Change-point tests under local alternatives for long-range dependent processes

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Abstract: We consider the change-point problem for the marginal distribution of subordinated Gaussian processes that exhibit long-range dependence. The asymptotic distributions of Kolmogorov-Smirnov- and Cramér-von Mises type statistics are investigated under local alternatives. By doing so we are able to compute the asymptotic relative efficiency of the mentioned tests and the CUSUM test. In the special case of a mean-shift in Gaussian data it is always 1. Moreover, our theory covers the scenario where the Hermite rank of the underlying process changes.

In a small simulation study, we show that the theoretical findings carry over to the finite sample performance of the tests.

MSC 2010 subject classifications: Primary 62G20; secondary 60F17.

Keywords and phrases: Long-range dependence, asymptotic relative efficiency, empirical process, change-point test, local alternatives.

Received April 2016.
1. Introduction

Over the last two decades various authors have studied the change-point problem under long-range dependence and classical methods are often found to yield different results than under short-range dependence. The CUSUM test is studied in Csörgő and Horvath (1997) and compared to the Wilcoxon change-point test in Dehling et al. (2012). Ling (2007) investigates a Darling-Erdős-type result for a parametric change-point test, and estimators for the time of change are considered in Horvath and Kokoszka (1997) and Hariz et al. (2009). Moreover, the special features of long memory motivated new procedures. Beran and Terrin (1996) and Horvath and Shao (1999) are testing for a change in the linear dependence structure of the time series and Berkes et al. (2006) and Baek and Pipiras (2011) construct tests in order to discriminate between stationary long memory observations and short memory sequences with a structural change. For a general overview of the change-point problem under long-range dependence see Kokoszka and Leipus (2001) and the associated chapter in Beran et al. (2013).

One of the classical change-point problems is the change of the marginal distributions of a time series \( \{Y_i\}_{i \geq 1} \). When testing for at most one change-point (AMOC) in the marginal distribution one often considers the empirical distribution function of the first \( k \) observations and that of the remaining observations. Taking a distance between the empirical distributions and the maximum over all \( 1 \leq k < n \) yields a natural statistic. Common distances are the supremum norm, which gives the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic

\[
T_n = \max_{1 \leq k < n} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^{k} 1\{Y_i \leq x\} - \frac{k}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{Y_i \leq x\} \right|, \tag{1.1}
\]

or an \( L^2 \)-distance, which gives the Cramér-von Mises statistic

\[
S_n = \max_{1 \leq k < n} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} 1\{Y_i \leq x\} - \frac{k}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{Y_i \leq x\} \right)^2 d\hat{F}_n(x). \tag{1.2}
\]

Both are widely used for goodness-of-fit tests and two-sample problems. In the change-point literature they are considered by Szyszkowicz (1994) for independent data, by Inoue (2001) for strongly mixing sequences and by Giraitis et al. (1996b) for linear long-memory processes. However, note that in the LRD setting only the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test has been investigated.

(1.1) and (1.2) are functionals of the sequential empirical process, that is \( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} (1\{Y_i \leq x\} - F(x)) \) for \( t \in [0,1] \) and \( x \in \mathbb{R} \). Thus the asymptotic distributions of \( T_n \) and \( S_n \) rely on that of the sequential empirical process. For weakly dependent sequences this would be a Gaussian process, in the special case of independent random variables it is called Kiefer-Müller process. For stationary sequences that exhibit long-range dependence, Dehling and Taqqu (1989a) proved that the limit process is of the form \( \{J(x)Z(t)\}_{t,x} \), where \( J(x) \) is a deterministic function and the process is therefore called semi-degenerate.
Local alternatives under LRD

They considered subordinated Gaussian processes, in detail \( Y_i = G(X_i) \) for any measurable function \( G \) and a Gaussian sequence \( X_i \) with non-summable autocovariance function. A similar limit structure was later obtained independently by Ho and Hsing (1996) and Giraitis et al. (1996a) for long-range dependent moving-average sequences.

It is the main goal of this paper to derive the limit distribution of change-point statistics of the type (1.1) and (1.2) under local alternatives. We then apply these results to derive the asymptotic relative efficiency (ARE) of several change-point tests. To this end, we investigate the sequence

\[
G_1(X_1), \ldots, G_1(X_{k^*}), G_n(X_{k^*+1}), \ldots G_n(X_n),
\]

(1.3)

Here \( G_n \) is a sequence of functions such that the distribution of \( G_n(X_1) \) converges to the distribution of \( G(X_1) \) in some suitable way.

Therefore, we are able to analyze various types of change-points, among them a mean-shift. Thus we may compute the ARE of Kolmogorov Smirnov, Cramér-von Mises, CUSUM and Wilcoxon test and get the surprising result that in the case of Gaussian data it is always 1.

The mathematically most challenging case is the situation when the Hermite rank changes. The Hermite rank of the class \( \{1_{\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}} - F(x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \) is defined as the smallest positive integer, such that \( E[1_{\{G(X_1) \leq x\}} H_q(X_1)] \neq 0 \) for some \( x \in \mathbb{R} \), with \( H_q \) being the \( q \)-th Hermite polynomial. The structure of the limiting process \( Z(t) \), e.g. the marginal distribution and the covariance structure, mainly depends on \( m \). However, a special feature of distributional changes in subordinated Gaussian processes is the fact that the Hermite rank may change too. Hence the question arises which Hermite process will determine the limit distribution. Under a mean-shift the Hermite rank remains unchanged, which can be seen easily by its definition.

Our results differ in various ways from those obtained in Giraitis et al. (1996b), where changes in the coefficients of an LRD linear process were investigated. While the empirical process of LDR moving average sequences converges to fractional Brownian motion, we may encounter higher order Hermite processes. The possible change in the Hermite rank is therefore a novel feature in our investigation.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we will state a limit theorem for the sequential empirical process under change-point alternatives. Moreover, we will give the asymptotic distribution of the test statistics under the hypothesis of no change as well as under local alternatives. Thus we are able to derive the asymptotic relative efficiency of several change-point tests. In section 2.5 we consider the empirical process for long-range dependent arrays that are stationary within rows. The outcome mainly serves as a device for proving the main results, but is also of interest on its own. Section 3 contains the simulation study. To the best of our knowledge, there are no results on the finite sample performance of the Cramér-von Mises change-point test under long memory. It is compared to other change-point tests and the effect of an estimated Hurst-coefficient is discussed. We obtain that the theoretical results (e.g. asymptotic
relative efficiency between Cramér-von Mises and CUSUM test) carry over to the finite sample performance of the tests. Finally, proofs are provided in section 4.

2. Main results

Let \( \{X_i\}_{i \geq 1} \) be a stationary Gaussian process, with

\[
EX_i = 0, \quad EX_i^2 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(k) = EX_0X_k = k^{-D}L(k),
\]

for \( 0 < D < 1 \) and a slowly varying function \( L \). The non-summability of the covariance function is one possibility to define long-range dependence. We investigate our results for so called subordinated Gaussian processes \( \{Y_i\}_{i \geq 1} \), where \( Y_i = G(X_i) \) and \( G: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \) is a measurable function. The key tool in our analysis of possible changes in the marginal distribution of such a process is the sequential empirical process. To obtain weak convergence of this process the right normalization is needed. Here it is denoted as \( d_{n,m} \), defined by

\[
d_{n,m} = Var\left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_m(X_i) \right) \sim n^{2H}L_m(n), \quad (2.1)
\]

where the constant of proportionality is \( 2m!(1-mD)^{-1}(2-mD)^{-1} \), see Theorem 3.1 in Taqqu (1975). \( H = 1 - mD/2 \) is called Hurst coefficient and

\[
m = \min \{ q > 0 \mid E[1_{\{G(X_1) \leq x\}}H_q(X_1)] \neq 0 \text{ for some } x \},
\]

is the Hermite rank of \( \{1_{\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}} - F(x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \). The mentioned result of Dehling and Taqqu (1989a) then reads as follows.

**Theorem A** (Dehling, Taqqu). Let the class of functions \( \{1_{\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}} - F(x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \) have Hermite rank \( m \) and let \( 0 < D < 1/m \). Then

\[
\frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{nt} (1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}} - F(x)) \overset{d}{\to} \frac{J_m(x)}{m!}Z_{m,H}(t), \quad (2.2)
\]

where the convergence takes place in \( D([0,1] \times [-\infty, \infty]) \), equipped with the uniform topology. \( J_m(x) \) is defined by

\[
J_m(x) = E[1_{\{G(X_1) \leq x\}} H_m(X_1)]
\]

and \( (Z_{m,H}(t))_{t \in [0,1]} \) is an \( m \)-th order Hermite process, see Taqqu (1979) for a definition.

**Remark 2.1.** In the case \( m = 1 \), the Hermite process becomes the well known fractional Brownian Motion, which we denote by \( B_H(t) \).

2.1. The empirical process under change-point alternatives

Let us consider the following change-point model. Define the triangular array

\[
\frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{nt} (1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}} - F(x)) \overset{d}{\to} \frac{J_m(x)}{m!}Z_{m,H}(t),
\]

where the convergence takes place in \( D([0,1] \times [-\infty, \infty]) \), equipped with the uniform topology. \( J_m(x) \) is defined by

\[
J_m(x) = E[1_{\{G(X_1) \leq x\}} H_m(X_1)]
\]

and \( (Z_{m,H}(t))_{t \in [0,1]} \) is an \( m \)-th order Hermite process, see Taqqu (1979) for a definition.
Theorem 2.1. If Assumption A holds, then

$$Y_{n,i} = \begin{cases} G(X_i), & \text{if } i \leq \lfloor n \tau \rfloor, \\ G_n(X_i), & \text{if } i \geq \lfloor n \tau \rfloor + 1, \end{cases} \quad (2.3)$$

for measurable functions $G$ and $(G_n)_n$ and unknown $\tau \in (0, 1)$. For $\tau = 0$ one gets a row-wise stationary triangular array, as considered in section 2.5, and for $\tau = 1$ a stationary sequence, as in Dehling and Taqqu (1989a). In what follows, we will denote the distribution functions of $G(X_i)$ and $G_n(X_i)$ by $F$ and $F_{(n)}$, respectively.

To obtain weak convergence of the empirical process of (2.3) we have to make some assumptions on the structure of the change and the Hermite rank.

**Assumption A:**

A1. The class of functions $\{1_{\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}}\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}}$ has Hermite rank $m$ with $0 < D < 1/m$.

A2. Let $m(n)$ be the Hermite rank of $\{1_{\{G_n(\cdot) \leq x\}}\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}}$ and $m^* = \lim \inf_{n \to \infty} m(n)$. Then we assume

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \{P(\min \{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x) - P(\max \{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x)\} = o(n^{(m^* - m)D(1 + \delta) / 2})$$

for some $\delta > 0$.

**Theorem 2.1.** If Assumption A holds, then

$$\frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} (1_{Y_{n,i} \leq x} - P(Y_{n,i} \leq x)) \overset{D}{\to} \frac{J_m(x)}{m!} Z_{m,H}(t),$$

where $J_m(x)$ is the Hermite coefficient of $1_{\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}}$. The convergence takes place in $D([0, 1] \times [-\infty, \infty])$, equipped with the uniform topology.

**Remark 2.2.** (i) For given functions $G(x)$ and $G_n(x)$, Assumption A2 might easily be checked, see the examples below. It serves to ensure convergence of the Hermite coefficients $J_{q,n}(x) = E[1_{\{G_n(X_1) \leq x\}} H_q(X_1)]$. In detail,

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \{P(\min \{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x) - P(\max \{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x)\} \to 0$$

implies, see the proof of Lemma 4.5,

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |J_{q,n}(x) - J_q(x)| \to 0 \quad \forall q \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (2.4)$$

By Assumption A1, $J_1(x) = \ldots = J_{m-1}(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, yet $J_m(x) \neq 0$ for some $x$. Together with (2.4) this implies $m^* = \lim \inf_{n \to \infty} m(n) \leq m$.

