

**TRIANGLE MODEL VS. HYBRID NEW KEYNESIAN:
COMPARING FORECAST RESULTS OF TWO PHILLIPS CURVES**

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SIGNATURE PAGE

THESIS: TRIANGLE MODEL VS. HYBRID NEW KEYNESIAN:
COMPARING U.S. INFLATION FORECASTS OF TWO
PHILLIPS CURVES

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ABSTRACT

This paper compares the fit and forecasting power of two kinds of expectations-augmented Phillips curves. Gordon's triangle model expresses inflation as a function of three components, one of which is lagged inflation. In addition to this lagged term, the hybrid New Keynesian Phillips curve also contains a forward-looking term to represent the expected future rate of inflation. The role and type of inflation assumed by each model mark their difference from the other. Using United States data spanning 1999-2014, estimation of the two models showed that the triangle model is relevant in forecasting historical inflation in the full period and two sub-periods before and after 2006. In contrast, the HNKPC was weak over the entire data span, and relevant only after 2006 when it captures that 2007-08 Financial Crisis and the beginning of the Federal Reserve's forward guidance policies.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Signature Page	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Introduction.....	1
Evolution of the Phillips Curve.....	3
NAIRU	4
Expectations.....	5
Triangle Model and the New Keynesian Phillips Curve	6
Hybrid New Keynesian Phillips Curve	7
Methodology ...	8
Data	10
Triangle Model.....	13
1999-2014	13
1999-2006	14
2006-2014	15
Forecast Results	16
HNKPC.....	17
1999-2014	19
Model weakness before 2006.....	19
2006-2014	14

Forecast Results	18
References.....	26

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	NAIRU Frequency Conversion.....	10
Table 2	Equation 4, 1998-2014.....	13
Table 3	Equations 4 and 3 with AR Correction.....	14
Table 4	Equation 3, 1999-2006.....	15
Table 5	Equation 3, 2006-2014.....	16
Table 6	Triangle Model Inflation Forecasts.....	17
Table 7	Augmented Dickey Fuller Tests	18
Table 8	Equation 5, 1998-2014.....	19
Table 9	Equation 6, 1998-2014.....	20
Table 10	Equation 6, 1999-2006.....	21
Table 11	Equation 6, 2006-2014.....	22
Table 12	Equation 6 with AR, 2006-2014	23
Table 13	Forecast Results: Triangle Model vs. Hybrid NKPC.....	24

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	The Phillips curve before and after the 1970s	3
Figure 2	Nonstationarity of variables	11

Introduction

The Phillips curve is an empirical model demonstrating the inverse relationship between inflation and unemployment. The absence of a theoretical foundation explains the imprecision of the tradeoff after the oil price shocks in the 1970s, and subsequent adaptations of the model sought to account for influences outside the control – and even expectations – of governments and central banks: the reactionary behavior of households and firms, the impact of food and energy prices, the complexities of interconnected global economies, and policy credibility.

This paper estimated two expectations-augmented Phillips curves models, Gordon’s triangle model and the Hybrid New Keynesian model, spanning the period 1999-2014. The goal is to determine which model is more appropriate for describing historical data before and after the 2007-08 Financial Crisis. Is one model superior over the other in forecasting, given that households and firms are using all available data – including cues from the Federal Reserve?

The United States entered the new millennium flush from the prosperous 1990s, inflating housing and credit bubbles. The country went to war, but there was zero-net job creation, “a lost decade for American workers. . . By the end, there were two [recessions], bookends to a debt-driven expansion that was neither robust nor sustainable.” (Irwin, 2013)

The Fed’s forward guidance policies to restore stability in the markets was unprecedented. Its purchases of U.S. treasuries and mortgage bonds expanded its balance sheet from the pre-crisis level of \$954 billion to \$4 trillion by the end of 2013. (Kearns, 2013) Monetary policy tools like bond-buying programs, paying interest on reserves, quantitative easing and public announcements of policies can be interpreted as signals designed to affect the public’s expectations of the state of the economy in the short-term future. The assumption for the period of interest, 2006-2014, is that inflation expectations of households and firms are shaped by

consequences of the financial crisis, as well as explicit policy announcements from the Fed. The backward- and forward-looking terms present in the models are relevant and topical. The structure of this paper is as follows: First, an overview of the evolution of the Phillips curve and the concepts underlying the triangle model and the HNKPC. Next, model estimation and forecast results for the two models. The last section discusses the consistency of the triangle model, and the relevance of the HNKPC only in periods of explicit central bank forward guidance.

