

Asymptotic theory for near integrated processes driven by tempered linear processes*

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Abstract

In an early article on near-unit root autoregression, Ahtola and Tiao (1984) studied the behavior of the score function in a stationary first order autoregression driven by independent Gaussian innovations as the autoregressive coefficient approached unity from below. The present paper develops asymptotic theory for near-integrated random processes and associated regressions including the score function in more general settings where the errors are tempered linear processes. Tempered processes are stationary time series that have a semi-long memory property in the sense that the autocovariogram of the process resembles that of a long memory model for moderate lags but eventually diminishes exponentially fast according to the presence of a decay factor governed by a tempering parameter. When the tempering parameter is sample size dependent, the resulting class of processes admits a wide range of behavior that includes both long memory, semi-long memory, and short memory processes. The paper develops asymptotic theory for such processes and associated regression statistics thereby extending earlier findings that fall within certain subclasses of processes involving near-integrated time series. The limit results relate to tempered fractional processes that include tempered fractional Brownian motion and tempered fractional diffusions of the second kind. The theory is extended to provide the limiting distribution for autoregressions with such tempered near-integrated time series, thereby enabling analysis of the limit properties of

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statistics of particular interest in econometrics, such as unit root tests, under more general conditions than existing theory. Some extensions of the theory to the multivariate case are reported.

1 Introduction

Consider a time series that is generated by the model

$$Y(t) = a Y(t-1) + X(t), \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, N; \quad Y(0) = 0, \quad (1.1)$$

where a is an unknown parameter and $\{X(j)\}_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a stationary error process. The observable time series $Y(t)$ in (1.1) is called a near integrated process (or integrated process) when the parameter a lies in an $O(N^{-1})$ vicinity of unity (or $a = 1$). Such models with autoregressive coefficients that are near unity or local to unity (LUR) have proved useful in applications in many disciplines, especially economics where observed data in macroeconomics and finance frequently show evidence of persistence or randomly wandering behavior. For more details, we refer to several recent studies ([60],[58],[59]) and the reference therein, where models of this type are used to analyze mildly integrated and mildly explosive processes, which have helped to capture characteristics such as bubbles of various financial time series during the subprime crisis.

Early work that considered stationary forms of (1.1) when a approaches unity from below and the $X(j)$ are independent Gaussian innovations was done by Ahtola and Tiao [2]. The model (1.1) forms the basis of many other extensions, including fixed, time varying, and a number of variants of LUR specifications of autoregressive coefficient. One variant is the mildly integrated class [46] where a lies in a wider $O(k_N^{-1})$ vicinity of unity with $\frac{1}{k_N} + \frac{k_N}{N} \rightarrow 0$. Another is the functional LUR class ([10], [11]) where a is a time varying LUR function. A further extension that is relevant to the present study is the generalized AR(1) process introduced by Peiris [43] which adds an index parameter $\delta > 0$ and is defined by

$$(1 - \alpha B)^\delta X_t = Z_t, \quad |\alpha| < 1, \quad (1.2)$$

where B is the lag operator and the $\{Z_t\}$ are independent innovations. Peiris and Thavaneswaran [44] showed that the class given in (1.2) could be used to model many time series in practice,

especially in finance.

An extensive body of theory now exists concerning the asymptotic properties of data generated by (1.1) and estimators, test statistics and confidence intervals for the autoregressive coefficient a . Central to much of this theory is the limit behavior of the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimator

$$\hat{a}_N = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N Y(t)Y(t-1)}{\sum_{t=1}^N Y^2(t-1)}, \quad (1.3)$$

which has been studied under many different assumptions on the structure of the error process $X(t)$ and the specific form taken by the autoregressive coefficient.

Assuming $a = a_N := \exp\{c/N\}$, $c \in \mathbb{R}$, in model (1.1), and $\{X(j)\}_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ to be weakly dependent errors that satisfy under certain moment and mixing conditions, Phillips [49, Theorem 1] showed that as $N \rightarrow \infty$

$$N(\hat{a}_N - a) \xrightarrow{d} \left[\int_0^1 (J_c(s))^2 ds \right]^{-1} \left[\int_0^1 J_c dB + \delta \right] \quad (1.4)$$

$$= \left[\int_0^1 (J_c(s))^2 ds \right]^{-1} \left\{ \frac{J_c(1)^2}{2} - c \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds - \frac{\sigma_X^2}{2} \right\}, \quad (1.5)$$

where $\sigma_X^2 = \mathbb{E}(X(0))^2$, $\sigma^2 = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{E}X(0)X(t)$ is the long-run variance of $X(t)$, $\delta = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{N}_+} \mathbb{E}X(0)X(t) = (\sigma^2 - \sigma_X^2)/2$ is a one-sided long run covariance of $X(t)$, and $J_c(r)$ is a linear diffusion (Ornstein-Uhlenbeck) process with Wiener integral

$$J_c(r) = \int_0^r e^{(r-s)c} B(ds), \quad (1.6)$$

based on Brownian motion $B(\cdot)$ with variance σ^2 .