(ii) Moreover, A2 implies convergence of the marginal distribution function. To see this, note

$$|F_{(n)}(x) - F(x)| = \max \{F_{(n)}(x), F(x)\} - \min \{F_{(n)}(x), F(x)\}$$
\[ \leq P(\min\{G(X), G_n(X)\} \leq x) - P(\max\{G(X), G_n(X)\} \leq x) \]

and \(n^{(m-m^*)D(1+\delta)/2} = O(1)\). However, the converse is not always true. Consider, for instance, the functions \(G(x) = x\) and \(G_n(x) = G_1(x) = -x\) or the situation in Example 2.8. Then again, there are lots of natural choices of \(G\) and \(G_n\) for whom convergence of the marginal distribution functions (with a certain rate) implies Assumption A2. Among them \(G_n(x) = G(x) + \mu_n\) (mean-shift), \(G_n(x) = \sigma_nG(x)\) (change in variance) and \(G_n(x) = F^{-1}_n \circ \Phi(\cdot)\) and \(G(x) = F^{-1} \circ \Phi(x)\).

(iii) Our assumptions explicitly allow for the Hermite rank to change together with the marginal distribution. Then again, the limit behavior seems to be untouched by this change. Intuitively, this corresponds to the idea that the change in distribution and the change in the Hermite coefficient, both caused by the difference of \(G\) and \(G_n\), are of the same order. For \(q < m\) this enforces the function \(J_{q,n}(x)\) to converge rather fast to 0. Technically, this can be explained through A2. If this assumption is dropped, we might actually encounter limits with multiple Hermite processes. Such cases will be considered in Example 2.8 and Corollary 2.13.

(iv) If A1 is violated, the sequence \(\{G(X_i)\}_{i \geq 1}\) is actually short-range dependent. For stationary observations Csörgő and Mielniczuk (1996) showed convergence of the sequential empirical process to a two-parameter Gaussian process. Change-point alternatives have not been considered for such random variables yet, but would require fundamentally different proofs compared to our results.

2.2. Asymptotic behavior of the change-point statistics

We now apply the results concerning empirical processes to determine the asymptotic distributions of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic

\[ T_n = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{y_{n,i} \leq x\} \right|, \] (2.5)

and of the Cramér-von Mises statistic

\[ S_n = d_{n,m}^{-2} \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{y_{n,i} \leq x\} \right|^2 d\hat{F}_n(x). \] (2.6)

To get a non degenerate limit under a sequence of local alternatives it is important to choose the right amount of change. For a mean-shift this is naturally the difference of the expectations before and after the change. For a general change we formulate the test problem as follows: We wish to test the hypothesis

\[ H: \text{ Assumption A1 holds and } G_n(x) = G(x) \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } n \geq 1, \]
against the sequence of local alternatives

\[ A_n : \text{Assumption A holds and, for } n \to \infty, \]
\[ \frac{n}{a_{n,m}} (F(x) - F_n(x)) \to g(x), \tag{2.7} \]
uniformly in \( x \), where \( g(x) \) is a measurable function of bounded total variation, whose support has positive Lebesgue measure.

**Remark 2.3.** Note that \( nd_{n,m}^{-1} \sim n^{mD/2}L^{-m/2}(n) \). Thus (2.7) implies

\[ n^{(m-m^*)D(1+\delta)/2} (F(x) - F_n(x)) \to 0, \]
for \( \delta < m^*/(m-m^*) \) or \( m^* = m \). This again implies Assumption A2 for certain choices of functions \( G \) and \( G_n \), see Remark 2.2 (ii).

**Theorem 2.2.** (i) Under the hypothesis \( \mathbf{H} \) of no change we have, as \( n \to \infty \),

\[ T_n \xrightarrow{D} \sup_{x \in R} |J_m(x)/(m!)| \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t)| \]
and \( S_n \xrightarrow{D} \int_{x \in R} (J_m(x)/(m!)^2 dF(x) \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t)|^2, \)

where \( \tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t) = Z_{m,H}(t) - tZ_{m,H}(1). \)

(ii) Under the sequence of local alternatives \( A_n \) we have, as \( n \to \infty \),

\[ T_n \xrightarrow{D} \sup_{x \in R} \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |J_m(x)/(m!)\tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t) - g(x)\psi(t)| \]
and \( S_n \xrightarrow{D} \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \int_{x \in R} (J_m(x)/(m!)\tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t) - g(x)\psi(t))^2 dF(x), \)

where

\[ \psi(t) = \begin{cases} t(1-\tau), & \text{if } t \leq \tau, \\ \tau(1-t), & \text{if } t > \tau. \end{cases} \]

Motivated by this Theorem, we consider change-point tests based on the statistics \( T_n \) and \( S_n \). Critical values might be chosen as

\[ \sup_{x \in R} |J_m(x)/(m!)q_{1-\alpha,m,H} \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{x \in R} (J_m(x)/(m!)^2 dF(x)q_{1-\alpha,m,H}^2, \]
for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Cramér-von Mises test, respectively. Here \( q_{1-\alpha,m,H} \) is the \((1-\alpha)\)-quantile of \( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t)| \). Thereby the tests have asymptotically level \( \alpha \) and nontrivial power against local alternatives.

The tests can be performed, if the right normalization for the empirical process, the supremum of \( J_m(x) \) and the distribution of \( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{Z}_{m,H}(t)| \) are known. In practical applications this might be not the case. Solutions are self-normalization (Shao (2011), Betken (2016)), estimating the Hurst-coefficient (see for example Künsch (1987)). The distribution of the limiting process might be approximated by bootstrap estimators (Tewes (2016)) or subsampling techniques (Betken and Wendler (2017+)).
2.3. Examples

Example 2.4 (Mean-shift). Let \( G_n(x) = G(x) + \mu_n \) with \( \mu_n \sim d_n/n \), then we get the typical change-in-mean problem. In the case of long-range dependent, subordinated Gaussian processes it was considered in Dehling et al. (2012, 2017), Csörgő and Horvath (1997), Shao (2011) and Betken (2016). Let \( f_G \) be the probability density of \( G(X_1) \), and assume that it is continuous and of bounded variation. Then we obtain

\[
\frac{n}{d_{n,m}}(F(x) - F(n_j(x))) = \frac{n}{d_{n,m}}(F(x) - F(x - \mu_n)) \rightarrow C f_G(x),
\]

where, due to continuity of \( f_G \), the convergence holds uniformly.

Example 2.5 (Change in the variance). To describe the change-in-variance-problem define \( G_n(x) = 1/(1 - \delta_n)G(x) \), with \( \delta_n \sim d_n/n \). For ease of notation let \( \delta_n = d_n/n \). Then we get

\[
\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \delta_n^{-1}(F(x) - F(n_j(x))) - x f_G(x) \right| = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \delta_n^{-1}(F(x) - F(x - \delta_n x)) - x f_G(x) \right| = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{xF(x) - (x - \delta_n x)F(x - \delta_n x)}{\delta_n x} - F(x - \delta_n x) - x f_G(x) \right|
\]

\[
\leq \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{xF(x) - (x - \delta_n x)F(x - \delta_n x)}{\delta_n x} - (xf_G(x) + F(x)) \right| + \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| F(x - \delta_n x) - F(x) \right|. \tag{2.8}
\]

The derivative of \( xF(x) \) is \( x f_G(x) + F(x) \), hence (2.8) converges to 0. The convergence is uniform, if \( f_G \) and \( F \) are continuous. (2.9) converges to 0, because of continuity, monotonicity and boundedness of \( F \). Thus (2.7) holds with the function \( g(x) = x f_G(x) \). Assume without loss of generality \( \sigma_n = 1/(1 - \delta_n) > 1 \), then

\[
P \max\{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x
\]

\[
= P(\sigma_n G(X_1) \leq G(x) \geq 0) + P(G(X_1) \leq x, G(X_1) \leq 0)
\]

\[
= \begin{cases} F(x/\sigma_n), & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ F(x), & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}
\]

The minimum can be treated analogously, hence Assumption A2 follows from the convergence of \( F(n_j(x)) \) towards \( F(x) \).

Additionally, one might consider a combined change in mean and variance, given through \( G_n(x) = \sigma_n G(x) + \mu_n \). In this case (2.7) holds with \( g(x) = f_G(x)(C_1 + C_2 x) \).

Example 2.6 (Generalized inverse of a mixture distribution). By using the generalized inverse of a distribution function one could generate subordinated Gaussian processes with any given marginals, see for example Dehling et al. (2017).
We use this for the change-point problem by setting
\[ G = F^{-1} \circ \Phi \quad \text{and} \quad G_n = F_{(n)}^{-1} \circ \Phi. \]

For a continuous distribution function \( F^* \) define the mixture
\[ f_{(n)}(x) = (1 - \delta_n) F(x) + \delta_n F^*(x), \]
with \( \delta_n \sim d_n^{-1} \). Then (2.7) holds with \( g(x) = F^*(x) - F(x) \) and moreover
\[
P(\max\{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x) = P(\max\{F^{-1} \circ \Phi(X_1), F_{(n)}^{-1} \circ \Phi(X_1)\} \leq x)
= P(\Phi(X_1) \leq \min\{F(x), F_{(n)}(x)\})
= \min\{F(x), F_{(n)}(x)\}.
\]

Analogously, one has \( P(\min\{G(X_1), G_n(X_1)\} \leq x) = \max\{F(x), F_{(n)}(x)\} \). Hence
\[
P(\min\{G, G_n\}(X_1) \leq x) - P(\max\{G, G_n\}(X_1) \leq x) = |F_{(n)}(x) - F(x)|,
\]
thus Assumption A2 is also satisfied. For strongly mixing data similar local alternatives were considered by Inoue (2001).

Example 2.7 (\( \chi^2 \)-distribution). Consider a \( \chi^2 \)-distribution given through \( G(x) = x^2 \) and note that the indicator functions have Hermite rank \( m = 2 \), see also Dehling and Taqqu (1989a). Further let
\[
G_n(x) = \begin{cases} 
    a_n x^2, & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\
    x^2, & \text{if } x < 0,
\end{cases}
\]
with Hermite ranks \( m(n) = 1 \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \). If \( (a_n - 1) \sim d_{n,2}/n \), then one can show (similar to the case of a variance change in Example 2.5) that
\[
\frac{n}{d_{n,2}} (P(G(X_1) \leq x) - P(G_n(X_1) \leq x)) 
\rightarrow C \sqrt{x} \phi(\sqrt{x}) I_{[0,\infty)}(x),
\]
uniformly in \( x \). As Assumption A2 is satisfied too, we may apply Corollary 2.2 (ii) with function \( g(x) = C \sqrt{x} \phi(\sqrt{x}) I_{[0,\infty)}(x) \) and \( m = 2 \).

Example 2.8 (Multiple Hermite processes in the limit). In the previous example, together with the marginal distribution, also the Hermite rank has changed. However, the limiting process seems to be untouched by this fact and one might ask whether this is intuitive or not.

It is caused by the fact that the change in the distribution and the change in the Hermite coefficients, both originating in the difference of the functions \( G(x) \) and \( G_n(x) \), are of the same order.

