

and forecasting via use of realized variation measures constructed from high-frequency returns coupled with simple modeling procedures. Building on recent theoretical results in Barndorff-Nielsen and Shephard (2004a, 2005) for related bi-power variation measures, the present paper provides a practical and robust framework for non-parametrically measuring the jump component in asset return volatility. In an application to the DM/\$ exchange rate, the S&P500 market index, and the 30-year U.S. Treasury bond yield, we find that jumps are both highly prevalent and distinctly less persistent than the continuous sample path variation process. Moreover, many jumps appear directly associated with specific macroeconomic news announcements. Separating jump from non-jump movements in a simple but sophisticated volatility forecasting model, we find that almost all of the predictability in daily, weekly, and monthly return volatilities comes from the non-jump component. Our results thus set the stage for a number of interesting future econometric developments and important financial applications by separately modeling, forecasting, and pricing the continuous and jump components of the total return variation process. — Torben G. Anderson, Tim Bollerslev, and Francis X. Diebold, “Roughing It Up: Including Jump Components in the Measurement, Modeling, and Forecasting of Return Volatility” NBER Working Paper no. 11775, 2005

What you choose to include in an abstract depends on your interpretation of the paper’s important or interesting features and its contribution or what distinguishes it from other papers.

22. Designing Tables

Tables are excellent for presenting a large amount of data in a concise, easy-to-read form. A well-designed table can

communicate in brief what may otherwise take several paragraphs if presented textually, and can do so more clearly.

In economics papers, tables may be used for any number of purposes, but two are more common than others. In empirical papers there is usually a table of *descriptive statistics*. Also called “summary statistics,” descriptive statistics usually give a socio-demographic profile of a sample population. Also common in empirical papers are tables presenting *regression results*. In a single paper, there may be several tables that present regression results, coefficient estimates, and the like.

The main parts of a table are the following.

- *Table number*. Every table should have a number, and the tables should be numbered consecutively throughout a document.
- *Title*. The title should be brief but descriptive. It should not be a complete sentence, but a collection of words that indicate the subject of the table: “Percentage of Women Aged 45-60 Who Smoke, by Educational Attainment,” or “Effect of Class Size on Student Achievement: OLS Regression Results,” or “Summary of Income Data from Survey in Rural Georgia, 1920–1945.”
- *Column heads*. Every column of information should have a column head, a word or phrase that identifies the information. Columns are read down. *Spanner heads* are used when column heads are in two or more levels, that is, when there are both a collective head and individual heads.
- *Stub*. The stub is the very left-most column in a table.
- *Body*. The body of a table consists of the columns to the right of the stub and below the column heads.
- *Footnotes*. There are three main kinds of footnotes that may be included at the end of a table. A *source note* identifies either the source of the data used in the table or, if the table was reproduced without change from a published work, the published work (it is possible that both things need to be identified). To reproduce a table without change from a

published work that is still protected by copyright requires formal permission. *General notes* apply to the table as a whole. *Specific notes* pertain to specific numbers or rows or columns in the table.

- *Rules*. Rules are the lines that visually separate the table into parts. In general, only horizontal rules should be used. Vertical rules may in some cases be necessary, but current publishing norms require that they be avoided whenever possible.

The parts are identified on the sample table in the appendix.

Not all data need to be presented in a table. Sometimes there is simply not enough information to justify a table. A good rule is that a table should contain at the very least two columns and at least six cells of information: two columns and three rows, or three columns and two rows. (Please note: the left-most column, called the “stub,” does not count as a column for this purpose.)

23. Writing Literature Reviews

Remember the four-move pattern discussed in section 18 on introductions? You might recall that move 2 of the pattern reviews the literature. Literature reviews are standard in scholarly economics articles; they are either included in the introduction or are put in a section of their own. (A literature review can also be expanded and published as an article of its own; but what I am discussing here are literature reviews in standard empirical and theoretical papers.)

So just what is a literature review? First, let me say what it is not. A literature review is not just a description of a series of papers; it is not a mere catalog or annotated bibliography of papers written on a subject. A series of paragraphs, each recapping or summarizing a particular paper or set of papers, in no particular order, does not a literature review make.

Instead, a literature review has much more shape and purpose than that. A good literature review is an account of previous research that is *carefully constructed* to tell a particular