

UNDERDIFFERENCING VERSUS OVERDIFFERENCING TESTS

Nuno Crato and Pedro J. F. de Lima,
Stevens Institute of Technology and The Johns Hopkins University

Nuno Crato, Department of Mathematical Sciences, Stevens Institute of Technology
Hoboken, NJ 07030, USA

Key words: ARIMA, ARFIMA, moving average unit roots.

Abstract: In the ARIMA modeling of business, financial, and macroeconomic time series, a very important question consists on the determination of the degree of integration of the data under analysis. There are essentially three different approaches to this problem. In the first approach, the analyst tests for underdifferencing, i.e., for the existence of one or more autoregressive unit roots, in order to decide whether further differencing is necessary. In the second approach, the analyst tests for overdifferencing, i.e., for the existence of a unit root in the moving average polynomial of the ARMA model. In the third approach, the analyst directly estimates the degree of integration of the time series via spectral or time-domain methods. In this paper, we provide a Monte Carlo comparison of these three different approaches. In particular, we contrast the power of the different tests in fractionally integrated and in nearly nonstationary and nearly noninvertible processes.

1 Introduction

Consider the classical autoregressive integrated moving average models, ARIMA. We say that the random process x_t is an ARIMA($p; d; q$) if there are constant polynomials $A(\zeta)$ and $\mu(\zeta)$ in the backwards shift operator B , of order p and q , respectively, and a nonnegative integer d such that, for every t

$$A^a(B)x_t = A(B)(1 - B)^d x_t = \mu(B)\epsilon_t \quad (1)$$

where $\epsilon_t \gg \text{iid}(0; \frac{1}{4})$. As a regularity condition, we assume that the polynomials $A(B)$ and $\mu(B)$ have no

the degree of integration of the data under analysis, or, in other words, the appropriate degree of differencing to use. By appropriate degree of differencing we mean the (integer) order D such that the differences of the time series x_t yield a static (causal) and invertible process. In the context of ARIMA modeling, this integer is the parameter (1) , i.e., $D = d$.

A more general model which has recently received much attention is the fractionally integrated AR or ARFIMA. In this model, d is allowed to be a real number and $(1 - B)^d$ is defined by its expansion $\sum_k \binom{d}{k} (-1)^k B^k$. This model is nonstationary when $d > 1/2$ and noninvertible when $d < -1/2$. See, Brockwell and Davis (1991, section 13.2) for details.

In the context of ARFIMA modeling the appropriate degree of differencing can still be considered as the integer order D that renders the series $(1 - B)^D x_t$ a stationary (causal) and invertible process, i.e., $D = [d + 1/2]$, where $[\cdot]$ represents the greatest integer function.¹

In both ARIMA and ARFIMA modeling a crucial question is the determination of the appropriate degree of integer differencing to use.

There are essentially three different approaches to this problem. In the first approach the analyst tests for underdifferencing, in the second approach the analyst tests for overdifferencing, and in the third approach the analyst directly estimates the degree of integration.

The first approach, testing for an autoregressive unit root, has been the subject of much study by a number of authors and includes a very large body of literature. Common tests are, inter alia, the Di-

(ADF), and the tests of Phillips and Perron (1988). See Diebold and Nerlove (1990) for a review.

The second approach, testing for a moving-average unit root, has recently begun to receive more attention after the works of Tanaka (1990), Saikkonen and Luukkonen (1993), Tsay (1993), and Breitung (1994), among others.

The third approach, direct estimation of the degree of integration, has been suggested by Sowell (1992), who stressed that underdifferenced ARIMA processes and overdifferenced (noninvertible) ARMA processes can be nested as special cases of fractionally integrated models, and that the degree of integration d of the time series can be directly estimated by fitting an ARFIMA model to the series. Sowell proposed the exact maximum likelihood estimator for the ARFIMA model. This estimator, however, has a number of computational problems and becomes quickly intractable for a large number of observations. The use of a spectral method as in Geweke and Porter-Hudak (1983) or in Robinson (1993) has also been suggested as a tool for identification purposes by Crato (1992) and Hassler (1993).