To get an additional Hermite process in the limit, one would need \( (a_n - 1) \sim d_{n,2}/d_{n,1} \), see Corollary 2.13 and its proof. But then
\[
\frac{n}{d_{n,2}} \sup_x |F(x) - F_{(n)}(x)| = \frac{n}{d_{n,2}} \frac{d_{n,1}}{d_{n,2}} \sup_x |F(x) - F_{(n)}(x)| \rightarrow \infty,
\]
and the test would have asymptotic power 1.
In order to achieve a nontrivial asymptotic power, one has to consider structural breaks that consists of two aspects and where only one is captured by the marginal distribution. To this end define the transformations

\[ G(x) = \Phi^{-1}(F(|x|)) = \Phi^{-1}(2\Phi(|x|) - 1) \]

and

\[ G_n(x) = \Phi^{-1}(F^*_n(G_n^*(x))) + \mu_n, \]

where \( F^*_n(x) = P(G_n^*(X_i) \leq x) \) and

\[ G_n^*(x) = \begin{cases} a_n x^2, & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ x^2, & \text{if } x < 0, \end{cases} \]

for some sequence \((a_n)_n\) with \( a_n \neq 1 \) and \( a_n \to 1 \). On the one hand, \( \{1_{\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}}\}_x \) has Hermite rank \( m = 2 \) and \( G(X_i) \sim N(0, 1) \). On the other hand, \( \{1_{\{G_n(\cdot) \leq x\}}\}_x \) has Hermite rank \( m(n) = 1 \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( G_n(X_i) \sim N(\mu_n, 1) \). Now let \( \mu_n \sim \frac{d_{n,2}}{n} \). Then Example 2.4 applies and we obtain

\[ \frac{n}{d_{n,2}} (F_n(x) - F(x)) = \frac{n}{d_{n,2}} (\Phi(x - \mu_n) - \Phi(x)) \to C\phi(x), \]

for any sequence \((a_n)_n\). In contrast, the convergence of the Hermite coefficients is highly influenced by \((a_n)_n\). If the sequence is chosen such that \((a_n - 1) \sim \frac{d_{n,2}}{d_{n,1}} \) (therefore, it converges slower than \( \mu_n \)), then the sequential empirical process will converge towards

\[ K(x,t) = \begin{cases} 2^{-1} J_2(x) Z_2(t), & \text{if } t \leq \tau, \\ J_1(x) Z_1(t) + 2^{-1} J_2(x) Z_2(t), & \text{if } t > \tau. \end{cases} \]

Actually, this can be proved similar to Corollary 2.13. Moreover, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic converges weakly to

\[ \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |K(x,t) - tK(x,1) - \psi(t) C\phi(x)|. \]

We find this example rather pathological, therefore such situations are excluded from the main results via Assumption A2.

2.4. Asymptotic relative efficiency

By studying the asymptotic distributions under local alternatives one might compare different tests in terms of the asymptotic relative efficiency (ARE). Here we give a precise definition of the ARE in the very special context of our change-point setting. The general idea is due to Pitman (1948) (for a published article see for example Noether (1950)) and was formalized in Noether (1955). Of course it can be extended to all kinds of testing procedures.
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**Definition 2.9.** Let \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) represent two change-point test procedures. Consider the local alternatives

\[
(G, G_{n_k}, \tau) \text{ and a sample size } (n_k)_k,
\]

\[
(G, \tilde{G}_{m_k}, \tau) \text{ and a sample size } (m_k)_k,
\]

such that \( G_{n_k}(x) = \tilde{G}_{m_k}(x) = G_k(x) \) for all \( k \geq 1 \) and \( x \in \mathbb{R} \).

Let \( \beta_1 \) be the asymptotic power of the test \( T_1 \) against the local alternatives given by \((G, G_{n_k}, \tau, (n_k)_k)\) and \( \beta_2 \) be the asymptotic power of the test \( T_2 \) against the local alternatives given by \((G, \tilde{G}_{m_k}, \tau, (m_k)_k)\). If \( \beta_1 \) equals \( \beta_2 \), then the asymptotic relative efficiency (ARE) of the tests \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) is defined as

\[
\text{ARE}(T_1, T_2) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{m_k}{n_k}.
\]

**Example 2.10 (Mean-shift in Gaussian data).** Consider \( G(x) = x \) and \( G_n(x) = G(x) + \mu_n \), in other words a mean-shift in Gaussian data. As for the Hermite coefficient function, we get \( J_1(x) = -\phi(x) \), where \( \phi \) is the standard normal probability density. Thus, according to Corollary 2.2, for a sample size \( n \) the test statistic \( T_n \) converges towards

\[
\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |\phi(x)| \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) + C \phi_\tau(t) \right| = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) + C \phi_\tau(t) \right|,
\]

where \( C = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu_n n/d_{n,1} \). Under the Null, that is we have a stationary standard Gaussian sequence, the limit distribution would be

\[
\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |\phi(x)| \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) \right| = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) \right|.
\]

For the Cramér-von Mises statistic we obtain analogously the limit distributions

\[
\int \phi^3(x) dx \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) + C \phi_\tau(t) \right|^2 \text{ and } \int \phi^3(x) dx, \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) \right|^2
\]

under local alternative and hypothesis, respectively. Hence, in this special case the CUSUM test, the Wilcoxon test (see Dehling et al. (2017) for each), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Cramér-von Mises test all have the same asymptotic power, namely

\[
P \left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{B}_H(t) + C \phi_\tau(t)| > q_{1-\alpha,H} \right),
\]

(2.10)

where the sample size is the same for all tests and \( C = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu_n n/d_{n,1} \), again for all four tests. Moreover, \( q_{1-\alpha,H} \) is the \((1-\alpha)\)-quantile of the maximum of a fractional Brownian bridge \( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{B}_H(t)| \).

Now let \( \beta \in (0, 1) \) be the “desired” asymptotic power. Then all tests achieve this power under the same sequence of sample sizes. Consequently, the ARE of the four tests is 1. This result is quite surprising, keeping in mind that CUSUM and Wilcoxon tests are designed to detect level-shifts, while our tests have power against all kinds of distributional changes.
For non-Gaussian data and change-points beyond a simple mean-shift, the investigation of the ARE is not that straightforward. In fact, little is known about the distribution of

$$\sup_t |\tilde{B}_H(t) + f(t)|,$$

and even less if higher order Hermite processes are considered. This seems to prevent a precise computation of the ARE in many cases. However, one might derive lower bounds for the efficiency, as we do in the next example for a combined change in mean and variance. Unlike in the previous example, we will make use of the subtle definition of the ARE.

**Example 2.11 (Combined change in mean and variance).** Let \(G(x) = x\) and \(G_k(x) = \sigma_k x + \mu_k\), that is a combined change of mean and variance in Gaussian data. If further \(\mu_k k/d_k \to C_1 > 0\) and \((1 - 1/\sigma_k) k/d_k \to C_2 > 0\), then by Example 2.5 the empirical bridge-type process converges to (for the sample size \(k \to \infty\))

$$\phi(x)\tilde{B}_H(t) + \phi(x)(C_1 + C_2 x)\psi_\tau(t), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \ t \in [0, 1].$$

We now consider slightly modified Cramér-von Mises and CUSUM tests, in detail, instead of \([0, 1]\) the supremum is taken over \([\kappa_1, \kappa_2]\) for some \(\kappa_1 \in (0, 1/2)\) and \(\kappa_2 \in (1/2, 1)\).

The asymptotic distribution of the CUSUM test has been derived in Dehling et al. (2017), but only in the case of a mean-shift with constant variance. However, for \(\text{EG}^2(X_i) < \infty\) the CUSUM statistic is a continuous functional of the sequential empirical process. Thus, we might apply our Theorem 2.1 and conclude that the CUSUM statistic converges under this type of local alternatives to

$$\sup_{t \in [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]} \left| \int \phi(x) \left( \tilde{B}_H(t) + (C_1 + C_2 x)\psi_\tau(t) \right) dx \right| = \sup_{t \in [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]} \left| \tilde{B}_H(t) + C_1\psi_\tau(t) \right|. $$

Note that this is the same limit as under a mean-shift with constant variance and thus, too, the asymptotic power is the same as in example 2.10.

The limiting distribution of the Cramér-von Mises statistic is given by

$$Z^2 = \sup_{t \in [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]} \int \phi^3(x) \left( \tilde{B}_H(t) + (C_1 + C_2 x)\psi_\tau(t) \right)^2 dx$$

$$= \sup_{t \in [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]} \left\{ \int \phi^3(x)dx \left( \tilde{B}_H(t) + C_1\psi_\tau(t) \right)^2 + C_2^2\psi^2_\tau(t) \int \phi^3(x)x^2dx \right\},$$

and for its asymptotic power we obtain

$$P \left( Z^2 > q_{1-\alpha, H}^2 \int \phi^3(x) dx \right)$$
Limit distribution has to satisfy $G$ and for all sample size for both tests. In detail, $(2.11)$ and $(2.12)$.

For the CUSUM test, in order to achieve at least an asymptotic power $\beta$, it's necessary to bound the asymptotic power from below by

First assume $\sup_t \{\hat{B}_H(t)\} \leq q = q_{1-\alpha,H}$ and consider $C'_1$, given by

$$C'_1 = f^*(C_1, C_2, q, \tau, \kappa_1, \kappa_2)$$

then (because $C_1 > 0$) automatically $Z^2 > q_{1-\alpha,H}^2 \int \phi^3(x)dx$. Combining these two findings with $(2.11)$ we can bound the asymptotic power from below by

$$P \left( Z^2 > q_{1-\alpha,H}^2 \int \phi^3(x) \, dx \right)$$

$$= P \left( \sup_{t \in [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]} \int \phi^3(x) \left( \hat{B}_H(t) + C_1^* \psi_\tau(t) \right)^2 \, dx > q_{1-\alpha,H}^2 \int \phi^3(x) \, dx \right)$$

for $C'_1 > C_1$.

Now we are ready to compute the ARE. To this end, we chose a different sample size for both tests. In detail, $(n_k)_k$ for the Cramér-von Mises test and $(m_k)_k$ for the CUSUM test. Moreover, the local alternatives are such that $G_{n_k}^{CvM}(x) = G_{m_k}^{CUSUM}(x) = G_k(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, consequently

$$\mu_{n_k}^{(1)} = \mu_{m_k}^{(2)} = \mu_k \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_{n_k}^{(1)} = \sigma_{m_k}^{(2)} = \sigma_k.$$

For the CUSUM test, in order to achieve at least an asymptotic power $\beta$, its limit distribution has to satisfy

$\text{1Here we use the restriction to } [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]$. 

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\[ P \left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{B}_H(t) + C_1^* \psi_\tau(t)| > q_{\alpha,H} \right) \geq \beta. \]

In other words, \( C_1^* = \pi^{-1}(\beta) \), where

\[
\pi(C^*) = P \left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |\tilde{B}_H(t) + C_1^* \psi_\tau(t)| > q_{\alpha,H} \right)
\]

and \( \pi^{-1} \) is the generalized inverse. Therefore, the sample size of the CUSUM test has to be chosen such that

\[
C_1^* = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{m_k}{d_{m_k}} \frac{1}{\mu^{(2)}_{m_k}} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{m_k}{d_{m_k}} \mu_k.
\]  \hspace{1cm} (2.13)

We also obtain (as \( \mu_k \) and \((1 - 1/\sigma_k)\) are of the same order)

\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{m_k}{d_{m_k}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\sigma^{(2)}_{m_k}} \right) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{m_k}{d_{m_k}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\sigma_k} \right) = C_2^*,
\]

for some \( C_2^* > 0 \).