Evolution of the Phillips curve

The Phillips curve was originated by Phillips (1958), who observed the opposite movements of changes in money wage rates and unemployment in the United Kingdom between 1861 and 1957. He found that changes in wage rates were explained by the level of unemployment and the rate of change of unemployment in response to employer demand for labor services. When unemployment is low and demand for workers is increasing, employers and industries have a tendency to competitively bid up wages to attract labor from other firms. When labor demand is low and unemployment is rising, wage rates fall because workers are unlikely to accept jobs paying below prevailing rates. This pull and slackening in employer demand affect wage adjustments. In short, changes in the price of labor services are influenced by both the demand for workers and the level of unemployment in the economy.

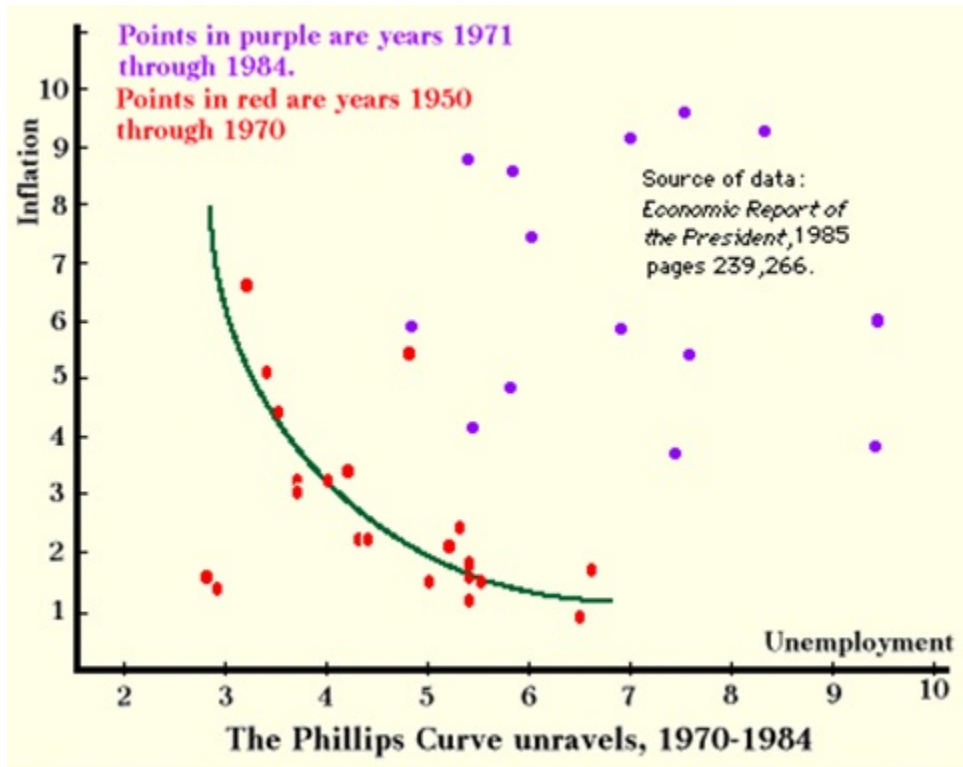


Figure 1. The Phillips curve before and after the 1970s

Phillips' findings were soon formalized by Samuelson and Solow (1960) using United States data. They were unable to reproduce the same outcomes as that of Phillips' U.K. data due to the idiosyncracies of the two countries' economies labor markets. The composition and the geographical "compactness" of the U.K. labor market differed from that of that of the United States. The geographical and industrial mobility of workers has a hand in determining the excess supply in labor. "It is clear the more fractionated and imperfect a labor market is, the higher the over-all excess supply of labor may have to be before the average wage rate becomes stable and the less tight the relation will be in any case." (Samuelson and Solow, 1960). Still, their conclusion didn't contradict the U.K. data. If unemployment is high when aggregate demand is low, then wages and prices experience downward pressure. Results from their analysis suggested to them policymaking possibilities. To stabilize the economy, government can trade higher unemployment for stabilizing price levels and vice-versa. The presumed fixedness of this tradeoff made the Phillips curve an attractive tool for policymakers.

The tradeoff between unemployment and inflation became less precise in the 1970s when OPEC increased oil prices. Figure 1 illustrates the breakdown. The period experienced both high unemployment and rising prices – stagflation. It signaled the limitations of monetary and fiscal policies, and that their intentions alone can't explain or influence price adjustments. One of the pitfalls of the original Phillips curve critiqued by Friedman (1968) was that it did not distinguish between nominal and real wages and assumed "a world in which everyone anticipated that price levels would be stable and in which that anticipation remained unshaken."

NAIRU

Friedman and Phelps (1967) argued that the inflation-unemployment tradeoff only exists in the short run. The long-run Phillips curve is flat and rests on the

NAIRU, the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment.