Buchmann and Chan [9] extended this result to the case where the $\{X(j)\}_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ are strongly dependent (long memory) errors. In fact, Theorem 2.1 of [9] implies that

$$N^{1 \wedge (1+2d)}(\hat{a}_N - a) \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{\int_0^1 J_{c,d}(s)^2 ds} \begin{cases} \frac{J_{c,d}(1)^2}{2} - c \int_0^1 J_{c,d}(s)^2 ds, & 0 < d < \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{J_c(1)^2}{2} - c \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds - \frac{\sigma_X^2}{2}, & d = 0 \\ -\frac{(\Gamma(d+1))^2 \sigma_X^2}{2}, & -\frac{1}{2} < d < 0, \end{cases} \quad (1.7)$$

where $J_{c,d}(r)$ is a fractional diffusion process with representation

$$J_{c,d}(r) = \int_0^r e^{(r-s)c} B_d(ds). \quad (1.8)$$

Here $B_d(s)$ is a fractional Brownian motion (fBM) with moving average representation

$$B_d(s) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(d+1)} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[(s-x)_+^d - (-x)_+^d \right] B(dx).$$

Recently, Sabzikar and Surgailis [63] introduced a class of linear processes called tempered linear processes with semi-long memory properties intermediate between those of long and short memory. A tempered linear process has moving average form

$$X_{d,\lambda}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda k} b_d(k) \zeta(t-k), \quad t \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (1.9)$$

driven by an i.i.d. innovation process $\{\zeta(t)\}$ with $E\zeta(0) = 0$ and $E\zeta^2(0) = 1$, and with coefficients $b_d(k)$ regularly varying at infinity as k^{d-1} , viz.,

$$b_d(k) \sim \frac{c_d}{\Gamma(d)} k^{d-1}, \quad k \rightarrow \infty, \quad c_d \neq 0, \quad d \neq 0, \quad (1.10)$$

where $d \in \mathbb{R}$ is a real number, $d \neq -1, -2, \dots$, and $\lambda > 0$ is the tempering parameter. The tempered process (1.9) is related to the GAR model (1.2) by taking the moving average representation of the latter when the coefficient $\alpha = e^{-\lambda}$, and $X_{0,\lambda}(t)$ (i.e., $\lambda = 0$) is the well-known fractional process.

A special case of such tempered processes that has been studied in [41, 61, 63] is the two-parameter class of tempered fractionally integrated processes depending only on the parameters (d, λ) , denoted by ARTFIMA(0, $d, \lambda, 0$). This class has no autoregressive or moving average component and extends to the tempered process case the well-known class of fractionally integrated autoregressive moving average processes, denoted ARFIMA(0, $d, 0$). Definitions and some essential properties of ARTFIMA(p, d, λ, q) processes, various specializations, and multivariate extensions are provided in the Online Supplement [62] to this paper. In what follows and given the generality of (1.9), we will mainly focus on ARTFIMA(0, $d, \lambda, 0$) processes.

When the value of the tempering parameter λ is small, an ARTFIMA(0, $d, \lambda, 0$) process has

an autocovariances resembling that of a long memory process out to a large number of lags but eventually decaying exponentially fast. In [19] this behavior was termed *semi-long memory*. Such processes have empirical relevance for modelling time series that are known to display various degrees of long memory with autocovariances that decay slowly at first but ultimately decay much faster, such as the magnitude or certain powers of financial returns (see, for example, [29]). For an empirical example, we refer to [65], where the ARTFIMA(0, 0.3, 0.025, 0) is used to model the log returns for AMZN stock price from 1/3/2000 to 12/19/2017. The advantage of using ARTFIMA is the fact that we can capture aspects of the low frequency activity better than the ARFIMA time series in part of the long-range dependence scenario. In the aforementioned AMZN example, the periodogram follows a power law at moderate frequencies (ARFIMA(0, 0.3, 0)), but then levels off at low frequencies and the ARTFIMA(0, 0.3, 0.025, 0) model was found to be more appropriate in capturing this behavior.

A specific focus of the present paper is the limit theory associated with the estimator \hat{a}_N in the regression model (1.1) when the error process follows a tempered linear process given by (1.9) and allowance is made for sample size dependence in the tempering parameter λ . This brings the model into the realm of nearly integrated random processes with innovations that have potentially long memory. Explicitly, we consider the scenario:

- The parameter $\lambda = \lambda_N$ depends on N with $\lambda_N = O(1)$ and $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N\lambda_N = \lambda^* \in [0, \infty]$.

This framework of sample size dependent λ_N extends the usual local to unity autoregressive asymptotic theory to accommodate a wide class of long memory, intermediate memory, and short memory processes. The scenario still allows for $\lambda_N = \lambda > 0$ independent of N , but excludes the situation that $\lambda_N \rightarrow \infty$. In the latter case, the tempered linear process shrinks to a series of iid random innovations and hence existing limit theory applies in that case.

The limit distribution of $N(\hat{a}_N - a)$ is given in the general case in Theorem 3.3 and turns out to depend on the value of λ^* . If $\lambda^* = 0$, (1.7) continues to hold. If $\lambda^* = \infty$, the limit distribution is a functional of standard Brownian motion, but taking different forms in the cases $d > 0$, $d = 0$ and $d < 0$ with $d \neq \mathbb{N}_-$; moreover, except for the case $d = 0$, this limit differs from that of Phillips [49]. This fact might be particularly useful in empirical applications since, when $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$ and $N\lambda_N \rightarrow \infty$, $X_{d, \lambda_N}(t)$ still displays the properties of long memory processes, but the limit distribution is free of the unknown parameter d , enabling more convenient inference about the

unknown parameter a .