Next we will select the sample size for the Cramér-von Mises test such that its asymptotic power might be bounded from below as in (2.12) (and therefore by \( \beta \)). To this end, choose \( C_1 > 0 \), such that

\[
\tilde{f}(C_1) = f(C_1, C_1 \frac{C_2^*}{C_1}, q, \tau, \kappa_1, \kappa_2) = C_1^*.
\]

The function \( \tilde{f} : [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty) \) is monotone increasing, surjective and continuous (as the minimum is attained either in \( \kappa_1 \) or \( \kappa_2 \)), therefore such a \( C_1 \) always can be found. By construction of the function \( f \) it follows that \( C_1 < C_1^* \). Now let the sample size of the Cramér-von Mises test satisfy

\[
C_1 = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{n_k}{d_{n_k}} \frac{1}{\mu^{(1)}_{n_k}} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{n_k}{d_{n_k}} \mu_k.
\]  \hspace{1cm} (2.14)

Moreover, we observe

\[
C_2 = \lim_{k \to \infty} n_k/d_{n_k} (1 - 1/\sigma_k)
= \lim_{k \to \infty} (n_k/d_{n_k} \mu_k) (m_k/d_{m_k} \mu_k)^{-1} (m_k/d_{m_k} (1 - 1/\sigma_k))
= C_1 C_2^*/C_1^*.
\]

Thus,

\[
f(C_1, C_2, q, \tau, \kappa_1, \kappa_2) = C_1^*,
\]

and we observe for the asymptotic power of the Cramér-von Mises test

\[
P \left( \sup_{t \in [\kappa_1, \kappa_2]} \left\{ \int \phi^3(x) \, dx \left( \tilde{B}_H(t) + C_1 \psi_\tau(t) \right)^2 + C_2 \psi_\tau^2(t) \int \phi^3(x) x^2 \, dx \right\} \right)
\]
So both test have (at least) asymptotic power $\beta$ against the local alternatives $(G, G_k, \tau)$. Finally, we obtain

$$
\left( \frac{m_k}{n_k} \right)^{1-H} = \frac{m_k}{d_{m_k}} \frac{d_{n_k}}{n_k} \mu_k^{-1} L^{(1/2)}(m_k) \overline{L}^{(1/2)}(n_k) \rightarrow \frac{C^*_1}{C_1} > 1,
$$

by construction of the sample sizes and the definition of slowly varying functions. Consequently

$$
ARE(CvM, CUSUM) = (C^*_1/C_1)^{1/(1-H)} > 1.
$$

In other words, the Cramér-von Mises test is asymptotically more efficient, no matter how small the additional variance-change is.

### 2.5. The empirical process of triangular arrays

Since the work of Dehling and Taqqu (1989a,b), uniform reduction principles have become the main tool in the analysis of empirical processes of long-range dependent data. More precisely, the empirical process gets approximated only by the first term of its Hermite expansion (if the underlying process is not Gaussian other expansions are available). However, most results are investigated for stationary sequences. When considering

$$
G(X_1), \ldots, G(X_{\lfloor n\tau \rfloor}), G_n(X_{\lfloor n\tau \rfloor}+1), \ldots, G_n(X_n),
$$

the empirical process of the first $\lfloor n\tau \rfloor$ random variables can be approximated just as in Dehling and Taqqu (1989a). In contrast the Hermite expansion of $1\{G_n(X_i) \leq x\} - F(n)(x)$ is

$$
\sum_{q=m^*}^{\infty} \frac{J_{q,n}(x)}{q!} H_q(X_i).
$$

Two difficulties arise. First, $m^*$ might be smaller than $m$, the Hermite rank of $1\{G(\cdot) \leq x\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}}$. Secondly, the coefficients $J_{q,n}(x)$ depend on $n$ and might converge uniformly to 0. Thus, it is a priori not clear which term of the Hermite expansion is asymptotically dominant or if there are even more than one. The next result is a reduction principle that lays emphasis on this aspects. We will make use of it in the proof of Theorem 2.1, but is also of interest on its own.
Theorem 2.3. Let \( \{G_n\}_n \) be a sequence of measurable functions and let \( m(n) \) be the sequence of Hermite ranks of \( \{1_{\{G_n(\cdot) \leq x\}}\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \). Then, for any \( m \in \mathbb{N} \) with \( m(n) \leq m < 1/D \) (for \( n \geq n_0 \)),

\[
P \left( \sup_{t \in (0,1)} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \left(1_{\{G_n(X_i) \leq x\}} - \sum_{q=0}^{m} J_{q,n}(x) H_q(X_i) \right) \right| > \epsilon \right) \leq C n^{-\kappa} (1 + \epsilon^{-3}),
\]

where \( C \) and \( \kappa \) do not depend on \( n \).

Remark 2.12. (i) Theorem 2.3 contains the reduction principle of Dehling and Taqqu (1989a) as a special case (\( G_n(x) = G(x) \) and \( m(n) = m \)).

(ii) Note that the class \( \{1_{\{G_n(\cdot) \leq x\}} - F_n(x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \) might have a Hermite rank smaller than \( m \) (say \( m^* < m \)). Thus, one might expect \( d_{n,m^*}^{-1} \) as normalization. The weaker normalization \( d_{n,m}^{-1} \) is however possible since the empirical process is approximated by additional terms of the Hermite expansion, in detail those up to \( m \).

(iii) A similar result is given by Wu (2003), who considers linear long memory processes and even shows convergences with respect to a weighted supremum metric. Then again, he considers only the classical empirical process, while we also treat the sequential version. Moreover, we consider triangular arrays, which Wu (2003) does not.

Corollary 2.13. Let \( \{G_n\}_n \) be sequence of measurable functions and let \( m(n) \) be the sequence of Hermite ranks of \( \{1_{\{G_n(\cdot) \leq x\}}\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \). If further \( m^* \leq m(n) \leq m < 1/D \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \) and

\[
\frac{d_{n,q} J_{q,n}(x)}{q!} \rightarrow h_q(x) \quad \forall q \in \{m^*, \ldots, m\},
\]

uniformly in \( x \), then

\[
\frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \left(1_{\{G_n(X_i) \leq x\}} - F_n(x)\right) \xrightarrow{D} \sum_{q=m^*}^{m} h_q(x) Z_q(t).
\]

\((Z_{q,H}(t))_{t \in [0,1]}\) are uncorrelated, \( q \)th order Hermite processes.

Remark 2.14. (i) Comparing the limit process of Corollary 2.13 to that of Theorem 2.1 it is apparent that multiple Hermite Processes are involved. This is not the case in Theorem 2.1. The reason is Assumption A2, which causes the Hermite coefficients \( J_{m,n}(x) \) to converge rather fast.

(ii) The Hermite processes occurring in the limit are dependent, see Proposition 1 in Bai and Taqqu (2013).

Remark 2.15. In view of the proof of Corollary 2.13 it is important to note that the functions \( h_q \) are uniform limits of the càdlàg functions \( J_{m,n}(x) \) and hence elements of \( D[-\infty, \infty] \). As a consequence they are also bounded (Pollard (1984)).
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Example 2.16. There are indeed sequences of functions \( \{G_n\}_n \) that satisfy the conditions of Corollary 2.13. Consider again the functions from Example 2.7, namely \( G_n(x) = x^2(1_{x>0} + a_n 1_{x<0}) \) with \( a_n \to 1 \) and \( a_n \neq 1 \). Thus, we are in the situation of Theorem 2.3 with \( m(n) = 1 \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \). One obtains, \( a_n \to \) sup

\[
\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |J_{2,n}(x) - J_2(x)| \to 0,
\]

with

\[
J_2(x) = E[\{1_{X^2_1 \leq x}\}(X^2_1 - 1)] = -2\sqrt{x}\phi(\sqrt{x})1_{x \geq 0}.
\]

If in addition \( a_n \sim n^{-D/2}L^{1/2}(n) \sim d_{n,2}/d_{n,1} \), then

\[
\sup_x \left| \frac{d_{n,1}}{d_{n,2}} J_{1,n}(x) - Cx\phi(\sqrt{x})1_{x \geq 0} \right| \to 0,
\]

for some constant \( C \) depending on \( D \) only. Corollary 2.13 then holds with \( m = 2 \), \( m^* = 1 \), \( h_1(x) = Cx\phi(\sqrt{x})1_{x \geq 0} \) and \( h_2(x) = J_2(x)/2 \).

3. Simulation study

3.1. Fractional Gaussian noise

Consider a mean-shift in Gaussian data. Then Example 2.4 states that the Cramér-von Mises test (and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) are asymptotically as efficient as the CUSUM test. The goal of this simulation study is to examine whether this theoretical and asymptotic result carries over to the finite sample performance of the tests. We will consider samples of size 50 to 400. For these situations the approximation of the empirical process by its semi-degenerate limit process is quite inaccurate. The empirical size of the Cramér-von Mises test will be therefore much larger than the nominal size, if critical values are deduced from the asymptotic distribution. Instead, we simulate \( J = 1000 \) Gaussian time series

\[
X_{j,1}, \ldots X_{j,n}, \quad j = 1, \ldots J,
\]

with Hurst coefficient \( H \). In the simulation study, we will use fractional Gaussian noise for this sequences. Subsequently, a Cramér-von Mises statistic is calculated for each of the \( J = 1000 \) Gaussian series, in detail

\[
S_{n,j} = \max_{1 \leq k < n} \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} 1_{\{X_{j,i} \leq x\}} - \frac{k}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{X_{j,i} \leq x\}} \right)^2 d\hat{F}_{n,j}(x), \quad j = 1, \ldots J.
\]

We then use the empirical quantiles of \( \{S_{n,j}\}_{j=1}^{J} \) as critical values. The Cramér-von Mises statistic is invariant under monotone transformations of the data (as is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic). Hence the critical values are
valid if our observations are monotone transformations of Gaussian data. We
note that this is a strong assumption and that an accurate approximation of the
empirical process for general long-range dependent data is an issue of future re-
search. The CUSUM statistic is not invariant under monotone transformations.
Therefore, the Wilcoxon change-point test is considered additionally.

In the first part of the simulation study, we treat realizations of a Gaussian
process $X_1,\ldots,X_n$, given by fractional Gaussian noise. For the implementa-
tion we have used the function fgnSim from the R-package fArma. Eventually a
change is added by $Y_i = X_i + \mu 1_{\{i > \lfloor n \tau \rfloor\}}$ and the three mentioned change-point
tests are applied to $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n$.

If the Hurst-coefficient is assumed to be known, the empirical size of the tests
naturally equals the nominal one, due to the construction of the critical values.
The empirical power of Cramér-von Mises (denoted by $S_n$), Wilcoxon (denoted
by $W_n$) and CUSUM test (denoted by $C_n$) is displayed in Table 1. If the change
occurs in the middle of the observation period, the three tests are showing
almost exactly the same performance, which matches the theoretical results.
For early changes (after 20% of the observations) the CUSUM test is slightly

![Table 1](image-url)

*Empirical power, $H$ assumed to be known, size of level shift $\mu = 1$, relative change positions $\tau = 0.2$ and $\tau = 0.5$.*

| Relative change position $\tau = 0.2$ | $H = 0.6$ | $H = 0.7$ | $H = 0.8$ | $H = 0.9$ |
|------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| $n$                                | 50 | 100 | 250 | 400 | 50 | 100 | 250 | 400 |
| $S$                                | 0.196 | 0.566 | 0.854 | 0.970 | 0.158 | 0.215 | 0.547 | 0.689 |
| $W$                                | 0.263 | 0.525 | 0.910 | 0.983 | 0.201 | 0.233 | 0.501 | 0.636 |
| $C$                                | 0.288 | 0.666 | 0.933 | 0.986 | 0.276 | 0.284 | 0.555 | 0.769 |

| Relative change position $\tau = 0.5$ | $H = 0.6$ | $H = 0.7$ | $H = 0.8$ | $H = 0.9$ |
|------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| $n$                                | 50 | 100 | 250 | 400 | 50 | 100 | 250 | 400 |
| $S$                                | 0.101 | 0.221 | 0.241 | 0.350 | 0.057 | 0.098 | 0.236 | 0.167 |
| $W$                                | 0.089 | 0.156 | 0.264 | 0.383 | 0.089 | 0.116 | 0.191 | 0.147 |
| $C$                                | 0.171 | 0.234 | 0.348 | 0.349 | 0.164 | 0.127 | 0.239 | 0.223 |
more accurate than the other tests. Depending on sample size and strength of dependence, either the Cramér-von Mises or the Wilcoxon test might be second best.