The NAIRU is the level of unemployment in a labor market that includes those without work seeking jobs as well as the frictionally unemployed. (Friedman, 1968). Friedman in the same paper advised against pursuing tradeoff policies when unemployment is below the NAIRU because those would actually result in inflation acceleration. The role of monetary policy is to “provide a stable background for the economy” so that consumers and producers can expect price levels to behave a certain way. Expected inflation is preferable to unexpected inflation. The economy works best when consumers and producers can confidently make decisions because they know what to anticipate. (Friedman, 1968)

Expectations

Although Friedman and Phelps (1967) popularized the role of adaptive expectations for explaining the persistence of inflation and its quantitative place in the Phillips curve model, their discussion was already predated by Muth’s paper regarding expectations as measurable “rational dynamic models.” He hypothesized that information is not wasted on economic agents.

While adaptive expectations theory takes into account past recent events in shaping household and firm behavior, rational expectations theory also considers the impact of anticipated and unanticipated supply shock. Phillips himself seemed ironically dismissive of the impact of commodities shocks, believing their effects on money wage rates was solely through cost-of-living adjustments when retail prices increase. The only way they could affect wage rate changes is when “retail prices are forced up by a very rapid rise in import prices (or, on rare occasions in the United Kingdom, in the prices of home-produced agricultural products).” (Phillips, 1958)

Triangle Model and the New Keynesian Phillips Curve

Gordon's triangle model (1988) and the family of New Keynesian Phillips curves have their foundation in rational expectations theory. The triangle model sees inflation as a function of three components: inertia, or inflation already built into the economy; demand-pull inflation, or aggregate demand as represented by the unemployment gap; and cost-push inflation, energy and food commodities price shocks that affect aggregate supply. The distinction between the triangle model and original Phillips curve is that the former measures changes in prices, not changes in wage rates (Gordon, 2009).

It's been argued that the triangle model is better at explaining historical data. Some models have included into the cost-push component the prices of medical care services and personal computers to describe the low inflation of the mid- and late 1990s. The "new" technology shock was the decline in the prices of computers and computer peripherals that had the effect of increasing profit margins was slow in catching up with accelerating productivity (Eller and Gordon, 2003).

Unemployment held low and steady between 3.9% and 4.2% through December 2000, in spite of food and energy prices rising, and medical care inflation converging with aggregate inflation by 1998. Medical care inflation was expected to continue accelerating at the start of the following decade, which justifies their inclusion in this paper's estimation of the triangle model.

The Keynesian Phillips curve model (Gali and Gertler, 1999) features expectations as forward-looking, a deviation from the adaptive expectations-oriented lagged term used by the triangle model. NKPC relates inflation to the expected future rate of inflation and real marginal cost. The supply shock term is gone. That is instead absorbed into the error term that the model assumes affects firms' mark-up costs. The NKPC was concerned with the persistence of monetary shocks. The framework of the model sees the interaction

between that kind of persistence combined with rational expectations.

An empirical study of the two models by Roeger and Herz (2004) found that in the triangle model monetary shocks tend to have short-run response with no resulting effect on cumulative output; on the other hand, the NKPC model showed a positive cumulative effect on output. This interpretation of the Phillips curve has been subject to much scrutiny for dismissing the explanatory power of lagged inflation. Rudd and Whelan (2005) said the “failure of the model” was its inability to assess inflationary pressures when it excludes the persistence of past inflation. NKPCs have another problem – improving the fit of a model usually means adding complexities to the model. (Antipin-Luoto, 2008)

Hybrid New Keynesian Phillips curve

The HNKPC (Gali and Gertler, 1999) takes the middle road between the traditional triangle model and the extremity of the NKPC. The model includes two expectations terms: lagged inflation and the expected future rate of inflation, in addition to an unemployment or output gap that represent firms’ marginal costs. Retaining a backward-looking term is logical, since it reconciles the economic realities of inflation stickiness. The persistence of inflation is adaptive expectations at work; people’s outlooks are in part shaped by past events. But if expected future economic behavior can be imbued with a sense of certainty, the expectation becomes purely forward-looking. This has interesting implications for a central bank, implying that it can achieve low inflation without increasing unemployment by changing expectations just through announcements of future monetary policy. (Rudd-Whelan, 2001).

Given current economic conditions, a comparison of the triangle model and the HNKPC is topical.

Methodology

The two single-equation models used were based on Gordon's triangle model and the HNKPC model:

$$\pi_t = \pi_{t-1} + \beta(u_t - u_n) + v_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

$$\pi_t = \pi_{t-1} + E(\pi_{t+1}) + \beta(u_t - u_n) + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

The triangle model in Equation 1 shows inflation as a function of three components: inertia as the lagged inflation variable $infl_{t-1}$; demand-pull inflation represented by the unemployment gap; and the supply shock term v_t for cost-push inflation. Traditional shock components are food and energy costs.

$$infl_t = infl_{t-1} + uegap + food_t + en_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

Note that the HNKPC in Equation 2 drops the supply shock component in favor of the forward-looking term $E(\pi_{t+1})$, the expected value of future inflation.