If $\lambda^* \in (0, \infty)$, the limit distribution modifies (1.7) with the fBM process replaced by a Gaussian stochastic process called tempered fractional Brownian motion of the second kind (TFBM II). It is well-known that the process fBM is related to the usual fractional calculus operator. In fact, fractional noise may be interpreted as a fractional integral (derivative) of white noise when $0 < d < \frac{1}{2}$ (respectively, $-\frac{1}{2} < d < 0$) – see [47] for details. A new version of fractional calculus called tempered fractional calculus has been proposed in [18, 61], which usefully relates to tempered fBM. Indeed, working from the Weyl or Riemann-Liouville definition of a fractional operator, a tempered fractional derivative (or integral) replaces the usual power law kernel by a power law kernel scaled by an exponential tempering factor – see [18, 38, 61] for a detailed development. The tempering factor produces a more tractable mathematical object. This tempering factor can be made arbitrarily light and the resulting operator approximates the usual fractional derivative to any desired degree of accuracy over a finite interval. The increment of TFBM II is called tempered fractional Gaussian noise (TFGN II) and it can be shown that TFGN II is the tempered fractional integral (derivative) of the white noise. The following section provides an overview of some key properties of tempered fractional processes and readers are referred to [61, 64] for more details on these processes and the connections to fractional operators.

Phillips [51] extended the asymptotic results in [49] to the multivariate case by introducing the concept of near-integrated vector processes. These time series have proved useful in studying the power properties of tests for cointegrating rank ([32], [13], [14]) and the fragility of standard methods of cointegrating space inference under local departures from unity ([51], [20]). Let $\mathbf{Y}(t)$ be a multiple time series generated by the model

$$\mathbf{Y}(t) = A\mathbf{Y}(t-1) + \mathbf{X}(t), \quad (1.11)$$

with

$$A = \exp\{N^{-1}C\},$$

where $\{\mathbf{X}(t)\}$ is a weakly stationary sequence of random m -vectors that satisfies some mixing conditions, and C is a fixed real $m \times m$ matrix. If \hat{A}_N is the least squares estimate of A in (1.11),

Theorem 4.1 in [51] shows that, as $N \rightarrow \infty$,

$$N(\hat{A}_N - A) \xrightarrow{d} \left\{ \int_0^1 dB J'_C + \Lambda' \right\} \left[\int_0^1 (J_C(s)) J'_C(s) ds \right]^{-1}, \quad (1.12)$$

where $J_C(r)$ is a vector diffusion process with stochastic integral representation

$$J_C(r) = \int_0^r e^{(r-s)C} B(ds), \quad (1.13)$$

$B(s)$ is m -vector Brownian motion with covariance matrix $\Omega = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{E}X(0)X(t)'$, the long-run variance matrix of $X(t)$, and $\Lambda = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{N}_+} \mathbb{E}X(0)X(t)'$ is the one-sided long run covariance matrix of $X(t)$.

Motivated by (1.12), a result that has proved useful in the study of nonstationary vector autoregressions and power functions for tests of cointegrating rank in econometrics, this paper considers the regression model (1.11) in the more general setting where the error process follows a strongly tempered linear process. We first establish multivariate invariance principles for the vector of partial sums of $\{\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}}(j)\}$, where $\mathbf{d} = (d_1, \dots, d_m)$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$ – see Theorem 4.1 below. Then, using these results, we develop the limit theory for the sample moments of the tempered near integrated time series (1.11) with additive vector process $\{\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}}(j)\}$ – see Theorem 4.3. Finally, we derive the limit distribution of the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression estimates of the vector time series (1.11) when the errors are strongly tempered – see Theorem 4.2. We emphasize that the approach used to derive asymptotic results for $N(\hat{A}_N - A)$ in the multivariate case in Section 4 is not simply an extension of the univariate case – see Remark 4.5 below and Phillips [53] for this distinction.

In the above and in what follows, we use the notation \xrightarrow{d} , $\stackrel{d}{=}$, and $\xrightarrow{\text{fdd}}$, $\stackrel{\text{fdd}}{=}$ for weak convergence and equality of distributions, and finite-dimensional weak convergence and equality, respectively. We also write \Rightarrow for weak convergence of random processes in the Skorohod space equipped with J_1 -topology, see [6], and use the notation $\mathbb{N}_\pm := \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$, $\mathbb{R}_+ := (0, \infty)$, $(x)_\pm := \max(\pm x, 0)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\int := \int_{\mathbb{R}}$. $L^p(\mathbb{R})$ ($p \geq 1$) denotes the Banach space of measurable functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with finite norm $\|f\|_p = (\int |f(x)|^p dx)^{1/p}$. The matrix $\text{diag}(\eta_1, \dots, \eta_m)$ is $m \times m$ diagonal with entries η_1, \dots, η_m . Throughout this paper, all asymptotic results apply as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

The paper is organized as follows. Tempered fractional processes are introduced and some of their key properties are described in Section 2. Section 3 studies near integrated processes with tempered fractional innovations and develops limit theory for sample moments of such time series and associated autoregressions involving the fitted coefficient (1.3). Extensions to multiple time series of near integrated tempered processes are given in Section 4. Section 5 concludes and discusses some potential opportunities of the present methodology to assist in inference without estimation of memory parameters. Proofs of all the results in the paper and further background material on tempered fractional processes are provided in the Online Supplement [62].

