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Bias Correction of Persistence Measures in Fractionally Integrated Models

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Abstract

This paper investigates the accuracy of bootstrap-based bias correction of persistence measures for long memory fractionally integrated processes. The bootstrap method is based on the semi-parametric sieve approach, with the dynamics in the long memory process captured by an autoregressive approximation. With a view to improving accuracy, the sieve method is also applied to data pre-filtered by a semi-parametric estimate of the long memory parameter. Both versions of the bootstrap technique are used to estimate the finite sample distributions of the sample autocorrelation coefficients and the impulse response coefficients and, in turn, to bias-adjust these statistics. The accuracy of the resultant estimators in the case of the autocorrelation coefficients is also compared with that yielded by analytical bias adjustment methods when available. The (raw) sieve technique is seen to yield a reduction in the bias of both persistence measures. The pre-filtered sieve produces a substantial further reduction in the bias of the estimated impulse response function, whilst the extra improvement yielded by pre-filtering in the case of the sample autocorrelation function is shown to depend heavily on the accuracy of the pre-filter.

Keywords: Long memory, ARFIMA, sieve bootstrap, bootstrap-based bias correction, sample autocorrelation function, impulse response function.

JEL Classification: C18, C22, C52

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1 Introduction

Measuring the degree of persistence, or memory, in an economic or financial time series is crucial for understanding the response of the variable to shocks, in particular to policy-induced shocks. Traditionally, discussion of persistence has taken place in the context of models that are either integrated of order zero ($I(0)$) or of order one ($I(1)$), with the most commonly applied measures in this context being the impulse response and autocorrelation functions. The focus of this paper is on measuring persistence in the class of fractionally integrated ($I(d)$) processes introduced by [Granger and Joyeux \(1980\)](#) and [Hosking \(1980\)](#) – a key class of models used to capture long memory, or *strong* dependence, in a wide range of empirical applications.

Long memory $I(d)$ processes can be characterized by the specification

$$y(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi(j)\varepsilon(t-j) = \frac{\kappa(z)}{(1-z)^d} \varepsilon(t), \quad (1.1)$$

where $\varepsilon(t)$, $t \in \mathbb{Z}$, is a zero mean white noise process with variance σ^2 , z denotes the lag operator, and the ‘short-memory’ component, $\kappa(z) = \sum_{j \geq 0} \kappa(j)z^j$, is assumed to satisfy $\sum_{j \geq 0} |\kappa(j)| < \infty$, the transfer function of a stable, invertible autoregressive moving average (ARMA) process, for example. The long-run behaviour of this process depends on the fractional integration parameter d . Specifically, for any $d \neq 0$ the impulse response coefficients $\psi(z)$ in (1.1), as well as the autocovariances of the process, decline at a hyperbolic rate, rather than the exponential rate typical of a short-memory ARMA process. For the empirically relevant values of $d > 0$ the rate of decline is slow enough to preclude (absolute) summability for both measures of persistence, leading to the characterization of $y(t)$ as a ‘long-memory’ process in this case.

While the literature dealing with inference in the context of autoregressive fractionally integrated moving average (ARFIMA) models is well-developed¹, some issues remain to be addressed, including as pertain to inference about the two persistence measures. Most notable here is the well-known (downward) bias of estimates of the autocorrelation function (ACF) under long memory ([Hosking, 1996](#)), and the impact on inference of the asymptotic non-Gaussianity of the sample autocorrelations for $d \geq 0.25$. Regarding the bias issue specifically, while [Hosking \(1996\)](#) provides an asymptotically valid representation of the bias of the general k^{th} -order sample autocorrelation, it is dependent on unknown parameters. The same point holds for the higher-order bias adjustment for the first-order sample autocorrelation coefficient derived by [Lee and Ko \(2009\)](#). Both results yield feasible bias-adjustment methods only via the insertion of estimates of unknown population values, and the sampling prop-

¹ See [Beran \(1994\)](#), [Doukhan, Oppenheim and Taqqu \(2003\)](#) and [Robinson \(2003\)](#) for textbook expositions

erties of any resultant bias-adjusted estimators remain unknown. Similarly, whilst the general problem of producing accurate point and interval estimates of the impulse response function (IRF) in time series models has prompted recent investigation, see [Pesavento and Rossi \(2007\)](#), [Inoue and Kilian \(2014\)](#) and [Lütkepohl, Staszewska-Bystrova and Winker \(2014\)](#)), the specific issue of IRF inference for long memory ARFIMA processes – including that of bias correction – has to our knowledge only been tackled in [Baillie and Kapetanios \(2013\)](#), and remains an under-developed area.

The primary focus of the current paper is on the use of bootstrap methods to bias correct both persistence measures in the long memory ARFIMA setting. In the spirit of recent work in [Poskitt \(2008\)](#), [Baillie and Kapetanios \(2013\)](#) and [Poskitt, Grose and Martin \(2013\)](#) the semi-parametric sieve bootstrap is the technique of choice, obviating as it does the need to specify the (unknown) short-run dynamics in the ARFIMA model. The sieve works by ‘whitening’ the data using an autoregressive (AR) approximation and capturing the dynamics of the process in the fitted AR (the order of which increases at a suitable rate with the sample size). Results presented by [Poskitt \(2008\)](#), building on earlier results in [Poskitt \(2007\)](#), demonstrate that the sieve method produces error rates that are superior to those of the block bootstrap of [Künsch \(1989\)](#). Subsequently, [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#) have strengthened these results considerably, with the higher-order improvement yielded by the sieve method demonstrated using an Edgeworth expansion for a broad class of statistics that includes both forms of statistics investigated here. Furthermore, the authors have shown that the rate of convergence of a modified version of the ‘raw’ sieve technique – in which a consistent semi-parametric estimator of d is used to ‘pre-filter’ the data prior to the application of the sieve algorithm – is equivalent to that associated with the application of the sieve method to short memory processes (see [Choi and Hall, 2000](#))².

In the current paper we exploit the theoretical (and numerical) accuracy of the sieve-based distributional estimates, and extract from those estimated distributions an appropriate estimate of bias, for the statistics of interest, and bias-adjust those statistics in the usual way. The finite sample properties of the bias-adjusted estimators so produced are then documented via an extensive simulation exercise. Consistent with the semi-parametric spirit of the exercise, the impulse response coefficients are produced as the inversion of a long AR fitted to the data, rather than as non-linear functions of the parameters of some fully specified ARFIMA model. The sample autocorrelation coefficients are calculated using the standard Pearson formula. In order to render the bootstrap estimate of the bias a valid representation of the true but unknown bias, the ‘true’ reference value used in the bias computation is derived in a way that is consistent with the sieve method (either raw or pre-filtered) used to generate

² This rate is, in turn, arbitrarily close to the bootstrap rate of convergence attained for independent data.

the bootstrap samples. Two alternative methods are, in turn, used to determine the length of the AR approximation in both the sieve method itself and in the computation of the reference values. For both persistence functions the pre-filtered sieve is illustrated using the ‘semi-parametric Gaussian’ estimator of d examined by [Robinson \(1995\)](#), here referred to as the ‘semi-parametric local Whittle’ (SPLW) estimator. This estimator is shown in [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#) to satisfy the necessary conditions for the higher-order convergence properties of the pre-filtered sieve to obtain. As a proof-of-concept exercise, we also document results based on the use of the true (unknown) value of d as the pre-filter.

Accuracy of the bootstrap bias-corrected autocorrelation estimators is assessed relative to that of estimators adjusted using both the asymptotic bias of [Hosking \(1996\)](#) and, in the case of first-order autocorrelation, the analytic bias expression of [Lee and Ko \(2009\)](#). Given that the former expression for bias depends on the true (unknown) values of the parameters, it is empirically infeasible (in the absence of suitable estimators of those parameters) as a bias adjustment procedure; however, for a large enough sample size it represents the ideal toward which the bootstrap-based methods should converge. The latter bias expression is a higher order approximation than the former, and we render it feasible by inserting the empirical values of the Yule-Walker-based estimates of the autocorrelation coefficients upon which the expression depends. In so doing one is producing an appropriate expression for the bias (and subsequent bias-adjusted statistic) that the raw sieve bootstrap, in particular, is attempting to replicate numerically, making the comparison particularly apt.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 briefly outlines the methodology underlying the sieve bootstrap and its use in estimating the sampling distribution and finite-sample bias of selected persistence measures. For conciseness we present the more general pre-filtered methodology in detail, with this technique nesting the ‘raw’ sieve technique when the pre-filtering step is omitted. Selected results from [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#) that highlight the theoretical convergence rates of the bootstrap-based estimates of the sampling distributions on which the subsequent bias-adjustment rests, are also reproduced for convenience. In Section 3 we outline the key theoretical properties of the two persistence measures to be bias-adjusted, whilst in Section 4 the finite sample performance of the bias-corrected estimators in a variety of settings is assessed via simulation.

2 Long-memory processes, autoregressive approximation, and the pre-filtered sieve bootstrap

We assume that $y(t)$ is a linearly regular, covariance-stationary process with representation as in (1.1) where the stochastic disturbance and the impulse response coefficients satisfy the following conditions:

Assumption 1 *The process $\varepsilon(t)$ is ergodic and,*

$$E[\varepsilon(t) \mid \mathcal{E}_{t-1}] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad E[\varepsilon(t)^2 \mid \mathcal{E}_{t-1}] = \sigma^2, \quad (2.1)$$

where \mathcal{E}_t denotes the σ -algebra of events determined by $\varepsilon(s)$, $s \leq t$. Furthermore, $E[\varepsilon(t)^4] < \infty$.

Assumption 2 *The transfer function in the representation of the process $y(t)$, namely $k(z) = \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi(j)z^j$, is given by $\psi(z) = \kappa(z)/(1-z)^d$ where $|d| < 0.5$ and $\kappa(z)$ satisfies $\kappa(z) \neq 0$, $|z| \leq 1$, and $\sum_{j \geq 0} j|\kappa(j)| < \infty$.*

Assumption 1 imposes a classical martingale difference structure on the stochastic disturbance process; the key property of such a process that underlies the asymptotic results being that a martingale difference is uncorrelated with any measurable function of its own past. Assumptions 1 and 2, taken together, incorporate a wide class of linear processes, including the ARFIMA family of models that are the focus of this work.

Under the martingale difference structure for $\varepsilon(t)$ imposed by Assumption 1, the linear predictor

$$\bar{y}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \pi(j)y(t-j) \quad (2.2)$$

is the minimum mean squared error predictor (MMSEP) of $y(t)$. The MMSEP of $y(t)$ based only on the finite past is then

$$\bar{y}_h(t) = \sum_{j=1}^h \pi_h(j)y(t-j) \equiv - \sum_{j=1}^h \phi_h(j)y(t-j), \quad (2.3)$$

where we adopt the minor reparameterization from π_h to ϕ_h in order to allow us, on also defining $\phi_h(0) = 1$, to write the corresponding prediction error as

$$\varepsilon_h(t) = \sum_{j=0}^h \phi_h(j)y(t-j). \quad (2.4)$$

The finite-order autoregressive coefficients $\phi_h(1), \dots, \phi_h(h)$ can, in turn, be deduced from the Yule-Walker equations

$$\sum_{j=0}^h \phi_h(j)\gamma(j-k) = \delta_0(k)\sigma_h^2, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, h, \quad (2.5)$$

where $\gamma(\tau) = \gamma(-\tau) = E[y(t)y(t - \tau)]$, $\tau = 0, 1, \dots$ is the autocovariance function of the process $y(t)$, $\delta_0(k)$ is Kronecker's delta (i.e., $\delta_0(k) = 0 \forall k \neq 0$; $\delta_0(0) = 1$), and

$$\sigma_h^2 = E[\varepsilon_h(t)^2] \quad (2.6)$$

is the prediction error variance associated with $\bar{y}_h(t)$ in (2.3).

The use of the optimal predictor $\bar{y}_h(t)$ determined from the autoregressive model of finite order h is appropriate only if it is a good approximation to the ‘infinite-order’ predictor $\bar{y}(t)$ for sufficiently large h . Poskitt (2007) addresses this very issue under regularity conditions that admit non-summable processes, proving the asymptotic validity, and properties, of finite-order AR models when $h \rightarrow \infty$ with the sample size T at a suitable rate. In brief, the order- h prediction error $\varepsilon_h(t)$ converges to $\varepsilon(t)$ in mean-square, the estimated sample-based covariances converge to their population counterparts – albeit at a slower rate than for a conventionally stationary process – and the least squares and Yule-Walker estimators of the coefficients of the approximating autoregression are asymptotically equivalent and consistent. Order selection by AIC is also shown to be asymptotically efficient in the sense of being equivalent to minimizing Shibata's (1980) figure of merit, something addressed in more detail in Section 4.1 below. It thus follows (see Poskitt, 2008), that the sieve bootstrap, which uses an estimated AR approximation to capture the dynamics of the process, is a plausible semi-parametric bootstrap technique for long-memory processes.

Motivated by the theoretical results in Poskitt et al. (2013) we, in turn, modify this ‘raw’ sieve approach by applying the sieve to ‘data’ pre-filtered via a suitable \sqrt{N} -consistent semi-parametric estimator, where N increases with T such that $N/T \rightarrow 0$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$. Details of the both the raw and pre-filtered sieve bootstrap, including their relevant orders of accuracy are, as noted earlier, given in Poskitt et al. (2013). For convenience, we reproduce here the basic steps needed to implement the pre-filtered sieve bootstrap. A brief summary of the relevant convergence results then follows in Section 2.2.

