

The Less-Volatile U.S. Economy: A Bayesian Investigation of Timing, Breadth, and Potential Explanations

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Using a Bayesian model comparison strategy, we search for a volatility reduction in U.S. real gross domestic product (GDP) growth within the postwar sample. We find that aggregate real GDP growth has been less volatile since the early 1980s, and that this volatility reduction is concentrated in the cyclical component of real GDP. Sales and production growth in many of the components of real GDP display similar reductions in volatility, suggesting the aggregate volatility reduction does not have a narrow source. We also document structural breaks in inflation dynamics that occurred over a similar time frame as the GDP volatility reduction.

KEY WORDS: Bayes factor; Business cycle; Stabilization; Structural break.

1. INTRODUCTION

The U.S. economy appears to have stabilized considerably since the early 1980s as compared with the rest of the postwar era. For example, the standard deviation of quarterly growth rates of real gross domestic product (GDP) for 1950–1983 was more than twice as large as that for 1984–1999. This observation has sparked a growing literature rigorously testing the statistical significance of the volatility reduction and documenting various stylized facts about the nature of the stabilization (see, e.g., Kim and Nelson 1999; McConnell and Perez-Quiros 2000; Kahn, McConnell, and Perez-Quiros 2000; Ahmed, Levin, and Wilson 2000; Warnock and Warnock 2000; Blanchard and Simon 2001; Chauvet and Potter 2001; Stock and Watson 2002).

A primary goal of this research agenda is to determine the cause of the observed volatility reduction. Many explanations have been proposed, including improved policy (specifically, monetary policy), structural changes (e.g., a shift to services employment, better inventory management), and good luck (a reduction in real or external shocks). Determining the relative importance of these competing explanations is important, in that they have very different implications for the sustainability of the volatility reduction and the evaluation of policy effectiveness. In assessing the viability of explanations for macroeconomic events, it is of course useful to have a clear picture of the nature of the event. In the present case, this includes compiling a list of stylized facts describing the volatility reduction. One can then ask whether these stylized facts invalidate any potential explanations for the reduction. In this article we revisit an existing list of stylized facts that document the pervasiveness of the volatility reduction within broad production sectors of aggregate real GDP. We also investigate structural changes

in the dynamics of inflation around the same time as that found in real GDP.

This article has four main findings:

1. Aggregate real GDP underwent a volatility reduction in the early 1980s that is shared by its cyclical component but not by its trend component.
2. A volatility reduction similar to that found in aggregate real GDP is present in many of the broad production sectors of real GDP. Thus the volatility reduction in aggregate GDP is not confined to any one sector.
3. The volatility reduction is apparent in final sales as well as in production.
4. The dynamics of inflation display structural breaks in persistence and conditional volatility over a similar time frame as the volatility reduction observed in real GDP.

Our results can be compared with those obtained by McConnell and Perez-Quiros (2000) (hereinafter MPQ) and Warnock and Warnock (2000). These authors concluded that a volatility reduction in broad measures of activity (real GDP for MPQ, aggregate employment for Warnock and Warnock) is reflected in within-sector stabilization for only one sector, durable goods. MPQ went on to show that measures of final sales have not become more stable, suggesting that the volatility reduction is focused in the behavior of inventories. The results of MPQ can lead to striking conclusions regarding the viability of competing explanations for the source of the volatility reduction.

For example, MPQ argued that explanations based on improved monetary policy are hard to reconcile with the limited breadth of the volatility reduction, particularly the failure of measures of final sales to show greater stability. They argued that explanations based on improved inventory management are much more consistent with the stylized facts. In contrast, the results presented here are consistent with a broad range of potential explanations. Indeed, we argue that the evidence from broad production sectors of real GDP is not sufficiently sharp to help invalidate potential candidates for the source of the volatility reduction.

Whereas MPQ investigated structural breaks in volatility using classical tests based on work of Andrews (1993) and Andrews and Ploberger (1994), here we investigate this issue using a Bayesian model comparison framework. This method compares the marginal likelihood from models with and without structural breaks using the Bayes factor. As discussed by Koop and Potter (1999), Bayes factors have an advantage over classical tests for evaluating structural change in the way in which information regarding the unknown break date is incorporated in the test. The unknown break date, which is a nuisance parameter present only under the alternative hypothesis, leads to non-standard asymptotic distributions for classical test statistics. Solutions to this problem in the classical framework fail to incorporate sample information regarding the unknown break point. On the contrary, model comparison based on Bayes factors incorporates sample information regarding the unknown break date and, as a byproduct of the procedure, yield the posterior distribution of the unknown break date, a very useful piece of information for determining when the break occurred. Given the substantial differences in methodology, the evidence in favor of structural change provided by the Bayes factor may differ substantially from that yielded by classical tests. Thus a primary goal of this article is to evaluate the robustness of the MPQ results based on classical techniques to a Bayesian model comparison methodology.

Section 2 discusses the basic model specification and Bayesian methodology that we use to investigate structural change in the various series considered in this article. Section 3 presents the results for aggregate and disaggregate real GDP and contrasts these results with the existing literature based on classical hypothesis tests. It also discusses evidence of structural change in inflation dynamics. Section 4 discusses possible explanations for the different results produced by the classical and Bayesian methodologies. Section 5 concludes.

2. MODEL SPECIFICATION, BAYESIAN INFERENCE, AND MODEL COMPARISON TECHNIQUES

To investigate a possible volatility reduction in growth rates of aggregate and disaggregate real GDP, we use the following empirical model:

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= \sum_{j=1}^k \phi_j y_{t-j} + e_t, \\ e_t &\sim N(0, \sigma_{D_t}^2), \\ \sigma_{D_t}^2 &= \sigma_0^2(1 - D_t) + \sigma_1^2(D_t), \\ D_t &= \begin{cases} 0, & 1 \leq t \leq \tau \\ 1, & \tau < t < T - 1, \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where y_t is the demeaned growth rate of the output series under consideration and D_t is a discrete latent variable that determines the date of the structural break, τ . To allow for the possibility of a permanent but endogenous structural break in the conditional variance, we follow Chib (1998) in treating D_t as a discrete latent variable with the following transition probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(D_{t+1} = 0 \mid D_t = 0) &= q, \\ \Pr(D_{t+1} = 1 \mid D_t = 1) &= 1, \\ 0 < q < 1. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

That is, before a structural break occurs, or conditional on $D_t = 0$, there always exists nonzero probability $1 - q$ that a structural break will occur, or $D_{t+1} = 1$. Thus the expected duration of $D_t = 0$, or the expected duration of a regime before a structural break occurs, is given by $E(\tau) = \frac{1}{1-q}$. However, once a structural break occurs at $t = \tau$ we have $D_{\tau+j} = 1$ for all $j > 0$. We estimate two versions of the model given in eqs. (1) and (2). The first version, which we call model 1, freely estimates the model parameters. The second version, which we call model 2, constrains the model parameters to have no structural break, that is, $\sigma_0^2 = \sigma_1^2$.

Bayesian inference requires specification of prior distributions for the model parameters. In order to evaluate the sensitivity of the results to the choice of priors, we use the following three sets of prior specifications for model 1:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prior 1A: } & [\phi_1 \dots \phi_k]' \sim N(0_k, I_k); & \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} &\sim \text{gamma}(1, 2); \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \sim \text{gamma}(1, 1); & q &\sim \text{beta}(8, .1) \\ \text{Prior 2A: } & [\phi_1 \dots \phi_k]' \sim N(0_k, 2I_k); & \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} &\sim \text{gamma}(1, 4); \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \sim \text{gamma}(1, 2); & q &\sim \text{beta}(8, .2) \\ \text{Prior 3A: } & [\phi_1 \dots \phi_k]' \sim N(0_k, .5I_k); & \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} &\sim \text{gamma}(1, 1); \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \sim \text{gamma}(1, .5); & q &\sim \text{beta}(8, .05). \end{aligned}$$

Priors used for model 2 were based on those for $[\phi_1 \dots \phi_k]'$ and σ_0^2 in priors 1A–3A and yielded results very close to the maximum likelihood estimates. In the interest of brevity, we present only results for prior 1A in the following sections; however, all results were quite robust to choice of prior.

To evaluate the evidence for a structural break at an unknown break date based on the above models, we compare the model allowing for structural change and the model with no structural break using Bayes factors,

$$BF_{12} = \frac{m(\tilde{Y}_T \mid \text{model 1})}{m(\tilde{Y}_T \mid \text{model 2})},$$

where $\tilde{Y}_T = [y_1 \dots y_T]'$ and $m(\tilde{Y}_T \mid \cdot)$ is the marginal likelihood conditional on the model chosen. Among the various methods of computing the Bayes factor introduced in the literature, we follow Chib's (1995) procedure, in which the Bayes factor is evaluated through a direct calculation of the marginal likelihood based on the output from the Gibbs sampling procedure. Kass and Raftery (1995) provided a general discussion on the use of

Bayes factors for model comparison. Details of the Gibbs sampling procedure for the specific models considered here have been described by Kim and Nelson (1999).

To aid interpretation of the Bayes factor, we refer to the well-known scale of Jeffreys (1961) throughout:

$\ln(BF) < 0$:	Evidence supporting the null hypothesis
$0 < \ln(BF) \leq 1.15$:	Very slight evidence against the null hypothesis
$1.15 < \ln(BF) \leq 2.3$:	Slight evidence against the null hypothesis
$2.3 < \ln(BF) \leq 4.6$:	Strong to very strong evidence against the null hypothesis
$\ln(BF) > 4.6$:	Decisive evidence against the null hypothesis.

It should be emphasized that this scale is not a statistical calibration of the Bayes factor, but is instead a rough descriptive statement often cited in the Bayesian statistics literature.

3. EVIDENCE OF A VOLATILITY REDUCTION IN AGGREGATE AND DISAGGREGATE REAL GDP

In this section we evaluate the evidence of a volatility reduction in the growth rates of aggregate and disaggregate U.S. real GDP data. All data were obtained from DRI, are seasonally adjusted, are expressed in demeaned and standardized quarterly growth rates, and cover the sample period 1953:2–1998:2. The lag order, k , was chosen based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) for the model with no structural break, model 2, with $k = 6$ the largest lag length considered. The AIC chose two lags for all series except consumption of nondurable goods and services, for which it chose one lag. All inferences are based on 10,000 Gibbs simulations, after the initial 2,000 simulations were discarded to mitigate the effects of initial conditions.