2 Tempered fractional processes

Let $\{B(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ be a two-sided real-valued Brownian motion on the real line, a process with stationary independent increments such that $B(t)$ has a Gaussian distribution with mean zero and variance $|t|$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Define an independently scattered Gaussian random measure $B(dx)$ with control measure $m(dx) = dx$ by setting $B[a, b] = B(b) - B(a)$ for any real numbers $a < b$, and then extending to all Borel sets. Then the stochastic integrals $I(f) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)B(dx)$ are defined for all functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\int f(x)^2 dx < \infty$ as Gaussian random variables with mean zero and covariance $\mathbb{E}[I(f)I(g)] = \int f(x)g(x)dx$ – see for example [66, Chapter 3].

A fractional Brownian motion (fBM) is a Gaussian stochastic process with the moving average representation

$$B_d(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(d+1)} \int \left[(t-x)_+^d - (-x)_+^d \right] B(dx), \quad (2.1)$$

where the memory parameter d satisfies $-\frac{1}{2} < d < \frac{1}{2}$. The properties of $B_d(t)$ are explored in detail in [66, Chapter 7]. Meeerschaert and Sabzikar [39] and Sabzikar and Surgailis [64] introduced tempered fractional Brownian motion (TFBM) and tempered fractional Brownian motion of the second kind (TFBM II) respectively. A TFBM is a Gaussian stochastic process with the moving average representation

$$B_{d,\lambda}(t) = \int \left[(t-x)_+^d e^{-\lambda(t-x)_+} - (-x)_+^d e^{-\lambda(-x)_+} \right] B(dx) \quad (2.2)$$

where $d > -\frac{1}{2}$ and $\lambda > 0$. A TFBM II is a Gaussian stochastic process defined by

$$B_{d,\lambda}^H(t) = \int h_{d,\lambda}(t, x) B(dx), \quad (2.3)$$

where

$$h_{d,\lambda}(t; x) = (t-x)_+^d e^{-\lambda(t-x)_+} - (-x)_+^d e^{-\lambda(-x)_+} + \lambda \int_0^t (s-x)_+^d e^{-\lambda(s-x)_+} ds, \quad y \in \mathbb{R} \quad (2.4)$$

for $d > -\frac{1}{2}$ and $\lambda > 0$. TFBM and TFBM II reduce to fBM when $\lambda = 0$ and $-\frac{1}{2} < d < \frac{1}{2}$. In this paper, since our results relate closely to TFBM II, it will be useful to summarize the basic properties of $B_{d,\lambda}^H(t)$. Readers are referred to [64] for the details.

Proposition 2.1 (i) TFBM II $B_{d,\lambda}^H$ in (2.3) has stationary increments, such that

$$\{B_{d,\lambda}^H(ct)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \stackrel{\text{fdd}}{=} \{c^{d+\frac{1}{2}} B_{d,\lambda t}^H(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \quad (2.5)$$

for any scale factor $c > 0$ and is not a self-similar process.

(ii) TFBM II $B_{d,\lambda}^H$ in (2.3) has a.s. continuous paths.

(iii) For $d > 0$, the covariance function of TFBM II $B_{d,\lambda}^H$ is given by

$$\mathbb{E} B_{d,\lambda}^H(t) B_{d,\lambda}^H(s) = C(d, \lambda) \int_0^t \int_0^s |u-v|^{d-\frac{1}{2}} K_{d-\frac{1}{2}}(\lambda|u-v|) dv du, \quad (2.6)$$

where $C(d, \lambda) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(d) (2\lambda)^{d-\frac{1}{2}}}$, $d > 0$, and $\lambda > 0$. Here $K_\nu(x)$ is the modified Bessel function of the second kind (see [1, Chapter 9]).

Remark 2.2 For $d > \frac{1}{2}$ the integrand in (2.6), viz.,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(d) (2\lambda)^{d-\frac{1}{2}}} |u-v|^{d-\frac{1}{2}} K_{d-\frac{1}{2}}(\lambda|u-v|) \quad (2.7)$$

is the Matérn covariance function (in one dimension) with shape parameter $\nu = d - \frac{1}{2} > 0$, scale parameter $\lambda > 0$, and variance parameter 1, see e.g. ([7], (1.1)). Note that the integral in (2.6) diverges when $-\frac{1}{2} < d < 0$. A more complex representation of the covariance function of $B_{d,\lambda}^H$ is available for the case $-\frac{1}{2} < d < 0$, but it is not needed in the present paper.

Next, we define the following stochastic process that plays an important role in the limit distribution theory of this paper.

Definition 2.3 *A tempered fractional Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (OU) process of the second kind (TFOU II) is defined as*

$$J_{c,d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(r) = \int_0^r e^{(r-s)c} dB_{d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(s), \quad (2.8)$$

where $\{B_{d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(s)\}_{s \in \mathbb{R}}$ is the TFBM II given by (2.3).

Lemma 2.4 *Let $J_{c,d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}$ be the TFOU II given by (2.8). Then $J_{c,d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}$ is a Gaussian stochastic process with zero mean and finite variance.*

Remark 2.5 It can be shown that TFOU II is the unique solution of the following Langevin equation driven by a TFBM II process

$$dJ_{c,d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(r) = cJ_{c,d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(r)dr + \theta dB_{d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(r) \quad (2.9)$$

under the initial condition $\xi_{d,\lambda}^{\text{II}} = \theta \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{cr} dB_{d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(r)$.