### 3.2. Unknown Hurst coefficient

In applications the true Hurst coefficient $H$ is unknown, and in the following we will consider two different estimators. The first is the local Whittle estimator (denoted by $\hat{H}$) with bandwidth parameter $m = \lfloor n^{2/3} \rfloor$, see Künsch (1987). However, if there is actually a change in the data, the local Whittle estimator is known to be biased. For the second estimator we therefore divide the observations into two subsamples $X_1,\ldots,X_k$ and $X_{k+1},\ldots,X_n$ and estimate $H$ on each set, using again the local Whittle estimator. Finally the new estimator is given by $\hat{H}_0 = \hat{H}_1 + (n - k)/n\hat{H}_2$. Here $k$ is the natural change-point estimator, associated with each test. For example, in case of the Cramér-von Mises test we use

$$k = \min \left\{ 1 \leq k \leq n - 1 \mid U_{k,n} = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n - 1} U_{k,n} \right\},$$

where

$$U_{k,n} = \int_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} 1_{x_i \leq x} - \frac{k}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{x_i \leq x} \right)^2 d\hat{F}_n(x).$$
Consistency of this estimator was shown in Hariz et al. (2009). Horvath and Kokoszka (1997) verified consistency for the analogous CUSUM-based estimator.

Empirical size and empirical power of the tests under unknown $H$ are displayed in Tables 2 and 3. Let us first compare the impact of the different estimators $\hat{H}$ and $\hat{H}_k$ on the finite sample performance of the Cramér-von Mises test. If we use the classical local Whittle estimator, the empirical size of the test

| Relative change position $\tau = 0.2$ | $H = 0.6$ | $H = 0.7$ | $H = 0.8$ | $H = 0.9$ |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| $n$ | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 |
| $S_H$ | 0.178 0.263 0.597 0.828 | 0.189 0.177 0.285 0.404 | 0.096 0.105 0.142 0.163 | 0.150 0.146 0.181 0.208 |
| $S_{H_k}$ | 0.248 0.491 0.834 0.946 | 0.260 0.377 0.528 0.620 | 0.160 0.213 0.208 0.234 | 0.094 0.126 0.143 0.158 |
| $W_H$ | 0.190 0.298 0.625 0.811 | 0.146 0.193 0.278 0.386 | 0.137 0.188 0.237 0.234 | 0.094 0.126 0.143 0.158 |
| $W_{H_k}$ | 0.291 0.532 0.850 0.943 | 0.237 0.364 0.488 0.649 | 0.137 0.188 0.237 0.234 | 0.094 0.126 0.143 0.158 |
| $C_H$ | 0.289 0.413 0.706 0.896 | 0.312 0.266 0.379 0.547 | 0.137 0.188 0.237 0.234 | 0.094 0.126 0.143 0.158 |
| $C_{H_k}$ | 0.378 0.596 0.874 0.972 | 0.312 0.422 0.585 0.721 | 0.137 0.188 0.237 0.234 | 0.094 0.126 0.143 0.158 |

| Relative change position $\tau = 0.5$ | $H = 0.6$ | $H = 0.7$ | $H = 0.8$ | $H = 0.9$ |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| $n$ | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 |
| $S_H$ | 0.541 0.759 0.985 0.999 | 0.412 0.557 0.814 0.904 | 0.539 0.710 0.881 0.952 | 0.369 0.413 0.563 0.648 |
| $S_{H_k}$ | 0.614 0.860 0.990 0.999 | 0.539 0.710 0.881 0.952 | 0.369 0.413 0.563 0.648 | 0.441 0.564 0.809 0.902 |
| $W_H$ | 0.594 0.811 0.984 0.999 | 0.441 0.564 0.809 0.902 | 0.550 0.717 0.878 0.950 | 0.441 0.564 0.809 0.902 |
| $W_{H_k}$ | 0.609 0.877 0.991 1.000 | 0.550 0.717 0.878 0.950 | 0.550 0.717 0.878 0.950 | 0.441 0.564 0.809 0.902 |
| $C_H$ | 0.677 0.819 0.988 1.000 | 0.584 0.671 0.850 0.925 | 0.550 0.717 0.878 0.950 | 0.441 0.564 0.809 0.902 |
| $C_{H_k}$ | 0.694 0.905 0.995 0.998 | 0.567 0.760 0.920 0.953 | 0.550 0.717 0.878 0.950 | 0.441 0.564 0.809 0.902 |
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Table 4
Empirical Power, estimated Hurst coefficient, relative change position $\tau = 0.5$, level shift of size $\mu = 1$ and change in variance from $\sigma^2 = 1$ to $\sigma^2_0 = 5/4$, nominal size $\alpha = 0.05$.

|       | $H = 0.6$ |       | $H = 0.7$ |       | $H = 0.8$ |       | $H = 0.9$ |       |
|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|
| $n$   | 50        | 100   | 250       | 400   | 50        | 100   | 250       | 400   |
| $S_{\hat{\mu}}$ | 0.701 | 0.931 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.606 | 0.772 | 0.963 | 0.996 |
| $S_{\hat{\mu}_k}$ | 0.878 | 0.986 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.817 | 0.973 | 0.999 | 1.000 |
| $W_{\hat{\mu}}$ | 0.609 | 0.812 | 0.989 | 1.000 | 0.572 | 0.593 | 0.879 | 0.952 |
| $W_{\hat{\mu}_k}$ | 0.734 | 0.973 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.705 | 0.907 | 0.988 | 0.998 |
| $C_{\hat{\mu}}$ | 0.660 | 0.899 | 0.999 | 1.000 | 0.529 | 0.724 | 0.938 | 0.983 |
| $C_{\hat{\mu}_k}$ | 0.588 | 0.916 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.507 | 0.806 | 0.983 | 0.998 |

Table 5
Empirical Power, estimated Hurst coefficient, relative change position $\tau = 0.5$, $G_1(x) = x^2$, $G_2(x) = x^2 + x/2 + 1/2$, nominal size $\alpha = 0.05$, $H$ is the Hurst coefficient of the underlying Gaussian.

|       | $H = 0.6$ |       | $H = 0.7$ |       | $H = 0.8$ |       | $H = 0.9$ |       |
|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|
| $n$   | 50        | 100   | 250       | 400   | 50        | 100   | 250       | 400   |
| $S_{\hat{\mu}}$ | 0.535 | 0.827 | 0.983 | 0.999 | 0.487 | 0.758 | 0.957 | 0.988 |
| $S_{\hat{\mu}_k}$ | 0.494 | 0.815 | 0.992 | 0.999 | 0.479 | 0.750 | 0.968 | 0.995 |
| $W_{\hat{\mu}}$ | 0.480 | 0.743 | 0.990 | 0.998 | 0.430 | 0.632 | 0.924 | 0.986 |
| $W_{\hat{\mu}_k}$ | 0.420 | 0.735 | 0.986 | 1.000 | 0.407 | 0.657 | 0.933 | 0.987 |
| $C_{\hat{\mu}}$ | 0.424 | 0.616 | 0.853 | 0.958 | 0.399 | 0.547 | 0.745 | 0.858 |
| $C_{\hat{\mu}_k}$ | 0.387 | 0.569 | 0.828 | 0.920 | 0.390 | 0.546 | 0.755 | 0.891 |

is quite accurate and even matches the nominal size for $n = 400$ and $H \leq 0.8$. However, there is a loss in the empirical power. The power performance is much better, if the local Whittle estimator is modified. Actually, there is no loss in power if compared to the case where $H$ was assumed to be known. Then again, the probability of a false rejection is higher than $\alpha = 0.05$, so the test is quite liberal.
Next we compare Cramér-von Mises, Wilcoxon and CUSUM test. The empirical size of the three tests is similar, no matter which estimator we choose and which situation we assume (sample size, Hurst coefficient), see Table 2.

In terms of empirical power the Cramér-von Mises and Wilcoxon test give similar results with the CUSUM test being slightly ahead for \( \tau = 1/2 \) and being clearly advantageous for early changes \( \tau = 1/5 \) (see Table 3).

We have to keep in mind that CUSUM and Wilcoxon test are designed to detect changes in the mean. On the contrary, the Cramér-von Mises test is a so called omnibus test and has power against arbitrary changes in the marginal distribution.

Therefore, we consider another situation, with the mean-shift being now accompanied by a small change in the variance. In detail, \[ Y_i = \begin{cases} X_i & \text{for } i \leq \lfloor n\tau \rfloor, \\ \sigma X_i + \mu & \text{for } i > \lfloor n\tau \rfloor, \end{cases} \]
for Gaussian \( \{X_i\}_{i \geq 1} \). The theoretic result in Example 2.11 indicates that in this scenario the Cramér-von Mises test should be advantageous. In fact, for all combinations of sample size \( n \) and Hurst coefficient \( H \) the empirical power against this change is always higher than the power against a mean-shift under constant variance. Moreover, the Cramér-von Mises test has clearly higher power than CUSUM and Wilcoxon test, see Table 4, which matches the theoretical findings of Example 2.11. Furthermore, we consider the change-point problem \[ Y_i = \begin{cases} X_i^2 & \text{for } i \leq \lfloor n\tau \rfloor, \\ X_i^2 + aX_i + \mu & \text{for } i > \lfloor n\tau \rfloor, \end{cases} \]
corresponding to a situation in which mean, variance, skewness and the Hermite rank change (see Example 2.8). Table 5 displays the empirical power of the three tests against this alternative and the picture is quite clear. The Cramér-von Mises test has the highest power for all combinations of \( H \) and \( n \), while the Wilcoxon test is second best. Also note that the Hermite rank of the pre-change transformation is \( m = 2 \). Consequently, these observations are short-range dependent for \( H < 0.75 \).