Table 1 summarizes the results of the Bayesian estimation and model comparisons for all of the aggregate and disaggregate real GDP series considered. The second column presents

Table 1. Bayesian Evidence of a Volatility Reduction in Aggregate and Disaggregate Real GDP

Variable	$\ln(BF_{12})$	Posterior mean of τ	σ_1^2/σ_0^2
GDP	18.13	1984:1	.20
Trend: Consumption-based	-.38		
Trend: HP filter	-82.85		
Cycle: Consumption-based	13.94	1983:4	.23
Cycle: HP filter	17.41	1983:1	.20
Goods production	12.94	1984:1	.25
Services	34.5	1958:2	.09
Structures production	6.83	1984:1	.37
Durable goods production	16.2	1984:1	.21
Nondurable goods production	3.65	1986:4	.47
Final sales of domestic product	6.64	1983:3	.40
Final sales of durable goods	4.41	1991:3	.36
Final sales of nondurable goods	7.96	1986:1	.34

the results of the Bayesian model comparison, summarized by the log of the Bayes factor in favor of a structural break, $\ln(BF_{12})$. The third column shows the mean of the posterior distribution of the break date, τ . The fourth column presents the ratio of posterior means of the variance of e_t before and after the structural break, σ_1^2/σ_0^2 . Finally, Figures 1–13 plot the estimated probability of a structural break at each point in the sample, $\Pr(D_t = 1|\tilde{Y}_T)$, and the posterior distribution of the break date for each series considered.

3.1 Aggregate Real GDP, Trend, and Cycle

The first row of Table 1 contains results for the growth rate of aggregate real GDP. The posterior mean of σ_1^2 is 20% of σ_0^2 , consistent with a sizable reduction in conditional volatility. The log of the Bayes factor is 18.1, decisive evidence against the model with no volatility reduction. The posterior mean of the unknown break date is 1984:1, the same date reported by Kim and Nelson (1999) and MPQ. Figure 1(b) shows that the posterior distribution of the unknown break date is tightly clustered around its mean.

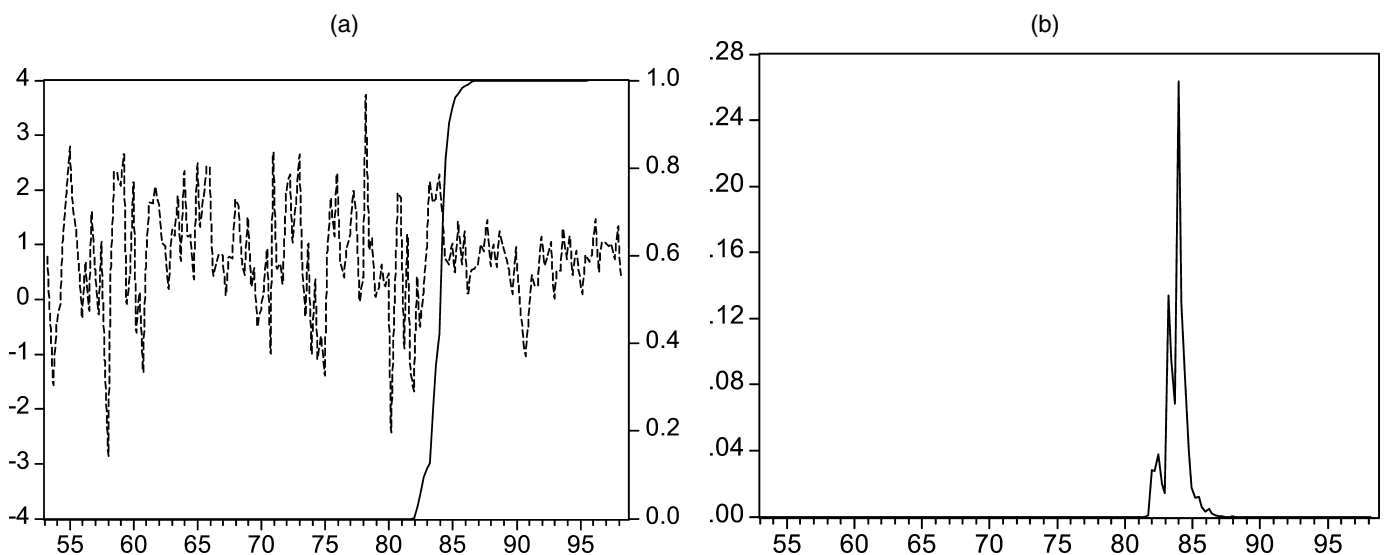


Figure 1. (a) Growth Rate of GDP and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of GDP.

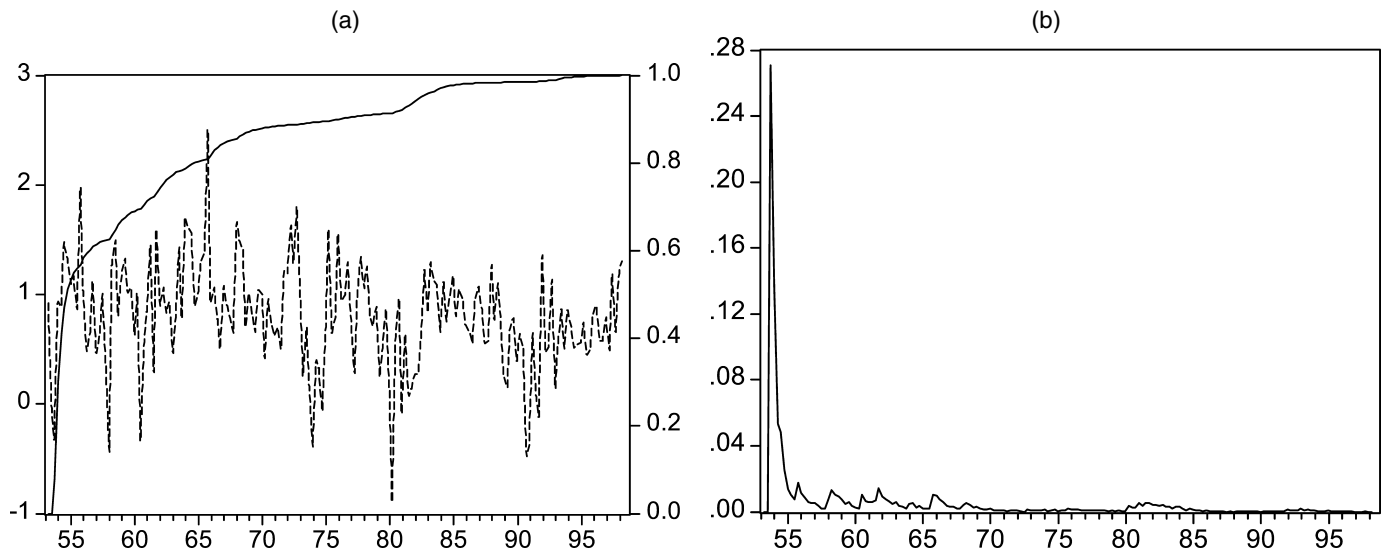


Figure 2. (a) Growth Rate of Consumption of Nondurable Goods and Services and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Consumption of Nondurable Goods and Services.

We next turn to the question of whether both the trend and the cyclical component of real GDP have shared in this aggregate volatility reduction. It seems reasonable that at least a portion of the volatility reduction is due to a stabilization of cyclical volatility. Many plausible explanations for the volatility reduction (e.g., improved monetary policy and better inventory management) would mute cyclical fluctuations. However, some explanations (e.g., a lessening of oil price shocks) might also affect the variability of trend growth rates. Thus investigating a stabilization in the trend and cyclical components may help shed light on the viability of competing explanations for the aggregate volatility reduction.

There are, of course, numerous ways of decomposing real GDP into a trend and cyclical component. Unfortunately, the choice of decomposition can have nontrivial implications for implied business cycle facts (see, e.g., Canova 1998). This seems particularly relevant for investigating a structural break

in volatility, because assumptions made to identify the trend may affect how much of a volatility reduction in the aggregate series is reflected in the filtered trend or cycle. To abstract from this problem, in this article we consider a theory-based measure of trend, defined as the logarithm of personal consumption of nondurables and services (LCNDS). Such a definition of trend is both theoretically and empirically plausible. Neoclassical growth theory (see, e.g., King, Plosser, and Rebelo 1988) suggests that log real GDP and LCNDS share a common stochastic trend driven by exogenous, stochastic, and technological change. This analysis suggests that log real GDP and LCNDS are cointegrated with cointegrating vector $(1, -1)$. Recent investigations of the cointegration properties of these series confirm this result (see, e.g., King, Plosser, Stock, and Watson 1991; Bai, Lumsdaine, and Stock 1998). If one also assumes a simple version of the permanent income hypothesis, which suggests that LCNDS is a random walk, then LCNDS is the com-

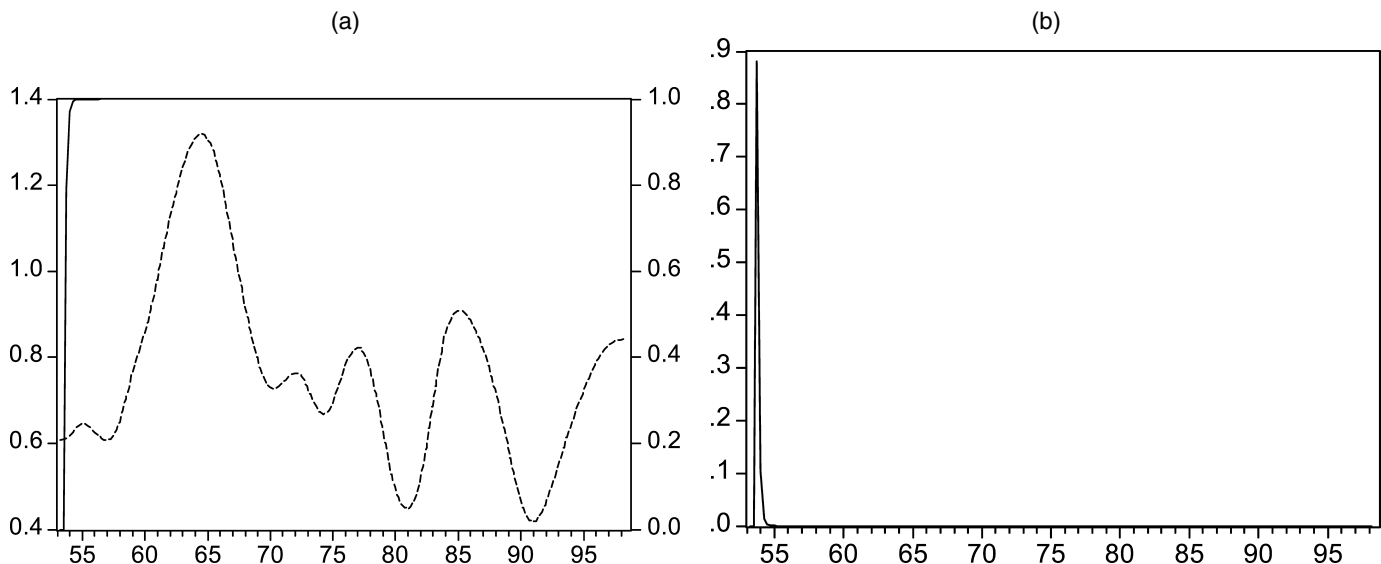


Figure 3. (a) Growth Rate of HP Trend and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of HP Trend.