In the presence of an ARFIMA process with $d \notin 0$ the determination of the appropriate degree of differencing is not an easy task. As Diebold and Rudebusch (1991) demonstrated, the power of autoregressive unit root tests is low against ARFIMA models with $0 < d < 1/2$. Moreover, ARFIMA models with a positive d close to but less than $1/2$ display a set of autocorrelation, spectral, and graphical properties that are almost indistinguishable from those of a nonstationary ARIMA (Crato, 1992). Consequently, the assumption of an ARIMA(p ; 1; q) in presence of a stationary ARFIMA is likely to occur. The problem at stake, then, is the detection of a unit root in the moving average part of the resulting overdifferenced series. We investigate, in particular, which type of test, or combination of tests, if any, is more powerful for these ARFIMA models: the AR unit root tests applied on the original near nonstationary ARFIMA(p ; d ; q) process or the MA unit root tests applied on the overdifferenced ARFIMA(p ; d ; q) process.

2 The tests

Augmented Dickey-Fuller ADF(p_{max})

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test of the hypothesis that $\hat{A}^d(B)$ in (1) has a unit root is based on the regression t-statistic for the hypothesis $\alpha = 1$ in

$$x_t = \alpha x_{t-1} + \beta_1 \Delta x_{t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta x_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_p \Delta x_{t-p}$$

where $\Delta = (1 - B)$. The selection of the truncation parameter p used in our study follows a general-to-specific adaptive rule. We first choose an upper bound parameter p_{max} and test the hypothesis that the coefficient $\beta_{p_{max}}$ is significantly different from zero. If it is, we set $\hat{p} = p_{max}$ and compute the Dickey-Fuller statistic based on this autoregression. Otherwise, we run an autoregression of order $p_{max} - 1$ and test the hypothesis that $\beta_{p_{max}}$ is zero. The selection procedure stops when the significant coefficient is found, getting the stationary ADF(p_{max}). Hall (1994) and Ng and Perron (1994) provide simulation studies showing that this procedure tends to minimize the size distortions widely reported for the ADF test.

In contrast to the ADF test, the following procedures test for overdifferencing. We closely follow the notation of Tanaka (1990) and Breitung (1994). The time series under consideration will always be represented by y_t ; $t = 1, \dots, T$ and the integrated time series, possibly nonstationary but supposed invertible, will be represented by z_t ; $t = 1, \dots, T$. If the original observations were overdifferenced like the series y_t then the integrated series will be overdifferenced. Hereafter, we will suppose that this is not the case and so z_t will be constructed. To this end we will use the Helmert transform

$$z_t = Hy_t = (t + t^2)^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^t y_j$$

We do not use the partial sums of y_t since, under the null of a moving-average unit root, they will constitute a sequence with all values depending substantially on a common initial factor.

Tanaka's statistic \hat{z}_T

The Tanaka (1990) statistic compares the vari-

in probability to a fixed quantity while the sample variance of $H_z t$, normalized by T , will converge to a functional of the Brownian motion. The statistic can be written as

$$\hat{I}_T = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (H_z t)^2}{T \sum_{t=1}^T z_t^2} \quad (3)$$

and its limiting distribution, as well as its finite-sample and limiting power against invertible MA(1) alternatives were tabulated by Tanaka (1990, p. 438).

Corrected Tanaka's statistic \hat{A}_T

In order to allow for MA models of higher order, Tanaka (1990) suggested a non-parametric correction to the variance estimator. Using a Bartlett window up to lag l for estimating the spectral density f_z he gets

$$\hat{A}_T(l) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (H_z t)^2}{T^2 \frac{1}{2} f_z(0)} \quad (4)$$

Breitung's correction \hat{C}_T

Breitung (1994) suggested the use of another spectral estimator: $\frac{1}{2} f_z(0) = \sum_{j=1}^q \hat{\rho}_z(j)$ where $\hat{\rho}_z(j)$; $j = 1; \dots; q$, are obtained from the sample autocovariances of z_t , $\hat{\rho}_z(j) = \hat{\rho}_z(j, j)$, as follows

$$\hat{\rho}_z(j) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=i}^q (q+1 - \max\{j, |k-j|\}) \hat{\rho}_z(k) \quad (5)$$