We close this section with a discussion of the tempered fractionally integrated process that is a special case of tempered linear process given by (1.9). An ARTFIMA(0, d , λ , 0) class of tempered fractionally integrated processes, generalizing the well-known ARFIMA(0, d , 0) class, is defined by

$$X_{d,\lambda}(t) = (1 - e^{-\lambda}B)^{-d}\zeta(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda k} \omega_{-d}(k) \zeta(t-k), \quad t \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (2.10)$$

with coefficients given by power expansion $(1 - e^{-\lambda}z)^{-d} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda k} \omega_{-d}(k) z^k$, $|z| < 1$, where $\omega_{-d}(k) := \frac{\Gamma(k+d)}{\Gamma(k+1)\Gamma(d)}$ for $d \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}_+$, $Bx(t) = x(t-1)$ is the backward shift and $\{\zeta(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ are i.i.d. innovations with $\mathbb{E}\zeta(0) = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}\zeta^2(0) = 1$. Due to the presence of the exponential tempering factor $e^{-\lambda k}$ the series in (1.9) and (2.10) converges absolutely a.s. and in L_p under general assumptions on the innovations and thereby defines a strictly stationary process.

Remark 2.6 (i) Time series in the ARTFIMA(0, d , λ , 0) class given by (2.10) have covariance function

$$\gamma_{d,\lambda}(k) = \mathbb{E}X_{0,d,\lambda,0}(0)X_{0,d,\lambda,0}(k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda k}\Gamma(d+k)}{\Gamma(d)\Gamma(k+1)} {}_2F_1(d, k+d; k+1; e^{-2\lambda}), \quad (2.11)$$

where ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; z)$ is the Gauss hypergeometric function (see e.g. [27]). Moreover,

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |\gamma_{d,\lambda}(k)| < \infty, \quad \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \gamma_{d,\lambda}(k) = (1 - e^{-\lambda})^{-2d} \quad (2.12)$$

and

$$\gamma_{d,\lambda}(k) \sim A k^{d-1} e^{-\lambda k}, \quad k \rightarrow \infty, \quad \text{where} \quad A = (1 - e^{-2\lambda})^{-d} \Gamma(d)^{-1}. \quad (2.13)$$

- (ii) From (2.13) it is evident that for small values of λ the covariance function of the ARTFIMA model may resemble the covariance function of a long memory model out to a large number of lags but eventually decays exponentially fast. [24] termed such behavior ‘semi long-memory’ and noted that models generating such time series may have empirical relevance for capturing certain long-run features of financial returns ([29]).
- (iii) The ARTFIMA(0, d , λ , 0) class can be extended to ARTFIMA(p , d , λ , q) in two different ways, as explained in the Online Supplement [62]. However, the present paper mainly focuses on the ARTFIMA(0, d , λ , 0) class.

3 Near integrated processes with ARTFIMA innovations

This section develops asymptotic theory for near-integrated processes with ARTFIMA innovations and for autoregressions with such processes, viz.,

$$Y(t) = aY(t-1) + X_{d,\lambda}(t), \quad (3.1)$$

where $a = a_N = \exp\{c/N\}$ and the error process $\{X_{d,\lambda}(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is given by (2.10). Our first lemma provides the asymptotic theory for the sample moments of $Y(t)$. These results are then employed to obtain the limit distribution of the fitted autoregressive coefficient \hat{a}_N defined by (1.3), which depends on the TFOU II process – see Theorem 3.3 below. To simplify notation we write

$$J_c(r) = J_{c,0,0}^{\text{II}}(r), \quad J_{c,d}(r) = J_{c,d,0}^{\text{II}}(r)$$

where $J_{c,d,\lambda}^{\text{II}}(r)$ is the TFOU II process given by (2.8). We recall that, for the tempered parameter $\lambda = \lambda_N$ with $\lambda_N = O(1)$, $\lambda^* \in [0, \infty]$ is defined as the limit of $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N\lambda_N$, i.e.,

$$\lambda^* = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N \lambda_N.$$

Lemma 3.1 (i) If $\lambda^* = \infty$ and $d \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}_-$, then

$$N^{-1/2} \lambda_N^d Y[Nr] \Rightarrow J_c(r)$$

on $D[0, 1]$ and

$$N^{-2} \lambda_N^{2d} \sum_{t=1}^N Y^2(t-1) \xrightarrow{d} \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds.$$

(ii) If $\lambda^* = 0$ and $-\frac{1}{2} < d < \frac{1}{2}$, then

$$N^{-(d+1/2)} Y[Nr] \Rightarrow \Gamma(d+1)^{-1} J_{c,d}(r)$$

on $D[0, 1]$ and

$$N^{-(2d+2)} \sum_{t=1}^N Y^2(t-1) \xrightarrow{d} \Gamma(d+1)^{-2} \int_0^1 J_{c,d}(s)^2 ds.$$

(iii) If $\lambda^* \in (0, \infty)$ and $d > -\frac{1}{2}$, then

$$N^{-(d+\frac{1}{2})} Y[Ns] \Rightarrow \Gamma(d+1)^{-1} J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^{II}(s)$$

on $D[0, 1]$ and

$$N^{-(2d+2)} \sum_{t=1}^N Y^2(t-1) \xrightarrow{d} \Gamma(d+1)^{-2} \int_0^1 J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^{II}(s)^2 ds.$$

This lemma, together with the following Proposition 3.2, is vital to derive the limit distributions in Theorem 3.3, the main result of this section. We refer to [63] for a proof of Proposition 3.2.