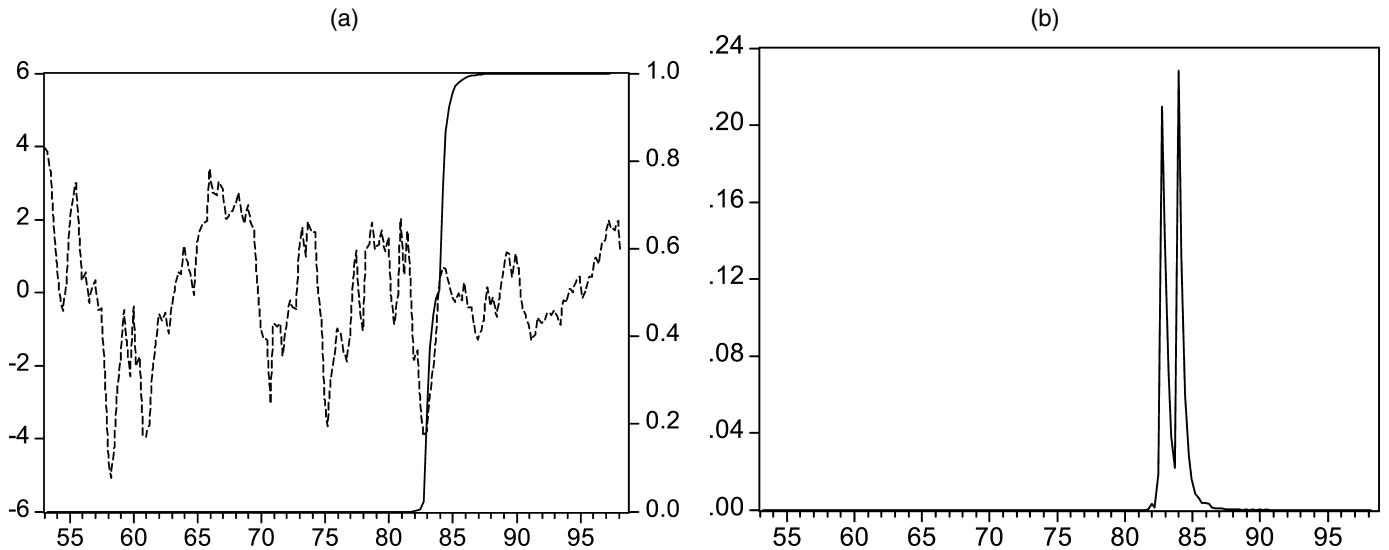


Figure 4. (a) Consumption-Based Cycle and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Consumption-Based Cycle.

mon stochastic trend shared by log real GDP and LCNDS. Although it is now well known that LCNDS is not a random walk, in the sense that one can find statistically significant predictors of future changes in LCNDS, Fama (1992) and Cochrane (1994) have argued that these deviations are so small as to be economically insignificant. Based on our measure of trend, we define the cyclical component of log real GDP as the residuals from a regression of log real GDP on a constant and LCNDS. Given its popularity, we also show results for a measure of trend and cycle obtained from the Hodrick–Prescott (H–P) filter with smoothing parameter set equal to 1,600.

The second row of Table 1 shows that there is no evidence in favor of a break in the volatility of the growth rate of LCNDS and thus in the growth rate of our theory-based measure of the trend of log real GDP. The log of the Bayes factor is $-.4$, providing slight evidence in favor of model 2, the model with no change in variance. The third column of Table 1 shows that the evidence for a break in the growth rate of the H–P measure

of trend is even weaker, with model 2 strongly preferred over model 1. This suggests that the volatility reduction observed in aggregate real GDP is focused in its cyclical component. Indeed, the log of the Bayes factor for the level of the cyclical component derived from the theory-based measure of trend, reported in the fourth row of Table 1, is 13.9, providing decisive evidence against model 1. The posterior mean of σ_1^2 is 23% of σ_0^2 , close to the percentage for aggregate GDP. The posterior mean of the unknown break date is 1983:4 with [from Fig. 3(b)] the posterior distribution of the break point clustered tightly around this mean. Even stronger results are obtained for the cyclical component based on the H–P filter, shown in the fifth row of Table 1. Here the posterior mean of σ_1^2 is 20% of σ_0^2 and the log Bayes factor is 17.4. These results, which suggest that only the cyclical component of real GDP has undergone a large volatility reduction, makes explanations for the aggregate stabilization based on a reduction of shocks to the trend component less compelling.

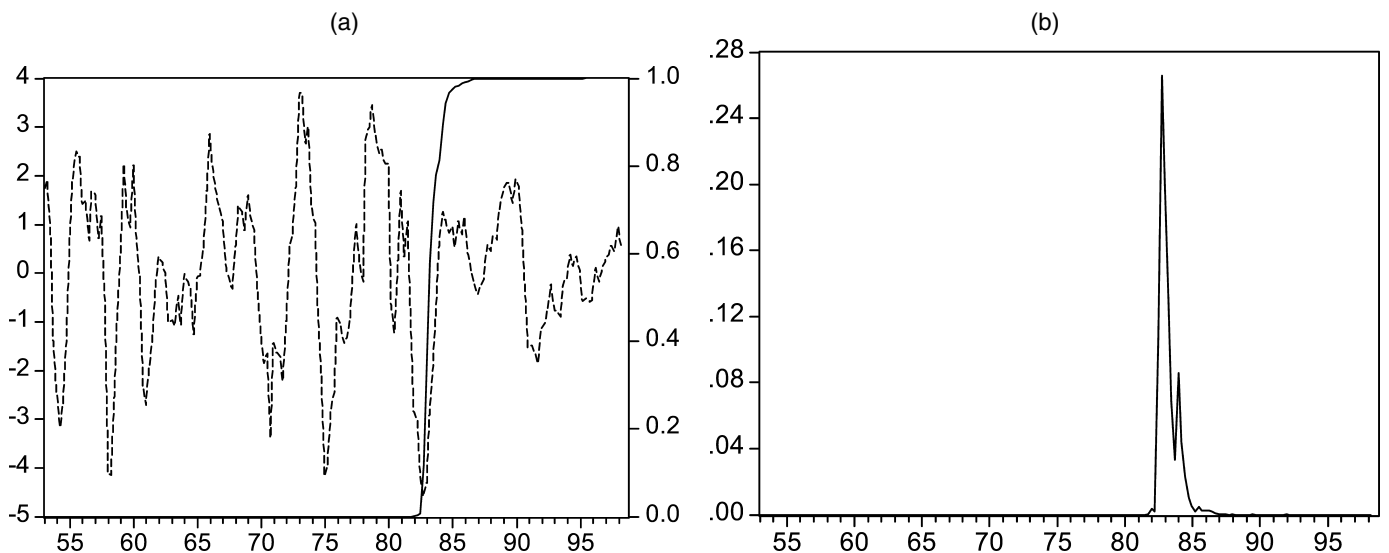


Figure 5. (a) HP Cycle and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: HP Cycle.

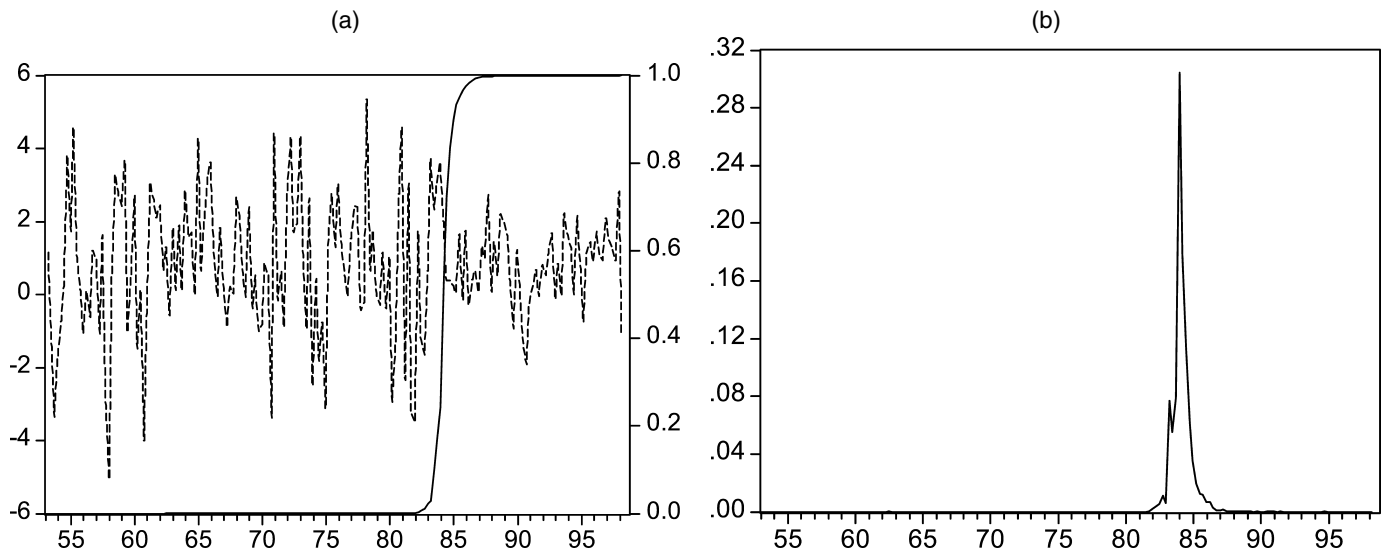


Figure 6. (a) Growth Rate of Goods Production and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Goods Production.

