel statistic. This is the approach used for example in the Phillips-Perron style panel unit root tests studied in Levin, Lin and Chu (2002).

2.1 An example of the usual treatment of heterogeneity in panel unit root tests

Standard asymptotic theory indicates that if a sufficient number of lag differences are fitted, or a sufficiently large number of autocovariances are estimated, then the limiting distributions will be invariant to nuisance parameters associated with the higher order serial correlation as the sample size grows. However, for finite samples one must invariably make a choice of how many lagged differences to estimate or how many autocovariances to estimate and in practice test results can become sensitive to these choices. The issue of lag truncation and bandwidth selection is not unique to panels, and is well known in the standard time series
literature. The complication introduced in the panel setting is that when the serial correlation properties are heterogeneous across the panel, this choice must be made not just once. Instead, the number of times the choice must be made is multiplied over the cross sectional dimension of the panel. The practical result is that the sensitivity to this choice can become even greater as the cross sectional dimension of the panel increases, particularly considering that panel tests are often performed in situations when the individual series are substantially shorter than in the conventional single time series case.

To illustrate this point, consider how one of the more popular panel unit root tests, the group mean t-statistic from Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) is implemented when the serial correlation properties are heterogeneous across members of the panel. Specifically, the data generating process characterized as

\[ \Delta y_{it} = \rho_i y_{i,t-1} + \epsilon_{it} \]

for \( t = 1, \ldots, T; \ i = 1, \ldots, N \) where \( \epsilon_{it} \sim I(0) \) is assumed to be a stationary process for each member \( i \), subject to the usual regularity conditions required for the functional central limit theorem to apply to the partial sums. In general, there is nothing which restricts the stationary process for \( \epsilon_{it} \) to be the same across members of the panel. Therefore, under the simple null hypothesis of a unit root for each member of the panel, \( H_o: \rho_i = 0 \) for all \( i \), we would like to pool only the information pertinent to \( \rho_i \) while allowing the serial correlation features of \( \epsilon_{it} \) to vary among individual members of the panel. To account for this, the \( \epsilon_{it} \) are modeled parametrically as an \( AR(K_i) \) process so that for each member \( i \), the standard ADF regression is fitted such that
where the truncation value \( K_i \) is chosen to be large enough to render \( \eta_{it} \) white noise for each member \( i \). The individual OLS based t-statistic, \( t_{pi} \), is computed for each member of the panel for the null hypothesis \( H_0: \rho_i = 0 \), and these are then used to construct the group mean t-ratio, \( \bar{t}_\rho = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} t_{pi} \). The final group mean t-statistic for the panel is then computed as

\[
Z_{NT} = \sqrt{N/\nu} (\bar{t}_\rho - \mu)
\]

where \( \mu = \mathbb{E}[t_{\rho,i}] \) and \( \nu = \text{Var}[t_{\rho,i}] \) both evaluated under the null hypothesis when \( \rho_i = 0 \).

Assuming the individual members of the panel are independent of one another, then the limiting distribution under the null hypothesis \( H_0: \rho_i = 0 \) for each \( i \), \( Z_{NT} \Rightarrow N(0,1) \) as \( (T,N)_{\text{seq}} \to \infty \), while under the alternative \( H_1: \rho_i < 0 \) for each \( i \), \( Z_{NT} \to -\infty \) so that the test is left tailed, analogous to the conventional single time series ADF test.

Asymptotically, the values for \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) are invariant to the choice of \( K_i \) and can be simulated. So as long as the time series dimension, \( T \), is long enough so that one can choose a sufficiently large value of \( K_i \), implementation of the test is fairly straightforward. In short panels, however, the issue is not so straightforward. Even if one is able to successfully accommodate the serial correlation, the use of asymptotic values for \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) can result in small sample size distortion. To partially alleviate this problem, Im, Pesaran and Shin simulate approximations for \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) that apply for shorter \( T \) samples. The difficulty, however, is that once one deviates from large \( T \) asymptotics, appropriate values for \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) are no longer invariant to the serial
correlation properties of the data, nor to the truncation values for $K_t$. Consequently, Im, Pesaran and Shin simulate these values not only for different values of $T$, but also for different values of $K_t$. When $K_t$ differs potentially for each member of the panel, this makes for a lot of different values for $\mu$ and $\nu$ depending on the various choices of $K_t$. More importantly, for finite samples, the values for $\mu$ and $\nu$ depend on not only on the truncation values for the various $K_t$, but also on the true serial correlation properties of the data. Since these are unknown, the reported values for $\mu$ and $\nu$ for finite samples must be approximated for an arbitrary DGP. Im, Pesaran and Shin choose to report the values for the case in which the true DGP is i.i.d. white noise. Another solution might be to construct a bootstrap test that uses values for $\mu$ and $\nu$ conditioned not only on the sample size and lag truncation choices, but also on the fitted coefficients for the higher order serial correlation.

Needless to say, this becomes a fairly involved procedure. More importantly, it becomes clear that test results hinge in part on the decisions that are made regarding the truncation values, particularly in the types of short spans of data for which panel tests are designed. As any practitioner quickly comes to realize, empirical results are often very sensitive to the choices that one makes with regard to the truncation values. We use the Im, Pesaran and Shin test as an illustration, but the issue applies to virtually any test that must estimate nuisance parameters and that faces a finite sample truncation choice in the estimation or elimination of these nuisance parameters. For example, semi-parametric panel unit root tests that attempt to estimate the nuisance parameters that enter into the limiting distribution using conventional nonparametric kernel estimators simply transfer the choice of lag truncation to one of choosing the truncation for the number of autocovariances to estimate for the kernel.
2.2 New panel unit root tests based on untruncated kernels

By contrast, the tests that we propose in this paper entirely avoid this problem. The first two tests that we consider are based on robust heteroskedasticity autocorrelation estimation techniques that use the full untruncated sample of autocovariances. It is well known in the time series literature that kernel estimators without truncation do not produce consistent estimates of the long run variance, which typically enters into the limiting distribution. Instead, most popular HAC estimators truncate the autocovariances in order to ensure consistent estimation of the long run variance. However, as Keifer and Vogelsang (2002) and Kiefer, Vogelsang and Brunzel (2000) demonstrate, this does not preclude the use of untruncated kernel estimators for the testing of hypothesis that use limiting distributions that contain the long run variance as a nuisance parameter. This is because the untruncated HAC estimator produces an estimate that is proportional to the true long run covariance, where the proportionality is given by a random variable with a known distribution that is nuisance parameter free. Consequently, the nuisance parameter can be eliminated from the limiting distribution, and the consequence of using the untruncated HAC estimator is simply to contribute additional randomness, thereby widening the tails of the distribution. The new distribution can be simulated, and since it is invariant to the presence of unknown serial correlation, it can be used as a robust test.

The first two tests that we propose in this paper rely on a similar approach in that they use an untruncated HAC estimator. However, an important difference in the panel setting is that a simple transformation of the untruncated HAC estimator becomes a consistent estimator for the true long run variance. This occurs because as the cross sectional dimension grows large for the
panel, the random proportionality converges to a constant. Since the constant is known and is
determined by the mean of the random variable that relates the proportionality between the
untruncated HAC estimator and the true long run variance, it is possible to construct a
transformation of the estimator that converges to the true long run variance. We use this principle
to construct unit root tests that employ untruncated HAC estimators which use all of the
autocovariances available in the sample. This allows us to construct tests which do not require a
choice of truncation but which are nevertheless invariant to the presence of higher order serial
correlation that is heterogenous across members of the panel.