2.1 The pre-filtered sieve algorithm

Suppose that a value \hat{d} is available such that $\hat{d} - d \in N_\delta = \{x : |x| < \delta\}$ where $0 < \delta < 0.5$. For any $d > -1$ let $\alpha_j^{(d)}$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, denote the coefficients of the binomial expansion of the fractional difference operator,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - z)^d &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_j^{(d)} z^j = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\Gamma(j - d)}{\Gamma(-d)\Gamma(j + 1)} \right) z^j \\ &= 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(\prod_{0 < k \leq j} \frac{k - 1 - d}{k} \right) z^j. \end{aligned}$$

Setting

$$w(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \alpha_j^{(d)} y(t-j), \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

and using the preliminary estimate \hat{d} , pre-filtered sieve bootstrap realizations of $y(t)$ are generated as follows:

Step 1. Calculate the coefficients of the filter $(1-z)^{\hat{d}}$ and from the empirical data generate the filtered values

$$\hat{w}(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \alpha_j^{(\hat{d})} y(t-j), \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

Step 2. Fit an AR approximation to $\hat{w}(t)$ and generate a sieve bootstrap sample $\hat{w}^*(t)$, $t = 1, \dots, T$, of the filtered data as follows:

- a. Given the filtered series $\hat{w}(t)$, $t = 1, \dots, T$, calculate the parameter estimates of the $AR(h)$ approximation, denoted by $\hat{\phi}_h(1), \dots, \hat{\phi}_h(h)$ and $\hat{\sigma}_h^2$, and evaluate the residuals,

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_h(t) = \sum_{j=0}^h \hat{\phi}_h(j) \hat{w}(t-j), \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

using $\hat{w}(1-j) = \hat{w}(T-j+1)$, $j = 1, \dots, h$, as initial values. From $\hat{\varepsilon}_h(t)$, $t = 1, \dots, T$, construct the standardized residuals $\tilde{\varepsilon}_h(t) = (\hat{\varepsilon}_h(t) - \bar{\varepsilon}_h) / s_{\hat{\varepsilon}_h}$, where $\bar{\varepsilon}_h = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\varepsilon}_h(t)$ and $s_{\hat{\varepsilon}_h}^2 = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T (\hat{\varepsilon}_h(t) - \bar{\varepsilon}_h)^2$.

- b. Let $\varepsilon_h^+(t)$, $t = 1, \dots, T$, denote a simple random sample of *i.i.d.* values drawn from

$$U_{\tilde{\varepsilon}_h, T}(e) = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{1}\{\tilde{\varepsilon}_h(t) \leq e\},$$

the probability distribution function that places a probability mass of $1/T$ at each of $\tilde{\varepsilon}_h(t)$, $t = 1, \dots, T$. Set $\varepsilon_h^*(t) = \hat{\sigma}_h \varepsilon_h^+(t)$, $t = 1, \dots, T$.

- c. Construct the sieve bootstrap realization $\hat{w}^*(1), \dots, \hat{w}^*(T)$ where $\hat{w}^*(t)$ is generated from the autoregressive process

$$\sum_{j=0}^h \hat{\phi}_h(j) \hat{w}^*(t-j) = \varepsilon_h^*(t), \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

initiated at $\hat{w}^*(1-j) = \hat{w}(\tau-j+1)$, $j = 1, \dots, h$, where τ has the discrete uniform distribution on the integers h, \dots, T .

Step 3. Using the coefficients of the (inverse) filter $(1 - z)^{-\hat{d}}$, construct, for $y(t)$, the corresponding pre-filtered sieve bootstrap draw:

$$\hat{y}^*(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \alpha_j^{(-\hat{d})} \hat{w}^*(t-j), \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

from which the relevant statistics - the autocorrelation and impulse response coefficients in this case - are computed. The raw bootstrap is nested in the above algorithm. Specifically, it involves the omission of Steps 1 and 3 above, and the application of Step 2 to the raw data $y(t)$ rather than the pre-filtered series $\hat{w}(t)$.

By simulating a large number of such bootstrap samples, the empirical distribution function of any given statistic represents, under suitable conditions, a valid approximation to the true unknown sampling distribution of the statistic in question. Conditional on this validity, an estimate of bias can be extracted via the bootstrap distribution, and a bias-corrected statistic thereby produced. In the following section we reproduce (without proof) the relevant results from [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#) in which the rate of convergence of both the raw and pre-filtered sieve (under appropriate conditions) is given.

2.2 Key convergence results

We begin by highlighting the fact that the process

$$(1 - z)^{\hat{d}} y(t) = \frac{\kappa(z)}{(1 - z)^{d - \hat{d}}} \varepsilon(t)$$

has fractional index $d - \hat{d}$. By [Poskitt, Grose and Martin \(2013; Section 2, Theorem\)](#) the error in the AR approximation to $\hat{w}(t)$ will accordingly be of order $O(h (\ln T/T)^{1-2|d-\hat{d}|})$ or smaller. This contrasts with the error in the AR approximation associated with the *raw* sieve, which is $O(h (\ln T/T)^{1-2d'})$, where $d' = \max\{0, d\}$. Depending on the value of $|d - \hat{d}|$, the pre-filtering can yield an increased level of accuracy. That this (potential) increase in accuracy is transferred to the pre-filtered sieve bootstrap realizations $\hat{y}^*(t)$ of $y(t)$, via the sieve bootstrap draws $\hat{w}^*(t)$ of $\hat{w}(t)$, and hence to the pre-filtered sieve bootstrap approximation to the sampling distribution of any given statistic in a suitable class, rests upon [Poskitt, Grose and Martin \(2013; Section 4, Proposition\)](#), the proof of which is given in that paper. The ultimate consequence of the use of suitable pre-filtering is an improved rate of convergence for the bootstrap-based estimate of the relevant sampling distribution, vis-a-vis the corresponding estimate based on the raw sieve. We summarize those convergence results briefly as follows.

Denote the relevant statistic as $\mathbf{s}_T = (s_{1T}, \dots, s_{mT})'$, where $s_{iT} = s_i(y(1), \dots, y(T))$, and each $s_i(\cdot)$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$ is a suitably smooth function of the time series values $y(1), \dots, y(T)$ that falls within the broad class of statistics that satisfy the two assumptions specified in Poskitt, Grose and Martin (2013; Section 3), a class that includes the sample autocorrelation and impulse response functions considered in this paper. Let \mathbf{s}_T^* be defined as for \mathbf{s}_T but with the observed realization replaced by $y^*(1), \dots, y^*(T)$, a realization obtained from the sieve bootstrap algorithm, so that $\mathbf{s}_T^* = (s_{1T}^*, \dots, s_{mT}^*)'$ where $s_{iT}^* = s_i(y^*(1), \dots, y^*(T))$. Further define $\mathbf{V}_T = T^{-1}E[(\mathbf{s}_T - E[\mathbf{s}_T])(\mathbf{s}_T - E[\mathbf{s}_T])']$ and $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_T = \mathbf{V}_T^{-1/2}T^{-\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbf{s}_T - E[\mathbf{s}_T])$, where E denotes expectation taken with respect to the original probability space by $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$, and $\mathbf{V}_T^* = T^{-1}E^*[(\mathbf{s}_T^* - E^*[\mathbf{s}_T^*])(\mathbf{s}_T^* - E^*[\mathbf{s}_T^*])']$ and $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_T^* = \mathbf{V}_T^{*-1/2}T^{-\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbf{s}_T^* - E^*[\mathbf{s}_T^*])$, where E^* denotes expectation taken with respect to the (relevant) bootstrap probability space $(\Omega^*, \mathfrak{F}^*, P^*)$. Under the relevant conditions stated in Poskitt et al. (2013) (and with proofs included therein) it follows that for the raw sieve method

$$\sup_{\mathbf{z}} |P^*(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\zeta}}_T^* \leq \mathbf{z}) - P(\boldsymbol{\zeta}_T \leq \mathbf{z})| = O_p(T^{-(1-d')+\beta}), \quad (2.7)$$

for all $\beta > 0$, where $d' = \max\{0, d\}$. For the pre-filtered method, for all pre-filtering estimates \widehat{d} such that $\widehat{d} - d \in N_{\delta_T}$ where $\delta_T \log T \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\sup_{\mathbf{z}} |P^*(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\zeta}}_T^* \leq \mathbf{z}) - P(\boldsymbol{\zeta}_T \leq \mathbf{z})| = \exp(\delta_T \log T) O_p(T^{-1+\beta}), \quad (2.8)$$

for all $\beta > 0$.

A comparison of the results in (2.7) and (2.8) highlights the impact of the pre-filtering on the ability of the sieve bootstrap to accurately reproduce the sampling distribution in question. Whilst both techniques achieve higher-order convergence (than the asymptotic distribution), the rate of convergence of the pre-filtered algorithm is arbitrarily close to the $O_p(T^{-1+\beta})$ rate achieved with simple random samples, for any pre-filtering estimate \widehat{d} that converges (almost surely) to the true value of d at the appropriate rate as $T \rightarrow \infty$. Clearly, the more accurate the preliminary estimate of d (i.e. the speed with which $\delta_T \log T$ approaches zero in practice) the more useful the pre-filtering, in terms of yielding a filtered process for which the AR approximation and, ultimately, the distributional estimate, is accurate for any given value of T . Given the non-parametric flavour of our approach, in the simulation exercise that follows we apply an algorithm based on a pre-filtering value equivalent to the SPLW estimator of Robinson (1995), where the estimator is constrained to lie in the stationary region. As a corollary of Giraitis and Robinson (2003, Lemma 5.8) this estimator satisfies $P(|\widehat{d} - d| \ln T > \epsilon) = o(N^{-p})$, where $p > 1/\epsilon$ and N , the bandwidth, satisfies $T^\epsilon < N < T^{1-\epsilon}$ for some $\epsilon > 0$. As such, the almost sure limiting criterion required of the pre-filtering value holds and the $O(T^{-1+\beta})$ convergence rate for the sieve method

is attainable.³

The results cited here from [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#), relevant as they are to the IRF statistic, go well beyond the results of [Baillie and Kapetanios \(2013\)](#), which (building in part on [Poskitt, 2008](#)) demonstrate convergence (using the Mallows metric) of the conventional sieve bootstrap to the true sampling distribution(s) of the impulse response coefficient(s). Moreover, in addition to the sample ACF being covered by the general theoretical results derived in [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#), the latter work also presents detailed numerical results pertaining to selected autocorrelation coefficients. Specifically, the accuracy with which the sieve methods reproduce both Monte Carlo-based estimates of the sampling distributions of these coefficients, and the (empirically infeasible) Edgeworth expansions, is documented. Most notably, the pre-filtering is shown to produce marked improvements over the ‘raw’ sieve method when the long-range dependence is strong.

In what follows, both the raw and pre-filtered methods are used to estimate the sampling distributions of the sample autocorrelation and impulse response coefficients and, in so doing, obtain an estimate of the relevant expectations. Those (estimated) expectations are, in turn, used to define an appropriate measure of bias and the relevant bias-adjusted statistic defined by subtracting the bias from the statistic in the usual way. As noted in the Introduction and discussed in more detail below, the reference value used in the formula for the bias, in any particular case, is produced via the particular model that is implicit in the (raw or pre-filtered) sieve method used to generate the bootstrap draws.

3 Properties of persistence measures for a fractional process

Prior to conducting the bias adjustment of the relevant persistence measures using the sieve-based techniques, we provide, in the following two sections, a precise definition of both measures and a brief summary of their known properties in the long memory setting. In the case of the sample autocorrelation function, we also include details of the analytical bias-adjustment methods that we use as comparators of our simulation-based approach.

³ The current pre-filtering value, \hat{d} , has been chosen because it has been shown to satisfy the required large deviations property. As pointed out by a referee, \hat{d} is an early version of the possible semi-parametric estimators of d , and there are more recent versions that have been shown to have better finite sample properties. Consistency and asymptotic normality have been established for these latter estimators, but the relevant limiting criterion has not, to our knowledge, been proven. It is beyond the scope of this paper to establish the required large deviations result for these estimators, and to undertake a comparison of the finite sample results that would be yielded by different choices of such pre-filters.

3.1 The sample autocorrelation function

Following [Hosking \(1996\)](#), we define the k^{th} sample autocorrelation coefficient as

$$\hat{\rho}(k) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-k} (y(t) - \bar{y}_T)(y(t+k) - \bar{y}_T)}{\sum_{t=1}^T (y(t) - \bar{y}_T)^2}, \quad (3.1)$$

where $\bar{y}_T = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T y(t)$. [Hosking](#) derives the following results regarding the asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$:

1. If $-0.5 < d < 0.25$ then any finite subset of $T^{1/2}(\hat{\rho}(k) - \rho(k))$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, T-1$, has a limiting multivariate normal distribution with mean zero and covariances given by Bartlett's formula ([Hosking, 1996](#), Theorem 4(iii)).
2. If $d = 0.25$ then any pair of $\frac{(T/\ln T)^{1/2}}{(1-\rho(k))}(\hat{\rho}(k) - \rho(k))$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, T-1$, converge in probability and have a common $N(0, 4(\frac{\lambda}{\gamma(0)})^2)$ limiting distribution where

$$\lambda = \{\sigma\kappa(1)\}^2 \frac{\Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(d)\Gamma(1-d)}. \quad (3.2)$$

3. If $0.25 < d < 0.5$ then $\frac{T^{1-2d}}{(1-\rho(k))}(\hat{\rho}(k) - \rho(k))$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, T-1$ converges to the 'modified Rosenblatt' distribution. The cummulants of this distribution, for different values of d , are documented in Table 2 of [Hosking \(1996\)](#). Most notably, the mean of this limiting distribution is shown to be both substantially less than zero, for all $d > 0.25$, and larger in magnitude than the standard deviation for $d > 0.35$.⁴

In summary then, the characteristics of the sampling distribution of the sample autocorrelations vary throughout the parameter space for d . In particular, in cases where the true persistence in the process is high (Case 3 above), it is to be anticipated that the sample autocorrelation function will substantially underestimate the extent of this persistence. Further, in this case, an approximating normal distribution is inappropriate in terms of capturing sampling variation in the estimated autocorrelation coefficients.