3.2 How Broad Is the Volatility Reduction? Evidence From Disaggregate Data

In this section we attempt to evaluate the pervasiveness of the volatility reduction observed in aggregate real GDP across sectors of the economy. To this end, we apply the Bayesian testing methodology to the set of disaggregated real GDP data investigated by MPQ. This dataset comprises the broad production sectors of real GDP: goods production, services production, and structures production. We investigate goods production further by separating durable goods and nondurable goods production. Finally, we investigate the evidence for a volatility reduction in measures of final sales in the goods sector. MPQ found a volatility reduction only in the production of durable goods, and determined that the volatility reduction was not visible in measures of final sales. Thus we are particularly interested in the evidence for a volatility reduction outside of the durable goods sector and in measures of final sales.

Rows 6–8 of Table 1 contain the results for the production of goods, services, and structures. Consistent with MPQ, we find strong evidence of a volatility reduction in the goods sector. The log of the Bayes factor for goods production is 12.9, providing decisive evidence against the model with no change in volatility. The volatility reduction is quite large, with the posterior mean of σ_1^2 25% of σ_0^2 . The posterior mean of the break date is 1984:1, close to the date estimated by MPQ using classical techniques. Also consistent with MPQ, we find little evidence of a volatility reduction in services production that occurs around the time of the break in aggregate real GDP. From row 7 of Table 1, the log Bayes factor for services production is 34.5, extremely strong evidence in favor of a volatility reduction. However, the estimated mean of the break date is 1958:2, not in the early 1980s. Figure 7(b) confirms this, showing no mass in the posterior distribution of the break date in the 1980s. However, because the model used here allows for only a single structural break, there may be evidence of a second structural

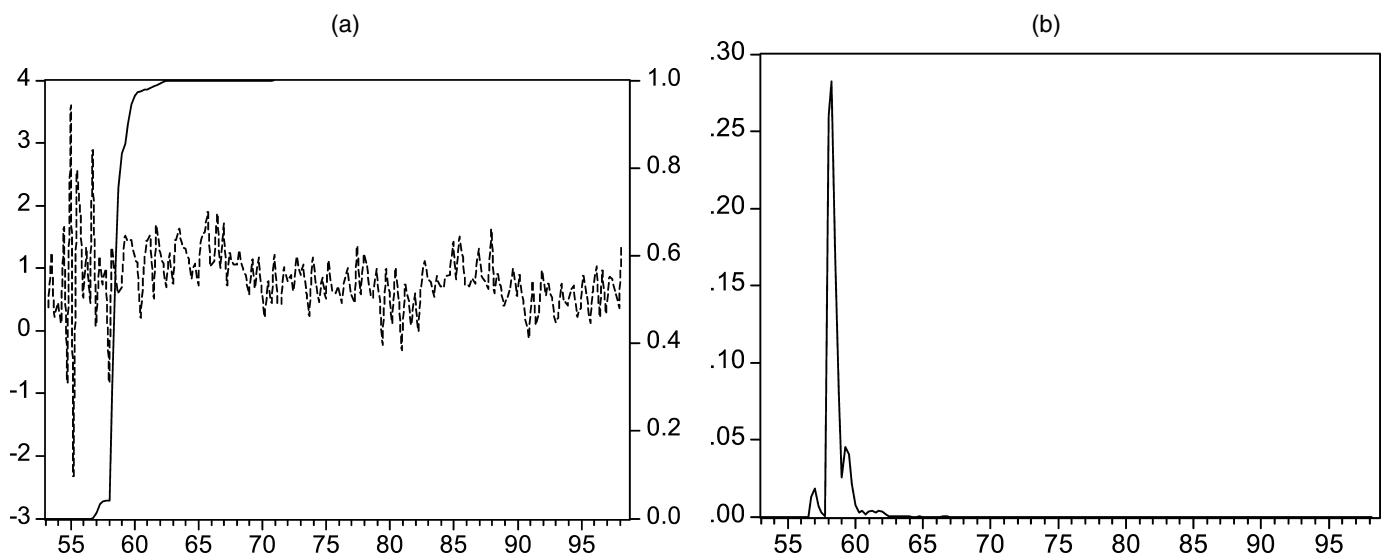


Figure 7. (a) Growth Rate of Services and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Services.

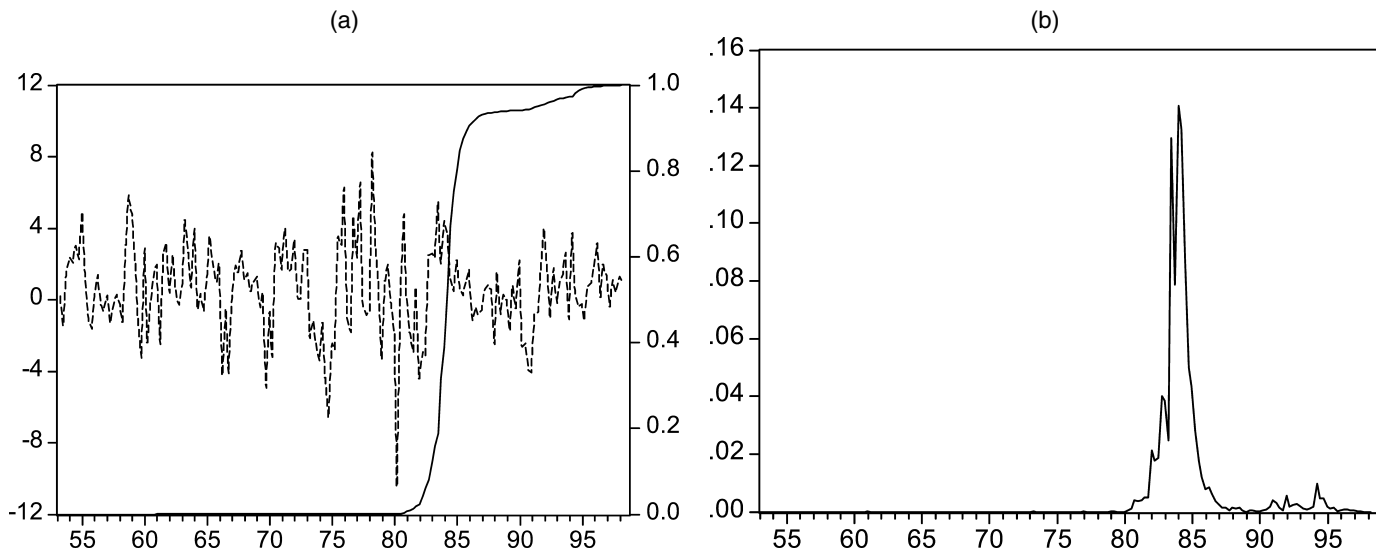


Figure 8. (a) Growth Rate of Structures Production and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Structures Production.

break in the early 1980s that is not captured. To investigate this possibility, we re-estimated the model for services production using data beginning in 1959. The log Bayes factor fell to 3.4, still strong evidence for a structural break. However, the estimated break date was again well before the early 1980s, with the mean of the posterior distribution in the second quarter of 1966.

We turn now to structures production, where we obtain the first discrepancy with the results obtained by MPQ. Again, using classical tests, MPQ were unable to reject the null hypothesis of no structural break in the conditional volatility of structures production. However, the Bayesian tests find decisive evidence of a volatility reduction. From row 8 of Table 1, the log Bayes factor is 6.8, with the posterior mean of the break date equal to 1984:1, the same quarter as for aggregate GDP. Figure 8(b) shows that the posterior distribution of the break date is clustered tightly around the posterior mean. The volatility

reduction in structures is quantitatively large as well; the posterior mean of σ_1^2 is 37% of σ_0^2 . Thus the evidence from the Bayesian model comparison suggests that the volatility reduction observed in real GDP not only is reflected in the goods sector, as suggested by MPQ, but also is found in the production of structures.

Following MPQ, we next delve deeper into an evaluation of the goods sector by separately evaluating the evidence for a volatility reduction in the nondurable and durable goods sectors. Row 9 of Table 1 contains the results for durable goods. The log Bayes factor is 16.2, decisive evidence in favor of structural change. The posterior mean of the unknown break date is the same as for aggregate GDP, 1984:1. From row 10, the log Bayes factor for nondurable goods production is 3.7, smaller than for durable goods but still strong evidence against the model with no structural break. The volatility reduction in nondurable goods is quantitatively large, with σ_1^2 47% of σ_0^2 , al-

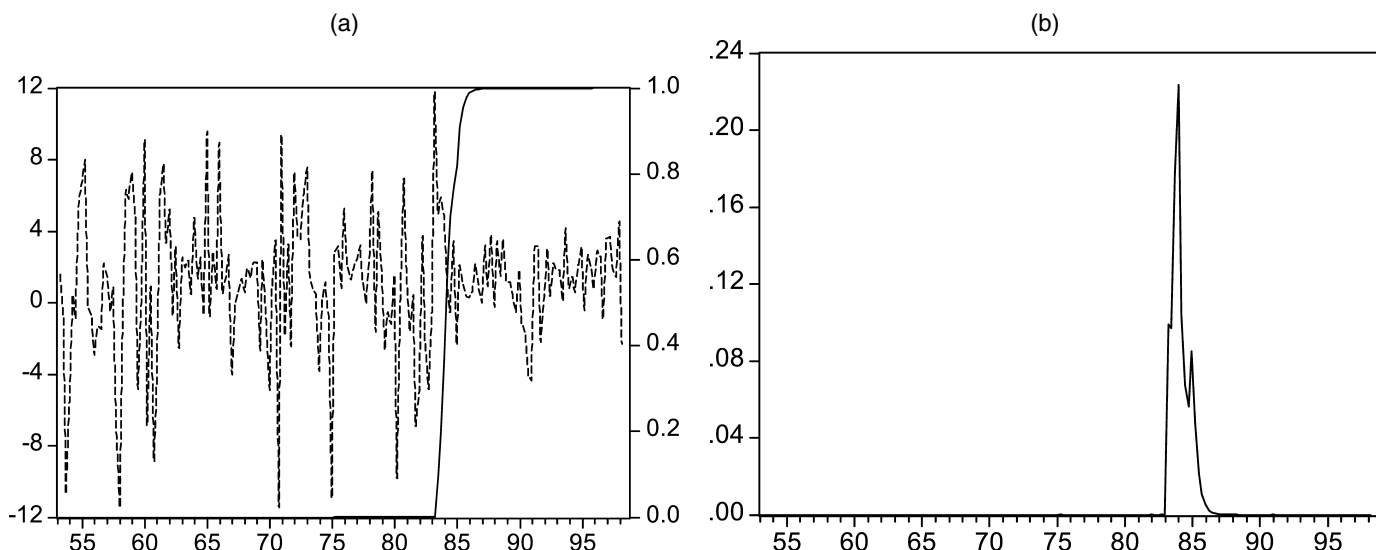


Figure 9. (a) Growth Rate of Durable Goods Production and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Durable Goods Production.