For this paper, the triangle model is initially estimated as :

$$infl_t = infl_{t-1} + uegap + food_t + en_t + ms_t + com_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (4)$$

During the model-fitting stage for the triangle model, the variables for the inflation rates of medical care services and cost of computers in Equation 4 were added. This writer interprets them as softer supply shocks if health (medical services) and technology consumption (computers) were to be regarded as commodities.

The 2000s experienced 48% rise in inflation while the overall CPI rose 26% in the same period (Commins, 2010). The trend reversed somewhat in the 2010s due

to consumers substituting retail clinics and mobile health options for traditional hospitals; generic medicines; major employers switching to larger healthcare systems to drive down their overall costs; federal penalties against hospital readmissions to eliminate inefficiencies and waste; and high deductibles that encouraged consumers to make more cost-conscious choices (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2013). Factors expected to further inflate medical care costs are the growing cost of newly developed medicines and increased prices in medical care caused by consolidations in the healthcare industry. PwC estimated that mergers among hospitals could see costs spike by 20.3%.

Later the model estimation process, medical care services and computer costs were eventually dropped from the triangle model after showing their lack of statistical significance, leading the final triangle model to be estimated in the form of Equation 5:

$$infl_t = infl_{t-1} + uegap + food_t + en_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (5)$$

The HNKPC assumes central banks can influence inflation by changing expectations of households and firms by telling them what to expect through public announcements. In the case of the Fed, part of its recovery-phase forward guidance policies involve confirming its plans to keep inflation low as long as the unemployment is above the target rate of 6.5% (Federal Reserve, 2014). Equation 6 uses the federal funds rate ($f fr$) in Equation to stand in for $E(infl_{t+1})$.

$$infl_t = infl_{t-1} + f fr_t + uegap + \varepsilon_t \quad (6)$$

Each model will be run for the full period, 1998M12-2014M01 and two sub-periods, 1999M02-2006M12 and 2006M12-2014M01.

Data

Data used for this research were obtained from the FRED database of the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. Inflation, expected rate of inflation, food and energy prices, and medical care and computer prices are the Consumer Price indices: CPIAUCSL (CPI-All Items); CPI energy and food commodities (CPIENGSL and CPIUFDSL); and CPI medical care services, and personal computers and peripherals (CUSR0000SAM2 and CUUR0000SEEE01). The remaining series are in percentages: the effective Federal Funds Rate (FEDFUNDS); civilian unemployment (UNRATE); and the non-accelarating inflation rate of unemployment (NROU).

There is a problem. All but the NAIRU are monthly. In order to compute the unemployment gap (ue_gap), the NAIRU's quarterly frequency needs to be converted to monthly to match the other data series. Values for months in between quarters were generated in Excel until the NAIRU series has 361 values corresponding to the data sets with monthly frequencies. Table 1 outlines this process.

Table 1
NAIRU Frequency Conversion

IMSUB X ✓ fx = $\$B\$2+(1/3)*(\$B\$3-\$E\$2)$					
	A	B	C	D	E
1	DATE	NAIRU		DATE	NAIRU
2	1984-01-01	6.05		1984-01-01	6.05
3	1984-04-01	6.05		1984-02-01	3- $\$E\2
4	1984-07-01	6.04		1984-03-01	6.05
5	1984-10-01	6.03		1984-04-01	6.05
6	1985-01-01	6.03		1984-05-01	6.046667
7	1985-04-01	6.02		1984-06-01	6.043333
8	1985-07-01	6.02		1984-07-01	6.04
9	1985-10-01	6.01		1984-08-01	6.036667
10	1986-01-01	6.00		1984-09-01	6.033333

IMSUB X ✓ fx = $\$B\$2+(2/3)*(\$B\$3-\$E\$2)$					
	A	B	C	D	E
1	DATE	NAIRU		DATE	NAIRU
2	1984-01-01	6.05		1984-01-01	6.05
3	1984-04-01	6.05		1984-02-01	6.05
4	1984-07-01	6.04		1984-03-01	3- $\$E\2
5	1984-10-01	6.03		1984-04-01	6.05
6	1985-01-01	6.03		1984-05-01	6.046667
7	1985-04-01	6.02		1984-06-01	6.043333
8	1985-07-01	6.02		1984-07-01	6.04
9	1985-10-01	6.01		1984-08-01	6.036667
10	1986-01-01	6.00		1984-09-01	6.033333

When plotted over time some of the indices display deterministic trend; others persistence, such as the energy index and the federal funds rate; and cyclicalities are apparent in unemployment and the newly generated unemployment gap ($ue_{gap} = unrate - nairu$). After deseasonalizing and transformation into inflation rates, all variables actually exhibit persistence. The graphs in Table 2 already hint at non-constant means and variances.