Under the null of an MA(q) model with a simple unit root, $\hat{\rho}_z(j)$ are the autocovariance estimates of the process z_t . See Breitung (1994, Lemma 1) for details. The statistic becomes

$$\hat{C}_T(q) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (H_z t)^2}{T^2 \frac{1}{2} f_z(0)} \quad (6)$$

Breitung's spectral statistic \hat{A}_T

This spectral statistic assumes an MA(q + 1) null, with a simple unit root, and tests the hypothesis $f_y(0) = 0$. Under this condition, the series of crossproducts $\hat{\rho}_t$; $t = q + 1; \dots; T$, is constructed

$$\hat{\rho}_t = z_t^2 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^q z_t z_{t-j}$$

A consistent estimator for $f_z(0)$ is

and a consistent estimator for the corresponding variance is

$$\hat{V}_T = \sum_{j=i}^q (q+1 - j) \hat{\rho}_z(j)$$

with $\hat{\rho}_z(j) = \hat{\rho}_z(i, j) = T^{-1} \sum_{t=i}^T z_t z_{t-j}$. The resulting statistic

$$\hat{A}_T(q) = \frac{T^{1/2}}{\hat{V}_T}$$

is asymptotically \hat{A}^2 distributed under the null and allows a (two-sided) test of the hypothesis $f_y(0)$

Breitung's variance difference test

This test compares two estimators for the variance of the integrated series z_t . One estimator, S_1^2 , is the sample variance $T^{-1} \sum z_t^2$. The other estimator S_0^2 , is constructed under the null of a unit root (5),

$$S_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=i}^q (q+1 - |k-j|) \hat{\rho}_z(k)$$

The normalizing estimator V_T is obtained from sample autocorrelations for the integrated series

$$V_T = \sum_{j=i}^q \hat{\rho}_{H_z}(j)$$

Under the null of a MA(q) process with a simple root, the statistic

$$\hat{\rho}_T(q) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (S_1^2 - S_0^2)}{S_0^2 V_T}$$

is asymptotically standard normal.

All previous procedures test either for underdifferencing (ADF) or for overdifferencing (Tanaka and Breitung \hat{A} and \hat{C}). In contrast, the spectral regression procedure we now describe can be used for both purposes.

Spectral regression tests \hat{d}

Geweke and Porter-Hudak (1983) suggested a estimation method for the fractional integration

function of the frequencies. For low-order frequencies, the residuals e_j of the following regression equation approximate a white noise series

$$\ln I_T(j) = a + d \ln \frac{1}{4} \sin^2 \frac{\pi j}{T} + e_j \quad (9)$$

For the regression we use $j = m_L; \dots; m_U$, where $m_L = [(T=10)^{1=3}]$ and $m_U = [T^{1=2}]$. For details see Geweke and Porter-Hudak (1983) and Robinson (1993). In presence of ARFIMA processes, tests for (I) underdifferencing and (III) overdifferencing can be formalized as follows

$$(I) \quad \begin{matrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ H_0 : d = 1=2 \\ H_1 : d > 1=2 \end{matrix} \quad (III) \quad \begin{matrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ H_0 : d < 1=2 \\ H_1 : d > 1=2 \end{matrix}$$

In presence of ARIMA models, this test can still provide some useful information. First, the existence of a unit root in the MA polynomial implies a root on the spectrum of the process at frequency zero. The spectral regression method should be able to detect such a root. Second, the existence of a unit root in the AR polynomial implies a divergence of the periodogram at frequency zero. Although the spectrum of such nonstationary process is not defined, Crato (1992) proved that the spectral regression estimate still converges to the value of d , i.e., 1. Hurvich and Ray (1995) confirmed the asymptotic unbiasedness of this estimator for $d = 1$ and obtained general results for any $d < 3=2$. Considering only integer d , tests for (II) underdifferencing and (IV) overdifferencing can be formalized as follows.

$$(II) \quad \begin{matrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ H_0 : d = 0 \\ H_1 : d > 0 \end{matrix} \quad (IV) \quad \begin{matrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ H_0 : d = 0 \\ H_1 : d < 0 \end{matrix}$$

We perform these (I)-(IV) tests with the t ratios given by the standard deviations of the regressions.