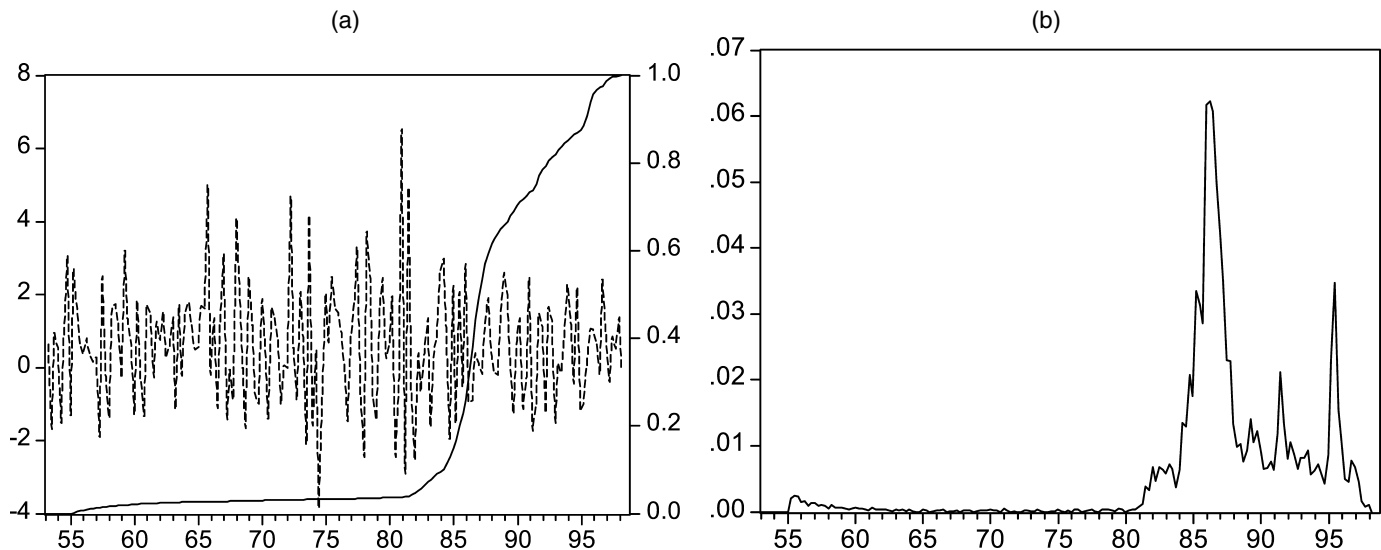


Figure 10. (a) Growth Rate of Nondurable Goods Production and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Nondurable Goods Production.

though smaller than that found for durable goods. The posterior mean of the break date is also somewhat later than for durable goods, falling in 1986:4. Finally, from Figures 9(b) and 10(b), the posterior distributions of the break date for nondurable goods production are more diffuse than those for durable goods production.

We now turn to an investigation of measures of final sales. Again, a striking result found by MPQ is that classical tests do not reject the null hypothesis of no volatility reduction for either aggregate measures of final sales or final sales of durable goods. This result is strongly suggestive of a primary role for the behavior of inventories in explaining the aggregate volatility reduction. MPQ also argued that the failure of final sales to show any evidence of a volatility reduction casts doubt on explanations for the aggregate volatility reduction based on monetary policy. To investigate the possibility of a volatility reduction in

final sales, we investigate three series. The first series is an aggregate measure of final sales—final sales of domestic product. We then turn to measures of final sales in the goods sector. In particular, we investigate final sales of nondurable goods and final sales of durable goods.

From row 11 of Table 1, the log of the Bayes factor for final sales of domestic product is 6.6, decisive evidence against the model with no volatility reduction. The volatility reduction in final sales is quantitatively large, with the posterior mean of σ_1^2 40% of σ_0^2 . The posterior mean of the break date is 1983:3, consistent with that observed for aggregate real GDP. From Figure 11(b), the posterior distribution is clustered fairly tightly around this mean, although less so than for aggregate real GDP. That we find evidence for a volatility reduction in aggregate final sales is perhaps not surprising given that we have already shown that the Bayesian model comparison finds evidence of

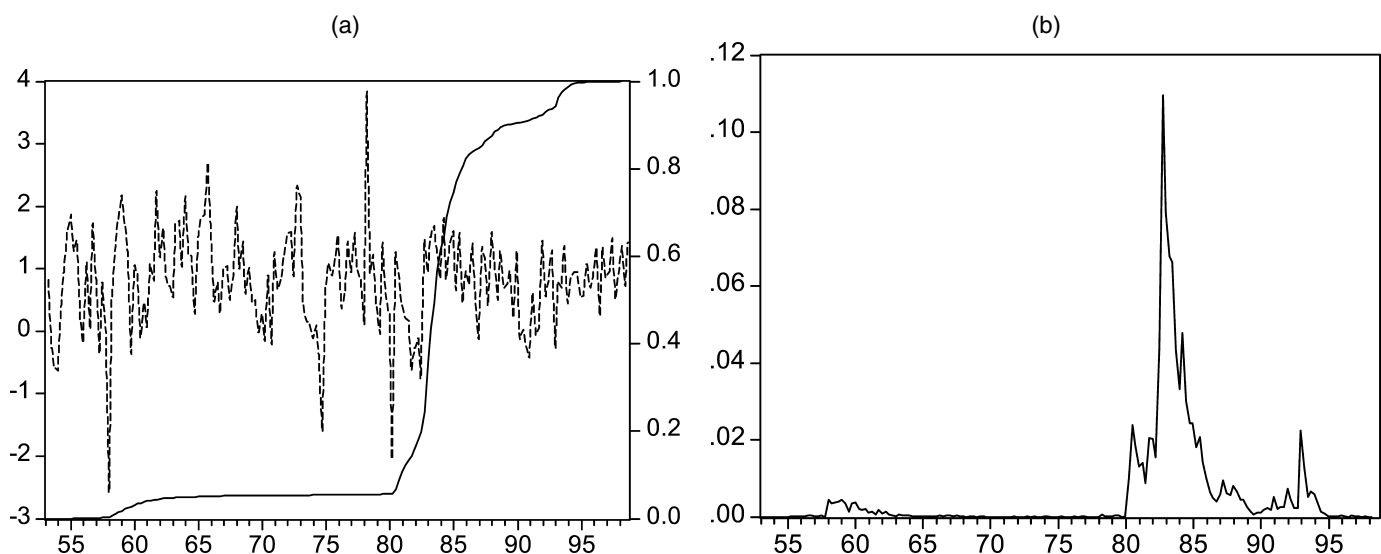


Figure 11. (a) Growth Rate of Final Sales of Domestic Product and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Final Sales of Domestic Product.

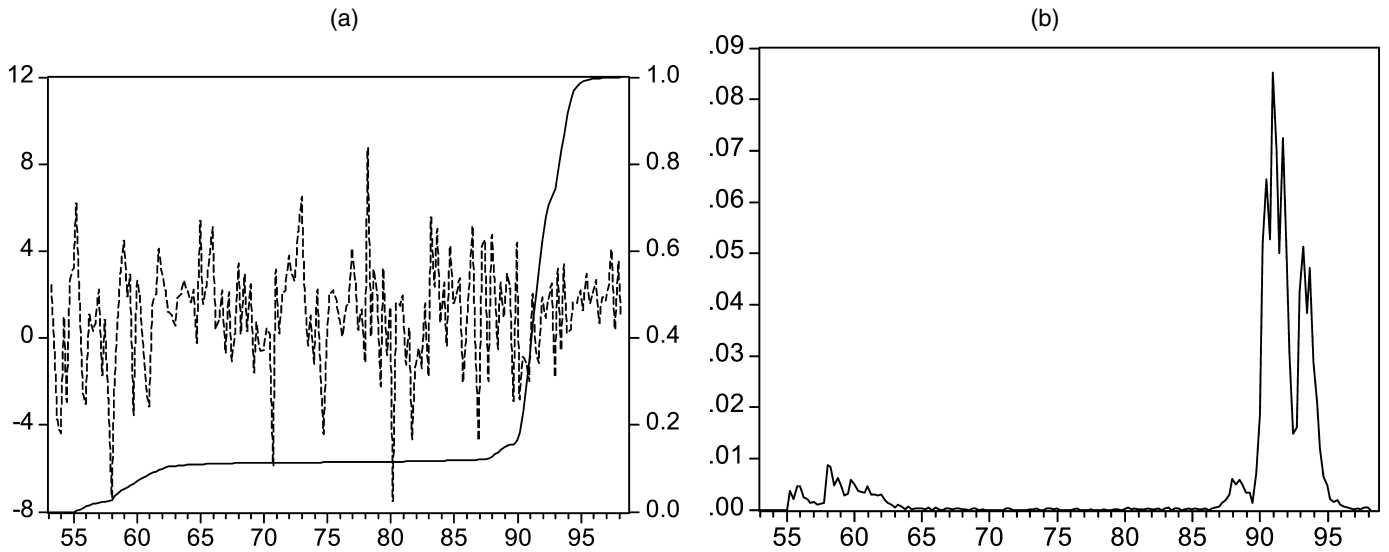


Figure 12. (a) Growth Rate of Durable Goods Final Sales and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Durable Goods Final Sales.

a structural break in structures production, a component of aggregate final sales. Thus we are perhaps more interested in the results with regard to final sales in the goods sector, the only sector for which the distinction between sales and production is meaningful. We now turn to these results.