[Hosking \(1996\)](#) supplements these general distributional results with the following approximation to the asymptotic bias in $\hat{\rho}(k)$,

$$\text{Bias}[\hat{\rho}(k)] \sim \frac{-\lambda}{d(1+2d)} \left\{ \frac{1-\rho(k)}{\gamma(0)} \right\} T^{2d-1}, \quad (3.3)$$

where λ is given in (3.2). This is seen to be negative for any $-0.5 < d < 0.5$.

⁴ Note that Hosking's symbol α corresponds to $1-2d$ in the terminology used in the current paper.

The definition in (3.1) is, of course, only one of several closely-related estimators of $\rho(k)$. Lee and Ko (2009) instead define

$$r(k) = \frac{C(k)}{C(0)} = \frac{\frac{1}{T-k} \sum_{t=1}^{T-k} (y(t) - \bar{y}_{[1:T-k]})(y(t+k) - \bar{y}_{[k+1:T]})}{\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (y(t) - \bar{y}_T)^2}, \quad (3.4)$$

where $\bar{y}_{[1:T-k]} = \sum_{t=1}^{T-k} y(t)/(T-k)$, and $\bar{y}_{[k+1:T]} = \sum_{t=k+1}^T y(t)/(T-k)$; and proceed to derive a closed-form expression for the bias of $r(1)$ based on the much earlier work of Marriott and Pope (1954), in which, up to $O(T^{-1})$, the expected value of the k th-order sample autocorrelation coefficient is shown to be

$$E(r(k)) = \frac{E[C(k)]}{E[C(0)]} \left[1 - \frac{\text{cov}[C(k), C(0)]}{E[C(k)] E[C(0)]} + \frac{\text{var}[C(0)]}{E^2[C(0)]} \right]. \quad (3.5)$$

Newbold and Agiakloglou (1993), in turn, evaluate (3.5) under a Gaussian fractional noise process (produced by setting $\kappa(z) = 1$ in (1.1)), and tabulate the results for different values of d , exploiting analytical expressions for the expectation of quadratic functions of normal variables. The results demonstrate a distinct negative bias in the $r(k)$, for all values of k considered, and are consistent with the expectation – given the relevant distributional results of Hosking (1996) – that this bias is more pronounced the larger is d . The bias is also found to be more pronounced in the empirically relevant case considered here, in which the sample mean is used in the calculation of the sample autocorrelations, rather than in the artificial scenario in which the (unknown) zero mean is imposed. (See Newbold and Agiakloglou for more details.)

In Lee and Ko (2009), the expression in (3.5) is used to produce a closed-form representation of the bias of $r(1)$ in terms of the true $\rho(1) \dots \rho(T-1)$ which is also exact to $O(T^{-1})$.⁵ Lee and Ko plot the ratio of the asymptotic bias in (3.3) (which is $O(T^{2d-1})$ of course) to their ‘first-order’ bias for different values of T and d , under the assumption of fractional noise, in which case the asymptotic measure is shown to underestimate the first-order measure for any $d > 0$, with the extent of this underestimation increasing rapidly with d . The authors proceed to use their expression, evaluated at a preliminary estimate of d (upon which this expression naturally depends) to bias correct $r(1)$ and so produce a simple method of moments estimator of d based on that bias-corrected estimate of $\rho(1)$. Note, however, that the production of a bias-adjusted estimate of d is the primary goal in Lee and Ko. No further use is made therein of the bias-corrected estimate of $\rho(1)$, nor are the sampling properties of this estimator itself examined.

Finally, the asymptotic normality that pertains in Case 1 enables, in principle, the derivation of an Edgeworth expansion. Lieberman, Rousseau and Zucker (2001)

⁵ $r(k)$ and $\hat{\rho}(k)$ are of course asymptotically equivalent; i.e., $r(k) = \hat{\rho}(k) + O(T^{-1})$, and hence an $O(T^{-1})$ bias result applies in either case.

prove the validity of such an expansion for the normalized quantity, $\sqrt{T}(\widehat{\rho}_0(k) - \rho(k))$, where

$$\widehat{\rho}_0(k) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-k} y(t)y(t+k)}{\sum_{t=1}^T y(t)^2} \quad (3.6)$$

(i.e. the true zero mean is imposed), and where $d < 0.1$ is required for convergence of the expansion. This higher-order approximation is, in turn, evaluated in [Poskitt et al. \(2013\)](#) and used as a comparator for the sieve-based bootstrap estimates of the sampling distributions of selected autocorrelation coefficients. The sieve bootstrap method is shown to produce estimated sampling distributions for $\widehat{\rho}_0(k)$ that are visually indistinguishable from those produced by the second-order Edgeworth expansion, in that part of the parameter space in which the latter is valid.

3.2 The impulse response function

As noted above, our focus is on the production and bias-correction of a semi-parametric estimate of the k^{th} impulse response coefficient $\psi(k)$ defined in (1.1). The estimation procedure involves fitting an AR model of order h (to be determined) to $y(t)$ and inverting, to produce $\widehat{\psi}(k)$ as the k^{th} term in the expansion

$$\widehat{\psi}(z) = \widehat{\Phi}_h^{-1}(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \widehat{\psi}(k)z^k, \quad (3.7)$$

where $\widehat{\Phi}_h(z) = 1 + \widehat{\phi}_h(1)z + \widehat{\phi}_h(2)z^2 + \dots + \widehat{\phi}_h(h)z^h$, and the $\phi_h(j)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, h$ are estimated as described in Section 2. As documented in [Baillie and Kapetanios \(2013\)](#), use of this approach in the long memory setting yields more accurate estimates of the true impulse response coefficients than do certain mis-specified parametric methods, and may even compete well with correctly specified parametric methods for some parameter designs. However, a marked negative bias is still a characteristic of the semi-parametric estimates, as we also document below. [Baillie and Kapetanios \(2013\)](#) produce a bias-adjusted estimate of the IRF by using the bootstrap technique of [Kilian \(1998\)](#) to bias-adjust the estimated AR coefficients prior to inverting to them to produce the $\widehat{\psi}(k)$. In contrast, we bias correct the $\widehat{\psi}(k)$ directly, as described in detail in the computational section that follows. As portent to our results, we find that the use of the *pre-filtered* sieve produces bias-adjusted statistics that are very similar to those produced by (a modification of) the Kilian method, but with the pre-filtering method yielding more accuracy when both the sample is small and the level of persistence in the data is high.

4 Simulation Exercise

In this section we examine the performance of the raw and pre-filtered sieve algorithms via a simulation experiment. Specifically, we investigate the finite sample accuracy of (both forms of) bootstrap-based bias-adjusted estimates of the autocorrelation and impulse response coefficients, documenting both the (remaining) bias and root mean squared error across Monte Carlo replications, as well as plotting selected sampling distributions. The results for the unadjusted statistics are also documented, in order to demonstrate the extent of the improvement yielded by the bias-adjustment techniques. As noted above, in the first-order autocorrelation case, we are able to compare the finite sample performance of the bootstrap-based methods with that of an estimator based on the analytic bias expression of [Lee and Ko \(2009\)](#). For interest we also document selected results regarding the performance of the estimator of $\rho(k)$ based on the asymptotically valid bias expression of [Hosking \(1996\)](#), as given in [\(3.3\)](#).

Finally, for reference we also consider the accuracy with which the bootstrap algorithms reproduce the ‘true’ (Monte Carlo) sampling distribution of the unadjusted persistence statistics, in selected cases, as it is these bootstrap distributions that underlie the subsequent bias-adjustment.

4.1 Simulation design and computational details

Data are simulated from a zero mean Gaussian $ARFIMA(1, d, 0)$ process,

$$(1 - L)^d \Phi(z)y(t) = \varepsilon(t), \quad 0 < d < 0.5, \quad (4.1)$$

with $\Phi(z) = 1 - \phi z$ being the operator for a stationary AR(1) component and $\varepsilon(t)$ is zero-mean Gaussian white noise. The process in [\(4.1\)](#) is simulated $R = 1000$ times for $d = 0.2$ and 0.4 ; $\phi = 0.6$ and 0.9 , and sample sizes $T = 100$ and 500 , via Levinson recursion applied to the autocovariance function of the desired $ARFIMA(1, d, 0)$ process and the generated pseudo-random $\varepsilon(t)$ (see, for instance, [Brockwell and Davis, 1991](#), §5.2). The autocovariance function for given T , ϕ and d is calculated using Sowell’s [\(1992\)](#) algorithm as modified by [Doornik and Ooms \(2001\)](#). Parameter settings are chosen that yield, respectively, moderate and large bias in both the estimated IRF and the estimated ACF.

For each realization r of the process we compute the relevant scalar statistic, $s_{T,r}$, plus $B = 1000$ bootstrap estimates $s_{T,r(b)}^*$, constructed using $b = 1, \dots, B$ bootstrap re-samples obtained via the sieve algorithm. Each realized value $s_{T,r}$ thus has associated with it a ‘bootstrap distribution’ based on the B bootstrap resamples $s_{T,r(b)}^*$, $b = 1, \dots, B$, with each such distribution serving as an estimate of the sampling distribution of s_T . In order to compare the R bootstrap distributions with the finite

sample distribution estimated from the Monte Carlo draws, we first sort the B bootstrap draws for each MC replication into ascending order, then average these ordered bootstrap values across the Monte Carlo draws. The B averaged draws are then used to produce a kernel density estimate, which we refer to as the ‘average’ bootstrap distribution.

Our focus is on two types of statistic: $s_T = \hat{\rho}(k)$, computed as per (3.1), and $s_T = \hat{\psi}(k)$, computed as per (3.7), for $k = 1, 2, \dots, 99$; and on using the sieve bootstrap techniques to bias adjust each. Specifically, for any given realization r , the bootstrap distribution (computed from the B bootstrap resamples) is used to produce an estimate of $E(s_T)$, $\hat{E}(s_T)$, and a bias-adjusted statistic,

$$s_{T,r}^{(BA)} = s_{T,r} - \widehat{bias}(s_T), \quad (4.2)$$

thereby constructed, where

$$\widehat{bias}(s_T) = \hat{E}(s_T) - s_{ref}, \quad (4.3)$$

and s_{ref} denotes the appropriate reference value to be used in the definition of the bias, the choice of which is elaborated on below. The sampling distribution of this statistic is then estimated from the R Monte Carlo draws using kernel density methods and the finite sample performance of the statistic as an estimator of the true parameter summarized via bias and root mean square error (RMSE) computations. Each of the two different forms of sieve bootstrap produces a different estimate $\hat{E}(s_T)$ and (as will be made clear below) a different value for s_{ref} . Hence, for both reasons, each algorithm produces a different bias estimate in (4.3), and a different bias-adjusted statistic in (4.2).

With reference to the sieve method, as is common practice (Politis, 2003, §3), we begin by specifying the order of the autoregressive approximation as $h = \hat{h}_T = \operatorname{argmin}_{h=0,1,\dots,M_T} \ln(\hat{\sigma}_h^2) + 2h/T$, where $\hat{\sigma}_h^2$ denotes the residual mean square obtained from an $AR(h)$ model and $M_T = \lceil (\ln T)^2 \rceil$. Let $\bar{h}_T = \operatorname{argmin}_{h=0,1,\dots,M_T} L_T(h)$ where $L_T(h) = (\sigma_h^2 - \sigma^2) + h\sigma^2/T$ and σ^2 and σ_h^2 are as defined in 1 and (2.6) respectively. The function $L_T(h)$ was introduced by Shibata (1980) as a figure of merit and the $AR(\hat{h}_T)$ model is asymptotically efficient in the sense that $L_T(\hat{h}_T) = L_T(\bar{h}_T)\{1 + o(1)\}$ *a.s.* as $T \rightarrow \infty$ (Poskitt, 2007, Theorem 9). It follows that $\hat{h}_T/\bar{h}_T \rightarrow 1$ *a.s.* as $T \rightarrow \infty$, so as T increases \hat{h}_T behaves almost surely like a deterministic sequence that satisfies the technical requirements of the theoretical convergence results in Poskitt et al. (2013) as cited in Section 2.2 above.

For comparison, however, we also employ the fixed (for given T) value of $h = h_T = (\ln T)^2$ used in Baillie and Kapetanios (2013). Note that in the case of the IRF the alternative values for h are relevant not only in defining the order of the fitted

AR in the sieve, and hence the bootstrap ‘data generating process’ from which the reference values used in the bias calculations (for both the IRF and the ACF) are backed out; h also defines the order of the autoregression used to define the sample impulse response coefficients themselves (i.e., the actual statistics being bootstrapped and bias adjusted).