Time series data are prone to serial correlation (when a variable is correlated with lagged values of itself) and nonstationarity, when means and variances change over time. When unaddressed, both produce inconsistent Ordinary Least Square (OLS) beta coefficient estimates. First-differencing usually resolves both issues. The models in this paper were corrected using AR(autoregressive) processes in the first order, AR(1). Its inclusion accounts for the direct effect of the most recent past values of the errors on the current value being measured, which is inflation. (Enders, 2009)

Tests used in model-fitting were the Durbin-Watson for serial correlation, Breusch-Godfrey LM test for serial correlation on residuals, Augmented Dickey-Fuller tests for stationarity, and the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey Heteroskedasticity Test for residuals. All were conducted on Eviews 7.

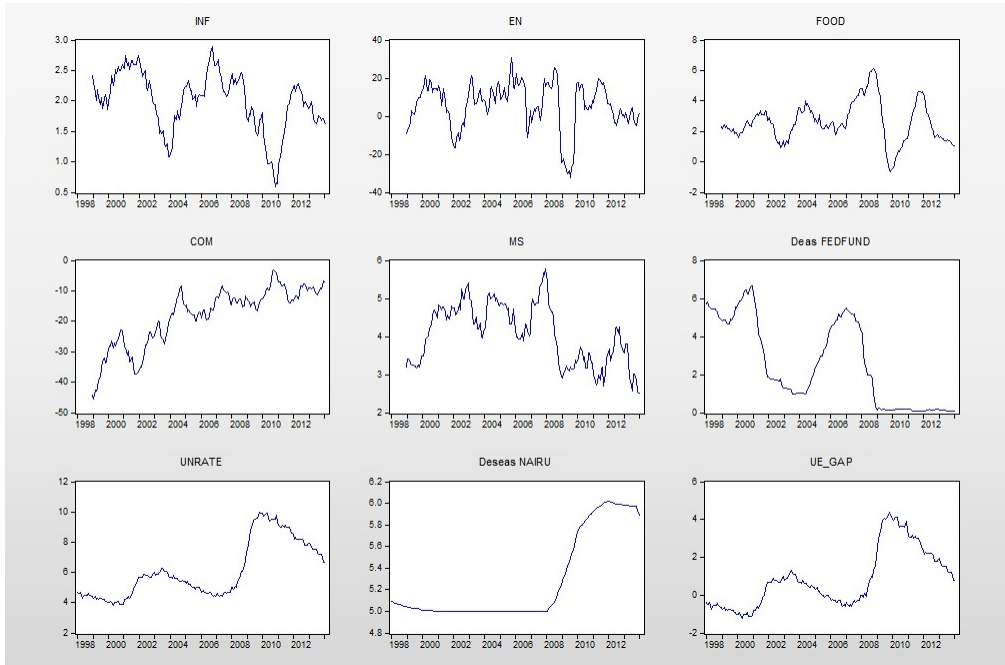


Figure 2. Nonstationarity of variables

Unit root tests for all converted variables signal nonstationarity. Each becomes stationary after taking the first-difference. In the case for the unemployment gap, ue_gap, the series becomes stationary only at the 10% test

critical value after it's first-differenced; it becomes stationary at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels after second-differencing. Recognizing the nonstationarity of variables is particularly important in time series models. They can determine if the estimated models are stationary, cointegrated or spurious ("fake regression"). (Enders, 2009)

If both dependent and independent variables are nonstationary at level but the error is stationary, it can be inferred that there is cointegration among variables. If at level all three are nonstationary, then the model is spurious and first-differencing should be the appropriate correction.

Triangle Model

Table 2
Equation 4, 1998-2014

Dependent Variable: INFL				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 05/10/14 Time: 10:12				
Sample (adjusted): 1998M12 2014M01				
Included observations: 182 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.562195	0.167268	3.361048	0.0010
INF(-1)	0.328039	0.036868	8.897627	0.0000
UE_GAP	-0.041252	0.018115	-2.277301	0.0240
FOOD	0.127456	0.020297	6.279647	0.0000
EN	0.060173	0.003148	19.11274	0.0000
COM	-0.006288	0.002692	-2.335436	0.0207
MS	0.070230	0.029894	2.349293	0.0199
R-squared	0.957350	Mean dependent var	2.371585	
Adjusted R-squared	0.955888	S.D. dependent var	1.231871	
S.E. of regression	0.258727	Akaike info criterion	0.171620	
Sum squared resid	11.71448	Schwarz criterion	0.294851	
Log likelihood	-8.617378	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.221576	
F-statistic	654.7016	Durbin-Watson stat	0.582079	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test				
F-statistic	131.3360	Prob. F(2,173)	0.0000	
Obs*R-squared	109.7300	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.0000	

This paper tested two versions of the triangle model. Gordon's traditional model, Equation 3 was estimated along with the expanded form specified in Equation 4. Considering the effect new technology and high cost of health care, the new variables were expected to have some explanatory power in the estimated regression. Model adjustments proved in the end that the traditional model was more suitable.