Proposition 3.2 Let $\{X_{d,\lambda}(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be given by (2.10). For any $d \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}_-$, if the tempering

parameter $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$ and $\mathbb{E}|\zeta(0)|^p < \infty$, for some $p > 2$, then

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N X_{d,\lambda_N}^2(t) \xrightarrow{p} \frac{\Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma^2(1-d)}, \quad d < 1/2, \quad (3.2)$$

$$\frac{\lambda_N^{2d-1}}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N X_{d,\lambda_N}^2(t) \xrightarrow{p} \frac{\Gamma(d-1/2)}{2\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(d)}, \quad d > 1/2, \quad (3.3)$$

$$\frac{1}{N|\log \lambda_N|} \sum_{t=1}^N X_{d,\lambda_N}^2(t) \xrightarrow{p} \frac{1}{\pi}, \quad d = 1/2. \quad (3.4)$$

We now present the main result of this section. Let \hat{a}_N be the OLS estimator of the parameter a given by (1.3), where $Y(t)$ is generated by the model (3.1).

Theorem 3.3 *Suppose that $\mathbb{E}|\zeta(0)|^p < \infty$, for some $p > 2 \vee 1/(d+1/2)$.*

(i) (Strongly tempered errors) *If $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$, $\lambda^* = \infty$ and $d \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}_-$, then*

$$\min(1, \lambda_N^{-2d})N(\hat{a}_N - a) \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2 \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds} \begin{cases} J_c(1)^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_c(s))^2 ds, & d > 0, \\ J_c(1)^2 - 2c \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds - 1, & d = 0, \\ -\frac{\Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(1-d)^2}, & d < 0. \end{cases}$$

(ii) (Weakly tempered errors) *If $\lambda^* = 0$ and $-\frac{1}{2} < d < \frac{1}{2}$, then*

$$N^{1 \wedge (1+2d)}(\hat{a}_N - a) \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2 \int_0^1 (J_{c,d}(s))^2 ds} \begin{cases} (J_{c,d}(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d}(s))^2 ds, & 0 < d < \frac{1}{2}, \\ (J_{c,d}(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d}(s))^2 ds - 1, & d = 0 \\ -\frac{\Gamma(d+1)^2 \Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(1-d)^2}, & -\frac{1}{2} < d < 0. \end{cases}$$

(iii) (Moderately tempered errors) *If $0 < \lambda^* < \infty$ and $d > -\frac{1}{2}$, then*

$$N^{1 \wedge (1+2d)}(\hat{a}_N - a) \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2 \int_0^1 (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^H(s))^2 ds} \begin{cases} (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^H(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^H(s))^2 ds, & d > 0, \\ (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^H(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}^H(s))^2 ds - 1, & d = 0 \\ -\frac{\Gamma(d+1)^2 \Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(1-d)^2}, & -\frac{1}{2} < d < 0. \end{cases}$$

Remark 3.4 For any $d > 0$, if $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$ and $N\lambda_N \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$N(\hat{a}_N - a) \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2 \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds} \left[J_c(1)^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_c(s))^2 ds \right]. \quad (3.5)$$

Unlike (1.7), the limit distribution in (3.5) is free of the unknown fractional parameter d . Since $X_{d,\lambda_N}(t)$ still displays the properties of long memory processes when $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$ and $N\lambda_N \rightarrow \infty$, the invariance property of result (3.5) reveals an interesting advantage of modeling with such processes in practical work if the data support a suitable range of values for the sequence λ_N . Investigation of this issue, like that of detecting parameter values local to unity is difficult but seems worthy of future research, much as estimation and confidence interval construction has been for autoregressive coefficients that include local to unity (LUR) specifications ([54], [55], [68]).

Although (3.5) is variation free of the unknown parameter d , the limiting distribution is still not pivotal in general and depends on the unknown localizing coefficient c . However, c is not consistently estimable even under model (3.1) as observed in much earlier work on the LUR model (Phillips, 1987; Phillips et al., 2001). For empirical applications, at least in the present setting, further work is needed for inference about c and even in very simple AR models, the situation is extremely difficult and presently confined to the simplest AR(1) setting – see Mikusheva ([37]) and Phillips ([55]) for details. For practical work a bootstrap procedure also needs to be developed and justified for the asymptotic distribution of (3.5). These extensions are well beyond the scope of this paper and are left for future work

Remark 3.5 Let $t_N = \left(\sum_{t=1}^N Y^2(t-1) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} (\hat{a}_N - a)$ denote the self normalized centred estimator or score function. Ahtola and Tiao [2] considered the sampling behavior of t_N with i.i.d normal innovations. Phillips [49, Theorem 1] investigated a similar problem under the assumption that the innovations follow some mixing conditions and Buchmann and Chan [9, Theorem 2.1] obtained corresponding asymptotic results when the innovations are strongly correlated. Using similar arguments to those in Theorem 3.3, we may establish the following theorem, providing an extension of existing works to tempered fractional processes. The proof of Theorem 3.6 is similar to that of Theorem 3.3 with only minor modifications and hence the details are omitted.