As noted in the Introduction, the appropriate reference value for bias adjustment of estimated persistence measures (IRF and/or ACF) is essentially that implied by the ‘bootstrap model’. Accordingly, the reference value for bias adjustment in the case of the raw sieve algorithm is simply that implied by the $AR(h)$ sieve (where h may be \hat{h}_T , h_T , or any other value that increases at the appropriate rate in T) fitted to the raw data $y(t)$ (rather than the pre-filtered series $\hat{w}(t)$) in Step 2a in Section 2.1. Denoting this by

$$\bar{\Phi}_h(z) = 1 + \bar{\phi}_h(1)z + \cdots + \bar{\phi}_h(h)z^h, \quad (4.4)$$

the reference IRF $\tilde{\psi}(k)$ appropriate to the raw sieve is accordingly produced, for any $k = 1, 2, \dots$, by the inversion of $\bar{\Phi}_h(z)$, whilst the corresponding reference ACF $\tilde{\rho}(k)$, $k = 1, \dots, T - 1$, follows via the Yule-Walker equations.

The pre-filtered sieve method, on the other hand, implies an ARFIMA($h, \hat{d}, 0$) bootstrap model, with \hat{d} the pre-filtering fractional integration parameter, and autoregressive coefficients $\hat{\phi}_h(1), \dots, \hat{\phi}_h(h)$ produced by fitting an $AR(h)$ to the filtered data $(1 - z)^{\hat{d}}y(t)$. The reference IRF is therefore now obtained by inverting the implied ARFIMA($h, \hat{d}, 0$) polynomial; i.e.,

$$\tilde{\psi}(z) = \hat{\Phi}_h^{-1}(z)(1 - z)^{-\hat{d}};$$

(cf. 3.7) while the reference ACF is calculated by applying the Sowell/Doornik and Ooms algorithm to the implied ARFIMA($h, \hat{d}, 0$) model. We note here that the restriction of the pre-filtering SPLW estimate to the stationary region is essential at this point.

Finally, we note that in order to produce bias-corrected estimates of $\rho(k)$ that necessarily lie between minus one and one we perform our bias correction in terms of the so-called ‘Fisher- z ’ transformation, which maps from any $r \in (-1, 1)$ to $\zeta \in \mathbb{R}$ via

$$\zeta = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 + r}{1 - r} \right) = \operatorname{artanh}(r).$$

That is, while the statistic of interest is still $\hat{\rho}(k)$, the bootstrap bias correction (and therefore the bootstrapping itself) is done in terms of $\zeta(\hat{\rho}(k))$, with the bootstrap-bias-adjusted estimate of $\rho(\cdot)$ produced via the reverse mapping

$$r = \frac{e^{2\zeta} - 1}{e^{2\zeta} + 1} = \tanh(\zeta). \quad (4.5)$$

It is the reverse mapping $\zeta \rightarrow r$ that ensures that the bias-corrected result is within $(-1, 1)$.

For the ACF we also plot results for two additional bias-corrected quantities: one based on the subtraction of (3.3) from $\hat{\rho}(k)$, with all unknown parameters in (3.3) assigned their true values from the data generating process; and the second (for the case of $k = 1$ only) based on the subtraction of an estimate of the Lee and Ko (2009) $O(T^{-1})$ bias expression from $\hat{\rho}(1)$. The former (theoretical asymptotic-bias-adjusted ACF) is denoted by $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$; the latter (estimated $O(T^{-1})$ bias-adjusted $\hat{\rho}(1)$) by $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$. The Lee and Ko bias is estimated by replacing the unknown population autocorrelations in their bias formula by the $\tilde{\rho}(k)$'s implied by an $AR((\ln T)^2)$ fitted to the (unfiltered) data. In other words, the Lee and Ko bias is calculated using the reference ACF corresponding to the raw sieve as described above, with $h = (\ln T)^2$.

For interest, we also reproduce results based on a modification of the method of Kilian (1998) for bias adjusting the IRF. In brief, our version of Kilian's method involves using the (raw) sieve bootstrap to bias correct the autoregressive coefficients in (4.4), then inverting the resulting bias-adjusted polynomial to produce an estimate of the IRF. Our approach differs slightly from that of Kilian in that: firstly, our estimates of the autoregressive coefficients are obtained via the Burg algorithm rather than OLS, and hence the issue of potentially non-stationary coefficient estimates does not arise; secondly, stationarity is preserved after bias-correction by applying the Schur-Cohn stability test and reflecting any zeroes found to be outside $\{|z| = 1\}$ back inside the unit circle, rather than by iteratively shrinking the bias-corrected autoregressive operator.

4.2 Simulation Results

4.2.1 Bias correction of the sample IRF

We begin by plotting selected distributional results for the sample IRF, where the bias adjustment occurs via the raw sieve algorithm. Figures 1 and 2 display results for $T = 100$ and 500 respectively, with $d = 0.4$ and $\phi = 0.9$. Both sets of results are for $h = (\ln T)^2$, with results for h chosen via the AIC criterion reproduced in the subsequent tables only.

Panels (i) to (v) in each figure plot the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; and the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$. (These are indicated by the legend entries "MC", "MC-BA" and "BS-av" respectively). The vertical dotted line in each panel indicates the position of the true value of $\psi(k)$ for each $k = 1, 3, 6, 9, 12$. Panel (vi) plots, for lags $k = 1, 2, \dots, 99$, the true IRF $\psi(k)$ (based on the parameters of the true data generating process); the mean of the Monte

Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; and the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$ (designated “True ψ ”, “ \overline{MC} ”, and “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” respectively).

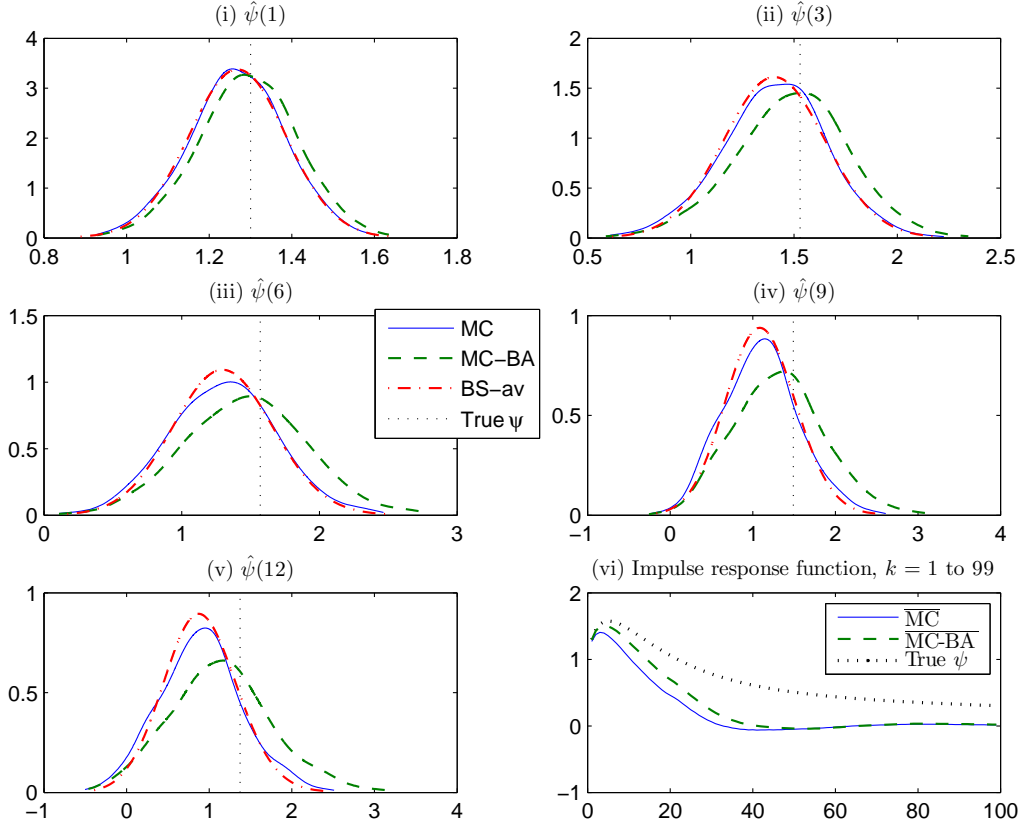


Figure 1. Bias correction of the sample IRF using the *raw sieve* bootstrap.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 100$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\psi(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

The first thing to note from both Figures 1 and 2, and something that will be a feature of all graphs reproduced, is the accuracy with which the sieve (and, to an even greater extent, the pre-filtered sieve) technique reproduces the true sampling distribution of the statistic to be bias adjusted. This result (including the overall improvement in fit that will be seen to be yielded by the pre-filtering) is consistent with the supporting theoretical convergence results cited above, and provides further justification for using the bootstrap-based estimate of the sampling distribution as a basis for estimating the bias of any given statistic, and bias adjusting subsequently. As is clear from Figure 1 (for $T = 100$), the small sample (negative) bias of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$ that

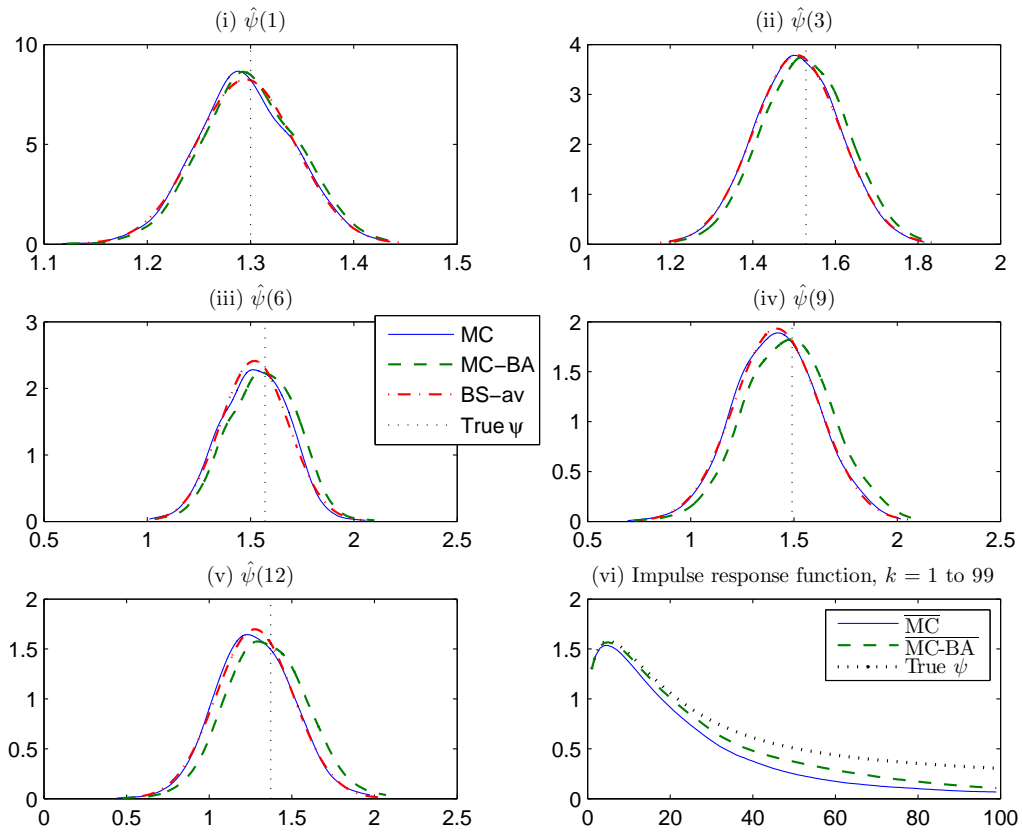


Figure 2. Bias correction of the sample IRF using the *raw sieve* bootstrap.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 500$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ $\overline{\text{MC}}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “ $\overline{\text{MC-BA}}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\psi(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

has been documented in [Baillie and Kapetanios \(2013\)](#) is in evidence here, for all lags k , with the extent of the bias increasing (in magnitude) with k , up to approximately $k = 30$, then levelling out thereafter to a fairly constant value. A qualitatively similar pattern is in evidence in [Figure 2](#) (for $T = 500$), but with the extent of the bias much less, for any particular value of k . The bootstrap-based bias adjustment is seen to produce quite effective results for the smaller lag lengths, but with no gains yielded after approximately $k = 50$, for the smaller sample size. For $T = 500$, in [Figure 2](#), the bootstrap technique is shown to produce a very accurate bias-adjusted estimator for low values of k , and to continue to yield improvements over the unadjusted statistic for all values of k considered.

In [Figures 3](#) and [4](#) we then plot the corresponding results, but now based on the pre-filtered bootstrap technique, with the *true* value of d used in the pre-filtering. The results provide resounding proof-of-concept support for the pre-filtering technique, with the bootstrap-based bias-adjusted estimator seen to be very accurate, even for the very small sample size, and to have a mean value (across Monte Carlo replications) that is almost visually indistinguishable from the true $\psi(k)$ for all values of k considered when $T = 500$.

An empirically feasible version of the pre-filtering technique requires the use of an estimate of d as the pre-filtering value, with the (constrained) SPLW estimator of [Robinson \(1995\)](#) used for this purpose. As highlighted in [Figures 5](#) and [6](#), we observe excellent bias correction for the lower values of k , with the sampling distributions of the adjusted statistic (MC-BA in the graphs) located quite precisely with respect to the true value of the IRF in each case, and with very little cost in terms of additional dispersion. Note that, although we haven't included these figures here, for the medium persistence design ($d = 0.2, \phi = 0.6$) the SPLW-based pre-filtering technique does tend to very slightly 'over-correct' for the longer lag lengths ($k > 25$ for $T = 100$; $k > 45$ for $T = 500$), where the method that exploits the true value of d as the pre-filter does not. Overall, however, very little accuracy is lost via the substitution of \hat{d} for d , with the bias-adjusted estimator remaining remarkably accurate, in particular for the larger sample size. In [Figures 5](#) and [6](#) we see that the Kilian-based method (denoted by K-BA in the legend) yields very similar accuracy to the pre-filtered bootstrap technique for $T = 500$ ([Figure 6](#)). For $T = 100$ ([Figure 5](#)), however, the pre-filtering method is more successful in correcting the substantial bias that obtains in this case; although both methods are certainly superior to the raw sieve method, as can be seen by referencing [Figures 2](#) and [1](#) respectively. Further results (available on request) confirm the general accordance between the pre-filtered sieve and Kilian approaches.