1999-2014

A model containing four supply shock variables was estimated. All coefficients in the extended model are highly significant. The output of the model, shown in Table 2, also suffers from serial correlation in its residuals, implying that this model is a spurious regression. The correlogram of the residuals hint that an AR(1) correction is needed.

An AR(1) correction takes care of serial correlation, confirmed by a

Table 3
Equations 4 and 3with AR Correction

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/10/14 Time: 12:38 Sample (adjusted): 1999M02 2006M12 Included observations: 95 after adjustments Convergence achieved after 17 iterations					Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/10/14 Time: 12:46 Sample (adjusted): 1999M02 2006M12 Included observations: 95 after adjustments Convergence achieved after 14 iterations				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.513768	0.492306	3.074854	0.0028	C	1.726462	0.372440	4.635537	0.0000
INFL(-1)	0.021433	0.030900	0.693620	0.4898	INFL(-1)	0.022045	0.030173	0.730622	0.4669
UE_GAP	0.158855	0.103809	1.530271	0.1296	UE_GAP	0.178847	0.098184	1.821545	0.0719
FOOD	0.087309	0.045207	1.931320	0.0567	FOOD	0.087439	0.044795	1.951999	0.0541
EN	0.080363	0.002552	31.48717	0.0000	EN	0.080340	0.002512	31.98614	0.0000
COM	-0.000123	0.007158	-0.017162	0.9863	AR(1)	0.966669	0.027534	35.10871	0.0000
MS	0.046439	0.067477	0.688224	0.4931					
AR(1)	0.965147	0.028485	33.88319	0.0000					
R-squared	0.981412	Mean dependent var	2.663839		R-squared	0.981311	Mean dependent var	2.663839	
Adjusted R-squared	0.979916	S.D. dependent var	0.804073		Adjusted R-squared	0.980261	S.D. dependent var	0.804073	
S.E. of regression	0.113951	Akaike info criterion	-1.425650		S.E. of regression	0.112969	Akaike info criterion	-1.462332	
Sum squared resid	1.129673	Schwarz criterion	-1.210587		Sum squared resid	1.135816	Schwarz criterion	-1.301035	
Log likelihood	75.71839	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.338749		Log likelihood	75.46079	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.397156	
F-statistic	656.2030	Durbin-Watson stat	1.904325		F-statistic	934.6243	Durbin-Watson stat	1.866781	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000				Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:					Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:				
F-statistic	0.576279	Prob. F(2,85)	0.5642		F-statistic	0.907940	Prob. F(2,87)	0.4071	
Obs*R-squared	1.270921	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.5297		Obs*R-squared	1.942316	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.3786	

Breusch-Godfrey LM test on the residuals and the Durbin-Watson test statistic. The higher R^2 values indicates the model fit is improved, and AIC and SIC statistics are smaller. Food and energy are still statistically significant after the correction. Medical care services is weakly significant and computers are insignificant – with a t-statistic of -0.017162. The coefficient sign for the unemployment gap is positive.

The last two supply shock variables are dropped, and the model reverts to Equation 3. The regression of this model finds the residuals serially correlated. After including an AR(1) correction, test statistics in Table 3 shows energy and food as highly significant. The unemployment gap is weakly significant; lagged inflation has the weakest explanatory power.

1999-2006

This particular period saw the United States at the end of an economic expansion, react to the September 11, 2001 attacks, and the build-up of housing and credit bubbles. Job creation was low during the 2000s when “the trillions of dollars that poured into housing investment and consumer spending in the first part of the decade distorted economic activity.” (Irwin, 2013).

Table 4
Equation 3, 1999-2006

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 12:46 Sample (adjusted): 1999M02 2006M12 Included observations: 95 after adjustments Convergence achieved after 14 iterations				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.726462	0.372440	4.635537	0.0000
INFL(-1)	0.022045	0.030173	0.730622	0.4669
UE_GAP	0.178847	0.098184	1.821545	0.0719
FOOD	0.087439	0.044795	1.951999	0.0541
EN	0.080340	0.002512	31.98614	0.0000
AR(1)	0.966669	0.027534	35.10871	0.0000
R-squared	0.981311	Mean dependent var	2.663839	
Adjusted R-squared	0.980261	S.D. dependent var	0.804073	
S.E. of regression	0.112969	Akaike info criterion	-1.462332	
Sum squared resid	1.135816	Schwarz criterion	-1.301035	
Log likelihood	75.46079	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.397156	
F-statistic	934.6243	Durbin-Watson stat	1.866781	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:				
F-statistic	0.907940	Prob. F(2,87)	0.4071	
Obs*R-squared	1.942316	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.3786	

It signalled a stagnation that would define the first decade of the 21st century. Job creation was net-zero the 2000s, and percent change in household net worths was -4%. (Irwin, 2013)

Again, at level the model estimated is spurious and requires an AR(1) correction. Table 4 shows that AR(1) eliminated the serial correlation issue. The coefficients for the two supply shock variables remain significant. The unemployment gap is weakly significant and has a positive sign.