3.3. \textit{farima}(0, d, 0)-processes

For Gaussian long memory processes beyond fractional Gaussian noise, not only the Hurst coefficient determines the normalization. Instead it is given by \[ d_n = n^H L^{1/2}(n)(H(2H - 1))^{-1/2}, \]
see (2.1). In this study we assume, as \( n \to \infty, L(n) \to C \), which is quite common in the literature. For fractional Gaussian noise, \( C = H(2H - 1) \) so the two factors just cancel out. In general the constant \( C \) is given through the limit \[ \rho(k)k^{2-2H} \to C, \]
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Table 6

Empirical size and power for farima(0,0.2,0)-sequences, Hurst coefficient is estimated, nominal size $\alpha = 0.05$.

|       | No change | Mean-shift $\mu = 1$ |
|-------|-----------|---------------------|
|       | 50 100 250 400 | 50 100 250 400 |
| $S_{\hat{\theta}}$ | 0.036 0.058 0.069 0.056 | 0.276 0.490 0.832 0.920 |
| $S_{\hat{\theta}}^k$ | 0.167 0.148 0.119 0.129 | 0.520 0.737 0.930 0.986 |
| $W_{\hat{\theta}}$ | 0.067 0.139 0.086 0.074 | 0.601 0.882 0.968 0.730 |
| $W_{\hat{\theta}}^k$ | 0.247 0.189 0.160 0.153 | 0.573 0.711 0.934 0.980 |
| $C_{\hat{\theta}}$ | 0.104 0.061 0.053 0.048 | 0.281 0.479 0.836 0.945 |
| $C_{\hat{\theta}}^k$ | 0.212 0.202 0.158 0.114 | 0.499 0.682 0.937 0.977 |

as $k \to \infty$. We suggest an estimator for $C$ (which is quite heuristic) by:

$$\hat{C} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{\rho}(k) k^{2-2\hat{H}},$$

(3.1)

with $\hat{H}$ being one of the two estimators from above. Finally, we use the normalization

$$\hat{d}_n = n^{\hat{H}} \hat{C}^{3/2}(\hat{H}(2\hat{H} - 1))^{1/2}.$$

Usually estimators constructed via the spectral domain are favorable compared to such time-domain estimators. For a spectral domain approach see Abadir et al. (2009). However, using $\hat{C}$, one might consider the normalization

$$\hat{d}_n = n^{\hat{H}} \hat{C}^{3/2}(\hat{H}(2\hat{H} - 1))^{1/2}.$$

The estimator in (3.1) is only defined under long memory, that is $H > 0.5$ (or in this situation $\hat{H} > 0.5$). Therefore, we modify both estimators by considering $\max(\hat{H}, 0.501)$ instead of $\hat{H}$. The effect of this modification on short memory processes will be seen in the next section.

However, for farima(0, d, 0)-sequences it seems to work quite well, see Table 6. Note that critical values are still deduced from fractional Gaussian noise. The finite sample performance (under the hypothesis as well as under a mean-shift) is very similar to the case where the data comes from fractional Gaussian noise. Meaning, the Cramér-von Mises test has good properties and the different tests yield very similar results, again matching the theoretic findings.

3.4. Short-range dependent effects

Finally, we have considered deviations from purely LRD sequences by simulating farima(1, d, 0)-time series and short memory AR(1)-processes.

First, we have applied the tests to farima(0, d, 1)-sequences, which are still long-range dependent. Table 7 indicates that the empirical power of the Cramér-von Mises test is less than in the case of farima(0, d, 0)-processes. However, the
Table 7
Empirical size and power for farima\((1,0.2,0)\)-sequences with AR-coefficient \(a_1 = 0.4\), Hurst coefficient is estimated, nominal size \(\alpha = 0.05\).

| n   | No change | Mean-shift \(\mu = 1\) |
|-----|-----------|------------------------|
|     | 50        | 100        | 250        | 400        | 50        | 100        | 250        | 400        |
| \(S_H\) | 0.032    | 0.021    | 0.030    | 0.034    | 0.154    | 0.183    | 0.329    | 0.433    |
| \(S_{H_k}\) | 0.126    | 0.065    | 0.062    | 0.052    | 0.316    | 0.325    | 0.415    | 0.489    |
| \(W_H\) | 0.038    | 0.009    | 0.003    | 0.007    | 0.157    | 0.158    | 0.192    | 0.266    |
| \(W_{H_k}\) | 0.183    | 0.048    | 0.015    | 0.017    | 0.363    | 0.313    | 0.301    | 0.387    |
| \(C_H\) | 0.445    | 0.288    | 0.124    | 0.081    | 0.625    | 0.615    | 0.605    | 0.689    |
| \(C_{H_k}\) | 0.422    | 0.302    | 0.138    | 0.093    | 0.592    | 0.613    | 0.656    | 0.710    |

Table 8
Empirical size and power for AR\((1)\)-sequences with AR-coefficient \(a_1 = 0.6\), Hurst coefficient is estimated, nominal size \(\alpha = 0.05\).

| n   | No change | Mean-shift \(\mu = 1\) |
|-----|-----------|------------------------|
|     | 50        | 100        | 250        | 400        | 50        | 100        | 250        | 400        |
| \(S_H\) | 0.016    | 0.008    | 0.004    | 0.002    | 0.135    | 0.150    | 0.324    | 0.576    |
| \(S_{H_k}\) | 0.097    | 0.030    | 0.012    | 0.004    | 0.282    | 0.260    | 0.374    | 0.556    |
| \(W_H\) | 0.036    | 0.004    | 0.000    | 0.000    | 0.149    | 0.106    | 0.106    | 0.213    |
| \(W_{H_k}\) | 0.141    | 0.018    | 0.000    | 0.000    | 0.336    | 0.249    | 0.235    | 0.343    |
| \(C_H\) | 0.467    | 0.279    | 0.017    | 0.006    | 0.641    | 0.592    | 0.606    | 0.721    |
| \(C_{H_k}\) | 0.412    | 0.219    | 0.026    | 0.006    | 0.654    | 0.631    | 0.678    | 0.794    |

test works principally well, meaning that the power increases with the number of observations while the empirical size stays close to the nominal size. For CUSUM and Wilcoxon test, this seems to be not the case.

For the (purely short-range dependent) AR\((1)\)-processes we make two observations: First, due to the assumption of LRD \((H > 0.5)\) the normalization is too strong and the statistics converge to 0, at least under stationarity. If the structural change is big enough, the tests might still detect the change (see Table 8). However, there is a certain loss in power.

Secondly, Cramér-von Mises test and CUSUM test are showing a quite different finite sample performance. While under LRD (in concordance with the theory) their empirical size and power is always very similar, we now observe situations where the Cramér-von Mises test has empirical power 0.374 and the CUSUM test 0.678, see the results in Table 8. Again, this matches the theoretical fact that under short memory the tests show a different asymptotic behavior.

4. Proofs of the main results

4.1. Proof of Theorem 2.3 and Corollary 2.13

It is the goal to approximate the sequential empirical process by a linear combination of multiple partial sum processes. The indicator function \(1\{G_n(X_j) \leq \varepsilon\} \)
has the Hermite expansion
\[ 1 \{ G_n(X_j) \leq x \} = \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} J_{q,n}(x) q! H_q(X_j). \]

Remind that \( J_{q,n}(x) = E[1 \{ G_n(X_j) \leq x \} H_q(X_j)] \) and especially \( J_{0,n}(x) = P(G_n(X_j) \leq x) = F_n(x) \). Now let \( L_{m,n,j}(x) \) be the Hermite expansion up to \( m \), in detail
\[ L_{m,n,j}(x) = \sum_{q=0}^{m} J_{q,n}(x) q! H_q(X_j). \]

Let \( m(n) \) be the Hermite rank of \( 1 \{ G_n(X_j) \leq x \} \). Then we have by the conditions of Theorem 2.3 that \( m^* \leq m(n) \leq m \) for some \( m^* \leq m < 1/D \). Thus
\[ L_{m,n,j}(x) = F_n(x) + \sum_{q=m^*}^{m} J_{q,n}(x)/q! H_q(X_j). \]
Moreover, define
\[ S_n(l; x) = \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} (1 \{ G_n(X_j) \leq x \} - L_{m,n,j}(x)). \]

Finally, let \( S_n(k; x, y) = S_n(k; y) - S_n(k; x), L_{m,n,j}(x, y) = L_{m,n,j}(y) - L_{m,n,j}(x) \) and \( J_{n,q}(x, y) = J_{n,q}(y) - J_{n,q}(x) \).

We will make use of the chaining technique of Dehling and Taqqu (1989a). To this end, define
\[ \Lambda_n(x) := \int_{\{ G_n(s) \leq x \}} \left( \sum_{q=0}^{m} \frac{|H_q(s)|}{q!} \right) \phi(s) \, ds \]
and observe that \( J_{q,n}(x)/q! \) is bounded by \( \Lambda_n(x, y) = \Lambda_n(y) - \Lambda_n(x) \), for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and all \( q = 0, \ldots, m \). Furthermore, \( \Lambda_n \) is monotone, \( \Lambda_n(-\infty) = 0 \) and
\[ \Lambda_n(+\infty) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{q=0}^{m} \frac{|H_q(s)|}{q!} \right) \phi(s) \, ds = C < \infty, \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}. \]

Define partitions, similarly to Dehling and Taqqu (1989a), but now depending on \( n \), by
\[ x_i(k) = x_i^{(n)}(k) = \inf \{ x \mid \Lambda_n(x) \geq \Lambda_n(+\infty)i2^{-k} \} \quad i = 0, \ldots, 2^k - 1 \]
for \( k = 0, \ldots, K \), with the integer \( K \) chosen below. Then we have
\[ \Lambda_n(x_i(k)-) - \Lambda_n(x_{i-1}(k)) \leq \Lambda_n(+\infty)2^{-k}. \quad (4.2) \]
Note that the right hand side of (4.2) does not depend on \( n \).
Based on these partitions we can define chaining points \( i_k(x) \) by
\[
x_{i_k(x)}(k) \leq x < x_{i_k(x)+1}(k),
\]
for each \( x \) and each \( k \in \{0, 1, \ldots, K\} \), see Dehling and Taqqu (1989a).

**Lemma 4.1.** Define the chaining points as above. Suppose the following two conditions hold:

(i) There are constants \( \gamma > 0 \) and \( C > 0 \), not depending on \( n \), such that for all \( k \leq n \)
\[
E|S_n(k; x, y)|^2 \leq C \left( \frac{k}{n} \right) n^{-\gamma} F_n(x, y).
\]

(ii) For all \( \epsilon > 0 \) and all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) there is a real number \( K = K(n, \epsilon) \), such that for all \( \lambda > 0 \)
\[
P \left( \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} L_{m,n,j}(x_{i_k(x)}(K), x_{i_k(x)+1}(K)) \right| > \epsilon \right) \leq C \left( \frac{l}{n} \right) ^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda - m^*D}.
\]
Then there is a constant \( \rho > 0 \), such that for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and all \( \epsilon > 0 \) the following holds:
\[
P \left( \sup_{x} |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq C \left( \frac{l}{n} \right) ^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda - m^*D}.
\]

**Proof.** Due to definition of the chaining points each point \( x \) is linked to \(-\infty\) in detail
\[
-\infty = x_{i_0(x)}(0) \leq x_{i_1(x)}(1) \leq \cdots \leq x_{i_K(x)}(K) \leq x < x_{i_K(x)+1}(K)
\]
We have
\[
S_n(l; x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} S_n(l; x_{i_{k-1}(x)}(k-1), x_{i_k(x)}(k)) + S_n(l; x_{i_K(x)}(K), x). \quad (4.3)
\]
The last summand of the right hand side of (4.3) can be treated as follows
\[
\left| S_n(l; x_{i_K(x)}(K), x) \right|
= \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \left( 1_{\{x_{i_K(x)}(K) < G_n(X_j) \leq x\}} - L_{m,n,j}(x_{i_K(x)}(K), x) \right)
\leq \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \left( 1_{\{x_{i_K(x)}(K) < G_n(X_j) < x_{i_K(x)+1}(K)\}} \right)
\]
By (4.3) and (4.4) we get, using $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (k + 2)^{-2} < 1/2$,
\[
P \left( \sup_x |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \\
\leq P \left( \sup_x |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \sum_{k=1}^{K+1} (k + 2)^{-2} + \epsilon/2 \right) \\
\leq \sum_{k=1}^{K} P \left( \max_x |S_n(l; x_{k-1}(x)(k - 1), x_{ik}(x)(k))| > \epsilon/(k + 2)^2 \right) \\
+ P \left( \max_x |S_n(l; x_{ik}(x)(K), x_{ik}(x+1)(K))| > \epsilon/(K + 2)^2 \right) \\
+ P \left( 2d_{n,m}^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{l} L_{m,n,j}(x_{ik}(x)(K), x_{ik}(x+1)(K)) > \epsilon/2 \right). \tag{4.7}
\]

Further, by condition (i) of Lemma 4.1 and the Markov inequality we get
\[
P \left( \max_x |S_n(l; x_{ik}(x)(k), x_{ik+1}(x)(k+1))| > \epsilon/(k + 2)^2 \right) \\
\leq \sum_{i=0}^{2^{k+1}-1} P \left( S_n(l; x_i(k + 1), x_{i+1}(k + 1)) > \epsilon/(k + 2)^2 \right) \\
\leq C \sum_{i=0}^{2^{k+1}-1} \left( \frac{1}{n} \right) n^{-\gamma} \frac{(k + 2)^4}{\epsilon^2} F(n)(x_i(k + 1), x_{i+1}(k + 1)) \tag{4.8}
\leq C \left( \frac{1}{n} \right) n^{-\gamma} \frac{(k + 2)^4}{\epsilon^2}.
\]

The constant $C$ in (4.8) is the constant of condition (i) in Lemma 4.1 and thus independent of $n$. In the next line this $C$ gets multiplied with $A_n(\infty)$, which is a constant by itself. Thus the $C$ in the inequality above is a universal constant, not depending on $n$. The same is true for $\gamma$.