3 Results

Our simulations include the simple fractional noise model ARFIMA(0; d ; 0), two nearly nonstationary AR(1) processes, and a pair of comparable nonstationary and nearly nonstationary models presented by Wichern (1973).

The ARFIMA(0 d 0) models have the following

-0.1, -0.2, -0.45, -0.55, -0.8, and -1.0. The $d = 1; 0, 0, \text{ and } -1.0$ are, respectively, the ARIMA(0,1,0), the white noise, and the ARIMA(1,0).

The two AR(1) models we generated have \hat{A} and $\hat{A} = 0;95$.

The two Wichern models are the ARIMA($Z_t = 0;8 Z_{t-1} + e_t$) and the ARMA($Z_t = 0;95 Z_{t-1} + 0;74 Z_{t-2} + e_t$). Wichern (1973) structured these two models in order to illustrate the possibility of having pairs of nonstationary and stationary processes with almost undistinguishable second order sample properties for a given size T in this case $T = 100$.

All computations were done using the Gauss programming language and Gauss built-in functions. The fractionally integrated series were generated by multiplying the Choleski decomposition of the covariance matrix by a vector of independent standard normal random variables. For each case 100 replications were performed.

The ADF tests were performed over the original series, the MA unit root tests were performed over the differenced series, and the spectral regression tests were performed over both the original (I, II) and the differenced series (III, IV).

For all but the Wichern models we used $T = 100, 250, \text{ and } 500$.

Tables 1 through 9 report the fraction of rejection of the corresponding null hypothesis. The level of the tests was set to 5%.

4 Conclusions

The results from the simulated ARFIMA models (Tables 1 to 4) show the insufficiencies of all statistical tests. While the AR unit root test has difficulty discriminating between nonstationary and stationary ARFIMA, the MA unit root tests have difficulty discriminating between noninvertible and invertible stationary ARFIMA.

No MA unit root test dominates uniformly the others. Breitung's correction to Tanaka's statistic $\hat{\zeta}_T(q)$, and the variance difference statistic, seem to perform better. However, they both are critically dependent on the choice of the truncation parameter q .

For a reasonable sample size, say $T = 250$, the ADF test is generally able to reject the AR unit root of a stationary ARFIMA(0; d; 0), ($d < 1=2$). Meanwhile, for the same sample size, the MA unit root tests have trouble detecting the noninvertibility of the corresponding differenced series, the ARFIMA(0; d; 1; 0).

This seems to indicate that little can be gained from the use of the MA unit root tests only. Tsay had suggested the construction of a nonstationary series from a stationary but possibly noninvertible one in order to apply the well-known AR unit root tests. This avoids the use of the MA unit root tests alone for testing the over-differencing of a time series.

However, testing for over-differencing may be a sensible complement to the under-differencing tests. In particular, the spectral (\hat{A}_T) and variance-difference ($\hat{\gamma}_T$) tests seem to have an appreciable shift in power when the fractionally integration parameter of the ARFIMA model moves from the nonstationary to the stationary range.

In the case of the AR(1) models (tables 5 to 8), we notice that a choice of a test is equally difficult. The MA unit root tests seem to perform better than the ADF test in some particular circumstances. The spectral (\hat{A}_T) and variance-difference ($\hat{\gamma}_T$) tests outperform the various variants of Tanaka's test. However, they are all very sensitive to the (somewhat arbitrary) choice of the truncation parameter q and so any conclusion is hard to establish.

In the two Wichern models (table 9), all tests perform very poorly. However, with the exception of the spectral regression tests, both the ADF and the MA tests give some indication of detecting more often nonstationarity for the ARIMA model than for the ARMA model. The $\hat{\gamma}_T$, in particular, reveals a better capability of distinguishing between the two cases. This may be an additional indication that the use of MA unit root tests may be a useful additional tool.