These selected graphical results are supplemented by the bias and RMSE results recorded in Panel B of [Tables 1](#) (for $T = 100$) and [2](#) (for $T = 500$), in which (Monte Carlo estimates of) these quantities (for $d = 0.2, 0.4$; $\phi = 0.6; 0.9$) are recorded for

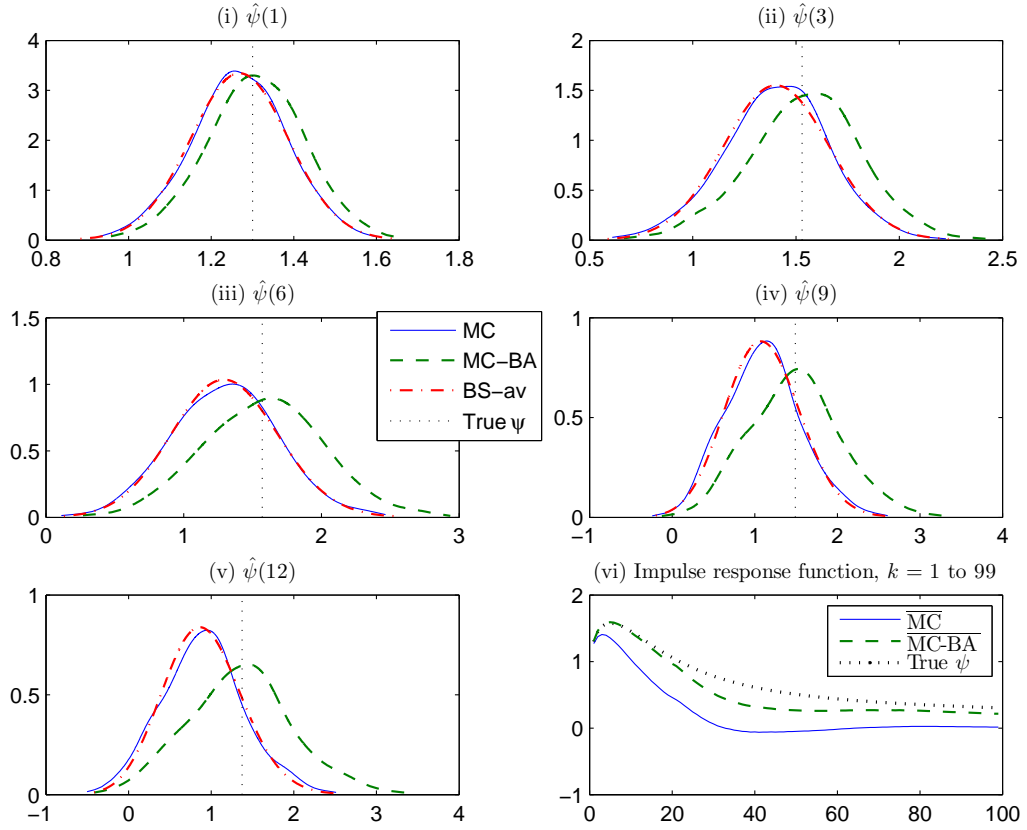


Figure 3. Bias correction of the sample IRF using the *pre-filtered sieve* bootstrap, based on the *true value of d as the pre-filter*.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 100$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\psi(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

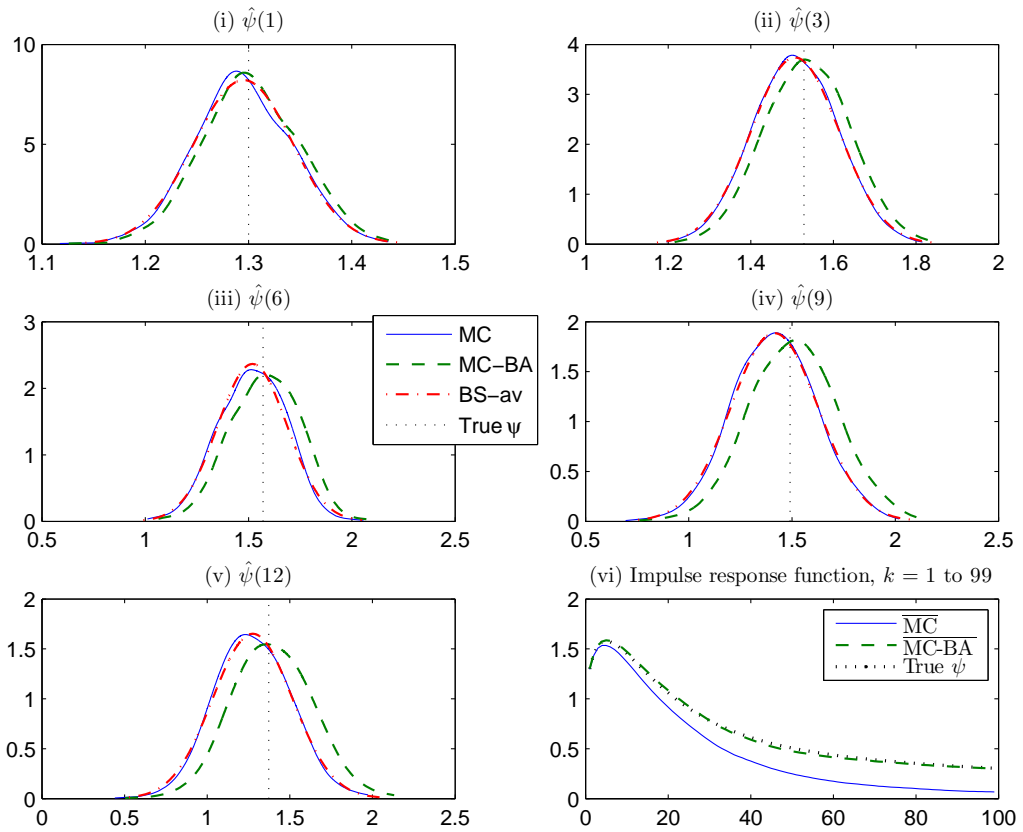


Figure 4. Bias correction of the sample IRF using the *pre-filtered sieve* bootstrap, based on the *true value of d as the pre-filter*.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 500$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (i) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\psi(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

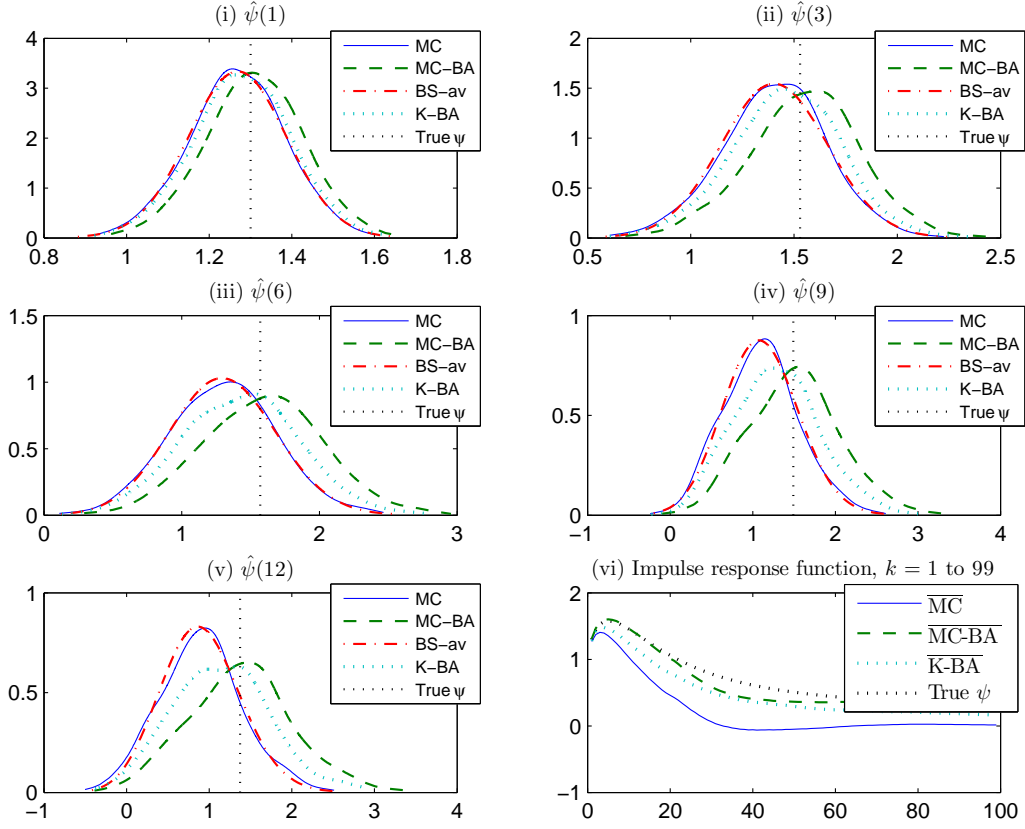


Figure 5. Bias correction of the sample IRF using the *pre-filtered sieve* bootstrap, based on the *SPLW* estimate of d as the *pre-filter*.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 100$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (i) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$, and “K-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(K)}(k)$ produced using Kilian’s approach.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “ $\overline{K-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(K)}(k)$. The true value of $\psi(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

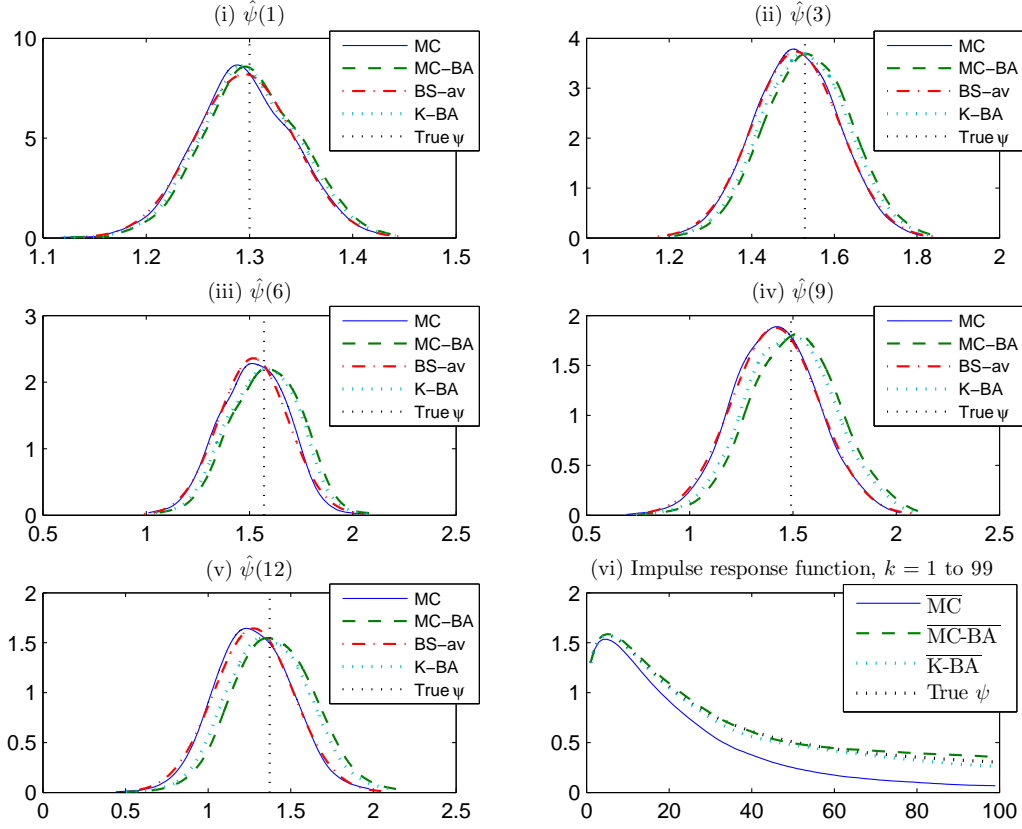


Figure 6. Bias correction of the sample IRF using the *pre-filtered sieve bootstrap*, based on the *SPLW* estimate of d as the *pre-filter*.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 500$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (i) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$, and “K-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\psi}^{(K)}(k)$ produced using Kilian’s approach.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$; “ $\overline{K-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\psi}^{(K)}(k)$. The true value of $\psi(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

the unadjusted, raw sieve bias-adjusted, and pre-filtered sieve bias-adjusted statistics. Results are reported for $k = 1, 6$ and 12 , with the average of all results (bias or RMSE) for $k = 1, 3, 6, 9, 12$ also recorded under the column headed ‘av’. (We have not reported numerical results for the pre-filtering method based on the true d .)

Note that when bootstrapping the IRF we have set the order of the sieve approximation to be consistent with the order of the autoregression used to produce the IRF estimator being examined. That is, when $\hat{\psi}(k)$ is produced via an autoregression with fixed order $h = (\ln T)^2$, the order of the sieve used in the bootstrap, whether raw or pre-filtered, is also set to $h = (\ln T)^2$. Similarly, when $\hat{\psi}(k)$ is produced via an autoregression with order selected by AIC, the order of the sieve used in the bootstrap is also selected by AIC. When using the raw sieve this naturally means that the sieve and estimating AR are exactly the same. However, this last is not the case when we switch to the pre-filtered method.