The specific form of the tests is straightforward, and can be interpreted as a simple
variance ratio test based on the untruncated kernel estimate of the long run variance. There are
two such tests that we consider. The first can be interpreted as an unweighted variance ratio test,
and the second can be interpreted as a weighted variance ratio test. Both of these are based on
the ratio of the simple variance of the series to the untruncated kernel estimator that uses all
available sample autocovariances of the series. Any one of a number of estimators can be used
for the untruncated kernel, but the simplest of these is based on the well known Bartlett kernel.
Specifically, let \( \hat{\gamma}_{ij} = \frac{T}{T-1} \sum_{t=j+1}^{T} y_{it} y_{it-j} \) be the \( j^{th} \) autocovariance for the series \( y_{it} \) for member \( i \) of
the panel. Then the untruncated Bartlett kernel for the \( i^{th} \) member of the panel
takes the form \( \delta_i^2 = \sum_{j=(T-1)}^{T-1} \left( 1 - \frac{|j|}{T} \right) \hat{\gamma}_{ij} \). If we let \( \delta_{NT}^2 = NT^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i^2 \) be the cross sectional
average of these untruncated Bartlet kernel estimators, then the unweighted pooled variance ratio
statistic can be constructed by comparing the ratio of the cross sectional average of the individual
variances, \( \hat{\gamma}_{i0} = \frac{T}{T-1} \sum_{t=j+1}^{T} y_{it}^2 \), to the average of the untruncated Bartlett kernel. By comparison,
the weighted pooled variance ratio statistic is constructed by averaging the individual member
ratios of \( \hat{\sigma}^2_{10} \) to \( \delta_i^2 \). The precise form of the statistics is given as follows:

**Definition 1:** Consider a panel of demeaned time series \( \tilde{y}_{it} = y_{it} - \overline{y}_i \) for \( t = 1, \ldots, T \), \( i = 1, \ldots, N \), where \( \overline{y}_i = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_{it} \). Let \( \hat{q}_{ij} = T^{-1} \sum_{t=j+1}^{T} \tilde{y}_{it} \tilde{y}_{it-j} \) be the \( j \)th autocovariance for the series \( y_{it} \) for member \( i \), so that the untruncated Bartlett kernel estimator is defined as

\[
\delta_i^2 = \sum_{j=-\lfloor (T-1)/2 \rfloor}^{\lfloor (T-1)/2 \rfloor} \left( 1 - \frac{|j|}{T} \right) \hat{q}_{ij}.
\]

Then the weighted and unweighted panel unit root variance ratio statistics are defined as follows:

\[
z_{NT}^u = TN^{-1} \delta_{NT}^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\sigma}^2_{i0} \quad \text{"unweighted" pooled variance ratio}
\]

\[
z_{NT}^w = TN^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i^{-2} \hat{\sigma}^2_{i0} \quad \text{"weighted" pooled variance ratio}
\]

where \( \delta_{NT}^2 = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i^2 \) is the cross sectional average of the untruncated Bartlett kernel estimators and \( \hat{\sigma}^2_{i0} = T^{-1} \sum_{t=j+1}^{T} \tilde{y}_{it}^2 \) is the standard variance of \( y_{it} \) for member \( i \).

Since the limiting distributions for both \( \hat{\sigma}^2_{i0} \) and \( \delta_i^2 \) contain the long run variance as a nuisance parameter, the two cancel out in the ratio and the limiting distribution for the statistics become free of this nuisance parameters. A straightforward standardization of the pooled ratios produces standard normal limiting distributions. The results are summarized in the following proposition.
Proposition 1. Consider the data generating process \( \Delta y_{it} = \rho_i y_{i,t-1} + e_{it} \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, T \), \( i = 1, \ldots, N \) where \( e_{it} \) are independent across \( i \) and are subject to standard regularity conditions such that for the partial sums, \( T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_{it} \Rightarrow \sigma_i \mathcal{W}_i(r) \) as \( T \to \infty \) for \( \mathbb{E} [0,1] \), and where the \( \mathcal{W}_i(r) \) are independent standard Wiener processes, taken to be defined on the same probability space for all \( i \) and where \( \sigma_i^2 = \lim_{T \to \infty} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \sum_{t=2}^{T} e_{it} \right)^2 \right] \) is defined as the long run variance of \( e_{it} \) for member \( i \). Furthermore, let \( \Upsilon_i = \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{W}_i(r)^2 dr, 2 \int_0^1 \tilde{Q}_i(r)^2 dr \right) \) where \( \tilde{W}_i(r) = W_i(r) - \int_0^1 W_i(r) \) is demeaned Brownian motion and \( \tilde{Q}_i(r) = \int_{r=0}^{r} \tilde{W}_i(s) ds \), and let \( E[\Upsilon] = \Theta \) and \( \text{var}[\Upsilon] = \Psi \). Then under the null hypothesis \( H_0: \rho_i = 0 \) for each \( i \),

\[
\sqrt{N/v_1} (Z_{NT}^u - \mu_1) \Rightarrow N(0,1)
\]

\[
\sqrt{N/v_2} (Z_{NT}^w - \mu_2) \Rightarrow N(0,1)
\]

as \( (T,N) \to \infty \), where \( \mu_1 = \Theta_1 \Theta_2^{-1} \), \( v_1 = \Theta_2^{-2} \psi_1 - \Theta_1^{-2} \Theta_2^{-4} \psi_2 - 2 \Theta_1 \Theta_2^{-3} \psi_{12} \) and where

\[
\mu_2 = E[\Upsilon_2^{-1} \Upsilon_1], \quad v_2 = \text{var}[\Upsilon_2^{-1} \Upsilon_1].
\]

Furthermore, under the alternative hypothesis, \( H_a: \rho_i < 0 \) for each \( i \),

\[
\sqrt{N/v_1} (Z_{NT}^u - \mu_1) \to \infty
\]

\[
\sqrt{N/v_2} (Z_{NT}^w - \mu_2) \to \infty
\]

as \( (T,N) \to \infty \).
A more formal proof of the result is sketched in the technical appendix. But it is instructive to consider why these results hold. Specifically, Kiefer and Vogelsang (2002) show that for untruncated kernels in general,

$$\sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} k(j/T) \tilde{\eta}_{ij} \Rightarrow \sigma_i^2 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 k((r-s)B_k(r)B_k(s)drds$$

as $T \to \infty$, where $B_k(r)$ is a Brownian bridge depending on the kernel, $k$. For the special case of the untruncated Bartlett kernel, Kiefer and Vogelsang show that in the presence of a unit root this reduces to

$$T^{-2} \hat{\delta}_i^2 = 2 T^{-2} \sum_{t=1}^T \left( \sum_{j=1}^T \tilde{y}_{ij} \right)^2 \Rightarrow 2 \sigma_i^2 \int_0^1 \bar{Q}_i(r)^2dr$$

as $T \to \infty$, where $Q_i(r) = \int_{s=0}^r \hat{W}_i(s)ds$. The nuisance parameter $\sigma_i^2$ is the same as the nuisance parameter that enters into the standard variance in the presence of a unit root. Specifically in the presence of a unit root the standard variances converges to

$$T^{-1} \gamma_{io} = T^{-2} \sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{y}_{it}^2 \Rightarrow \sigma_i^2 \int_0^1 \bar{W}_i(r)^2dr$$

as $T \to \infty$. Thus, the untruncated Bartlett produces a random variable that is proportional to the nuisance parameter and the nuisance parameter cancels out in the ratio. The result is simply that the additional randomness widens the tails of the distribution. In the panel, as we average these
over the cross sectional dimension, the proportionality goes to a known constant in the limit which depends only on the moments of the corresponding Wiener process functionals. Consequently, one practical consequence of the averaging process is that by standardizing accordingly, the statistics can be made to converge to a standard normal distribution. The values for this standardization, $\mu_1, \mu_2$ and $\nu_1, \nu_2$ depend on the transformations of the asymptotic moments of the underlying functionals of $\mathcal{Y}_i = (\int_0^1 \hat{W}_i(r)^2 dr, 2 \int \hat{Q}_i(r)^2 dr)'$ as indicated in the proposition. To compute these, we simulated the large sample moments of the corresponding functionals for $T=1000$. 

As we show in the Monte Carlo simulations reported in section 4, in general these tests perform remarkably well in terms of small sample size and power performance in relatively modestly dimensioned panels even when there is considerable heterogeneity in the serial correlation properties across members of the panel. In the next section we propose tests which also have the advantage of not requiring the choice of finite sample truncations in the treatment of higher order serial correlation that is potentially heterogeneous across members of the panel. In addition, however, the tests developed in the next section are also designed to be robust to the presence of incidental heterogeneous trends and cross sectional dependence. The tradeoff is that for the tests developed in the next section, in order for the limiting distribution to be a good approximation for the finite sample distribution, we require that the ratio of the $N$ dimension relative to the $T$ dimension be smaller than that required for the tests developed in this section. They nonetheless allow for a much larger $N$ dimension than is typically required for unrestricted parametric based tests that permit cross sectional dependency.
3. **Robust panel unit root tests and the treatment of incidental trends and cross sectional dependency.**

In addition to the issue of sensitivity to lag truncations in the treatment of heterogeneous higher order serial correlation, another important issue in panel unit root tests is the sensitivity to cross sectional dependency and the presence of incidental trends. In this section we present multivariate trace tests which are also robust to each of these issues.