From row 12 of Table 1, the log of the Bayes factor for final sales of durable goods is 4.4, strong evidence against the model with no structural break. However, the log Bayes factor is weaker than when inventories are included, suggesting that inventory behavior may be an important part of the volatility reduction in durable goods production in the early 1980s. Also, the posterior mean of the break date for final sales of durable goods is in 1991:3. This break is 7 years later than that recorded for aggregate GDP and durable goods production. Thus it appears that the MPQ finding of no volatility reduction in final sales of durable goods is not confirmed by the Bayesian tech-

niques used here. However, there does appear to be significant timing differences in volatility reduction in the production and final sales of durable goods.

From row 13 of Table 1, we see that there is much evidence of a volatility reduction in final sales of nondurable goods. The log Bayes factor is 8.0, decisive evidence against the model with no structural break. Interestingly, this is much stronger evidence than that obtained for the production of nondurable goods. Also, the volatility reduction for final sales of nondurable goods appears to be quantitatively more important than that for production of nondurables, with σ_1^2 34% of σ_0^2 for nondurable final sales and 47% of σ_0^2 for nondurable production. The posterior mean of the break date is in 1986:1, close to the break date for nondurable goods production. However, as seen in Figure 13(b), the posterior distribution of the break date is much more tightly clustered around this mean than that

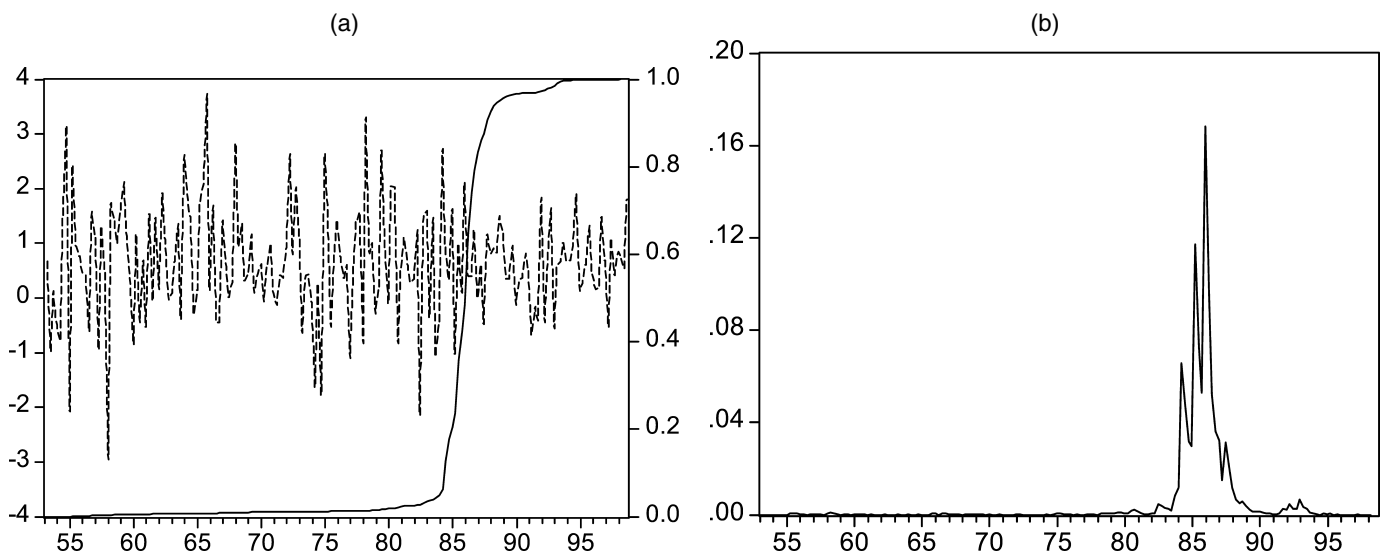


Figure 13. (a) Growth Rate of Nondurable Goods Final Sales and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: Growth Rate of Nondurable Goods Final Sales.

obtained for nondurable goods production. Thus the results for final sales of nondurable goods suggests the opposite conclusion than was obtained for durable goods: The evidence in favor of a break in volatility in the nondurable goods sector is more compelling when only final sales are considered. This could be used as evidence against an inventory management explanation for the volatility reduction in this sector.

In summary, the evidence presented here demonstrates that the results of MPQ are not robust to a Bayesian model comparison strategy. Specifically, the volatility reduction appears to be pervasive across many of the production components of aggregate real GDP and is also present in measures of final sales in addition to production. This evidence provides less ammunition to invalidate any potential explanation for the aggregate volatility reduction than that obtained by MPQ. Indeed, the evidence seems consistent with a broad range of explanations, including improved inventory management and improved monetary policy, and thus is not very helpful in narrowing the field of potential explanations.

One could still argue that our finding of reduced volatility of durable goods production in 1984, with no reduction in durable final sales volatility until 1991, makes improved inventory management the leading candidate explanation for the volatility reduction within the durable goods sector. However, even this may not be a useful conclusion to draw from the stylized facts. The results presented here suggest a difference in timing only, not the absence of a volatility reduction in the final sales of durables goods as in MPQ. Such a timing difference could be explained by many factors, including idiosyncratic shocks to final sales over the second half of the 1980s. Another explanation is that the hypothesis of a single, sharp break date is misspecified, and in fact volatility reduction has been an ongoing process. Stock and Watson (2002) and Blanchard and Simon (2001) have presented evidence that is not inconsistent with this hypothesis. If this is the true nature of the volatility reduction, then the discrepancy in the estimated (sharp) break date for durable goods production and final sales of durable goods becomes less interesting.

3.3 Robustness to Alternative Prior Specifications

We obtained the results presented in Section 3.2 using the prior parameter distributions listed as “prior 1A” in Section 2. We also estimated the model with priors 1B and 1C and obtained results very similar to those given in Table 1. In this section we further evaluate the sensitivity of the results to prior specification by investigating alternative priors on the Markov transition probability, q . This is a key parameter of the model, because it controls the placement of the unknown break date. Thus the econometrician can specify beliefs regarding the timing of the structural break by modifying the prior distribution for q . Classical tests, such as those of Andrews (1993) and Andrews and Ploberger (1994), assume no prior knowledge of the break date. Thus we are interested in the extent to which the differences between the results that we find here and those obtained by MPQ can be explained by the prior distributions placed on q .

We investigate this by re-evaluating one of the primary series considered earlier for which we draw differing conclusions

from MPQ—structures production. Using classical tests, MPQ were unable to reject the null hypothesis of no structural break in the volatility of structures production. Here we found a log Bayes factor of model 1 versus model 2 of 6.8, strong evidence in favor of a structural break. We obtained this factor using the prior on q listed in prior 1A, $q \sim \text{beta}(8, .1)$, the histogram of which, based on 10,000 simulated draws from the distribution, is plotted in Figure 14(a). This distribution has mean $E(q) \approx .988$ and standard deviation .037. How restrictive is this prior on q for the placement of the break date τ ? From the 10,000 draws of q plotted in Figure 14(a), roughly 80% corresponded to $E(\tau) = 1/(1 - q) > 90$ quarters, which is the midpoint of the sample size considered in this article. Correspondingly, roughly 20% of the draws from the distribution for q yielded expected break dates less than 90 quarters into the sample.

Table 2 considers the robustness of the result for structures production to alternative prior specifications on q , keeping the prior distributions for the other parameters of the model the same as in prior 1A. Figure 14(b) holds the histogram for the first alternative prior that we consider, $q \sim \text{beta}(1, 1)$. This prior is relatively flat, with mean equal to .5 and roughly equal probability placed on all values of q . However, this yields a somewhat more restrictive prior distribution for the placement of the break date, τ , than that used in prior 1A. From the 10,000 draws of q plotted in Figure 14(b), only 1% corresponded to $E(\tau) = 1/(1 - q) > 90$ quarters. Furthermore, 98% of the draws of q yielded expected break dates in the first 50 quarters of the sample. From the second row of Table 2, the log Bayes factor for this prior specification is 3.7, less than that obtained using prior 1A but still strong evidence in favor of a structural break. We next investigate a prior that places the mean value of q at a very low value, thus placing most probability mass on a break date early in the sample. We specify this prior as $q \sim \text{beta}(.1, 1)$, the histogram of which is contained in Figure 14(c). This prior could be considered quite unreasonable. From the 10,000 draws of q plotted in Figure 14(c), less than .1% corresponded to $E(\tau) = 1/(1 - q) > 90$ quarters. Moreover, more than 99% of the draws of q yielded expected break dates in the first 12 quarters of the sample. However, despite this unreasonable prior, the log Bayes factor, shown in the third row of Table 2, is still above 3, strong evidence in favor of a structural break. To erase the evidence in favor of a structural break, one must move to the prior in the final row of Table 2, $q \sim \text{beta}(.1, 2)$. This prior distribution, graphed in Figure 14(d), places almost all probability mass on a break very early in the sample. Of the 10,000 draws of q plotted in Figure 14(d), none corresponded to $E(\tau) = 1/(1 - q) > 50$ quarters. Under this prior, the model with no structural break is preferred slightly over the model with a structural break.