Beginning with the small sample size $T = 100$, and the ‘long AR’ ($h = (\ln T)^2$)-based estimator and bootstrap (Panel B of Table 1), we find that, relative to the unadjusted estimator the bias-adjusted estimator based on the raw sieve is invariably superior in terms of bias for all values of d and ϕ here considered, with bias reductions of 50-90%. The RMSE, however, is virtually identical, indicating the increased dispersion that generally accompanies bias correction based on an estimated measure of the bias. The bias of the bias-adjusted estimator based on the pre-filtered sieve is also invariably less than that of the unadjusted, and pre-filtering tends to produce better results than the raw sieve method as k and/or the degree of persistence increases. Interestingly, pre-filtering does not yield *additional* accuracy in the case of bias-adjusting $\hat{\psi}(1)$ – perhaps because it so happens the raw sieve-based $\hat{\psi}^{(BA)}(1)$ is essentially unbiased – but still improves on the unadjusted $\hat{\psi}(1)$.

Turning to the larger sample size $T = 500$, the bias in $\hat{\psi}(k)$ is of course much smaller to begin with, particularly for $\hat{\psi}(1)$, so very small effects have a large relative impact. Nonetheless, for the estimator and sieve based on $h = (\ln T)^2$ (Panel B of Table 2) we see that use of the raw sieve to bias adjust results in across-the-board bias reductions, essentially to zero, for the values of d , ϕ , and k considered, with the RMSE remaining virtually unchanged. Whilst the performance of the pre-filtered sieve algorithm for these relatively low lag values is slightly mixed relative to the raw method, it generally results in an improvement relative to the unadjusted statistic, again doing worst for $\hat{\psi}(1)$, where there was almost no bias to correct in the first place. The pre-filtered method is evidently most advantageous relative to the raw as the lag length k increases, with the former producing a vast reduction in bias overall, relative to the latter, when an extended spectrum of values for k is considered, as the graphical results recorded in Figures 1, 2, 5 and 6 highlight.

Results for the IRF estimator based on an autoregression with order h selected via

AIC (i.e., $h = \hat{h}_{AIC}$) (Panel A of Tables 1 and 2) tell a qualitatively similar story. The unadjusted bias in the AIC-based estimator is comparable to that for $\hat{\psi}(k)$ based on the longer (and fixed) value of h discussed above, tending to be slightly higher for $\phi = 0.9$; though its RMSE is generally lower. For $T = 100$, relative to the unadjusted estimator the raw sieve-based bias-adjusted estimator is again uniformly superior in terms of bias, with bias reductions of between 50 and 70%; the bias-adjusted estimator typically also has lower RMSE than the unadjusted $\hat{\psi}(k)$. For medium and high persistence the pre-filtered method does even better than the raw, with bias now typically around 20% of the original, and RMSE lower again. Use of pre-filtering in the bias adjustment can however produce worse results than performing no bias adjustment at all for the low-persistence design, for particular values of k .

With reference to the AIC-based results for the larger sample size (Panel A of Table 2), we find that the raw sieve generally still performs well, with two exceptions, both of which occur for d, ϕ, k combinations for which the unadjusted estimator happens to be already effectively unbiased. The pre-filtered method does better as the lag-length increases, and best for high persistence ($d = 0.4, \phi = 0.9$). The RMSE of the bias-adjusted statistics, as before, is either comparable to the unadjusted, or somewhat improved; with the pre-filtered technique resulting in a reduction of up to 17% in the higher persistence case. Indeed, for this high persistence setting, results (not reported) for the full set of k values $1, \dots, 99$ and both sample sizes demonstrate a considerable reduction overall in bias for the bias-adjusted estimator based on the pre-filtering, relative to the bias-adjusted estimator based on raw sieve.

We conclude this section by noting that, whilst results based on $d = 0$ were produced, for reasons of space they have not been recorded. In brief, the performance of the raw sieve for $d = 0$ (based on both values of h) is similar to its performance at $d = 0.2$, namely it produces some reduction in bias, over and above the unadjusted estimator, although in this case at the cost of a small increase (overall) in the RMSE. The application of pre-filtering has a generally negative impact on performance, as might be expected, given that the pre-filtering introduces a completely unnecessary layer of estimation uncertainty into the exercise. However, given the well-documented *upward* bias of semi-parametric estimates of d when long memory is absent – see, for example, [Agiakloglou, Newbold and Wohar \(1993\)](#), [Lieberman \(2001\)](#) and [Poskitt, Martin and Grose \(2014\)](#) – plus the downward bias in the persistence measures that is documented in the current paper (and that continues to obtain when $d = 0$), conventional preliminary analysis is unlikely to lead a researcher to conclude in favour of long memory when it is not present. Hence, we would argue that it is unlikely that pre-filtering would ever be invoked when $d = 0$ and that the performance of the bias-adjusted estimates based on the pre-filtered sieve in this setting is thereby of no particular concern.

TABLE 1

Bias and root mean squared error (RMSE) of estimators of selected impulse response coefficients, for $T = 100$. Results for the unadjusted and both forms of bootstrap-based bias-adjusted estimators are documented.

d	ϕ	$\widehat{\psi}(k)$				$\widehat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$ (raw sieve)				$\widehat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$ (pre-filtered sieve)			
		$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.
Panel A: $T = 100$; h based on AIC selection													
		Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0378	-0.0467	-0.0503	-0.0463	-0.0094	-0.0182	-0.0437	-0.0223	0.0049	0.0522	0.0973	0.0496
	0.9	-0.0406	-0.1974	-0.235	-0.1643	-0.0119	-0.0564	-0.0836	-0.0514	0.0260	0.0363	0.0343	0.0344
0.4	0.6	-0.0589	-0.1047	-0.1242	-0.0991	-0.0294	-0.0275	-0.0781	-0.0427	0.0179	0.0196	0.0423	0.0246
	0.9	-0.0143	-0.2984	-0.5071	-0.2734	0.0090	-0.0979	-0.2122	-0.0972	0.0092	0.0405	-0.0153	0.0175
		RMSE											
0.2	0.6	0.1075	0.1201	0.0862	0.1107	0.1006	0.1292	0.0972	0.1157	0.1133	0.139	0.1328	0.1338
	0.9	0.1293	0.2998	0.3325	0.2635	0.1170	0.2604	0.3207	0.2391	0.1051	0.2826	0.3173	0.2448
0.4	0.6	0.1327	0.1982	0.1868	0.1792	0.1181	0.1981	0.1974	0.1772	0.1076	0.1926	0.1648	0.1657
	0.9	0.1153	0.4577	0.6471	0.4134	0.1138	0.3844	0.5536	0.3558	0.1065	0.3843	0.5374	0.3497
Panel B: $T = 100$; $h = (\ln T)^2$													
		Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0216	-0.0673	-0.0627	-0.0548	-0.0005	-0.0238	-0.029	-0.0191	0.0127	0.0245	0.0335	0.0236
	0.9	-0.0264	-0.1667	-0.2416	-0.1482	-0.0024	-0.0538	-0.102	-0.0522	0.0132	0.0449	0.0627	0.0410
0.4	0.6	-0.0281	-0.1239	-0.1472	-0.1046	-0.0046	-0.0515	-0.0774	-0.0455	0.0095	0.0171	0.0191	0.0156
	0.9	-0.0318	-0.2682	-0.4737	-0.2571	-0.0061	-0.1028	-0.2288	-0.109	0.0096	0.0244	0.0063	0.0157
		RMSE											
0.2	0.6	0.1165	0.1759	0.1709	0.1608	0.1172	0.1814	0.1871	0.1677	0.1181	0.186	0.1926	0.1711
	0.9	0.1173	0.3264	0.4039	0.2905	0.1173	0.3216	0.4072	0.2889	0.1174	0.322	0.4143	0.2907
0.4	0.6	0.1180	0.2481	0.2644	0.219	0.1175	0.2464	0.2729	0.2202	0.1176	0.2453	0.2711	0.2189
	0.9	0.1191	0.4675	0.6863	0.4298	0.1182	0.4472	0.6551	0.4118	0.1174	0.4329	0.6233	0.3963

TABLE 2

Bias and root mean squared error (RMSE) of estimators of selected impulse response coefficients, for $T = 500$. Results for the unadjusted and both forms of bootstrap-based bias-adjusted estimators are documented.

		$\widehat{\psi}(k)$			$\widehat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$ (raw sieve)			$\widehat{\psi}^{(BA)}(k)$ (pre-filtered sieve)					
		$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.
Panel A: $T = 500$; h based on AIC selection													
d	ϕ	Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0111	-0.0026	-0.0310	-0.0126	-0.0057	0.0056	-0.0282	-0.0063	-0.0190	-0.0140	0.0414	-0.0032
	0.9	-0.0020	-0.0614	-0.0610	-0.0447	0.0023	-0.0283	-0.0109	-0.0151	0.0027	-0.0106	-0.0224	-0.0091
0.4	0.6	-0.0089	-0.0011	-0.0219	-0.0092	-0.0043	0.0196	0.0002	0.0075	0.0016	-0.0278	0.0050	-0.0108
	0.9	0.0004	-0.0944	-0.1617	-0.0841	0.0048	-0.0521	-0.0728	-0.0399	0.0007	0.0184	-0.0097	0.0056
RMSE													
0.2	0.6	0.0453	0.0612	0.0532	0.0548	0.0438	0.0634	0.055	0.0561	0.0545	0.0543	0.0575	0.0582
	0.9	0.0472	0.1190	0.1304	0.1027	0.0471	0.1064	0.1246	0.0956	0.0443	0.1223	0.1388	0.1055
0.4	0.6	0.0525	0.0963	0.0995	0.0846	0.0513	0.1017	0.1048	0.088	0.0442	0.0991	0.0885	0.0817
	0.9	0.0464	0.1874	0.2524	0.1645	0.0467	0.1692	0.2148	0.1465	0.0438	0.1554	0.2280	0.1442
Panel B: $T = 500$; $h = (\ln T)^2$													
d	ϕ	Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0030	-0.0130	-0.0139	-0.0105	0.0009	-0.0031	-0.0032	-0.0018	0.0034	0.0058	0.0085	0.0061
	0.9	-0.0036	-0.0296	-0.0469	-0.0266	0.0010	-0.0040	-0.0073	-0.0030	0.0039	0.0153	0.0280	0.0160
0.4	0.6	-0.0043	-0.0245	-0.0324	-0.0208	0.0001	-0.0078	-0.0108	-0.0061	0.0029	0.0061	0.0100	0.0067
	0.9	-0.0050	-0.0512	-0.0969	-0.0499	0.0001	-0.0128	-0.0265	-0.0122	0.0028	0.0122	0.0256	0.0137
RMSE													
0.2	0.6	0.0465	0.0725	0.0726	0.0664	0.0465	0.0727	0.0737	0.0668	0.0466	0.0737	0.0752	0.0677
	0.9	0.0465	0.1235	0.1558	0.1112	0.0464	0.1224	0.1548	0.1105	0.0466	0.1247	0.1603	0.1131
0.4	0.6	0.0466	0.0964	0.1051	0.0859	0.0465	0.0955	0.1044	0.0854	0.0466	0.0964	0.1060	0.0862
	0.9	0.0466	0.1684	0.2478	0.1559	0.0464	0.1642	0.2392	0.1517	0.0466	0.1658	0.2432	0.1536

4.2.2 Bias correction of the sample ACF

As in the previous section, we begin by plotting selected distributional results for the sample ACF, where the bias adjustment occurs via the raw sieve algorithm. Figures 7 and 8 display results for $T = 100$ and 500 respectively, with $d = 0.4$ and $\phi = 0.9$. As was the case with IRF estimation we find that the qualitative results for ACF estimation are robust to the method by which h is selected, with there being no clear superiority of one set of results over the other. In this case we choose to present graphical results for the more conventional choice of h , based on AIC, with results for $h = (\ln T)^2$ reproduced in the subsequent tables only.

Panels (i) to (v) in each figure plot respectively: the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}(k)$; the Monte Carlo distribution of the (bootstrap-based) bias-adjusted statistic (referred to hereafter as $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$); the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; and the Monte Carlo distribution of the estimator adjusted using the (infeasible) asymptotic bias formula of Hosking (1996) (referred to hereafter as $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$). As previously noted, the bootstrapping is performed in terms of the Fisher z transform of the ACF so as to restrict the bias-adjusted ACF to the $(-1, 1)$ interval. The four plots are indicated by the legend entries “MC”, “MC-BA”, “BS-av” and “BA-asy” respectively. The vertical dotted line indicates the position of the true value of $\rho(k)$ for each $k = 1, 3, 6, 9, 12$. Panel (vi) plots, for lags $k = 1, 2, \dots, 99$, the true ACF $\rho(k)$ (based on the parameters of the true data generating process); the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; and the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ (designated “True ρ ”, “ \overline{MC} ”, and “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” respectively). In Panel (i) we also plot the sampling distribution of the feasible Lee and Ko bias-adjusted estimator (referred to hereafter as $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$, and designated “BA-LK” on the figure).