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Table 1: Simulated ARFIMA(0,d,0) Models { T = 50

Tests	d=1.0	d=0.9	d=0.7	d=0.6	d=0.55	d=0.45	d=0.3	d=0
ADF(8)	0.061	0.112	0.202	0.348	0.387	0.538	0.953	0.999
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (I)	0.299	0.260	0.177	0.121	0.099	0.071	0.038	0.024
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (II)	0.607	0.571	0.473	0.363	0.301	0.255	0.201	0.082
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (III)	0.021	0.034	0.042	0.079	0.077	0.090	0.121	0.195
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (IV)	0.093	0.126	0.163	0.252	0.252	0.296	0.357	0.454
$\hat{\zeta}_T$	0.950	0.920	0.861	0.755	0.696	0.569	0.341	0.046
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (1)	0.849	0.797	0.720	0.617	0.554	0.454	0.270	0.046
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (4)	0.630	0.570	0.486	0.410	0.358	0.275	0.153	0.029
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (8)	0.480	0.439	0.330	0.274	0.225	0.164	0.080	0.009
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (12)	0.400	0.331	0.227	0.175	0.127	0.080	0.029	0.000
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (1)	0.973	0.952	0.889	0.758	0.712	0.566	0.361	0.107
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (4)	0.758	0.701	0.569	0.467	0.411	0.321	0.193	0.079
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (8)	0.493	0.439	0.333	0.264	0.210	0.175	0.101	0.037
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (12)	0.362	0.295	0.212	0.174	0.131	0.104	0.074	0.019
\hat{A}_T (1)	0.891	0.795	0.598	0.355	0.300	0.203	0.105	0.031
\hat{A}_T (4)	0.198	0.150	0.068	0.033	0.037	0.031	0.015	0.027
\hat{A}_T (8)	0.019	0.022	0.008	0.012	0.011	0.016	0.013	0.021
\hat{A}_T (12)	0.003	0.002	0.004	0.005	0.003	0.000	0.009	0.010
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (1)	0.993	0.975	0.888	0.666	0.604	0.346	0.090	0.007
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (4)	0.423	0.313	0.141	0.045	0.031	0.008	0.004	0.000
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (8)	0.042	0.018	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (12)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Table indicates the fraction of rejections of the null hypothesis of each test

Table 2: Simulated ARFIMA(0,d,0) Models { T = 100

Tests	d=1.0	d=0.9	d=0.7	d=0.6	d=0.55	d=0.45	d=0.3	d=0
ADF(10)	0.060	0.136	0.297	0.569	0.676	0.741	0.999	1.000
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (I)	0.331	0.267	0.165	0.092	0.090	0.060	0.025	0.012
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (II)	0.666	0.580	0.463	0.351	0.312	0.228	0.169	0.079
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (III)	0.018	0.026	0.028	0.055	0.070	0.087	0.115	0.214
\hat{d}^{\dagger} (IV)	0.077	0.105	0.137	0.220	0.250	0.284	0.331	0.475
$\hat{\zeta}_T$	0.994	0.980	0.957	0.900	0.868	0.738	0.526	0.052
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (1)	0.955	0.932	0.866	0.779	0.718	0.597	0.408	0.056
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (4)	0.762	0.741	0.644	0.540	0.465	0.374	0.250	0.040
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (8)	0.628	0.616	0.517	0.399	0.337	0.280	0.161	0.036
$\hat{\zeta}_T$ (12)	0.539	0.528	0.430	0.308	0.254	0.194	0.109	0.024
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (1)	1.000	0.992	0.977	0.911	0.882	0.741	0.530	0.099
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (4)	0.945	0.906	0.810	0.684	0.609	0.491	0.325	0.097
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (8)	0.794	0.735	0.609	0.480	0.405	0.303	0.200	0.053
$\hat{\varepsilon}_T$ (12)	0.632	0.590	0.468	0.349	0.296	0.220	0.138	0.032
\hat{A}_T (1)	0.998	0.991	0.910	0.672	0.557	0.394	0.178	0.030
\hat{A}_T (4)	0.675	0.464	0.200	0.106	0.065	0.043	0.026	0.031
\hat{A}_T (8)	0.264	0.143	0.066	0.024	0.034	0.022	0.034	0.028
\hat{A}_T (12)	0.098	0.071	0.034	0.025	0.023	0.026	0.030	0.025
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (1)	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.960	0.916	0.722	0.266	0.001
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (4)	0.933	0.834	0.642	0.351	0.213	0.101	0.015	0.000
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (8)	0.505	0.358	0.152	0.046	0.018	0.002	0.001	0.000
$\hat{\rho}_T$ (12)	0.203	0.122	0.027	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000