Theorem 3.6 Under the conditions of Theorem 3.3, we have

(i) (Strongly tempered errors) if $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$, $\lambda^* = \infty$ and $d \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}_-$, then

$$\lambda_N^{|d|} t_N \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2 \left[\int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}} \begin{cases} J_c(1)^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_c(s))^2 ds, & d > 0, \\ J_c(1)^2 - 2c \int_0^1 J_c(s)^2 ds - 1, & d = 0, \\ -\frac{\Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(1-d)^2}, & d < 0; \end{cases}$$

(ii) (Weakly tempered errors) if $\lambda^* = 0$ and $-\frac{1}{2} < d < \frac{1}{2}$, then

$$N^{-|d|} t_N \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2\Gamma(d+1) \left[\int_0^1 (J_{c,d}(s))^2 ds \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}} \begin{cases} (J_{c,d}(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d}(s))^2 ds, & 0 < d < \frac{1}{2}, \\ (J_{c,d}(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d}(s))^2 ds - 1, & d = 0 \\ -\frac{\Gamma(d+1)^2 \Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(1-d)^2}, & -\frac{1}{2} < d < 0; \end{cases}$$

(iii) (Moderately tempered errors) if $0 < \lambda^* < \infty$ and $d > -\frac{1}{2}$, then

$$N^{-|d|} t_N \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{2\Gamma(d+1) \left[\int_0^1 (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}''(s))^2 ds \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}} \begin{cases} (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}''(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}''(s))^2 ds, & d > 0, \\ (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}''(1))^2 - 2c \int_0^1 (J_{c,d,\lambda^*}''(s))^2 ds - 1, & d = 0 \\ -\frac{\Gamma(d+1)^2 \Gamma(1-2d)}{\Gamma(1-d)^2}, & -\frac{1}{2} < d < 0. \end{cases}$$

Remark 3.7 In comparison with (3.5), the score function t_N has a different convergence rate that depends on the unknown parameter d even when $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$ and $N\lambda_N \rightarrow \infty$. The score function t_N is commonly used for inference in classical situations such as that studied by Ahtola and Tiao [2]. Surprisingly in the present case self normalization is not adequate in normalizing the centred estimator when the innovation is a tempered fractional process, and the limit behavior of the score function t_N is more complex due to the involvement of the unknown parameter d .

In applications, when the parameter λ is fixed and does not depend the sample size N , we can use Whittle estimation or maximum likelihood estimation to estimate the parameters in an ARTFIMA(0, d , λ , 0) model. In fact, those estimators are strongly consistent under quite general conditions. For estimation of the parameter λ along these lines, see [65]. But when the parameter λ is sample size dependent and tends to zero as $N \rightarrow \infty$, the problem is much more complex, just as it is in local to unity and local to zero cases in simpler autoregressive models. On the

other hand, those cases reveal that an alternative approach to dealing empirically with a local to zero sequence λ_N is to develop confidence intervals (including those for other parameters) that are uniform and so allow for such localized departures. This approach was explored in local to unity cases by Phillips and Giraitis [30], Mikusheva [37] and Phillips [55]. Such methods might be considered in future research in the more general context considered here.

4 Near integrated multiple time series with strongly tempered innovations

In this section, we extend Theorem 3.3 to the multivariate case when the errors are strongly tempered. We first establish a multivariate generalization of the invariance principles for tempered fractionally integrated processes due to Sabzikar and Surgailis [63] – see Theorem 4.1 below. We then obtain limit theory for the sample moments of a near integrated vector process with strongly tempered errors.

Let $\zeta(t) = (\zeta_1(t), \dots, \zeta_m(t))', t \in \mathbb{Z}$, be a time series of iid random vectors with $\mathbb{E}\zeta(t) = 0$ and covariance matrix Ω . Define a random m -vector of tempered linear processes

$$\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}}(t) = (X_{d_1, \lambda_1}(t), \dots, X_{d_m, \lambda_m}(t))' \quad (4.1)$$

such that, as in (1.9), $X_{d_i, \lambda_i}(t)$ is given by,

$$X_{d_i, \lambda_i}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda_i k} b_{d_i}(k) \zeta_i(t-k), \quad b_{d_i}(k) \sim \frac{c_{d_i}}{\Gamma(d_i)} k^{d_i-1}.$$

Define the vector partial sums

$$\mathbf{S}_N^{\mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}}(t) := \sum_{k=1}^{[Nt]} \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}}(k), \quad t \in [0, 1]. \quad (4.2)$$

Throughout this section, for all $i = 1, \dots, m$, we assume that $d_i > 0$, the tempering parameters $\lambda_i \equiv \lambda_{i,N} \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$ and

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N \lambda_{i,N} = \infty. \quad (4.3)$$

Following [63], X_{d_i, λ_N} is called strongly tempered. We further assume $c_{d_i} = 1, i = 1, \dots, m$, for

convenience of presentation.

Our first result is the weak convergence of $\mathbf{S}_N^{\mathbf{d},\lambda}(t)$, extending [63] from univariate to multivariate settings. Unlike [63], only the second moment is required to establish the limit theory in this case. Let $D_N = \text{diag}(N^{-\frac{1}{2}}\lambda_1^{d_1}, \dots, N^{-\frac{1}{2}}\lambda_m^{d_m})$ and $\mathbf{B}(t) = (B_1(t), \dots, B_m(t))'$ be m -dimensional Brownian motion with covariance matrix Ω .

Theorem 4.1 *We have*

$$D_N \mathbf{S}_N^{\mathbf{d},\lambda}(t) \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}(t), \quad (4.4)$$

on $D_{R^m}[0, 1]$.

It is interesting to note that the limit distribution in (4.4) is multivariate Brownian motion rather than fractional vector Brownian motion, and is therefore free of the fractional parameters. This invariance feature of the limit theory differs considerably from previous works involving long run properties of fractional processes (such as [52]) and has implications for empirical work with such time series.