Using the same arguments we get moreover
\[
P \left( \max_x |S_n(l; x_{ik}(x)(K), x_{ik+1}(x)(K))| > \epsilon/(K + 3)^2 \right)
\]
Finally we have by condition (ii) of Lemma 4.1

\[
P\left( 2d_{n,m}^{-1} \sum_{j \leq l} L_{m,n,j}(x_{i_K}(x), x_{i_K(x)+1}(K) - \epsilon) \right) > (\epsilon/2)
\leq C \left( \frac{l}{n} \right)^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda-m^*D},
\]

for all \( \lambda > 0 \). Combining the estimates for (4.5), (4.6) and (4.7) we arrive at

\[
P\left( \sup_x |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq C \left( \frac{l}{n} \right)^{n-\gamma} (K+3)^4 + C \left( \frac{l}{n} \right)^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda-m^*D}.
\]

which finishes the proof. \(\square\)

**Lemma 4.2.** There exist constants \( \gamma \) and \( C \), not depending on \( n \), such that for all \( k \leq n \)

\[
E|S_n(k; x, y)|^2 \leq C \left( \frac{k}{n} \right)^{n-\gamma} F_{(n)}(x, y).
\]

The proof is very close to the proof of Lemma 3.1 in Dehling and Taqqu (1989a). However, for further results it is crucial that \( C \) and \( \gamma \) only depend indirectly on the function \( G_n \), namely through the Hermite rank. Thus we give a detailed proof to highlight this fact.

**Proof.** First, obtain the Hermite expansion

\[
1_{\{x < G_n(X_i) \leq y\}} - F_{(n)}(x, y) = \sum_{q=m^*}^{\infty} \frac{J_{q,n}(x, y)}{q!} H_q(X_i).
\]

Secondly, we have by orthogonality of the \( H_q(X_i) \) and \( EH_q^2(X_i) = q! \)

\[
\sum_{q=m^*}^{\infty} \frac{J_{q,n}(x, y)}{q!} = \sum_{q=m^*}^{\infty} E \left( \frac{J_{q,n}(x, y)}{q!} H_q(X_i) \right)^2
= E \left( \sum_{q=m^*}^{\infty} \frac{J_{q,n}(x, y)}{q!} H_q(X_i) \right)^2
= E \left( 1_{\{x < G_n(X_i) \leq y\}} - F_{(n)}(x, y) \right)^2
= F_{(n)}(x, y) (1 - F_{(n)}(x, y)).
\]
This yields

\[ \sum_{q=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{J_{q,n}^2(x)}{q!} \sum_{i,j \leq k} EH_q(X_i)H_q(X_j) \leq F_n(x,y) \sum_{i,j \leq k} |r(i-j)|^{m+1}. \]

Note that the second factor of the product in the last line may depend indirectly on the function \( G_n \), because \( G_n \) determines \( m \), however this is the only influence.

For different combinations of \( m \) and \( D \) the term \( \sum_{i,j \leq k} |r(i-j)|^{m+1} \) might have a different asymptotic order. However, in all cases we get (see page 1777 in Dehling and Taqqu (1989a))

\[ \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i,j \leq k} |r(i-j)|^{m+1} \leq C n^{mD-2} L^{-m}(n) k^{1/(2-(m+1)/D)} L_1(k) \]

\[ \leq C \left( \frac{k}{n} \right)^{1/(2-(m+1)/D)} n^{mD-1/(2-D)} L_1(k) L^{-m}(n). \]

The result then follows because \( L \) and \( L_1 \) are slowly varying. \( \Box \)

**Lemma 4.3.** Let \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \epsilon > 0 \). Define the chaining points and \( L_{m,n,j}(x) \) as in (4.1). Set

\[ K = K(n, \epsilon) = \left\lfloor \log_2 \left( \frac{(m-m^*+2)\Lambda_n(\infty)}{\epsilon} nd_{n,m} \right) \right\rfloor + 1. \]

Then there is a constant \( C > 0 \), such that for all \( \lambda > 0 \)

\[ P \left( \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} L_{m,n,j}(x_{ik(x)}(K), x_{ik(x)+1}(K)-) \right| > \epsilon \right) \leq C \left( \frac{l}{n} \right)^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda-m^*D}. \]

**Proof.** By construction of the chaining points we have for \( q = 0, \ldots, m \) and for all \( x \in \mathbb{R} \)

\[ \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |J_{q,n}(x_{ik(x)}(K), x_{ik(x)+1}(K)-)| / q! \leq \Lambda_n(\infty) 2^{-K}. \]

Thus for all \( x \in \mathbb{R} \)

\[ \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \left| \sum_{j=1}^{l} L_{m,n,j}(x_{ik(x)}(K), x_{ik(x)+1}(K)-) \right| \]
\[ \leq \sum_{q=0}^{m} |J_{q,n}(x_{iK}(x)(K), x_{1K(x)+1}(K)) - \frac{1}{q!} \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} H_{q}(X_j)| \]

\[ \leq \Lambda_n(\mathcal{+\infty}) 2^{-K} \sum_{q=0}^{m} \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} H_{q}(X_j) \] .

By definition of \( K \)
\[ \frac{2^{K}\epsilon}{(m - m^* + 2)\Lambda_n(\mathcal{+\infty})} \geq \frac{n}{d_{n,m}} . \]
Therefore we get by Markov’s inequality for \( q = m^*, \ldots, m \)
\[ P \left( \Lambda_n(\mathcal{+\infty}) 2^{-K} \sum_{j=1}^{l} H_{q}(X_j) > \frac{\epsilon}{(m - m^* + 2)} \right) \]
\[ \leq P \left( \sum_{j=1}^{l} H_{q}(X_j) > n \right) \leq C \frac{d_{q,n}^2}{n^2} \leq C \frac{2^{qD}}{n^2} L^3(l) \leq C \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda-m^*D} . \]

For \( q = 0 \) the term is deterministic, thus the probability is 0. \( \square \)

**Proof of Theorem 2.3.** The two conditions of Lemma 4.1 are satisfied (see Lemma 4.2 and Lemma 4.3) with
\[ K = \left\lfloor \log_2 \left( \frac{(m - m^* - 2)\Lambda_n(\mathcal{+\infty})}{\epsilon} \right) n^{-1} \right\rfloor + 1 . \]

Note that \( (K + 3)^5 \leq C \epsilon^{-1} n^\delta \) for any \( \delta > 0 \), see Dehling and Taqqu (1989a), page 1781. By this fact and by virtue of Lemma 4.1
\[ P \left( \sup_x |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq C \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{\delta - \gamma - \epsilon^{-3}} + C \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{2-m^*D} n^{\lambda-m^*D} \]
\[ \leq C n^{-\rho} \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{\epsilon^{-3}} + \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{2-m^*D} \right\} , \]
with \( \rho = \min(\gamma - \delta, m^*D - \lambda) \). Now choose \( \delta < \gamma \), then \( \rho > 0 \) and we have thus proven a reduction principle in \( x \). It remains to verify uniformity in \( l \). For \( n = 2^r \) one gets by the same arguments as in the proof of Theorem 3.1 in Dehling and Taqqu (1989a)
\[ P \left( \max_{l \leq n} |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq C n^{-\kappa}(1 + \epsilon^{-3}) \]
for any \( 0 < \epsilon \leq 1 \) and universal constants \( C \) and \( \epsilon \). Next consider arbitrary \( n \) and define for \( r \) such that \( 2^{r-1} < n \leq 2^r \)
\[ S^*_n(l, x) = \frac{1}{d_{2r,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{l} (1_{\{G_n(x_j) \leq x\}} - L_{m,n,j}(x)) \text{ for } l \leq 2^r . \]
where \( \{G_n(X_j)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}, j \leq 2^r} \) is a (slightly modified) array. One obtains
\[
P \left( \max_{l \leq n} \sup_x |S_n^*(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq C(2^r)^{-\kappa}(1 + \epsilon^{-3}).
\]
Hence
\[
P \left( \max_{l \leq n} \sup_x |S_n(l; x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq P \left( \max_{l \leq n} \sup_x |S_n^*(l; x)| > \epsilon \frac{d_{n,m}}{d_{2^r,m}} \right)
\]
\[
\leq C(2^r)^{-\kappa} \left( 1 + \epsilon^{-3} \left( \frac{d_{2^r,m}}{d_{n,m}} \right)^3 \right)
\]
\[
\leq Cn^{-\kappa}(1 + \epsilon^{-3}).
\]
The last line holds since \( d_{2^r,m}/d_{n,m} \) is uniformly bounded away from 0 and \( \infty \). Thus, Theorem 2.3 is proven.

**Proof of Corollary 2.13.** Using the reduction principle, namely Theorem 2.3, it remains to show that
\[
d_{n,m}^{-1} \sum_{q=m^*}^m J_{q,n}(x) \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} H_q(X_i)
\] (4.9)
converges to the desired limit processes. Define
\[
Z_{n,q}(t) = \frac{1}{d_{n,q}} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} H_q(X_i),
\]
and note that because of \( 1/m > D \) the sequences \( \{H_q(X_i)\}_{i \geq 1} \) are long-range dependent for \( q = m^*, \ldots, m \). Then we have by Theorem 4 of Bai and Taqqu (2013)
\[
(Z_{n,m^*}, \ldots, Z_{n,m}) \overset{D}{\to} (Z_{m^*}, \ldots, Z_m),
\] (4.10)
where convergence takes place in \( (D[0,1])^{m-m^*+1} \), equipped with the uniform metric. Moreover, \( (Z_q(t))_{t \in [0,1]} \) are uncorrelated Hermite processes of order \( q \). The functions \( h_q \) are elements of \( D[-\infty, \infty] \) and therefore they are also bounded, see Remark 2.15. Hence we may apply the continuous mapping theorem and conclude that
\[
\left\{ \sum_{q=m^*}^m h_q(x) d_{n,q}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} H_q(X_i) \right\}_{t,x}
\]
converges in distribution to
\[
\left\{ \sum_{q=m^*}^m h_q(x) Z_q(t) \right\}_{t,x},
\]
where convergence takes place in \( D([0,1] \times [-\infty, \infty]) \), equipped with the supremum norm. The result then follows by the uniform convergence of \( d_{n,m}/d_{n,q}J_{q,n}(x) \) towards \( q!h_q(x) \), the reduction principle and Slutsky’s theorem.

\[ \square \]
4.2. Proof of Theorem 2.1 and Theorem 2.2

We start by proving a reduction principle for the empirical process in presence of a change point. Consider the array \( \{Y_{n,i}\}_{n,i \leq n} \), defined in section 2, and let \( H_{n,i}(x) = P(Y_{n,i} \leq x) \). Define

\[
S_n^{(\tau)}(t,x) = \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \left( 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - H_{n,i}(x) - \sum_{q=m}^{m^*} \frac{J_{q,n,i}(x)}{q!} H_q(X_i) \right),
\]

where \( J_{q,n,i}(x) = E[1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} H_q(X_i)] \). Note that \( J_{q,n,i}(x) = 0 \) if \( i \leq \lfloor n \tau \rfloor \) and \( q < m \).