The presence of deterministic trends is an important issue even for conventional single time series unit root tests, because the inclusion of the trend term tends to further reduce the already low power of most unit root tests in small samples. In panels, the problem is potentially much worse since the time series dimensions are typically short and the impact of the trend estimation is not eliminated per se by including the cross sectional dimension. The dilemma stems from the fact that panel techniques are typically implemented for panels whose individual members are much shorter than one would typically use for conventional single time series. This is because the intent of panel techniques is to make up for the lack of power in short time series by exploiting information about the unit root that is available from other members of the panel. However, the problem that the trend term introduces is not eliminated as the $N$ dimension is increased, because with each additional member there is an additional trend term to be estimated. Consequently, power does not necessarily improve much in panels relative to conventional single equation unit root tests when incidental trends are present. In fact, Breitung (2000) noted that for many popular panel unit root tests, including Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) and Levin, Lin and Chu (2002), the power of the tests is very low when incidental trends are included, and in some cases
have almost zero power against local alternatives.

Another important issue that often arises for panel unit root tests is that many of the popular ones are based on the assumption of independence across members of the panel. In practice, much of the correlation can be absorbed by common time effects. However, it is often the case that additional correlation remains. For example, if individual members do not all respond in the same fashion to common disturbances, or if the series for individual members are correlated with one another over time rather than just contemporaneously, then many of the popular panel unit roots tests such as Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) or Levin, Lin and Chu (2002) are no longer valid in the sense that the limiting distributions depend on nuisance parameters associated with these dependencies. Consequently, we also construct the tests presented in this section in a way that ensures that the limiting distributions are invariant to such cross sectional dependency.

In particular, the tests that we present in this section are based on multivariate generalizations of tests that are designed to be robust to the presence of incidental trends, and do not require independence across individual members of the panel. The first test is based on a generalization of the J test studied in Park (1990) and Park and Choi (1988) for the conventional time series case. We refer to the generalized version of the test as the multivariate J-trace statistic. The second test that we introduce in this section is based on a generalization of a test studied in Breitung (2002) for the conventional time series case. We refer to the generalized version of this test as the multivariate B-trace statistic. The latter test is also closely related to the weighted pooled variance ratio test that we studied in the first section of this paper. Specifically, it can be thought of as a multivariate version of the inverse of the pooled variance ratio test that is
designed for the case in which incidental trends are estimated.

For both tests, we construct the sum of squared residuals from two different regressions, one that includes incidental trends, and one that includes the incidental trends plus a higher order polynomial time trend. Specifically, the first regression with incidental trends takes the form

$$y_{it} = \tilde{\alpha}_i + \tilde{\beta}_i t + \tilde{\delta}_{it}$$

which is estimated by OLS individually equation by equation. The second regression with the higher order polynomial trend function takes the form

$$y_{it} = \hat{\alpha}_i + \hat{\beta}_i t + \sum_{j=2}^{p} \hat{\delta}_{ij} t^j + \hat{\delta}_{it}$$

The sum of squared residuals from these are used to construct the multivariate J-trace statistic. For the multivariate B-trace statistic, the sum of the squared partial sums of the residuals from the first regression are used to construct a variance ratio with sum of squared residuals of the second regression. The precise form of the test statistics is given as follows.

\textbf{Definition 2: Consider the OLS regressions}

$$y_{it} = \tilde{\alpha}_i + \tilde{\beta}_i t + \tilde{\delta}_{it}$$

$$y_{it} = \hat{\alpha}_i + \hat{\beta}_i t + \sum_{j=2}^{p} \hat{\delta}_{ij} t^j + \hat{\delta}_{it}$$

done equation by equation for each member of a panel of time series $y_{it}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, T$. 

i = 1, ..., N. Define the partial sums \( \tilde{s}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \tilde{a}_j \), and stack the estimated residuals and partial sums into \( T \times N \) matrices such that \( \tilde{U} = \{ \tilde{a}_{11}, \tilde{a}_{21}, ..., \tilde{a}_{N1} \} \), \( \tilde{U} = \{ \tilde{a}_{12}, \tilde{a}_{22}, ..., \tilde{a}_{N2} \} \), and \( \tilde{S} = \{ \tilde{S}_{11}, \tilde{S}_{21}, ..., \tilde{S}_{N1} \} \). Then the multivariate J-trace statistic and the multivariate B-trace statistic are defined as follows

\[
Z_{NT}^J = \text{tr}[\tilde{U}'\tilde{U} - \tilde{U}'\tilde{U}(\tilde{U}'\tilde{U})^{-1}] \quad \text{- multivariate J-trace statistic}
\]

\[
Z_{NT}^B = \text{tr}[T^{-2}\tilde{S}'\tilde{S}(\tilde{U}'\tilde{U})^{-1}] \quad \text{- multivariate B-trace statistic}
\]

where \( \text{tr}[ \cdot ] \) is the trace operator.

For the special case in which \( N = 1 \), the tests reduce to the conventional single series unit root tests, which are designed to work well in the presence of trends. By constructing the multivariate version of the test and taking the trace, we construct a version of the test that can be used in panels with incidental trends and cross sectional correlation. Specifically, the limiting distributions are invariant to the presence of higher order serial correlation as well as dynamic cross sectional dependence. The results are summarized in the following proposition. Again, a more formal proof of the result is sketched in the technical appendix.

**Proposition 2.** Consider the data generating process \( y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i t + u_{it} \) for \( i = 1, ..., T \), \( t = 1, ..., N \) where \( \Delta u_{it} = \rho_{i} u_{it-1} + e_{it} \). Stack the \( e_{it} \) into an \( N \times 1 \) vector of time series such that \( e_{it} = (e_{1i}, e_{2i}, ..., e_{Ni})' \) and take \( \Delta \) to be subject to standard regularity conditions such that
for the partial sums, \( T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t \rightarrow \Omega^{1/2} \tilde{W}(r) \) as \( T \rightarrow \infty \) for \( \Omega \in [0,1] \), where \( \tilde{W}(r) \) is an \( N \times 1 \) vector of independent standard Wiener processes and where \( \Omega = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} E \left[ \sum_{t=2}^{T} e_t \right] \sum_{t=2}^{T} e_t \) is defined as the long run covariance of \( e_t \), such that \( \Omega \) is positive definite. Then under the null hypothesis \( H_0: \rho_i = 0 \) for each \( i \)

\[
Z_{NT}^J \rightarrow tr \left[ \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr - \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \right)^{-1} \right]
\]

\[
Z_{NT}^B \rightarrow tr \left[ \int_0^1 \tilde{V}(r) \tilde{V}(r)' dr \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{V}(r) \tilde{V}(r)' dr \right)^{-1} \right]
\]

as \( T \rightarrow \infty \) for a given \( N \), where \( \tilde{W}(r) \) denote the residuals of the projection of \( W(r) \) onto the spaces spanned by \( F(r) = (1, r)' \) and \( \tilde{V}(r) = (1, r, r^2, ..., r^P)' \) respectively, and where

\( \tilde{V}(r) = \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(s) ds \). Furthermore, under the alternative hypothesis, \( H_1: \rho_i < 0 \) for each \( i \), \( Z_{NT}^J \sim 0 \) and \( Z_{NT}^B \sim 0 \) as \( T \rightarrow \infty \) for a given \( N \).

Notice that the limiting distributions for these test statistics are nonstandard. Specifically, they depend on the distributions that correspond to the projection of standard Wiener processes onto spaces spanned by polynomials of the Wiener process index, \( r \), that correspond to the polynomials of the time trend. Furthermore, since these are vector processes, the distributions depend on the dimensionality of the vectors, which is determined by the cross sectional dimension of the panel, \( N \). The important point about these distributions, however, is that they are not only invariant to the presence of incidental trends and heterogeneous higher order serial correlation, but that they
are also invariant to dynamic cross sectional dependencies that may be present in the data. This can be seen by virtue of the fact that while the member specific residuals in the vector $e_t$ are linked dynamically via the off-diagonals of the long run covariance matrix $\Omega$, this covariance matrix does not show up in the limiting distribution of the trace statistics. This occurs without the need to directly estimate the nuisance parameters associated with $\Omega$, and holds because the trace operation eliminates any dependencies associated with $\Omega$ in the limiting distribution.

Notice that since $\Omega$ is a long run covariance matrix, the type of cross sectional dependencies that are permitted are much more general than the usual contemporaneous dependency that is considered. For example, provided that $\Omega$ is nonsingular, members of the panel are permitted to depend on each other over time, as one would expect in a more general VECM setting. However, since the parameters need not be estimated, the tests perform very well even when the cross sectional dimension, $N$, is relatively large. This is in sharp contrast to the case in which the parameters are modeled parametrically as one would do for example in a VECM setup, in which case it quickly becomes infeasible to allow such general forms of cross sectional dependency when $N$ becomes even moderately large. In the next section we examine the properties of these tests when $\Omega$ is singular. In section 5 we provide Monte Carlo evidence to demonstrate that these statistics perform well in small samples even in the presence of incidental trends and cross sectional dependency.
4. Robust cointegration rank tests and the treatment of incidental trends and cross-sectional dependency.