Table 3: Simulated ARFIMA(0,d,0) Models { T = 250

Tests	d=1.0	d=0.9	d=0.7	d=0.6	d=0.55	d=0.45	d=0.3	d=0
ADF(12)	0.052	0.158	0.450	0.794	0.873	0.959	1.000	1.000
\hat{d} (I)	0.518	0.384	0.223	0.113	0.080	0.044	0.022	0.000
\hat{d} (II)	0.903	0.844	0.712	0.557	0.509	0.398	0.256	0.061
\hat{d} (III)	0.003	0.009	0.021	0.041	0.040	0.082	0.137	0.283
\hat{d} (IV)	0.061	0.109	0.216	0.330	0.340	0.437	0.565	0.718
\hat{c}_T	1.000	1.000	0.996	0.988	0.974	0.944	0.707	0.050
\hat{c}_T (1)	0.998	0.990	0.984	0.949	0.925	0.851	0.597	0.050
\hat{c}_T (4)	0.953	0.930	0.877	0.786	0.752	0.646	0.408	0.052
\hat{c}_T (8)	0.864	0.802	0.723	0.643	0.571	0.496	0.308	0.045
\hat{c}_T (12)	0.781	0.705	0.612	0.542	0.476	0.412	0.254	0.045
\hat{e}_T (1)	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.996	0.985	0.950	0.703	0.063
\hat{e}_T (4)	0.999	0.992	0.977	0.925	0.898	0.790	0.511	0.110
\hat{e}_T (8)	0.988	0.959	0.905	0.786	0.735	0.627	0.372	0.096
\hat{e}_T (12)	0.950	0.890	0.801	0.676	0.612	0.511	0.289	0.064
\hat{A}_T (1)	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.983	0.938	0.806	0.392	0.023
\hat{A}_T (4)	0.997	0.939	0.656	0.258	0.211	0.102	0.046	0.034
\hat{A}_T (8)	0.856	0.631	0.263	0.092	0.064	0.040	0.044	0.036
\hat{A}_T (12)	0.610	0.368	0.135	0.046	0.045	0.042	0.026	0.040
\hat{s}_T (1)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.996	0.722	0.001
\hat{s}_T (4)	1.000	1.000	0.995	0.933	0.849	0.594	0.129	0.000
\hat{s}_T (8)	0.987	0.967	0.852	0.516	0.384	0.172	0.019	0.000
\hat{s}_T (12)	0.917	0.806	0.555	0.218	0.145	0.052	0.002	0.000

Table indicates the fraction of rejections of the null hypothesis of each test

Table 4: Simulated ARFIMA(0,d,0) Models { T = 500

Tests	d=1.0	d=0.9	d=0.7	d=0.6	d=0.55	d=0.45	d=0.3	d=0
ADF(14)	0.068	0.205	0.591	0.942	0.964	0.998	1.000	1.000
\hat{d} (I)	0.593	0.488	0.296	0.105	0.081	0.041	0.007	0.000
\hat{d} (II)	0.954	0.913	0.822	0.710	0.636	0.508	0.300	0.056
\hat{d} (III)	0.002	0.002	0.011	0.030	0.033	0.077	0.144	0.311
\hat{d} (IV)	0.076	0.120	0.241	0.353	0.445	0.553	0.699	0.812
\hat{c}_T	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.997	0.998	0.970	0.829	0.051
\hat{c}_T (1)	1.000	0.999	0.997	0.988	0.976	0.928	0.727	0.050
\hat{c}_T (4)	0.991	0.987	0.963	0.916	0.887	0.788	0.549	0.046
\hat{c}_T (8)	0.963	0.942	0.879	0.799	0.778	0.637	0.424	0.042
\hat{c}_T (12)	0.913	0.895	0.810	0.712	0.679	0.550	0.342	0.042
\hat{e}_T (1)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.982	0.834	0.059
\hat{e}_T (4)	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.983	0.977	0.901	0.645	0.092
\hat{e}_T (8)	0.998	0.998	0.978	0.932	0.896	0.769	0.502	0.098
\hat{e}_T (12)	0.994	0.984	0.951	0.853	0.827	0.664	0.412	0.083
\hat{A}_T (1)	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.999	1.000	0.978	0.681	0.033
\hat{A}_T (4)	1.000	1.000	0.956	0.542	0.352	0.156	0.068	0.045
\hat{A}_T (8)	0.998	0.950	0.546	0.189	0.121	0.068	0.043	0.039
\hat{A}_T (12)	0.957	0.821	0.336	0.097	0.074	0.053	0.042	0.048
\hat{s}_T (1)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.979	0.002
\hat{s}_T (4)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.952	0.366	0.000
\hat{s}_T (8)	1.000	1.000	0.998	0.942	0.879	0.567	0.101	0.000
\hat{s}_T (12)	0.998	0.992	0.965	0.759	0.640	0.275	0.037	0.000