Largely mimicking the results pertaining to the estimation of the IRF, the sieve-based technique reproduces quite accurately the ‘true’ Monte Carlo distribution of the statistic to be bias-adjusted. However, as Figure 7 demonstrates, and as has been documented elsewhere (see, for example, Hosking, 1996 and Poskitt et al., 2013), the conventional autocorrelation coefficient $\hat{\rho}(k)$ is extremely biased, and none of the techniques considered here manage to completely eradicate that bias. The raw sieve bias-adjustment technique does, nevertheless, succeed in producing a statistic $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ that is notably *less* biased, in particular for values of k in the medium lag range (20-60). Notably, the sieve-based technique produces an estimate of $\rho(k)$ that is more accurate (for the recorded values of k) than the analytically adjusted (using the known data generating parameters!) estimator, $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$, with $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ being both less biased and having a much smaller RMSE than $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$ on average. For the larger sample size, documented in Figure 8, $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ matches the performance $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$ quite closely, for all k values considered.

Comparing $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(1)$ with the bias-adjusted estimator $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$ based on the esti-

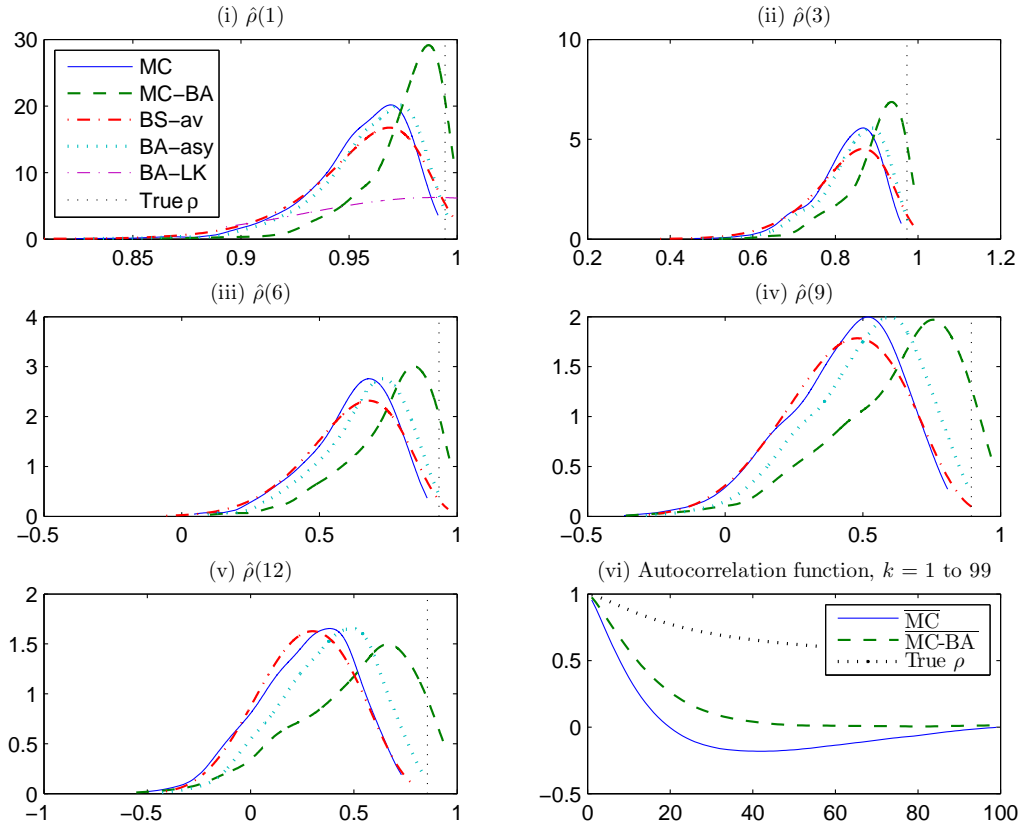


Figure 7. Bias correction of the sample ACF using the *raw sieve* bootstrap.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 100$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “BA-asy” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$; “BA-LK” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\rho(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

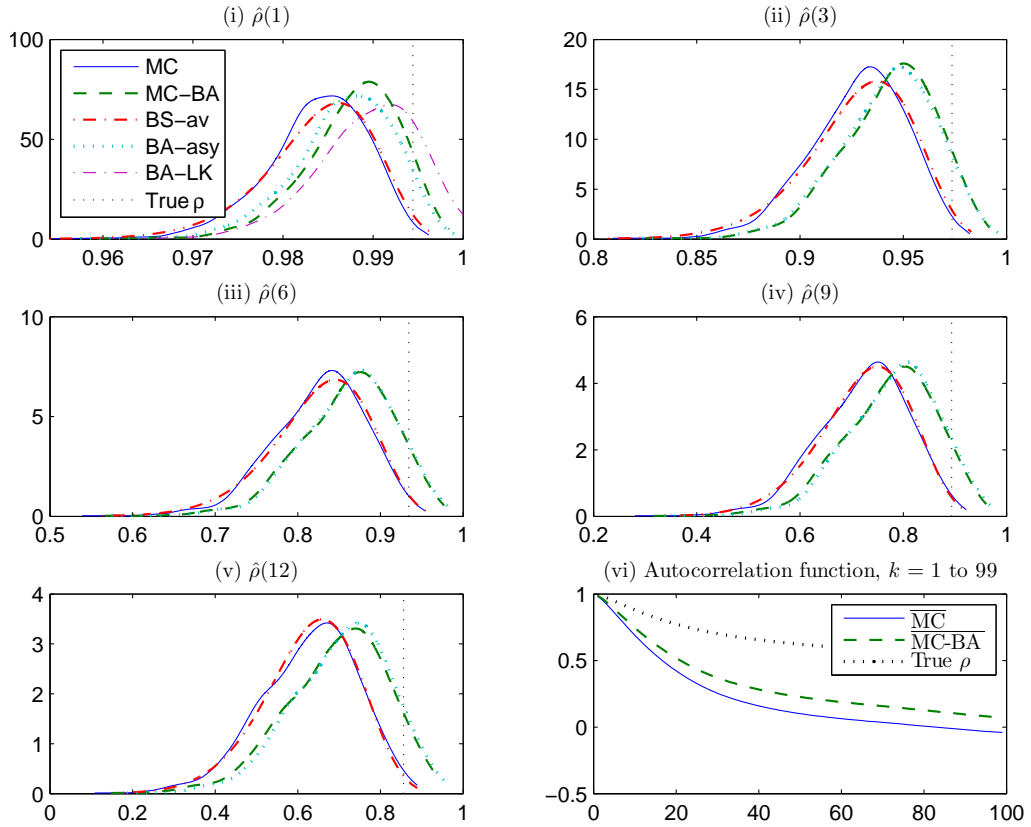


Figure 8. Bias correction of the sample ACF using the *raw sieve* bootstrap.

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 500$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “BA-asy” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$; “BA-LK” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\rho(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

mated Lee and Ko bias, we see that our ‘plug-in’ estimate of the latter results in an estimator with slightly less bias than that of $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(1)$, but at the cost of a much larger RMSE. Results not reported here indicate that, depending on the precise data generating process, the sampling distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$ can exhibit very poor properties, including very large *positive* biases, due to the cumulative error in estimating the entire ACF, which we recall is required for implementation of the Lee and Ko-adjusted estimator.

In Figures 9 and 10 we plot the corresponding results based on the pre-filtered bootstrap technique, with the true value of d used in the pre-filtering. The results confirm, once again, the remarkable accuracy of this approach, with the bias-adjusted estimator seen to be essentially unbiased, even for $T = 100$, and to have a mean value (across Monte Carlo replications) that is almost visually indistinguishable from the true $\rho(k)$ for all values of k considered for $T = 500$.

However, in contrast to the case for the IRF, rendering the pre-filtered technique feasible via the substitution of the SPLW estimate for d in the pre-filtering algorithm does not produce a bias-adjusted estimator whose performance mimics that of the estimator that exploits the true value of d . Instead, the procedure results in a severe over-correction of the Fisher- z transformed ACF which, when passed through the reverse transform, (4.5), results in coefficients that are biased towards one. The severity of this over-correction naturally worsens as the degree of persistence increases (i.e., as d and/or ϕ increase), to the extent that, for the highest persistence design considered, the bias-“corrected” estimates were all just less than one. For very low values of k this in fact leads to less bias, as we see from the results recorded in Tables 3 and 4. However, when considering the results for the ACF as a whole, over the full spectrum of lags extending out to $k = 99$, the use of pre-filtering to bias correct is problematic, and those results are not therefore documented graphically. Careful investigation of the underlying outcomes indicates that the SPLW estimator is itself biased upwards, and that the bias in the SPLW estimator of d skews the reference value of $\rho(k)$ in such a way that its use as a basis for calculating the bootstrap estimate of bias is severely compromised. Thus, despite the accuracy of the estimate of the sampling distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$ as produced by the pre-filtered sieve (based on the true d), inaccuracy in the estimate of d can produce a reference value for use in the bias-correction that is itself an inaccurate representation of the true but unknown value of $\rho(k)$ that underlies the data generating process. Hence, the bootstrap-based measure of bias is not an accurate estimate of the true unknown bias in $\hat{\rho}(k)$.

To understand this point it is worth remembering the situation that obtains for bias-adjustment in a parametric bootstrap setting. In that case, an unknown parameter θ that characterizes the data generating process is estimated as $\hat{\theta}$. Repeated bootstrap samples are then generated from the estimated model (based on $\hat{\theta}$), pro-

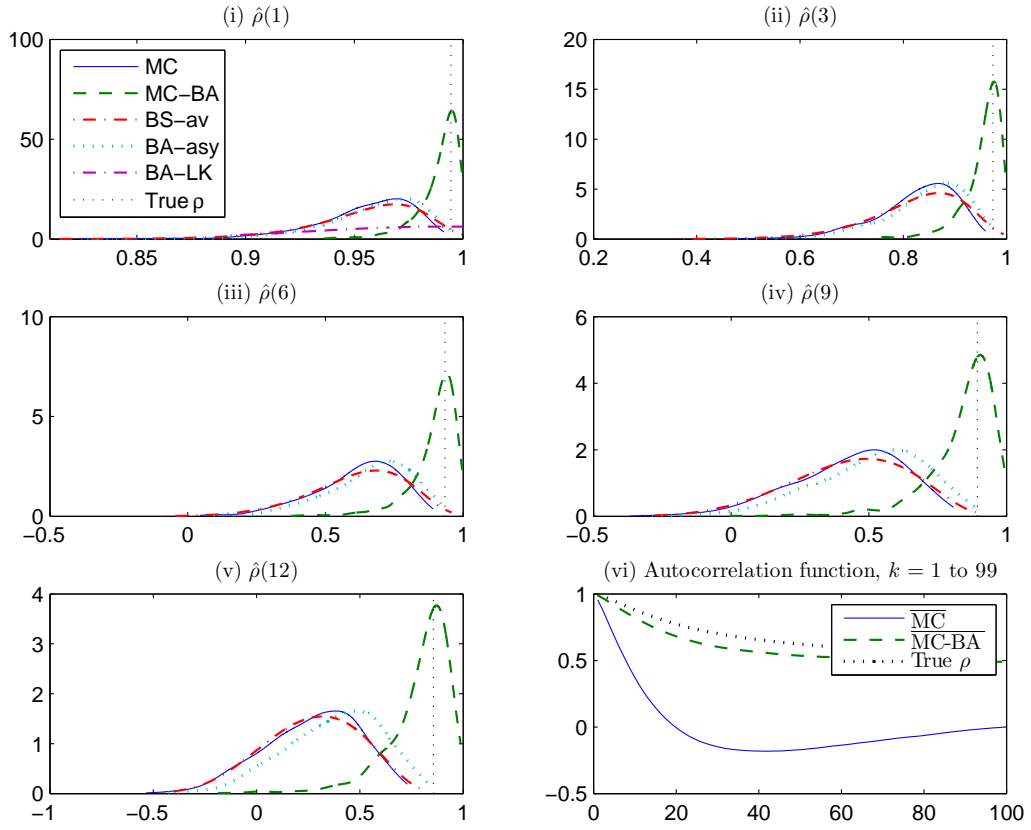


Figure 9. Bias correction of the sample ACF using the *pre-filtered sieve* bootstrap, based on the *true value of d as the pre-filter*

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 100$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “BA-asy” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$; “BA-LK” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\rho(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

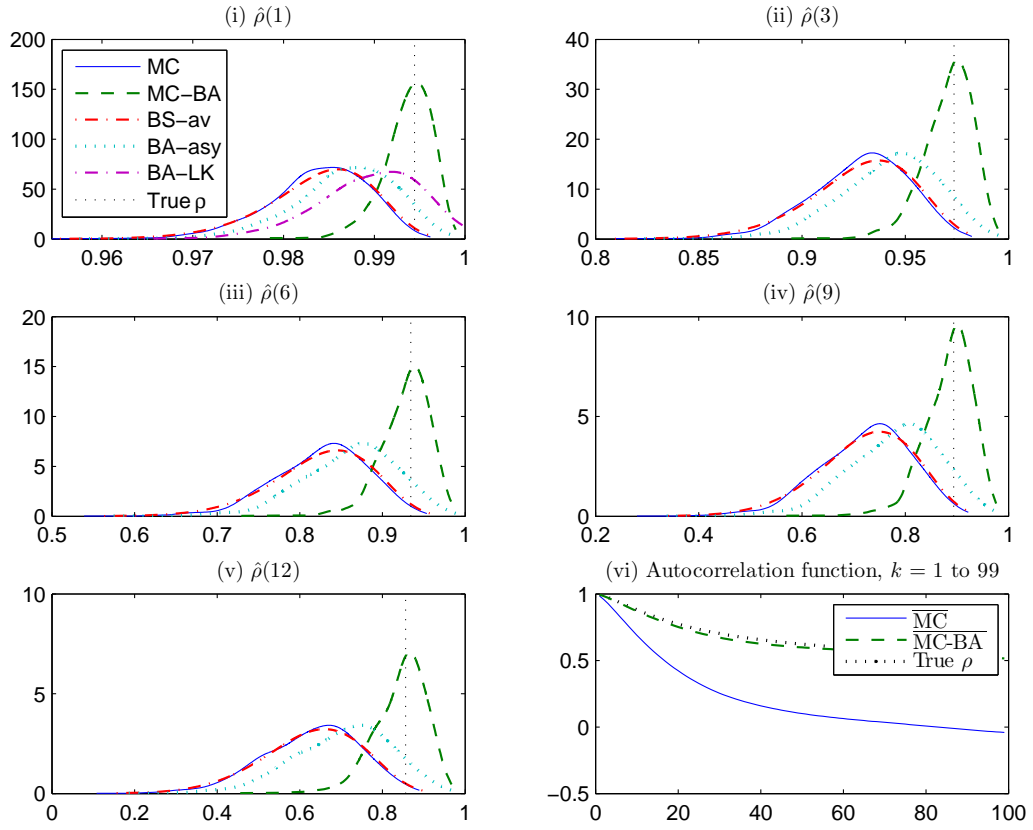


Figure 10. Bias correction of the sample ACF using the *pre-filtered sieve* bootstrap, based on the *true value of d as the pre-filter*

True process: ARFIMA(1, d , 0); $T = 500$; $d = 0.4$; $\phi = 0.9$.