Table 2. Evidence of Structural Break for Alternative Priors on q : Structures Production

Prior distribution	Log Bayes factor
$q \sim \text{beta}(8, .1)$	6.8
$q \sim \text{beta}(1, 1)$	3.7
$q \sim \text{beta}(.1, 1)$	3.1
$q \sim \text{beta}(.1, 2)$	-.5

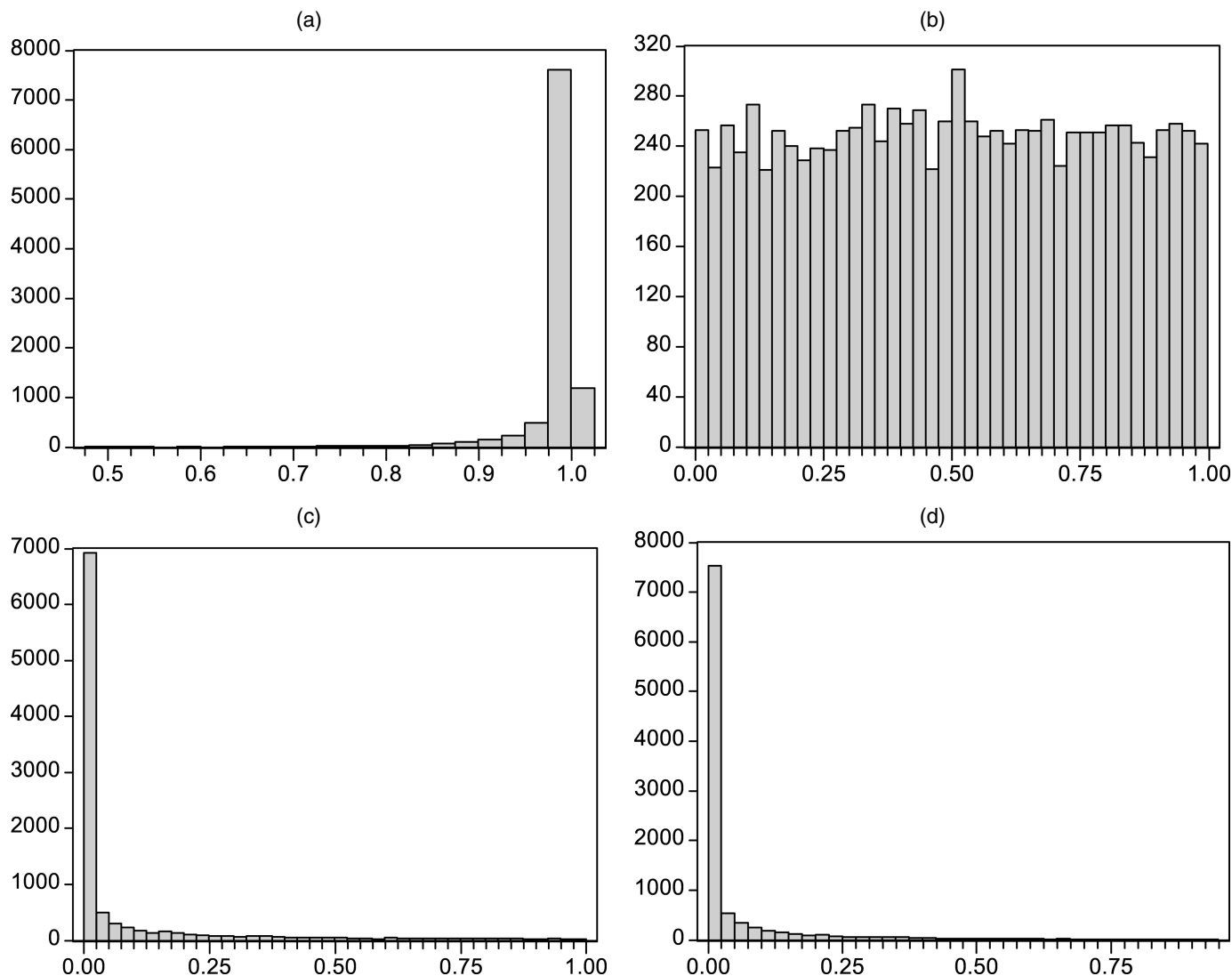


Figure 14. Histogram for (a) 10,000 Draws From $q \sim \text{beta}(8, .1)$, (b) 10,000 Draws From $q \sim \text{beta}(1, 1)$, (c) 10,000 Draws From $q \sim \text{beta}(.1, 1)$, and (d) 10,000 Draws From $q \sim \text{beta}(.1, 2)$.

Thus it appears that the evidence for a structural break in structures production is robust to a wide variety of prior distributions. This suggests that the sample evidence for a structural break is quite strong, making the choice of prior distribution on the break date of limited importance for conclusions based on Bayes factors.

3.4 Structural Change in Inflation Dynamics

In this section we evaluate whether the reduction in the volatility of real GDP is also present in the dynamics of inflation. Unlike the case of real GDP, changes in conditional mean and persistence also appear to be important for inflation. Thus, to investigate structural change in the dynamics of inflation, we use the following expanded version of the model in Section 2:

$$y_t = \mu_{D_t^*} + \rho_{D_t^*} y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_{j,D_t^*} \Delta y_{t-j} + e_t, \quad (3)$$

$$e_t \sim N(0, \sigma_{D_t^*}^2),$$

where y_t is the level of the inflation rate. The specification of the error term and its variance is the same as that in Section 2. However, we also allow for a structural break in the persistence parameter and conditional mean. For example, whereas $\sigma_{D_t^*}^2$ captures a shift in conditional volatility, the parameter $\rho_{D_t^*}$, which is the sum of the autoregressive coefficients in the Dickey–Fuller style autoregression, captures a one-time shift in the persistence. We allow for the possibility that a shift in the persistence parameter and conditional mean can occur at a different time than the shift in conditional variance. Thus we assume that D_t^* is independent of D_t and that it is governed by the following transitional dynamics:

$$D_t^* = \begin{cases} 0, & 1 \leq t \leq \tau^* \\ 1, & \tau^* < t < T-1, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

$$\Pr(D_{t+1}^* = 0 \mid D_t^* = 0) = q^*,$$

$$\Pr(D_{t+1}^* = 1 \mid D_t^* = 1) = 1.$$

For inflation, we consider a shorter sample period than for the real variables, beginning in the first quarter of 1960. Pre-

Table 3. Posterior Moments: CPI Inflation

Parameter	With structural break		Without structural break	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
μ_0	.302	.145	.203	.129
μ_1	.396	.156		
ρ_0	.941	.040	.910	.042
ρ_1	.722	.092		
β_{10}	-.235	.131	-.277	.078
β_{11}	-.292	.107		
β_{20}	-.158	.138	-.314	.075
β_{21}	-.398	.098		
σ_0^2	.883	.118	.808	.094
σ_1^2	.171	.050		
q^*	.987	.008		
q	.992	.013		

liminary analysis suggested that including data from the 1950s yielded very unstable results that were generally indicative of a structural break in the dynamics of the series in the late 1950s. That the 1950s might represent a separate regime in the behavior of inflation is perhaps not surprising. Romer and Romer (2002) argued that monetary policy in the 1950s had more in common with that in the 1980s and 1990s than that in the 1960s and 1970s. Because here we are interested in a structural break that corresponds to the break found in real variables in the early 1980s, we restrict our attention to the post-1960s sample. This is a common sample choice in studies investigating structural change in U.S. nominal variables (see, e.g., Watson 1999; Stock and Watson 2002).

Table 3 contains the mean and standard deviation of the posterior distributions for the parameters of the model in (3) and (4) applied to the CPI inflation rate. The log of the Bayes factor comparing this model with one with no structural breaks is 7.8, decisive evidence against the model with no structural change. The structural change appears to be coming from two places, a reduction in persistence and a reduction in conditional variance. The posterior mean of the persistence parameter falls

from $\rho_0 = .94$ to $\rho_1 = .72$. The posterior mean of the conditional volatility falls from $\sigma_0^2 = .88$ to $\sigma_1^2 = .17$. The conditional mean, given by μ_0 and μ_1 , is essentially unchanged over the sample. Figure 15(b) shows the posterior distributions of the two break dates. The break date for the change in persistence, τ^* , and the change in volatility, τ , both have posterior distributions clustered tightly around their posterior means, 1979:2 and 1991:2. Given that the reduction in persistence implies a reduction in unconditional volatility, these results suggest two reductions in volatility, one reduction at the beginning of the 1980s and another at the beginning of the 1990s.

4. WHAT EXPLAINS THE DISCREPANCY BETWEEN THE CLASSICAL AND BAYESIAN RESULTS?

The results of MPQ and this article demonstrate that for several of the disaggregate real GDP series, classical tests fail to reject the null hypothesis of no volatility reduction, whereas a Bayesian model comparison strongly favors a volatility reduction. One simple explanation for this discrepancy is that classical hypothesis tests and Bayesian model comparisons are inherently very different concepts. Whereas classical hypothesis tests evaluate the likelihood of observing the data assuming that the null hypotheses is true, a Bayesian model comparison evaluates which of the null or alternative hypotheses is more likely. Given this difference in philosophy, the approach preferred by a researcher will likely depend on that researcher's preferences for classical versus Bayesian techniques.