The tests developed in the previous section were designed to be robust in the presence of incidental trends and cross-sectional dependency that allowed for very general forms of short run dynamic dependency among the members of the panel. The general form of short run cross-sectional dependency was characterized by an $N \times N$ long run covariance matrix, $\Omega$, that reflected the dynamic dependency among the individuals members of the panel. However, the fact that this was restricted to be non-singular, and thus full rank, excluded the possibility that there were long run cointegrating relationships running across the individual members of the panels. Thus, the dependency was transitory in nature rather than permanent, as would be the case when the individual series are also cointegrated.

This leads us in this section to consider the properties of the tests when the individual members are cointegrated. This is likely to be of substantial importance in practice, since nonstationary panels often contain such cross member cointegrating relationships. In this case, it is natural to ask whether such cointegrating relationships are present, and furthermore whether it is possible to test whether the individual members of the panel are best characterized as being driven by a relatively large or small number of unit root processes that are cointegrated. In a sense, one can ask how many separate unit roots are responsible for determining the long run properties of an $N$ dimensional panel of time series. This is equivalent to testing the rank of the cointegration space that describes the $N$ dimensional panel.

As one might expect, the limiting distributions for a given value $N$ dimension are no longer
appropriate for the multivariate J-trace and B-trace statistics when under the null hypothesis some of the unit roots are no longer asymptotically independent of one another due to the presence of cointegrating relationships. Rather, the appropriate limiting distribution is determined by total number of independent unit roots, hence the rank of the system. This will in general be unknown a priori. However, we can use the fact that the null hypothesis depends on the unknown cointegration rank to our advantage to construct a suitable rank test. The following proposition summarizes this result.

**Proposition 3.** Consider the same data generating process as in proposition 2, except that now $\Omega$ is no longer required to be non-singular, so that the individual member series $\mathcal{D}_t$ are potentially cointegrated with one another. Suppose that $\text{rank}(\Omega) = g$ so that there exist $N - g = h$ cointegrating relationships among the series $\mathbf{y}_t$. Then under the null hypothesis $H_0 : g_o = g$,

$$Z^J_{NT} \Rightarrow \text{tr} \left[ \int_0^1 \tilde{W}_g(r) \tilde{W}_g(r)dr - \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r)dr \right] \left( \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r)dr \right)^{-1}$$

$$Z^B_{NT} \Rightarrow \text{tr} \left[ \int_0^1 \tilde{V}_g(r) \tilde{V}_g(r)^\prime dr - \int_0^1 \hat{V}_g(r) \hat{V}_g(r)^\prime dr \right] \left( \int_0^1 \hat{V}_g(r) \hat{V}_g(r)^\prime dr \right)^{-1}$$

as $T \to \infty$ for a given $N$, where $\tilde{W}_g(r)$, $\hat{W}_g(r)$ denote the residuals of the projection of the $g \times 1$ vector $\mathbf{W}_g(r)$ onto the spaces spanned by $\mathbf{F}(r) = (1, r)^\prime$ and $\mathbf{a}(r) = (1, r, r^2, \ldots, r^p)^\prime$ respectively, and where $\tilde{V}_g(r) = \int_0^1 \tilde{W}_g(s)ds$. Furthermore, under the alternative hypothesis, $H_1 : g_1 > g$. 
as $T \to \infty$ for a given $N$, with analogously defined vectors of dimension $\square_1 \times 1$.

The proof of this result is contained in the technical appendix. Intuitively, the proof works by partitioning the $N$-dimensional panel into its equivalent, but a priori unknown triangular form, with $h$ columns of stationary cointegrating relationships and $g$ columns of nonstationary independent unit roots. The proof then demonstrates that the impact of the partition with the $h$ columns of cointegrating relationships on the null distribution vanishes asymptotically as $T$ grows large for a given $N$. The resulting limiting distribution then depends only $g$ columns of asymptotically independent unit roots, which reveals the number of independent unit roots that drive the long run properties of the panel, or equivalently the rank of the panel.

What is significant about the results is that these tests can easily be implemented even when the panel dimension, $N$, is quite large. This is in stark contrast to unrestricted VECM based approaches, which require the $N$ dimension to be relatively small, even for cases with very long time series. For panels with larger $N$ dimensions, the number of coefficients to be estimated grows too large, and unrestricted VECMs become infeasible. To accommodate this property of VECMs, panel approaches based on VECMs have been required to make fairly strong assumptions on the degree of permissible cross sectional dependence.

By contrast, the approach described here allows for very general forms of cross sectional
dependence, consistent with the level of generality associated with an unrestricted VECM. Yet, the technique can be implemented successfully even when \( N \) becomes as large as 30. The key reason for this is because the nuisance parameters associated with the cross sectional dependency do not need to be estimated, since they are eliminated from the limiting distribution by virtue of the trace operation. In this way, the approach described in this section can also be thought of as a potentially attractive approach to testing for cointegration rank in relatively large systems of equations. In the next section we describe some preliminary small sample Monte Carlo results for each of the tests described in this paper.

5. **Monte Carlo results for small samples.** (preliminary)

In this section we discuss results from some preliminary Monte Carlo experiments regarding the small sample properties of the various test statistics that we have proposed. Among the pooled variance ratio tests described in section 2, the weighted panel variance ratio test performed substantially better in small samples than the unweighted panel variance ratio. So we focus here on presenting some of the small sample Monte Carlo results for the weighted version of the test. First, in Table 1 we report the finite sample size properties when there is higher order serial correlation present that is heterogeneous across members of the panel. Asymptotically, the nuisance parameters are eliminated from the distribution. But for small samples it is helpful to know how large of an impact this feature has on the distribution. To model this heterogeneity we introduced member specific serial correlation under the null hypothesis by including a moving average component with the MA(1) coefficient varied across members of the panel. Specifically,
we drew 10,000 realizations from the data generating process given by

\[ y_{it} = y_{i,t-1} + e_{it}, \quad \text{where} \quad e_{it} = \theta_i \eta_{i,t-1} + \eta_{it}, \]

\[ \theta_i \sim U(0.0, 0.5), \quad \eta_{it} \sim iid \; w.n. \]

so that the heterogeneous moving average coefficient \( \theta_i \) was drawn from a uniform distribution ranging from 0.0 and 0.5. The regressions are estimated with fixed effects, but since the actual presence of a nonzero intercepts plays no role in the distribution, we set the initial conditions to zero and generate the DGP without intercepts. The DGP enables us to introduce a good degree of heterogeneity into the serial correlation process. Unit root tests often run into size distortions problems in the presence of moving average components, but as we can see from Table 1, the tests do fairly well even when the panel dimensions are very modest. The table reports biases, standard errors and empirical sizes for the 2.5% and 5% asymptotic p-value tests for varying panel dimensions running from \( N=10 \) to \( N=30 \) and \( T=10 \) to \( T=100 \). Generally, when the \( T \) dimension is small, the tests are undersized, so that they represent very conservative tests. As the \( T \) dimension grows larger, the empirical sizes come close to the nominal sizes, and only barely become oversized if \( N \) is large relative to \( T \) in this range. Thus, despite the fact that there is considerable cross sectional heterogeneity and no truncation choices were needed to fit the serial correlation, the tests perform well and rejections from the tests can be interpreted as reliable at these significance levels.

The next set of results, presented in Table 2, examine the small sample power of the test
against a stationary alternative. Specifically, we examine the power of the test against the null hypothesis that the series are stationary, but with a very high degree of persistence given by an autoregressive coefficient of 0.95. Thus, for the Table 2, the data generating process is given as

\[ y_{it} = \rho_i y_{i,t-1} + \eta_{it}, \quad \text{where} \quad \rho_i = 0.95, \quad \eta_{it} \sim iid \ w.n. \]

Again, all regressions are estimated with fixed effects. The table reports small sample power at for the 2.5% and 5% nominal tests under the alternative when \( \rho_i = 0.95 \) for all \( i \), for various combinations of the panel dimensions \( N \) and \( T \). With only \( T=100 \) time series observations conventional single time series tests have almost no power to distinguish a unit root against a very persistent stationary process with an autoregressive coefficient so close to unity. Yet for these tests, once cross sectional dimension rises to \( N=30 \), the 5% tests have over 96% power to reject the alternative. Even at \( N=20 \), the same tests have almost 89% power to reject the alternative when \( \rho_i = 0.95 \). Consequently, the tests can be used fairly reliably in realistically dimensioned data sets to reject a unit root even for stationary processes that are very persistent.