2006-2014

This sub-period was marked by the 2008 Financial Crisis triggered by the sub-prime mortgage market meltdown. The Fed for the first intervened in the market to stabilize the broader economy (Plosser, 2014). Before doing corrections on its obvious serial correlation problem, all coefficients are highly significant. The coefficient sign for the unemployment gap is negative. Lagged inflation, and food and energy are consistency significant. However, an LM test confirms the presence of a unit root in the model's residuals.

Table 5
Equation 3, 2006-2014

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 13:17 Sample: 2006M12 2014M01 Included observations: 86				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.296988	0.098775	13.13067	0.0000
INFL(-1)	0.142140	0.051806	2.743686	0.0075
UE_GAP	-0.115649	0.018224	-6.346098	0.0000
FOOD	0.184571	0.025208	7.321929	0.0000
EN	0.080262	0.004460	17.99528	0.0000
R-squared	0.976184	Mean dependent var	2.067551	
Adjusted R-squared	0.975008	S.D. dependent var	1.521317	
S.E. of regression	0.240502	Akaike info criterion	0.044201	
Sum squared resid	4.685122	Schwarz criterion	0.186895	
Log likelihood	3.099365	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.101629	
F-statistic	830.0310	Durbin-Watson stat	0.330804	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test			
F-statistic	152.5116	Prob. F(2,79)	0.0000
Obs*R-squared	68.30836	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.0000

 Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 13:32 Sample: 2006M12 2014M01 Included observations: 86 Convergence achieved after 17 iterations | | | | || Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
C	1.159157	0.258804	4.478908	0.0000
INFL(-1)	0.014134	0.024763	0.570780	0.5698
UE_GAP	-0.021088	0.058874	-0.357850	0.7214
FOOD	0.212473	0.039791	5.339749	0.0000
EN	0.094680	0.002559	37.00037	0.0000
AR(1)	1.265397	0.117286	10.78897	0.0000
AR(2)	-0.347865	0.115673	-3.007317	0.0035
R-squared	0.995987	Mean dependent var	2.067551	
Adjusted R-squared	0.995682	S.D. dependent var	1.521317	
S.E. of regression	0.099963	Akaike info criterion	-1.690140	
Sum squared resid	0.789417	Schwarz criterion	-1.490367	
Log likelihood	79.67600	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.609740	
F-statistic	3267.994	Durbin-Watson stat	1.994651	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test				
Obs*R-squared	3.336722	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.1886	

Before doing corrections on its obvious serial correlation problem, all coefficients are highly significant. However, an LM test confirms the presence of a unit root in the model's residuals. Table 5 shows that the model becomes stable after AR(1) and AR(2) corrections. Food and energy costs are the only statistically significant variables in the model.

Forecast results

In-sample results for the forecast period 2013M11 to 2014M01 are compared with inflation figures reported by inflationdata.com, an online publication specializing in inflation analysis. Those values are the INF_BLS columns in Table 6. The predicted inflation rates for 2013M11 through 2014M1 using models for sub-periods 1999M02-2006M12 and 2006M12-2014M01 were close to one another in values.

Table 6
Triangle Model Inflation Forecasts

Forecast results: 1998-2006				Forecast results: 2006-2014			
INFLFF				INF_BLS			
2012M06	1.672278			2012M06	1.7		
2012M07	1.497088			2012M07	1.4		
2012M08	1.709721			2012M08	1.7		
2012M09	1.837447			2012M09	2.0		
2012M10	2.098441			2012M10	2.2		
2012M11	1.858522			2012M11	1.8		
2012M12	1.741663			2012M12	1.7		
2013M01	1.587370			2013M01	1.6		
2013M02	1.946744			2013M02	2.0		
2013M03	1.612732			2013M03	1.5		
2013M04	1.164555			2013M04	1.1		
2013M05	1.335387			2013M05	1.4		
2013M06	1.758769			2013M06	1.8		
2013M07	1.890847			2013M07	2.0		
2013M08	1.550108			2013M08	1.5		
2013M09	1.183075			2013M09	1.2		
2013M10	0.952218			2013M10	1.0		
2013M11	1.126020			2013M11	1.2		
2013M12	1.499895			2013M12	1.5		
2014M01	1.648300			2014M01	1.6		