This explanation is somewhat unsatisfying, because it suggests that "frequentist" researchers will prefer the results of MPQ, whereas "Bayesian" researchers will find the results presented in this article more convincing. Thus in the remainder of this section, we report on a series of Monte Carlo experiments performed to explore the discrepancy between the two procedures from a purely classical perspective. Based on the

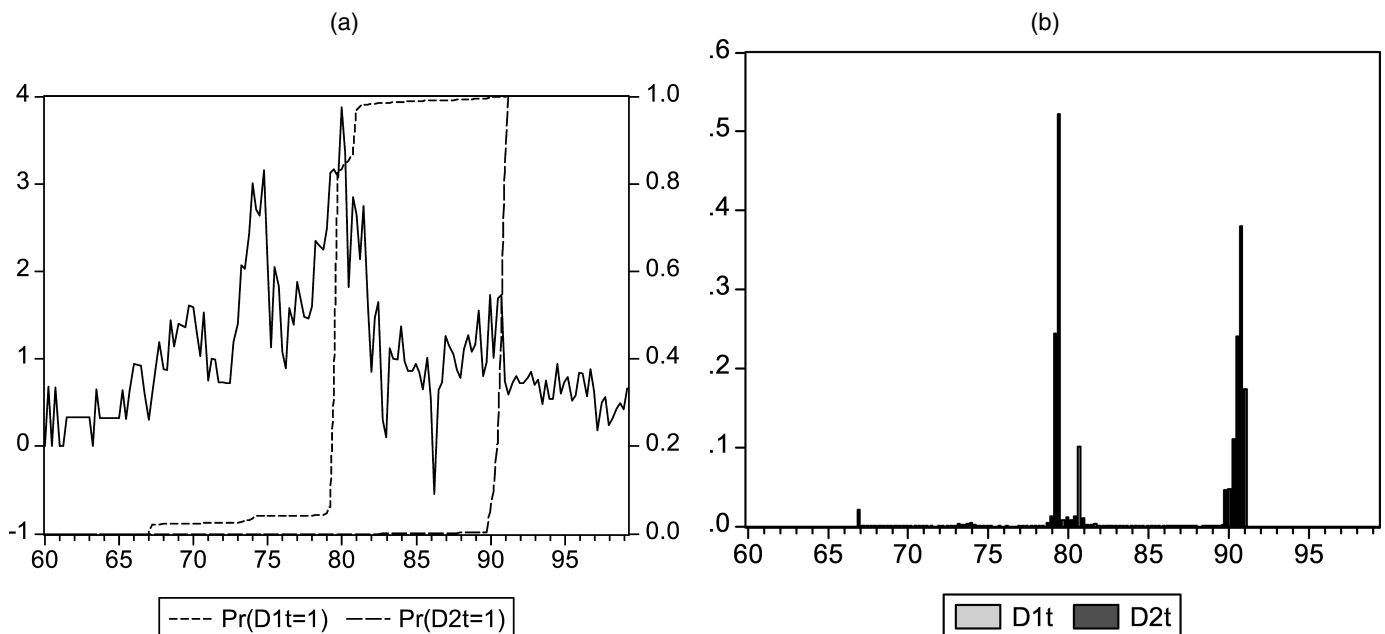


Figure 15. (a) CPI Inflation Rate and Probability of Structural Break, and (b) Posterior Distribution of Break Date: CPI Inflation Rate.

results of these experiments, we argue that for this application, the conclusions from the Bayesian model comparison should be preferred, even when viewed from the viewpoint of a classical econometrician.

We first consider the case in which a volatility reduction has occurred in the series for which the classical and Bayesian methodologies provide conflicting results. In this case, the Bayesian model comparison correctly identifies the true model, whereas the classical hypothesis test fails to reject the false null hypothesis, a type II error. Given that the alternative hypothesis is true, how likely would it be to observe this type II error? To answer this question, we perform a Monte Carlo experiment to calculate the power of a classical test used by MPQ against two relevant alternative hypotheses. In the first of these hypotheses, (DGP1), data are generated from an autoregression in which there is an abrupt change in the residual variance. Formally,

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= \mu + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + e_t, \\ e_t &\sim N(0, \sigma_t^2), \\ \sigma_t^2 &= \begin{cases} \sigma_0^2, & t = 1, 2, \dots, \tau \\ \sigma_1^2, & t = \tau + 1, \dots, T, \end{cases} \\ \sigma_0^2 &> \sigma_1^2. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

In the second hypothesis, (DGP2), data are generated from an autoregression in which there is a gradual change in the residual variance,

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= \mu + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + e_t, \\ e_t &\sim N(0, \sigma_t^2), \\ \sigma_t^2 &= \sigma_0^2 (1 - P(D_t = 1)) + \sigma_1^2 P(D_t = 1), \\ \sigma_0^2 &> \sigma_1^2, \\ \Pr(D_t = 1) &= \begin{cases} 0, & 1 \leq t \leq \tau_1 \\ 0 < P(D_t = 1) < 1, & \tau_1 < t \leq \tau_2 \\ 1, & t > \tau_2, \end{cases} \\ \Pr(D_t = 1) &\leq P(D_s = 1) \quad \text{for } t < s. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

DGP2 is motivated by the posterior distributions of τ for the disaggregate real GDP data series. As is apparent from Figures 6–13, the posterior distribution of τ is fairly diffuse in several cases, a result suggestive of gradual, rather than sharp, structural breaks. Notably, this tends to be the case for those series for which the results of MPQ differ from the Bayesian model comparison: structures production, nondurable goods production, and all of the final sales series.

We base the calibration of DGP1 and DGP2 on a series for which the classical and Bayesian methodologies are sharply at odds: final sales of domestic product. For this series, the log Bayes factor is 6.64, decisive evidence against the null of no structural change. However, MPQ were unable to reject the null hypothesis of no structural change in this series using classical tests. We replicate this result here using the Quandt (1960) *sup-Wald* test statistic, the critical values of which were derived by Andrews (1993). Following MPQ, we perform this test based on the following equation for the residuals of (5):

$$\begin{aligned} |e_t| &= \alpha_0 (1 - D_t) + \alpha_1 D_t + \omega_t, \\ D_t &= \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } t = 1, 2, \dots, \tau \\ 1, & \text{for } t = \tau + 1, \dots, T. \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

We proxy e_t with the least squares residuals from (5), \hat{e}_t . We then estimate (7) by least squares and the Wald statistic for the test of the null hypothesis that $\alpha_0 = \alpha_1$ calculated for each potential value of τ . Again following MPQ, we use 15% trimming—the break date is not allowed to occur in the first or last 15% of the sample. The largest test statistic obtained is the *sup-Wald* statistic, whereas the value of τ that yields the *sup-Wald* statistic is the least squares estimate of the break date, $\hat{\tau}$. Consistent with MPQ, the *sup-Wald* test statistic for final sales of domestic product is 7.05, below the 5% critical value of 8.85.

To calibrate DGP1, we set the parameter $\tau = \hat{\tau}$ for final sales of domestic product. The parameters μ , ϕ_1 , and ϕ_2 are then set equal to their ordinary least squares estimates from (5), where the estimation is performed conditional on $\tau = \hat{\tau}$. Finally, σ_0^2 and σ_1^2 are set equal to

$$\frac{1}{\tau} \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \hat{e}_t^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{T-\tau} \sum_{t=\tau+1}^T \hat{e}_t^2.$$

For DGP2, we set $P(D_t = 1) = P(D_t | \tilde{Y}_T)$, obtained from the estimation of model 1, defined in Section 2.1, for final sales of domestic product. This probability is displayed in Figure 11(a). We set the other parameters equal to the respective posterior distributions from estimation of model 1 for final sales of domestic product. We generate 10,000 sets of data from DGP1 and DGP2, each set with a length equal to the sample size of our series for final sales of domestic product. For each dataset generated, we perform a 5% *sup-Wald* test and record whether the null hypothesis is rejected.

For DGP1, the *sup-Wald* statistic rejects the null hypothesis 75% of the time, suggesting that the power of this test against DGP1 is only fair. Under DGP2, arguably the more relevant data-generating process for the disputed series, the power of the *sup-Wald* test falls considerably, with the test rejecting only 43% of the time. Thus these results suggest that if the alternative hypothesis were true, then it would not be unlikely for the *sup-Wald* test to fail to reject the null hypothesis. This provides a possible reconciliation of the discrepancy between the classical and Bayesian results.

We next turn to the case in which the null hypothesis is true. In this case, the classical tests used by MPQ correctly fail to reject the null hypothesis, whereas the Bayesian model comparison, calibrated to Jeffreys's scale, incorrectly prefers the alternative hypothesis. From a classical perspective, the Bayesian model comparison commits a type I error. Thus, another possible reconciliation of the conflicting results given by the classical and Bayesian methodologies is that the Bayesian model comparison tends to commit a larger number of type I errors than the classical test. The question then is if the Bayes factor as interpreted in this article were treated as a classical test statistic, what would its size be.

To investigate this, we perform a Monte Carlo experiment where data are generated under the null hypothesis of no structural change. Specifically, we generate data from model 2 described in Section 2. We calibrated the parameters to the posterior means of the posterior distributions for the parameters of model 2 fit to final sales of domestic product. For each Monte Carlo simulation, we computed the log Bayes factor, using the

same priors as defined in Section 2. Due to the lengthy computation time required for each simulation, we reduced the number of Monte Carlo simulations to 1,000.

In this experiment, 5% of the log Bayes factors exceeded 3.4. Thus, if one were to treat the log Bayes factor as a classical test statistic, then the 5% critical value would be 3.4. In the results reported in Table 1, the log Bayes factor exceeds this value in all cases except the two measures of trend GDP. This suggests that the discrepancy in the results of MPQ and the Bayesian model comparison are not likely to be explained by the Bayesian model comparison having an excessive size when viewed as a classical test. Indeed, given that the values of the Bayes factors in Table 1 are often far above the 5% critical value of 3.4, this reconciliation seems very unlikely.

In summary, these Monte Carlo experiments suggest that when viewed from a classical perspective, it would not be unusual for classical tests to fail to reject the null hypothesis when the alternative was the correct model. However, it would be highly unlikely to observe values for the log Bayes factor as large as those observed in Table 1 if the null hypothesis of no structural change were true.

5. CONCLUSION

In this article we used Bayesian tests for a structural break in variance to document some stylized facts regarding the volatility reduction in real GDP observed since the early 1980s. First, we found a reduction in the volatility of aggregate real GDP that is shared by its cyclical component but not by its trend component. Next, we investigated the how pervasiveness of this aggregate volatility reduction across broad production sectors of real GDP. Evidence from the existing literature based on classical testing procedures has shown that the aggregate volatility reduction has a narrow source—the durable goods sector—and that measures of final sales fail to show any volatility reduction. This evidence has been used to cast doubt on explanations for the volatility reduction based on improved monetary policy. In contrast, we have found that the volatility reduction in aggregate output is visible in more sectors of output than simply durable goods production. Specifically, we found evidence of a volatility reduction in the production of structures and non-durable goods. We also found evidence of a reduced volatility of aggregate measures of final sales that looks similar to that in aggregate output. Finally, we found evidence of reduced volatility in final sales of both durable goods and nondurable goods. Based on these results, we argue that the evidence that one obtains from investigating the pattern of volatility reductions across broad production sectors of real GDP is not sufficiently sharp to cast doubt on any potential explanations for the volatility reduction. We also document that, alongside the reduction in real GDP volatility, the persistence and conditional volatility of inflation have also fallen.

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