The next set of tables report on the small sample properties of the two multivariate trace statistics that are designed for panels with incidental trends and cross sectional dependency. Since both of these test statistics have nonstandard distributions which depend on the cross sectional size, \( N \), of the panel, we first report critical values for each of the tests for various values of \( N \) ranging from \( N=1 \) through \( N=30 \) in columns 1 and 3 of Table 3. These are approximate asymptotic critical values which are generated by simulating the Weiner process projections for large \( T \) samples under the null hypothesis of a unit root. Specifically, we simulated these based on
10,000 draws of i.i.d. series of length $T=1000$, for the various values of $N$. Studies of the J-test for conventional single time series tests in Vogelsang (1998) revealed that empirically the J-test appears to have strongly rising power up until $P=9$ for the polynomial time trend, after which the increments to power dropped off. Consequently, these critical values and all Monte Carlo simulations for the multivariate J-test are reported for the case with $P=9$.

Next, we simulated panels of small sample i.i.d. unit root series with $T=100$ to see how well the asymptotic approximations performed. In columns 2 and 5 we report the corresponding critical values for the finite sample $T$ values. These are systematically higher in value than the asymptotic critical values. This is good news because it implies that the finite sample tests will tend to be undersized rather than oversized in small samples. This implies that the tests will behave as conservative tests, so that the tests under reject rather than over reject. Columns 3 and 6 confirm this and report the finite sample empirical sizes for the nominal 5% tests. It is interesting to note that the tests become increasingly undersized for fixed $T$ as $N$ grows large. This implies that the tests will tend to err on the side of being conservative precisely when they can most afford the luxury, since the power of tests will be increasing as $N$ increases.

Table 4 investigates the small sample power of the tests to reject the null hypothesis when the true process is stationary with an autoregressive coefficient of $\rho_i = 0.9$ for all $i$. Columns 1 and 3 report the raw power of the multivariate J-trace test and the multivariate B-trace test when $T=100$ and $\rho_i = 0.9$ for various sizes of the cross sectional dimension, $N$. With such short time series conventional single time series tests have a difficult time rejecting a unit root against a very persistent stationary process, particularly when a trend is included in the estimation. This is confirmed also for the J test and the B test when $N=1$, and the raw power is around 20% and 17%
respectively. But what is remarkable is that by the time $N=10$, the multivariate J-trace and B-trace statistics that we propose in this study already have over 95% and 84% raw power respectively. By the time $N=15$ the J-trace statistic has almost 99% power and the B-trace statistic has almost 93% power. Finally, since the tests are undersized in small samples, the power is even greater when we take into account the small sample critical values. Thus, columns 2 and 4 report the power of the tests when the critical values from columns 2 and 5 of table 3 are used.

Since these multivariate trace statistics are designed to perform well in the presence of cross sectional dependency, in Table 5 we present the results for the small sample empirical sizes of the tests when the members of the panel are cross sectionally dependent. Specifically, for this case we introduced cross sectional dependency by allowing for a covariance matrix relating the individual members of the panel. We generated the covariance matrix randomly by filling an $N \times N$ matrix $L$ with coefficients drawn randomly from a standard normal. We then computed the $N \times N$ covariance matrix for the panel as $\Omega = LL'$ to ensure that the covariance matrix was positive definite yet had enough variation in the off-diagonal elements to be interesting. We then drew 10,000 realizations of a panel of unit root series of length $T=100$ with the dependencies across the members given by this covariance matrix. Columns 1 and 2 of Table 5 report the small sample empirical sizes for varying values of the cross sectional dimension of the panel, $N$, for this particular form of dependency based on the asymptotic critical values for the nominal 5% tests. Both tests continue to perform well and remain undersized so that they continue to be conservative tests that are reliable even in the presence of cross sectional dependency. Finally, columns 3 and 4 report the empirical sizes for the 5% tests based on the critical values obtained
for the i.i.d. case reported in columns 2 and 5 of table 3. The resulting empirical sizes are close to the nominal sizes of 5% for virtually all values of $N$. This bodes well for using the small $T$ critical values, since it implies that the tests that are designed to be robust to the presence of incidental trends continue to be reliable and well sized even in the presence of cross sectional dependencies.

Finally, we describe briefly some preliminary results for the small sample properties of the multivariate J-trace and B-trace statistics when they are used to test for the cointegrating rank of the panel. As rank tests, in principle we could employ the statistics as either right tailed or left tailed tests. Table 6 presents the large $T$ and small $T$ properties of the right tails of the tests. These are presented in a form that is analogous to table 3. Specifically, the first column for each of the trace statistics presents the asymptotic (large $T$) critical values based on simulations with varying rank for $T=1000$. The next column in each case presents the corresponding critical value for smaller samples based on $T=100$. The empirical size reported in the third column reflects the size distortion that is encountered when using the large sample critical values for a small sample with $T=100$. Notice, however, that in contrast to table 3, the results in table 6 show that the tests become potentially oversized as the rank under the null grows larger if one uses the asymptotic critical values rather than small sample critical values, particularly so for the B-trace test. One interesting feature to note is that B-trace statistic appears to be converging to a stable distribution as $N$ grows large when the $T$ dimension is also suitably large. This points to possibility that the asymptotic distribution is stable as the $N$ and $T$ dimensions grow large subject to some restriction on the relative rate of growth of the two dimensions.

Consistent with these results, in comparing the properties of the statistics as rank tests, we
found that the right tailed tests tended to become oversized in small samples, while the left tail tests remained undersized. Consequently, in subsequent tables, we report properties of the statistics as left tailed tests, since these represent conservative tests. Specifically, in Table 7 we report rejection frequencies for two statistics applied as rank tests when $N=20$, $T=100$ and the true rank varies from $N=20$ to $N=1$. While the raw tests are conservative and do not have sufficient power to distinguish small differences in rank, the statistics begin to reject as the rank becomes small relative to the $N$ dimension. For example, the J-trace statistic begins to reject with over 84% power when the true rank becomes 5, and at almost 93% power when the true rank becomes 4. Another way to interpret these results is to note that the tests are performing well as conventional panel unit root tests, since they fail to reject when the true rank is close to the null hypothesis of full rank, and begin to reject as the true rank approaches zero. As a panel unit root test, for most applications this is preferable to a test that rejects the null hypothesis as soon as a single member of the panel violates the null hypothesis so that the true rank is $N-1$.

However, as a rank test, the results in Table 7 are less satisfying, since the raw tests do not have sufficient power to distinguish small differences in rank. This leads us to explore another possibility. The approach is based on the observation that, in contrast to the asymptotic results, the small sample distribution is sensitive to the value for the $N$ dimension, regardless of the true rank. This implies that for the purposes of a rank test we can condition the small sample critical values on the observed cross sectional dimension of the panel. Consequently, in Table 8 we report rejection frequencies for the left tailed tests when we fix $N$, and vary the null hypothesis for the rank test from $g \geq 1$ to $g \geq 19$. Although the tests still cannot distinguish between very small differences in rank, the tests are now able to distinguish among much smaller differences in
rank. For example, when the true rank is \( g = 3 \), the tests correctly fails to reject each of the null hypotheses \( g \geq 1, g \geq 2, g \geq 3 \). For the null hypotheses \( g \geq 4, g \geq 5, g \geq 6 \) the tests do have trouble rejecting when the true rank is \( g = 3 \). But by the time one begins to test \( g \geq 7 \) and \( g \geq 8 \), the J-trace statistic has achieved almost 80% and 90% power respectively. This provides for some optimism that with further small sample refinements it may be possible to develop tests on this basis that may even have sufficient power to reject very small differences in rank. These are currently being explored.