Table 5: Simulated AR(1) Models { T = 50

Tests	$\hat{A}=0.8$	$\hat{A}=0.9$	$\hat{A}=0.95$
ADF(8)	0.721	0.353	0.193
$\hat{d}(I)$	0.143	0.164	0.205
$\hat{d}(II)$	0.374	0.429	0.486
$\hat{d}(III)$	0.022	0.023	0.021
$\hat{d}(IV)$	0.109	0.082	0.103
\hat{z}_T	0.755	0.873	0.901
$\hat{z}_T(1)$	0.517	0.688	0.763
$\hat{z}_T(4)$	0.286	0.408	0.504
$\hat{z}_T(8)$	0.151	0.266	0.340
$\hat{z}_T(12)$	0.084	0.178	0.249
$\check{z}_T(1)$	0.774	0.917	0.930
$\check{z}_T(4)$	0.319	0.499	0.627
$\check{z}_T(8)$	0.146	0.251	0.351
$\check{z}_T(12)$	0.082	0.153	0.217
$\hat{A}_T(1)$	0.792	0.837	0.869
$\hat{A}_T(4)$	0.083	0.115	0.153
$\hat{A}_T(8)$	0.003	0.012	0.014
$\hat{A}_T(12)$	0.004	0.003	0.001
$\hat{s}_T(1)$	0.856	0.956	0.968
$\hat{s}_T(4)$	0.031	0.129	0.268
$\hat{s}_T(8)$	0.000	0.003	0.007
$\hat{s}_T(12)$	0.000	0.000	0.000

Table indicates the fraction of rejections of the null hypothesis of each test

Table 7: Simulated AR(1) Models { T = 250

Tests	$\hat{A}=0.8$	$\hat{A}=0.9$	$\hat{A}=0.95$
ADF(12)	1.000	1.000	0.907
$\hat{d}(I)$	0.017	0.095	0.236
$\hat{d}(II)$	0.253	0.510	0.685
$\hat{d}(III)$	0.058	0.008	0.004
$\hat{d}(IV)$	0.384	0.162	0.075
\hat{z}_T	0.844	0.972	0.996
$\hat{z}_T(1)$	0.583	0.858	0.961
$\hat{z}_T(4)$	0.262	0.514	0.741
$\hat{z}_T(8)$	0.161	0.315	0.524
$\hat{z}_T(12)$	0.121	0.234	0.389
$\check{z}_T(1)$	0.923	0.996	1.000
$\check{z}_T(4)$	0.375	0.799	0.964
$\check{z}_T(8)$	0.159	0.429	0.762
$\check{z}_T(12)$	0.104	0.270	0.565
$\hat{A}_T(1)$	1.000	1.000	1.000
$\hat{A}_T(4)$	0.686	0.940	0.972
$\hat{A}_T(8)$	0.116	0.369	0.621
$\hat{A}_T(12)$	0.038	0.128	0.287
$\hat{s}_T(1)$	1.000	1.000	1.000
$\hat{s}_T(4)$	0.444	0.977	0.996
$\hat{s}_T(8)$	0.013	0.274	0.789
$\hat{s}_T(12)$	0.000	0.041	0.295