For the multiple times series $\mathbf{Y}(t) = (Y_1(t), \dots, Y_m(t))', t \geq 1$, generated by

$$\mathbf{Y}(t) = A\mathbf{Y}(t-1) + \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{d},\lambda}(t), \quad \mathbf{Y}(0) = 0,$$

where $A = \text{diag}(\exp\{c_1/N\}, \dots, \exp\{c_m/N\})$, as in [39], the coefficient matrix A can be estimated by vector autoregression giving

$$\hat{A}_N = \left[\sum_{t=1}^N \mathbf{Y}(t) \mathbf{Y}(t-1)' \right] \left[\sum_{t=1}^N \mathbf{Y}(t-1) \mathbf{Y}(t-1)' \right]^{-1}.$$

The next theorem gives a partial multivariate generalization of Theorem 3.3.

Theorem 4.2 *Suppose that $\mathbb{E}||\zeta(0)||^4 < \infty$ and $\lambda_{i,N}/\lambda_{j,N} \rightarrow \eta_{ij} \in [0, \infty]$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$. Then,*

$$ND_N(\hat{A}_N - A)D_N^{-1} \xrightarrow{d} \left[\int_0^1 d\mathbf{B}(s) J_C(s)' + \Delta \right] \left[\int_0^1 J_C(s) J_C(s)' ds \right]^{-1},$$

where $J_C(s) = (Q_{1s}, \dots, Q_{ms})'$ with $Q_{js} = \int_0^s e^{(s-u)c} B_j(du)$ and $\Delta = (\Delta_{ij})_{m \times m}$ with

$$\Delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} E \zeta_i^2(0), & \text{if } i = j, \\ \frac{E[\zeta_i(0)\zeta_j(0)]}{\Gamma(d_1)\Gamma(d_2)} \int_0^\infty x^{d_j-1} e^{-x} dx \int_{\eta_{ij}}^\infty y^{d_i-1} e^{-y} dy, & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

For the elements of Δ , it is easy to see that $\Delta_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[\zeta_i(0)\zeta_j(0)]$ if $i \neq j$ and $\eta_{ij} = 0$, and $\Delta_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$ and $\eta_{ij} = \infty$.

Let $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t) = D_N \mathbf{Y}(t)$. Note that $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t-1) \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t-1)' = \int_0^1 \hat{\mathbf{Y}}([Ns]) \hat{\mathbf{Y}}([Ns])' ds$ and

$$N D_N (\hat{A}_N - A) D_N^{-1} = \left[\sum_{t=1}^N D_N \mathbf{X}_{d,\lambda}(t) \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t-1)' \right] \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t-1) \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t-1)' \right]^{-1}.$$

Theorem 4.2 follows directly from the continuous mapping theorem and the following theorem.

Theorem 4.3 Suppose that $\mathbb{E}||\zeta(0)||^4 < \infty$ and $\lambda_{i,N}/\lambda_{j,N} \rightarrow \eta_{ij} \in [0, \infty]$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$. We have

$$(\hat{\mathbf{Y}}([Ns]), \sum_{t=1}^N D_N \mathbf{X}_{d,\lambda}(t) \hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t-1)') \Rightarrow (J_C(s), \int_0^1 d\mathbf{B}(s) J_C(s)' + \Delta), \quad (4.5)$$

on $D_{R^m}[0, 1] \times R^{m \times m}$.

Remark 4.4 Unlike the univariate case in Theorem 3.3, the limit distribution in the multivariate version given in Theorem 4.2 has a bias term Δ that depends on the ratio of the tempering parameters $\lambda_{i,N}$ and $\lambda_{j,N}$ and the fractional parameters $d_i, i = 1, \dots, m$. This bias term comes from the interaction among the tempered linear processes. If all $\eta_{ij} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{i,N}/\lambda_{j,N}$ are zero or ∞ , this bias term Δ is free of the fractional parameters $d_i, i = 1, \dots, m$, and hence the limit distribution has a similar property.

Remark 4.5 In the proof of Theorem 4.3, we need to investigate asymptotics for components of the form $\frac{\lambda_i^{d_i} \lambda_j^{d_j}}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N X_{d_i, \lambda_i}(t) Y_j(t-1)$, which seems difficult without assuming $\lambda_{i,N} N \rightarrow \infty$ when $i \neq j$. As a consequence, we have been unable to establish Theorem 4.2 in the weakly and moderately tempered errors cases in the present paper. We plan to investigate this case in later research.

5 Conclusion

Limit theory for near-unit root autoregressions has proved useful in many econometric contexts, including the analysis of local power properties, robust confidence interval construction, and financial bubble detection mechanisms. While most of this work has allowed for short memory innovations, some of the limit theory has been extended to the long memory innovation case. The present work provides an inclusive approach to this near-unit root limit theory that accommodates both short memory and long memory innovations as well as an intermediate course in which long memory properties may be attenuated at long lags according to the presence of a tempering parameter.

Allowing the tempering parameter to drift to zero so that $\lambda_N \rightarrow 0$ opens up a further range of potential time series behavior. As we have noted, one advantage of this extension is that under certain conditions the limit theory becomes robust to the memory parameters, thereby simplifying inference. This feature opens up some opportunities for further research on procedures that can free empirical investigators from having to estimate memory parameters, a property that is likely to be especially useful in multivariate cases when this property holds. A useful starting point in this extension is result (3.5), which reveals limit theory that is free of memory parameters, the advantages of which can be explored in simulations and empirical research.

The authors hope that the results given in the present work on tempered linear processes and subsequent research along these indicated lines will usefully extend some of the goals which emerged in the early work by Ahtola and Tiao [2] and others on near-unit-root models that began more than three decades ago.

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