6. Concluding Remarks

We have shown in this paper how it is possible to construct unit root tests that do not require the choice of lag truncation or autocovariance truncation through choice of bandwidth. Rather, by using all available sample autocovariances it is possible to construct simple and powerful tests that are robust to heterogenous serial correlation and avoid sensitivity to truncation choices. We have also demonstrated how to extend these concepts to panel tests that have high small sample power in the presence of incidental trends, and which are invariant to the presence of cross sectional dependency. Finally, we have shown how these tests can also be used to test for cointegration rank in panels and large systems with dimensions that are much greater than can be handled with unrestricted VECM approaches. The approach used in this paper should also extend in a straightforward manner to residual based tests for the null of no cointegration in the spirit of Pedroni (2004).
Technical Appendix

**Proposition 1.** Let $X_i = (T^{-1} \tilde{q}_{i0}, T^{-2} \delta_t^2)'$ and let $Y_i = (\int_0^1 \tilde{W}_i(r)^2 dr, 2 \int \tilde{Q}_i(r)^2 dr)'$ where

$\tilde{W}_i(r) = W_i(r) - \int_0^1 W_i(r) \, ds$ is demeaned Brownian motion and $\tilde{Q}_i(r) = \int_{s=0}^r \tilde{W}_i(s) \, ds$. We know from standard limit theory that under the null hypothesis $H_o: \rho_i = 0$,

$$T^{-1} \tilde{q}_{i0} = T^{-2} \sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{y}_{it}^2 \Rightarrow \sigma_i^2 \int_{t=0}^1 \tilde{W}_i(r)^2 \, dr$$

$$T^{-2} \delta_t^2 = 2 T^{-2} \sum_{t=1}^T \left( \sum_{i=1}^t \tilde{y}_i \right)^2 \Rightarrow 2 \sigma_i^2 \int_{r=0}^1 \tilde{Q}_i(r)^2 \, dr$$

as $T \to \infty$ for any given $i$. Thus $X_i \Rightarrow \sigma_i^2 Y_i$ as $T \to \infty$ for any given $i$ and $X_i X_i^{-1} \Rightarrow Y_{11} (Y_{22})^{-1}$.

Let $E[Y_i] = \Theta_i$, $E[Y_i Y_i'] = \Psi_i$, $\sigma^2 = E[\sigma_i^2]$ and define $\Theta^* = \sigma^2 \Theta$, $\Psi^* = \sigma^4 \Psi$. Now to evaluate the limiting distribution as $(T,N)_{seq} \to \infty$, expand the unweighted pooled variance ratio statistic as

$$\sqrt{N} (Z_{NT} - \Theta_1^* (\Theta_2^*)^{-1}) = \sqrt{N} \left[ N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N X_{1i} - \Theta_1^* \right] \left( N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N X_{2i} \right)^{-1} + \Theta_1^* \sqrt{N} \left( N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N X_{2i} \right)^{-1} - (\Theta_2^*)^{-1}$$

Notice that as $N \to \infty$, the summations that appear in curved brackets converge to the means of the respective random variables by virtue of a law of large numbers. This leaves the expressions involving each of the square bracketed terms as a continuously differentiable transformation of a sum of i.i.d. random variables. Thus, to evaluate the limiting distribution as
$N \to \infty$, we can use the delta method, which indicates that for a continuously differential transformation $\Theta_N$ of an i.i.d. vector sequence $x_i$ with vector mean $\Theta^*$ and covariance $\Psi^*$, as $N \to \infty$

$$Z_N = \sqrt{N} \left( g \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i \right) - g(\Theta_i^*) \right) \Rightarrow N(0, \alpha' \Psi^* \alpha)$$

where the $i$th element of the vector $\alpha$ is given by the partial derivative $\alpha_i = \frac{dg(\Theta_i)}{d\theta_i}$. Thus

$$\alpha = -((\Theta_i^*)^{-1}, \Theta_2^*(\Theta_i^*)^{-2})'$$

and

$$\alpha \Psi^* \alpha' = (\Theta_i^*)^{-2} \psi_1^* - (\Theta_i^*)^{-2} (\Theta_2^*)^{-4} \psi_{12}^* - 2 \Theta_i^*(\Theta_2^*)^{-3} \psi_{12}^* .$$

Finally, substituting in the expressions for $\Theta^* = \Theta, \Psi^* = \Psi$ gives us the results that

$$\sqrt{N} \left( Z_N^* - \mu_1 \right) \Rightarrow N(0, \nu_1^2)$$

where $\mu_1 = \Theta_1 \Theta_2^{-1}$, and $\nu_1 = \Theta_2^{-2} \psi_1 - \Theta_1^{-2} \Theta_2^{-4} \psi_2 - 2 \Theta_1 \Theta_2^{-3} \psi_{12}$ do not depend on the nuisance parameter $\sigma_i^2$.

Similarly, expand the unweighted pooled variance ratio statistic as

$$\sqrt{N} \left( Z_N^* - E[T_2^{-1} \Gamma_1] \right) = \sqrt{N} \left[ N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{X_{1i}}{X_{2i}} - E[T_2^{-1} \Gamma_1] \right]$$

Thus, by similar arguments, under the null hypothesis $H_0: \rho_i = 0$, since $X_1 X_2^{-1} \Rightarrow \Gamma_1, (\Gamma_2)^{-1}$,

$$\sqrt{N} \left( Z_N^* - \mu_2 \right) \Rightarrow N(0, \nu_2^2)$$

where $\mu_2 = E[T_2^{-1} \Gamma_1]$ and $\nu_2 = Var[T_2^{-1} \Gamma_1]$.

Finally, under the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \rho_i < 0$,

$$\gamma_{\lambda_0} = T^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \gamma_{it}^2 \Rightarrow \gamma_{\lambda_0}$$

$$\hat{\delta}_i^2 = \frac{2}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \gamma_{ij}^2 \right)^2 \Rightarrow 2 \delta_i^2 \int_{r=0}^{1} W(r)^2 dr$$
as \( T \to \infty \) where \( \tilde{q}_{io} \) and \( \delta_i^2 \) are the variance and long run variance respectively of the stationary series \( y_i \). Thus \( N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i^{-2} \) goes to a constant as \( N \to \infty \), so that for \( Z_{NT}^w = T N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i^{-2} \tilde{q}_{io} \),

\[
\sqrt{N/N} (Z_{NT}^w - \mu) \to \infty \quad \text{at rate} \quad T/\sqrt{N}.
\]

**Proposition 2.** Let \( F(r) = (1, r)', \quad \Omega (r) = (1, r, r^2, \ldots, r^P)' \). Let \( \tilde{W}_n(r) \) denote the residuals from the projection of \( W_n(r) \) onto the space spanned by \( F(r) \) such that

\[
\tilde{W}_n(r) = W_n(r) - \int_0^1 W_n(r)F(r)'dr \left( \int F(r)F(r)'dr \right)^{-1} F(r)
\]

\[
\tilde{W}_n(r) = W_n(r) - \int_0^1 W_n(r)G(r)'dr \left( \int G(r)G(r)'dr \right)^{-1} G(r)
\]

We know from standard limit theory that

\[
T^{-1/2} \tilde{U}_{[T]} = \Rightarrow \Omega^{1/2} \tilde{W}(r)
\]

\[
T^{-3/2} \tilde{S}_{[T]} = T^{-3/2} \sum_{r=1}^{T} \tilde{u}_r = \Rightarrow \Omega^{-1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(s)ds = \Omega^{-1/2} \tilde{V}(r)
\]

\[
T^{-2} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U} = T^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \tilde{u}_i \tilde{u}_i' = \Rightarrow \Omega^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r)\tilde{W}(r)'dr \Omega^{1/2}
\]

\[
\Omega^{-2} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U} = \sum_{i=1}^{T} \tilde{u}_i \tilde{u}_i' = \Rightarrow \Omega^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r)\tilde{W}(r)'dr \Omega^{1/2}
\]
\[ -4 \tilde{S}\tilde{S}' = T^{-4} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \tilde{s}_t \tilde{s}'_t = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (T^{-3/2} \tilde{s}_t) (T^{-3/2} \tilde{s}'_t) = \Omega^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{V}(r) \tilde{V}(r)' dr \Omega^{1/2} \]

as \( \Omega \to \infty \) for a given \( N \). Writing the multivariate \( J \)-trace statistic as

\[ \Box_{NT}^J = \text{tr} \left[ T^{-2} \hat{U}' \hat{U} - T^{-2} \hat{U}' \hat{U} (T^{-2} \hat{U}' \hat{U})^{-1} \right] \]

we see that

\[ Z_{NT}^J = \Rightarrow \text{tr} \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \right) - \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \right] \Omega^{1/2} \left( \Omega^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \Omega^{1/2} \right)^{-1} \]

\[ = \text{tr} \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \right) - \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \right] \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \Omega^{1/2} \right)^{-1} \]