Key for Panels (1) to (v): “MC” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the unadjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “MC-BA” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of the bootstrap bias-adjusted statistic $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$; “BS-av” denotes the average bootstrap estimate of the distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “BA-asy” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(ASY)}(k)$; “BA-LK” denotes the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(LK)}(1)$.

Key for Panel (vi): “ \overline{MC} ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}(k)$; “ $\overline{MC-BA}$ ” denotes the mean of the Monte Carlo distribution of $\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$. The true value of $\rho(k)$ is denoted by the use of small dots in all panels.

ducing repeated bootstrap values, $\hat{\theta}_b, b = 1, 2, \dots, B$, and the bias of $\hat{\theta}$, defined as $bias = E(\hat{\theta} - \theta)$, is estimated by $\widehat{bias} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \hat{\theta}_b - \hat{\theta}$. The key here is that $\hat{\theta}$ plays exactly the same role in generating the bootstrap samples as does θ in generating the empirical sample. In the case of bootstrapping the IRF or ACF using the (pre-filtered) sieve, however, the true data generating process is (by the very nature of the exercise) *not* estimated but, rather, approximated via the combination of an estimate of d and the fitted AR. The requisite parameter reference values to use in the bootstrap bias calculations therefore need to be backed out from the approximating model.

Now, whereas inaccuracies in the estimate \hat{d} appear to be compensated for by changes in the autoregressive estimates $\hat{\phi}_h(1), \dots, \hat{\phi}_h(h)$ of the $AR(h)$ approximation fitted to the filtered data $(1-z)^{\hat{d}}y(t)$, in such a way that the reference IRF $\tilde{\psi}(k)$ implicit in the $ARFMA(h, \hat{d}, 0)$ approximating model provides a clear reflection of the true IRF coefficients; the same is not true of the ACF. A small amount of inaccuracy in the estimate of d produces an implied reference value $\tilde{\rho}(k)$ that is sufficiently different from what would be produced by using the true (unknown) value of d to ultimately produce an inaccurate estimate of the true bias of $\hat{\rho}(k)$. The reason for this difference in sensitivity presumably lies in the fact that for any given values of \hat{d} and $\hat{\phi}_h(1), \dots, \hat{\phi}_h(h)$ the reference values for the two different statistics are related via the expression $\tilde{\rho}(k) = \sum_{s \geq k} \tilde{\psi}(s)\tilde{\psi}(k-s) / \sum_{s \geq 0} \tilde{\psi}^2(s)$. This suggests that small perturbations in the $\tilde{\psi}(k)$, that are immaterial for the pre-filtered-based bias correction of $\hat{\psi}(k)$, multiply and accumulate so as to result in a change in the value of $\tilde{\rho}(k)$ that is sufficiently large to distort the corresponding bias correction of $\hat{\rho}(k)$. The implication is that use of the pre-filtered sieve to bias correct the ACF requires a greater degree of precision in the preliminary estimate \hat{d} in order to achieve the high level of accuracy seen when employing the method to bias correct the IRF. Whilst it is beyond the scope of this paper to investigate this point further, we note that in related work (Poskitt et al., 2014) the authors are investigating the use of sieve-based techniques to bias adjust d itself. It could be hoped that such a procedure may produce estimates of d that are accurate enough to alleviate the sensitivity problem observed here in the bias adjustment of $\hat{\rho}(k)$. We leave that investigation for a later date.

As a final point, we reference once again the results produced (but not recorded) for $d = 0$. In common with the IRF results, the use of the raw sieve to bias adjust the ACF in this setting continues to yield a reduction in bias. In contrast with the IRF results, however, this reduction in bias is also sometimes sufficient to produce a reduction in RMSE. Once again, redundant pre-filtering does not yield improvements overall.

5 Discussion

This paper has demonstrated the benefits of using bootstrap techniques to reduce the bias of the primary persistence measures - the autocorrelation and impulse response functions - in long memory settings. Given the difficulty of accurately specifying the short memory dynamics in (long memory) ARFIMA models, a semi-parametric approach to the bootstrap has been adopted, with pre-filtering based on a preliminary (semi-parametric) estimate of the long memory parameter also advocated. The results provide quite clear guidance for the researcher wishing to draw conclusions about persistence in this setting. The fact that the raw sieve yields bias improvements (at little, if any, cost in RMSE) for both persistence measures in virtually all settings (including those in which long memory is actually absent), leads us to recommend that the raw sieve should be used as the default method for bias adjustment. In the case of the impulse response function, if the preliminary evidence in favour of long memory is reasonably strong, the pre-filtered sieve should definitely be invoked, knowing that the extent of the extra bias adjustment so produced can be substantial. Comparison of the pre-filtering method with an alternative approach based on a modification of the Kilian (1998) technique for bias adjusting the impulse response function serves to confirm this conclusion, with the pre-filtered sieve yielding results that are either comparable or better, at no extra computational burden. In the case of the autocorrelation function, the results indicate that a very accurate estimate of the pre-filter is required if the pre-filtering technique is to be reliable as a method of bias adjustment for all lag values, and under any true settings.

Finally, we re-iterate that the scope of our paper has been restricted to using the bootstrap to bias-adjust persistence measures, and measuring the accuracy of the estimators so produced via conventional means. As noted in the Introduction, some attention in the literature has been given to the use of the bootstrap to improve the (coverage) accuracy of confidence intervals for impulse response functions (in particular) in time series settings that do encompass long memory processes. Further work in this direction is the subject of ongoing research.

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TABLE 3

Bias and root mean squared error (RMSE) of estimators of selected autocorrelation coefficients, for $T = 100$. Results for the unadjusted and both forms of bootstrap-based bias-adjusted estimators are documented.

		$\hat{\rho}(k)$			$\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ (raw sieve)			$\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ (pre-filtered sieve)					
		$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.
Panel A: $T = 100$; h based on AIC selection													
d	ϕ	Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0591	-0.1570	-0.1518	-0.1309	-0.0299	-0.0862	-0.0885	-0.0724	0.1727	0.6146	0.7291	0.5269
	0.9	-0.0453	-0.2570	-0.3835	-0.2324	-0.0198	-0.1144	-0.1774	-0.1051	0.0322	0.2403	0.4408	0.2356
0.4	0.6	-0.0959	-0.4249	-0.5256	-0.3629	-0.0673	-0.3150	-0.4072	-0.2724	0.0566	0.2899	0.3932	0.2537
	0.9	-0.0392	-0.3186	-0.5851	-0.3115	-0.0191	-0.1803	-0.3546	-0.1814	0.0055	0.0650	0.1424	0.0688
RMSE													
0.2	0.6	0.0919	0.2241	0.2143	0.1890	0.0780	0.1997	0.1891	0.1665	0.1948	0.6583	0.7672	0.5649
	0.9	0.0575	0.3079	0.4409	0.2747	0.0383	0.2181	0.3288	0.1983	0.0322	0.2403	0.4408	0.2356
0.4	0.6	0.1099	0.4638	0.5587	0.3940	0.0864	0.3809	0.4676	0.3246	0.0602	0.2972	0.3981	0.2596
	0.9	0.0454	0.3537	0.6285	0.3408	0.0270	0.2406	0.4540	0.2375	0.0055	0.0650	0.1424	0.0688
Panel B: $T = 100$; $h = (\ln T)^2$													
d	ϕ	Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0591	-0.1570	-0.1518	-0.1309	-0.0314	-0.0969	-0.1062	-0.0824	0.1583	0.5749	0.6839	0.4920
	0.9	-0.0453	-0.2570	-0.3835	-0.2324	-0.0232	-0.1461	-0.2521	-0.1403	0.0319	0.2384	0.4373	0.2338
0.4	0.6	-0.0959	-0.4249	-0.5256	-0.3629	-0.0690	-0.3286	-0.4364	-0.2869	0.0551	0.2837	0.3855	0.2484
	0.9	-0.0392	-0.3186	-0.5851	-0.3115	-0.0209	-0.2056	-0.4238	-0.2116	0.0054	0.0637	0.1398	0.0675
RMSE													
0.2	0.6	0.0919	0.2241	0.2143	0.189	0.0796	0.2164	0.2270	0.1845	0.1928	0.6452	0.7491	0.5536
	0.9	0.0575	0.3079	0.4409	0.2747	0.0404	0.2358	0.3806	0.2206	0.0319	0.2384	0.4374	0.2338
0.4	0.6	0.1099	0.4638	0.5587	0.3940	0.0880	0.3963	0.5074	0.3426	0.0608	0.2955	0.3933	0.2578
	0.9	0.0454	0.3537	0.6285	0.3408	0.0286	0.2614	0.5145	0.2633	0.0054	0.0638	0.1400	0.0675

TABLE 4

Bias and root mean squared error (RMSE) of estimators of selected autocorrelation coefficients, for $T = 500$. Results for the unadjusted and both forms of bootstrap-based bias-adjusted estimators are documented.

		$\hat{\rho}(k)$			$\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ (raw sieve)			$\hat{\rho}^{(BA)}(k)$ (pre-filtered sieve)					
		$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.	$k = 1$	$k = 6$	$k = 12$	av.
Panel A: $T = 500$; h based on AIC selection													
d	ϕ	Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0166	-0.0509	-0.057	-0.0437	-0.0100	-0.0327	-0.0394	-0.0286	0.0993	0.3311	0.3964	0.2875
	0.9	-0.0100	-0.0667	-0.1143	-0.0636	-0.0045	-0.0315	-0.0555	-0.0303	0.0322	0.2404	0.4409	0.2357
0.4	0.6	-0.0445	-0.2191	-0.2927	-0.1912	-0.0377	-0.1889	-0.2549	-0.1653	0.0577	0.2913	0.3935	0.2548
	0.9	-0.0106	-0.1085	-0.2283	-0.1128	-0.0066	-0.0752	-0.1623	-0.0790	0.0055	0.0652	0.1428	0.0690
RMSE													
0.2	0.6	0.0336	0.1007	0.1065	0.0849	0.0311	0.0957	0.1011	0.0803	0.1249	0.4174	0.483	0.3578
	0.9	0.0146	0.0975	0.1661	0.0927	0.0114	0.0796	0.1381	0.0762	0.0322	0.2404	0.4409	0.2357
0.4	0.6	0.0497	0.2429	0.3211	0.2112	0.0439	0.2186	0.2912	0.1904	0.0583	0.2940	0.3962	0.2570
	0.9	0.0120	0.1224	0.2564	0.1270	0.0085	0.0946	0.2028	0.0991	0.0055	0.0652	0.1428	0.0690
Panel B: $T = 500$; $h = (\ln T)^2$													
d	ϕ	Bias											
0.2	0.6	-0.0166	-0.0509	-0.0570	-0.0437	-0.0085	-0.0271	-0.0323	-0.0237	0.0741	0.2560	0.3096	0.2221
	0.9	-0.0100	-0.0667	-0.1143	-0.0636	-0.0047	-0.0335	-0.0603	-0.0326	0.0321	0.2397	0.4396	0.2350
0.4	0.6	-0.0445	-0.2191	-0.2927	-0.1912	-0.0354	-0.1760	-0.2370	-0.1540	0.0570	0.2882	0.3898	0.2522
	0.9	-0.0106	-0.1085	-0.2283	-0.1128	-0.0067	-0.0767	-0.1664	-0.0808	0.0055	0.0650	0.1423	0.0688
RMSE													
0.2	0.6	0.0336	0.1007	0.1065	0.0849	0.0313	0.0978	0.1061	0.0827	0.1106	0.3752	0.4339	0.3209
	0.9	0.0146	0.0975	0.1661	0.0927	0.0116	0.0815	0.1446	0.0788	0.0321	0.2397	0.4396	0.2350
0.4	0.6	0.0497	0.2429	0.3211	0.2112	0.0425	0.2110	0.2818	0.1840	0.0580	0.2925	0.3939	0.2556
	0.9	0.0120	0.1224	0.2564	0.1270	0.0086	0.0964	0.2083	0.1014	0.0055	0.0650	0.1423	0.0688

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