Lemma 4.4. Let the conditions of Theorem 2.1 hold. Then there are constants \( C \geq 0 \) and \( \kappa > 0 \) such that for all \( \epsilon > 0 \)

\[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |S_n^{(\tau)}(t,x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq Cn^{-\kappa}(1 + \epsilon^{-3}).
\]

Proof. Define

\[
S_{n,1}(t,x) = \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \left( 1_{\{G(X_j) \leq x\}} - F(x) - \frac{J_m(x)}{m!} H_m(X_j) \right)
\]

and

\[
S_{n,2}(t,x) = \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \left( 1_{\{G_n(X_j) \leq x\}} - F_n(x) - \sum_{q=m^*}^{m} \frac{J_{q,n}(x)}{q!} H_q(X_j) \right).
\]

By Theorem 2.3 we have

\[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |S_{n,i}(t,x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq Cn^{-\kappa}(1 + \epsilon^{-3}) \quad i = 1, 2. \tag{4.11}
\]

Next obtain

\[
S_n^{(\tau)}(t,x) = \begin{cases} 
S_{n,1}(t,x), & \text{if } t \leq \tau, \\
S_{n,2}(t,x) + S_{n,1}(\tau,x) - S_{n,2}(\tau,x), & \text{if } t > \tau.
\end{cases}
\]

Therefore, we get, using (4.11) several times,

\[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |S_n^{(\tau)}(t,x)| > \epsilon \right) \leq 2P\left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |S_{n,1}(t,x)| > \epsilon/4 \right) + 2P\left( \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |S_{n,2}(t,x)| > \epsilon/4 \right) \leq 4Cn^{-\kappa}(1 + \epsilon^{-3}),
\]

for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and all \( \epsilon > 0 \). \( \Box \)
Lemma 4.5. Let Assumption A hold. Then for all $q \leq m$
\[ \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \frac{d_{n,m^*}}{d_{n,m}} |J_{q,n}(x) - J_q(x)| \to 0, \tag{4.12} \]
as $n \to \infty$.

Proof. Using Hölder’s inequality, one has for any $p \in \mathbb{N}$
\[ |J_{q,n}(x) - J_q(x)| = |E(1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}})H_q(X_i)| \]
\[ \leq \left( E|1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}}|^{(p+1)/p} \right)^{p/(p+1)} \|H_q(X_i)\|_{L^{p+1}} \]
\[ \leq C(E|1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}}|)^{p/(p+1)} \]
Now obtain
\[ E|1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}}| \]
\[ = P(\{G_n(X_1) \leq x, G(X_1) > x\} \cup \{G_n(X_1) > x, G(X_1) \leq x\}) \]
\[ = 1 - P(\{G_n(X_1) > x, G(X_1) > x\}) - P(\{G_n(X_1) > x, G(X_1) \leq x\}) \]
\[ = P(\min\{G_n(X_1), G(X_1)\} \leq x) - P(\max\{G_n(X_1), G(X_1)\} \leq x) \]
\[ = o(n^{(m^*-m)D(1+\delta)/2}), \]
for some $\delta > 0$. The last line holds uniformly due to Assumptions A2. Finally,
\[ \frac{d_{n,m^*}}{d_{n,m}} |J_{q,n}(x) - J_q(x)| \]
\[ \leq C_n^{(m-m^*)D/2} L^{(m^*-m)/2}(n) (E|1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}}|)^{p/(p+1)} \]
\[ \leq C \left( n^{(m-m^*)D(p+1)/p} 2^{p/2} E|1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}}| \right)^{p/(p+1)} \]
\[ = C \left( n^{(m-m^*)D(1+1/p)/2} E|1_{\{G_n(x_i) \leq x\}} - 1_{\{G(X_i) \leq x\}}| \right)^{p/(p+1)}. \]
Choosing $p > 1/\delta$, this implies (4.12). \hfill \Box

Proof of Theorem 2.1. By definition of the functions $J_{q,n,i}$ we get
\[ \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \sum_{q=m^*}^{m} \frac{J_{q,n,i}(x)}{q!} H_q(X_i) \]
\[ = \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \frac{J_m(x)}{m!} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} H_m(X_i) \]
\[ + \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{q=m^*}^{m-1} \frac{J_{q,n}(x)}{q!} \frac{1}{d_{n,q}} \sum_{i=\lfloor nt \rfloor + 1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor + m} H_q(X_i) \]
\[ + \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \frac{J_{m,n}(x) - J_m(x)}{m!} \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=\lfloor nt \rfloor + 1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor + m} H_m(X_i). \]
The second and the third summands are negligible due to the uniform convergence of the functions $J_{q,n}$ (see Lemma 4.5). The first summand converges in distribution towards
\[ \frac{J_m(x)}{m!} Z_m(t), \]
see Dehling and Taqqu (1989a). Together with Lemma 4.4 this finishes the proof.

**Proof of Theorem 2.2.** We give the proof for a sequence of local alternatives. The asymptotic behavior under the hypothesis then is an immediate consequence. Obtain the following decomposition of the empirical bridge-process
\[
\frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} \right) \]
\[
= \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - H_{n,i}(x) \right) - t \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - H_{n,i}(x)) \]
\[
+ \left( t - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \right) \frac{1}{d_{n,m}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - H_{n,i}(x) \]
\[
+ \frac{n}{d_{n,m}} \psi_{n,\tau}(t) (F(x) - F(n)(x)),
\]
where
\[
\psi_{n,\tau}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \left( 1 - \frac{\lfloor n\tau \rfloor}{n} \right), & \text{if } t \leq \tau, \\ \frac{\lfloor n\tau \rfloor}{n} \left( 1 - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \right), & \text{if } t > \tau. \end{cases}
\]

By uniform convergence of $n/d_{n,m}(F(x) - F(n)(x))$ and $\psi_{n,\tau}(t)$ towards $g(x)$ and $\psi_\tau(t)$, respectively, Theorem 2.1 and the continuous mapping theorem, one gets that (4.13) converges weakly towards
\[ J_m(x)/(m!) (Z_m(t) - tZ_m(t)) + \psi_\tau(t)g(x). \]

The convergence of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov type statistic then follows from continuity of the application of the supremum norm. The Cramér-von Mises statistic $S_n$ can be written $S_n = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} M_n(t)$, where
\[
M_n(t) = d_{n,m}^{-2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} \right)^2 d\hat{F}_n(x) 
\]
\[
= d_{n,m}^{-2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} \right)^2 dF(x) \quad (4.14)
\]
Due to the convergence of (4.13) and the continuous mapping theorem, (4.14) converges to the desired limit process. Thus, it remains to show that (4.15) is negligible. Therefore, obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
&\frac{1}{d_{n,m}^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} \right)^2 \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \frac{J_m(x)}{(m!) \hat{Z}_m(t) - \psi_\tau(t)g(x)} \right)^2 \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \\
&\quad + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \frac{d_{n,m}^2}{d_{n,m}^2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{\{Y_{n,i} \leq x\}} \right)^2 \\
&\quad - \left( \frac{J_m(x)}{(m!) \hat{Z}_m(t) - \psi_\tau(t)g(x)} \right)^2 \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)).
\end{align*}
\]

Using the Skorohod-Dudley-Wichura representation theorem (whose conditions are satisfied because \( J_m(x) \), \((m!) \hat{Z}_m(t) - \psi_\tau(t)g(x)\) lays almost surely in \( C([0,1] \times [-\infty, \infty]) \)), one can assume without loss of generality that

\[
\frac{d_{n,m}^2}{(m!) \hat{Z}_m(t) - \psi_\tau(t)g(x)} \to 0 \quad \text{uniformly in } x \text{ and } t.
\]

Thus, (4.17) converges to 0, uniformly in \( t \). Next consider (4.16)

\[
\begin{align*}
&\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \frac{J_m(x)}{(m!) \hat{Z}_m(t) - \psi_\tau(t)g(x)} \right)^2 \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \\
&= \left( \frac{\hat{Z}_m(t)}{m!} \right)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} J_m^2(x) \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \\
&\quad \quad - 2 \hat{Z}_m(t) \psi_\tau(t) \int_{\mathbb{R}} J_m(x) g(x) \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \\
&\quad \quad + \psi_\tau^2(t) \int_{\mathbb{R}} g^2(x) \, d(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \\
&= I_n - II_n + III_n.
\end{align*}
\]

As a consequence of Theorem 2.1 and \( F_{(n)}(x) \to F(x) \) one gets a weak Glivenko-Cantelli type convergence, in detail

\[
\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)| \leq \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_n(x) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_{n,i}(x) \right| + \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |F_{(n)}(x) - F(x)|
\]
converges in probability to 0. Moreover, obtain that $J_m(x)$ is of bounded variation (this was also noted in Dehling and Taqqu (1989a)). To see this, let $[a, b]$ be an arbitrary interval and $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n$ a partition of this interval. Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |J(x_{i+1}) - J(x_i)| = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |E[1_{\{x_i < G(X_1) \leq x_{i+1}\}} H_m(X_1)]|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E[1_{\{x_i < G(X_1) \leq x_{i+1}\}} |H_m(X_1)|]$$

$$= E \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 1_{\{x_i < G(X_1) \leq x_{i+1}\}} |H_m(X_1)| \right]$$

$$= E \left[ \left\{ 1_{\{G(X_1) \in [a, b]\}} |H_m(X_1)| \right\} \right]$$

$$\leq E|H_m(X_1)|.$$

By the boundedness of $J_m$, $J_m^2$ is also of bounded variation and thus integration by parts, together with the weak Glivenko-Cantelli-type result, yields

$$I_n = -\left(\hat{Z}_m(t)\right)^2/(m!)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)\right) dJ_m^2(x) \overset{P}{\to} 0.$$ 

By definition, the function $g(x)$ is bounded and of bounded variation. Hence the same is true for $g^2(x)$ and by the same arguments as above one gets $II_n = o_P(1)$. Finally, $II_n = o_P(1)$, which can be seen using Hölder’s inequality. This finishes the proof.

**Remark 4.6.** Note that our proof of the weak convergence of the Cramér-von Mises statistic would not work for short-range dependent time series. The reason is the completely different limit behavior of the sequential empirical process. Instead of the semi-degenerate process $J_m(x)\hat{Z}_m(t)$ one gets a Gaussian process $K(t, x)$. While $J_m$ is of bounded variation, this is not the case for sample paths of $K$. Hence $\int_{\mathbb{R}} K(t, x) d(F_n(x) - F(x))$ cannot be treated simultaneously to $\int_{\mathbb{R}} J_m(x) d(F_n(x) - F(x))$.

**Acknowledgements**

The work has been supported by the Collaborative Research Center “Statistical modeling of nonlinear dynamic processes” (SFB 823) of the German Research Foundation (DFG). The author would like to thank Herold Dehling for insightful remarks and fruitful discussions.

I am also very grateful for the comments of two anonymous referee. Their suggestions improved the paper and inspired results as the ARE for a combined change of mean and variance and Example 2.8.
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