Table indicates the fraction of rejections of the null hypothesis of each test

Table 6: Simulated AR(1) Models { T = 100

Tests	$\hat{A}=0.8$	$\hat{A}=0.9$	$\hat{A}=0.95$
ADF(10)	0.985	0.736	0.383
$\hat{d}(I)$	0.075	0.138	0.179
$\hat{d}(II)$	0.271	0.418	0.480
$\hat{d}(III)$	0.026	0.010	0.009
$\hat{d}(IV)$	0.139	0.069	0.063
\hat{z}_T	0.803	0.943	0.968
$\hat{z}_T(1)$	0.563	0.778	0.893
$\hat{z}_T(4)$	0.264	0.466	0.600
$\hat{z}_T(8)$	0.154	0.284	0.429
$\hat{z}_T(12)$	0.109	0.212	0.361
$\check{z}_T(1)$	0.851	0.980	0.994
$\check{z}_T(4)$	0.354	0.671	0.834
$\check{z}_T(8)$	0.153	0.355	0.574
$\check{z}_T(12)$	0.100	0.220	0.374
$\hat{A}_T(1)$	0.990	0.997	1.000
$\hat{A}_T(4)$	0.227	0.453	0.563
$\hat{A}_T(8)$	0.033	0.094	0.168
$\hat{A}_T(12)$	0.017	0.024	0.033
$\hat{s}_T(1)$	0.993	1.000	0.999
$\hat{s}_T(4)$	0.121	0.541	0.779
$\hat{s}_T(8)$	0.006	0.052	0.212
$\hat{s}_T(12)$	0.001	0.002	0.032

Table 8: Simulated AR(1) Models { T = 500

Tests	$\hat{A}=0.8$	$\hat{A}=0.9$	$\hat{A}=0.95$
ADF(14)	1.000	1.000	1.000
$\hat{d}(I)$	0.002	0.039	0.232
$\hat{d}(II)$	0.134	0.529	0.817
$\hat{d}(III)$	0.134	0.020	0.002
$\hat{d}(IV)$	0.680	0.284	0.084
\hat{z}_T	0.849	0.984	1.000
$\hat{z}_T(1)$	0.609	0.892	0.983
$\hat{z}_T(4)$	0.278	0.552	0.793
$\hat{z}_T(8)$	0.148	0.341	0.546
$\hat{z}_T(12)$	0.101	0.258	0.394
$\check{z}_T(1)$	0.933	0.999	1.000
$\check{z}_T(4)$	0.385	0.868	0.991
$\check{z}_T(8)$	0.158	0.497	0.857
$\check{z}_T(12)$	0.099	0.300	0.616
$\hat{A}_T(1)$	1.000	1.000	1.000
$\hat{A}_T(4)$	0.956	1.000	1.000
$\hat{A}_T(8)$	0.229	0.770	0.947
$\hat{A}_T(12)$	0.061	0.312	0.700
$\hat{s}_T(1)$	1.000	1.000	1.000
$\hat{s}_T(4)$	0.822	1.000	1.000
$\hat{s}_T(8)$	0.035	0.680	0.992
$\hat{s}_T(12)$	0.007	0.138	0.732

Table 9: Simulated Wichern Models { T = 100

Tests	ARMA(1,1)	ARIMA(0,1,1)
ADF(10)	0.998	0.677
\hat{d} (I)	0.055	0.052
\hat{d} (II)	0.241	0.275
\hat{d} (III)	0.110	0.126
\hat{d} (IV)	0.305	0.305
\hat{z}_T	0.710	0.851
\hat{z}_T (1)	0.635	0.804
\hat{z}_T (4)	0.431	0.670
\hat{z}_T (8)	0.287	0.549
\hat{z}_T (12)	0.198	0.456
\hat{c}_T (1)	0.749	0.880
\hat{c}_T (4)	0.561	0.739
\hat{c}_T (8)	0.369	0.612
\hat{c}_T (12)	0.217	0.497
\hat{A}_T (1)	0.034	0.031
\hat{A}_T (4)	0.039	0.035
\hat{A}_T (8)	0.042	0.035
\hat{A}_T (12)	0.022	0.029
\hat{s}_T (1)	0.458	0.599
\hat{s}_T (4)	0.143	0.298
\hat{s}_T (8)	0.010	0.035
\hat{s}_T (12)	0.000	0.002

Table indicates the fraction of rejections of the null hypothesis of each test