Similarly, writing the multivariate \( B \)-trace statistic as

\[ Z_{NT}^B = \text{tr} \left[ T^{-4} \tilde{S}\tilde{S}' (T^{-2} \hat{U}' \hat{U})^{-1} \right] \]

we see that

\[ Z_{NT}^B = \Rightarrow \text{tr} \left[ \Omega^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{V}(r) \tilde{V}(r)' dr \right] \Omega^{1/2} \left( \Omega^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \Omega^{1/2} \right)^{-1} \]

\[ = \text{tr} \left[ \int_0^1 \tilde{V}(r) \tilde{V}(r)' dr \right] \left( \int_0^1 \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r)' dr \right)^{-1} \]

as \( \tau \to \infty \) for a given \( N \).
Finally, stack the $\mathbf{u}_t$ into an $N \times 1$ vector of time series such that $u_t = (u_{1t}, u_{2t}, \ldots, u_{Nt})'$ and define $\Sigma_o = E[u_t u_t']$, $\Sigma = \lim_{T \to \infty} E\left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=2}^{T} u_t (\sum_{t=2}^{T} u_t)'^{-1}\right]$ to be the standard covariance and long run covariance respectively of the vector time series $\mathbf{u}_t$. Then under the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \rho > 0$, we have

$$T^{-1} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U} - \Sigma_o \quad , \quad T^{-1} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U} \to \Sigma_0$$

$$T^{-1/2} \tilde{S}_{[T]} = T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[T]} \tilde{u}_t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Sigma^{-1/2} \tilde{W}(r)$$

as $T \to \infty$ for a given $N$. Consequently, writing the statistics as

$$Z_{NT}^J = tr\left[\left(T^{-1} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U} - T^{-1} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U}\right)(T^{-1} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U})^{-1}\right]$$

$$Z_{NT}^B = tr\left[T^{-1} \tilde{S}' \tilde{S} (T^{-1} \tilde{U}' \tilde{U})^{-1}\right]$$

we see that under the alternative hypothesis

$$Z_{NT}^J \to tr\left[(\Sigma_o - \Sigma_o) \Sigma_o^{-1}\right] = 0$$

$$Z_{NT}^B \Rightarrow tr\left[T^{-1} \left(\Sigma^{1/2} \int_{0}^{1} \tilde{W}(r) \tilde{W}(r) dr \Sigma^{1/2}\right) \Sigma_o^{-1}\right] \to 0$$

as $T \to \infty$ for a given $N$. 
Proposition 3. Let $B$ be an $N \times g$ matrix such that the $N \times N$ matrix $B^{-1}$ exists for the partitioned matrix $C = [A : B]$ where $A$ is an $N \times h$ matrix with columns that are the cointegrating vectors for the $y_{it}$, $i = 1, \ldots, N$ series. Furthermore, let

$$\hat{Z} = [\hat{Z}_1 : \hat{Z}_2] = [\hat{UA} : \hat{UB}]$$

$$\hat{Z} = [\hat{Z}_1 : \hat{Z}_2] = [\hat{UA} : \hat{UB}]$$

$$Z = [Z_1 : Z_2] = [UA : UB]$$

$$\hat{S}_Z = [\hat{S}_{Z_1} : \hat{S}_{Z_2}] = [\hat{SA} : \hat{SB}]$$

where, as previously defined, $\hat{U}$ and $\hat{\bar{U}}$ contain the stacked residuals of the restricted and unrestricted regressions respectively, $\hat{S}$ contains the stacked partial sums of $\hat{U}$, and $U$ contains the similarly stacked residuals of the true data generating process.

The multivariate $J$-trace statistic can be written as

$$Z_{NT}^J = \text{tr}\{[\hat{U}'\hat{U} - \hat{U}'\hat{\bar{U}}](\hat{U}'\hat{U})^{-1}\}$$

$$= \text{tr}\{[C'\hat{U}'\hat{U} - \hat{U}'\hat{\bar{U}}CC^{-1}(\hat{U}'\hat{U})^{-1}(C')^{-1}]\}$$

$$= \text{tr}\{[C'\hat{U}'\hat{U}C - C'\hat{U}'\hat{\bar{U}}C(C'\hat{U}'\hat{U}C)^{-1}]\}$$

$$= \text{tr}\{[\hat{Z}'\hat{Z} - \hat{Z}'\hat{\bar{Z}}(\hat{Z}'\hat{Z})^{-1}]\}$$
To evaluate the limiting distribution, let

\[
D = \begin{bmatrix}
    T^{-1/2}I_h & 0 \\
    0 & T^{-1/2}I_g
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where \( I_h \), \( I_g \) are \( h \times h \) and \( g \times g \) identity matrices. Then

\[
D \hat{Z}'\hat{Z}D = \begin{bmatrix}
    T^{-1/2}\hat{Z}'\hat{Z}_1 & T^{-3/2}\hat{Z}'\hat{Z}_2 \\
    T^{-3/2}\hat{Z}'\hat{Z}_2 & T^{-5/2}\hat{Z}'\hat{Z}_2
\end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix}
    \Omega_{11} & 0 \\
    0 & \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r)\hat{W}_g(r)'dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
D \tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}D = \begin{bmatrix}
    T^{-1/2}\tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}_1 & T^{-3/2}\tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}_2 \\
    T^{-3/2}\tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}_2 & T^{-5/2}\tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}_2
\end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix}
    \Omega_{11} & 0 \\
    0 & \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r)\hat{W}_g(r)'dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

as \( T \to \infty \) for a given \( N \), where \( \Omega_{11}, \Omega_{22} \) are the \( h \times h \) and \( g \times g \) long-run covariance matrices for \( z_1, z_2 \) respectively. To see this, notice that by construction \( \hat{Z}_1 \) and \( \hat{Z}_2 \) contain only \( I(0) \) variables, and

\[
T^{-1/2}\hat{Z}_1 \to \Omega_{11}, \quad T^{-1/2}\hat{Z}_2 \to \Omega_{11}
\]

as \( T \to \infty \) for a given \( N \). Likewise, by construction \( \tilde{Z}_1 \) and \( \tilde{Z}_2 \) contain only \( I(1) \) variables that are not cointegrated.

\[
T^{-2}\tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}_2 \Rightarrow \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r)\hat{W}_g(r)'dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2}
\]

\[
T^{-2}\tilde{Z}'\tilde{Z}_2 \Rightarrow \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r)\hat{W}_g(r)'dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2}
\]

as \( T \to \infty \) for a given \( N \). Finally, since \( \hat{Z}_1 \) is \( I(0) \), while \( \hat{Z}_2 \) is \( I(1) \), \( T^{-1/2}\hat{Z}_2 \hat{Z}_1 = O_p(1) \).
\[ T^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_1 = O_p(1), \text{ and therefore } T^{-1} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2 \rightarrow 0, \ T^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_2 \rightarrow 0, \ T^{-1} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_1 \rightarrow 0, \ T^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } T \rightarrow \infty \text{ for a given } N. \]

Next, use the partition matrix inverse formula to evaluate the elements of \((\hat{Z}' \hat{Z})^{-1}\) and note that

\[
D^{-1}(\hat{Z}' \hat{Z})^{-1} D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix}
T(\hat{Z}_1' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_1)^{-1} & -T^{32}(\hat{Z}_1' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_2)^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_2 (\hat{Z}' \hat{Z})^{-1} \\
-T^{32}(\hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2)^{-1} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_1 (\hat{Z}_1' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_1)^{-1} & T^2(\hat{Z}_2' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_2)
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
= \begin{bmatrix}
\Omega_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\
0 & \left( \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r)^0 \, dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \right)^{-1}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

as \( T \rightarrow \infty \) for a given \( N \), where \( \square_{\hat{Z}_1} = \hat{Z}_1(\hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_1)^{-1} \hat{Z}_1', \ P_{\hat{Z}_2} = \hat{Z}_2(\hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2)^{-1} \hat{Z}_2' \). Again, to see this, notice that

\[
T(\hat{Z}_1' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_1)^{-1} = \left( T^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_1 - T^{-2} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_1 \left( T^{-2} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2 \right)^{-1} T^{-1} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_1 \right)^{-1} = \left( T^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_1 + O_p(1) \right)^{-1} \rightarrow \Omega_{11}^{-1}
\]

\[-T^{32}(\hat{Z}_1' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_2)^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_2 (\hat{Z}' \hat{Z})^{-1} = -T(\hat{Z}_1' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_1)^{-1} T^{-32} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_2 (T^{-2} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2)^{-1} = O_p(1) O_p(1) O_p(1) \rightarrow 0\]

\[T^2(\hat{Z}_2' P_{\hat{Z}_2} \hat{Z}_2)^{-1} = \left( T^{-2} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2 - T^{-2} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2 \left( T^{-2} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_1 \right)^{-1} T^{-1} \hat{Z}_1' \hat{Z}_2 \right)^{-1} = \left( T^{-2} \hat{Z}_2' \hat{Z}_2 + O_p(1) \right)^{-1}
\]

\[
\rightarrow \left( \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r)^0 \, dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \right)^{-1}
\]

all as \( T \rightarrow \infty \) for a given \( N \).
By employing these limits and rewriting the multivariate J-trace statistic, we have

\[
\Box^J_{XT} = \text{tr}[D(Z Z') D D^{-1} (Z Z')^{-1} D^{-1}]
\]

\[
= \text{tr}[D Z Z' D D^{-1} (Z Z')^{-1} D^{-1}]
\]

\[
\Rightarrow \text{tr}\left[0 \begin{bmatrix}
\Omega^{1/2}_{22} \left( \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B} b(r)' dr - \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B}' b(r)' dr \right) \Omega^{1/2}_{22}
\end{bmatrix}
\Omega^{1/2}_{11}
\begin{bmatrix}
\Omega^{-1}_{11} & 0 \\
0 & \left( \Omega^{1/2}_{22} \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B} b(r)' dr \Omega^{1/2}_{22} \right)^{-1}
\end{bmatrix}
\right]
\]

\[
= \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
0 \Omega^{1/2}_{22} \left( \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B} b(r)' dr - \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B}' b(r)' dr \right) \Omega^{1/2}_{22}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
= \text{tr}\left[\Omega^{1/2}_{22} \left( \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B} b(r)' dr - \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B}' b(r)' dr \right) \Omega^{1/2}_{22} \right]
\]

\[
= \text{tr}\left( \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B} b(r)' dr - \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B}' b(r)' dr \right) \left( \int_0^1 \hat{B} b(r) \hat{B} b(r)' dr \right)^{-1}
\]

as \( t \to \infty \) for a given \( N \), which gives the desired result.
Next, note that the multivariate B-trace statistic can similarly be written as

$$\Box^g_{NT} = \text{tr}[T^{-2} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S} (\tilde{U}^i \tilde{U})^{-1}]$$

$$= \text{tr}[T^{-2} (\tilde{S}C)' \tilde{S}C (\tilde{UC}')\tilde{U}C)^{-1}]$$

$$= \text{tr}[T^{-2} (\tilde{S}^i \tilde{S}^j \tilde{Z}^i \tilde{Z}^{-1})]$$

To evaluate the limiting distribution, we use the fact that

$$T^{-2} D \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S} D = \begin{bmatrix} T^{-3} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S}^j \tilde{Z}^i \tilde{Z}^{-1} & T^{-3} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S}^j \tilde{Z}^i \tilde{Z}^{-1} \\ T^{-3} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S}^j \tilde{Z}^i \tilde{Z}^{-1} & T^{-4} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S}^j \tilde{Z}^i \tilde{Z}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Omega_2^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{V}_g(r) \tilde{V}_g(r)' dr \Omega_2^{1/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for a given $N$. To see this, notice that

$$T^{-2} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S} \Rightarrow \Omega_1^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}_h(r) \tilde{W}_h(r)' dr \Omega_1^{1/2}$$

$$T^{-4} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S} \Rightarrow \Omega_2^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{V}_g(r) \tilde{V}_g(r)' dr \Omega_2^{1/2}$$

$$T^{-3} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S} \Rightarrow \Omega_1^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{W}_h(r) \tilde{W}_h(r)' dr \Omega_1^{1/2}$$

$$T^{-3} \tilde{S}^i \tilde{S} \Rightarrow \Omega_2^{1/2} \int_0^1 \tilde{V}_g(r) \tilde{V}_g(r)' dr \Omega_2^{1/2}$$

as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for a given $N$. 
By employing these limits and rewriting the multivariate B-trace statistic as follows, we have

\[ \Xi_{NT}^B = \text{tr}[T^{-2}D\hat{S}Z^TD(Z^TD)^{-1}] \]

\[ = \text{tr} \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{V}_g(r) \hat{V}_g(r) dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r) dr \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \]

\[ = \text{tr} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \int_0^1 \hat{V}_g(r) \hat{V}_g(r) dr \left( \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r) dr \Omega_{22}^{-1/2} \right)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ = \text{tr} \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{22}^{1/2} \left( \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r) dr - \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r) dr \right) \left( \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r) dr \right)^{-1} \Omega_{22}^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ = \text{tr} \begin{bmatrix} \int_0^1 \hat{V}_g(r) \hat{V}_g(r) dr \left( \int_0^1 \hat{W}_g(r) \hat{W}_g(r) dr \right)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \]

as \( T \to \infty \) for a given \( N \), which gives the desired result.
Table 1. Weighted Panel Variance Test
small sample size when residuals are MA(1)
with coefficients drawn from U(0.0,0.5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bias</th>
<th>std err</th>
<th>2.5% size</th>
<th>5% size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 10</td>
<td>-0.646</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 20</td>
<td>-0.320</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 30</td>
<td>-0.215</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 40</td>
<td>-0.149</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 50</td>
<td>-0.133</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 60</td>
<td>-0.121</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 70</td>
<td>-0.077</td>
<td>0.944</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 80</td>
<td>-0.089</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 90</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 100</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
<td>0.954</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 10</td>
<td>-0.947</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>T = 20</td>
<td>-0.488</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 30</td>
<td>-0.329</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 40</td>
<td>-0.243</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 50</td>
<td>-0.199</td>
<td>0.899</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 60</td>
<td>-0.184</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 70</td>
<td>-0.136</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 80</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 90</td>
<td>-0.124</td>
<td>0.944</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 100</td>
<td>-0.095</td>
<td>0.964</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.053</td>
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<tr>
<td>N = 30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 10</td>
<td>-1.118</td>
<td>0.607</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 20</td>
<td>-0.565</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.009</td>
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<tr>
<td>T = 30</td>
<td>-0.379</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 40</td>
<td>-0.278</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 50</td>
<td>-0.231</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 60</td>
<td>-0.189</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 70</td>
<td>-0.159</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 80</td>
<td>-0.129</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 90</td>
<td>-0.128</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 100</td>
<td>-0.110</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.049</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws of N x T panel.
Table 2. Weighted Panel Variance Test
small sample power against stationary alternative
with autoregressive coefficient 0.95

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N = 10</th>
<th>bias</th>
<th>std err</th>
<th>.5% power</th>
<th>5% power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>1.202</td>
<td>0.193</td>
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<td>1.256</td>
<td>0.247</td>
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<td>1.342</td>
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<td>1.378</td>
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<td>0.475</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.447</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2.158</td>
<td>1.472</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>0.590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T = 100</td>
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<td>1.565</td>
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<th>std err</th>
<th>.5% power</th>
<th>5% power</th>
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<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.151</td>
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<td>1.129</td>
<td>0.202</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.192</td>
<td>0.312</td>
<td>0.403</td>
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<td>1.247</td>
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<td>0.625</td>
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<td>0.780</td>
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<table>
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<th>5% power</th>
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Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws of N x T panel.
Table 3. J-Trace and B-Trace Panel Unit Root Tests
Critical values and small sample size properties

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<td>3.18</td>
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Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws of N x T panel. See text for discussion.
Table 4. J-Trace and B-Trace
Panel Unit Root Tests
Small Sample Power when $\rho_f = 0.9, T=100$

<table>
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<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>J-trace test rawpower</th>
<th>J-trace test adj power</th>
<th>B-trace test raw power</th>
<th>B-trace test adj power</th>
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Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws of N x T panel. See text for discussion.
Table 5. J-Trace and B-Trace
Panel Unit Root Tests
Small sample size properties in presence of cross sectional dependence, $T=100$

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<td>emp size (large T critval) (T=100 crit val)</td>
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Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws of N x T cross sectionally dependent panel. See text for discussion.
<table>
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</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws. Empirical size represents distortion from using asymptotic critical values in small sample with T=100. See text for discussion.
Table 7. Rejection Frequencies for J-Trace and B-Trace Tests

For N=20, T=100, with varying true rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>true rank, g</th>
<th>J-Trace Test</th>
<th>B-Trace Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T1000 crit val</td>
<td>T100 crit val</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>0.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.994</td>
<td>0.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.972</td>
<td>0.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>0.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>0.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws. Null hypothesis constructed for N=20, g=20. See text for discussion.
Table 8. Rank Rejection Frequencies for J-Trace and B-Trace Tests

For N=20, T=100, g=3
with varying null for rank test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>null rank</th>
<th>J-trace</th>
<th>B-trace</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.645</td>
<td>0.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>0.586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>0.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.946</td>
<td>0.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.978</td>
<td>0.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>0.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.989</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>0.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.994</td>
<td>0.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>0.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.996</td>
<td>0.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.997</td>
<td>0.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.998</td>
<td>0.976</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Based on 10,000 independent draws. Critical values for rank test conditioned on sample $T$ and $N$ dimensions. See text for discussion.
References


cross-sectional Dependencies: Comparison and Implications for Modelling" METEOR Research Memorandum 04039.