INFLF2				INF_BLS			
2012M06	1.722120			2012M06	1.7		
2012M07	1.558816			2012M07	1.4		
2012M08	1.740913			2012M08	1.7		
2012M09	1.808211			2012M09	2.0		
2012M10	2.108041			2012M10	2.2		
2012M11	1.897962			2012M11	1.8		
2012M12	1.817142			2012M12	1.7		
2013M01	1.644315			2013M01	1.6		
2013M02	1.794781			2013M02	2.0		
2013M03	1.606690			2013M03	1.5		
2013M04	1.271749			2013M04	1.1		
2013M05	1.383873			2013M05	1.4		
2013M06	1.741943			2013M06	1.8		
2013M07	1.858930			2013M07	2.0		
2013M08	1.547835			2013M08	1.5		
2013M09	1.248412			2013M09	1.2		
2013M10	1.013342			2013M10	1.0		
2013M11	1.120559			2013M11	1.2		
2013M12	1.429034			2013M12	1.5		
2014M01	1.625300			2014M01	1.6		

HNKPC

Among the challenges of estimating the HNKPC is finding a suitable proxy for the forward-looking term (Gordon, 2009).

This paper uses the effective federal funds rate as a proxy. Under the rationale that it is the interest rate for banks to borrow federal funds to maintain their reserve ratio, then it can be used as a benchmark for short-term interest rates. A bank won't charge interest rates for borrowers at a rate lower than what they pay to borrow funds. Depository institutions are required to hold reserve assets equal to a proportion of each dollar of deposit liabilities, in order to provide adequate liquidity on hand to meet customers' withdrawal requests. Currently, the Fed pays 0.25% interest on required reserve balances, and 0.25% interest on excess reserves. (Federal Reserve, 2014)

The Fed's three waves of Quantitative Easing, in which they purchased financial assets from banks, resulted in excess reserves. Circulation of this easy money sparked fears of higher price levels and inflation. By paying interest on excess reserves – funds available for lending – the Fed is compensating depositories for the opportunity cost of investing those excess funds for a higher interest return. The Fed was already expected to begin paying interest on reserves after Congress

Table 7
Augmented Dickey Fuller Tests

<p>Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Test on INFL</p> <p>Null Hypothesis: INFL has a unit root Exogenous: Constant Lag Length: 1 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=11)</p> <table> <tr> <th></th><th>t-Statistic</th><th>Prob.*</th></tr> <tr> <td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td><td>-3.092516</td><td>0.0308</td></tr> <tr> <td>Test critical values:</td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>1% level</td><td>-3.508326</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>5% level</td><td>-2.895512</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>10% level</td><td>-2.584952</td><td></td></tr> </table>		t-Statistic	Prob.*	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-3.092516	0.0308	Test critical values:			1% level	-3.508326		5% level	-2.895512		10% level	-2.584952		<p>Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Test on FFR</p> <p>Null Hypothesis: FFR has a unit root Exogenous: Constant Lag Length: 8 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=11)</p> <table> <tr> <th></th><th>t-Statistic</th><th>Prob.*</th></tr> <tr> <td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td><td>-3.487745</td><td>0.0106</td></tr> <tr> <td>Test critical values:</td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>1% level</td><td>-3.508326</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>5% level</td><td>-2.895512</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>10% level</td><td>-2.584952</td><td></td></tr> </table>		t-Statistic	Prob.*	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-3.487745	0.0106	Test critical values:			1% level	-3.508326		5% level	-2.895512		10% level	-2.584952		<p>Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Test on UE_GAP</p> <p>Null Hypothesis: UE_GAP has a unit root Exogenous: Constant Lag Length: 5 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=11)</p> <table> <tr> <th></th><th>t-Statistic</th><th>Prob.*</th></tr> <tr> <td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td><td>-2.153039</td><td>0.2250</td></tr> <tr> <td>Test critical values:</td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>1% level</td><td>-3.508326</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>5% level</td><td>-2.895512</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>10% level</td><td>-2.584952</td><td></td></tr> </table>		t-Statistic	Prob.*	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-2.153039	0.2250	Test critical values:			1% level	-3.508326		5% level	-2.895512		10% level	-2.584952	
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approved the Financial Services Regulatory Relief Act in 2006. It authorized the Fed to pay interest on required reserve balances and excess reserves held by depositories starting October 2012. At the time, the idea of paying interest on required reserves was envisioned as a way to increase the flow of credit to borrowers by eliminating the opportunity cost depositories face in holding funds that can't earn interest. The FSRRA's implementation date moved up to October 2008 by the Emergency Economic Stabilization Act to October 2008, in response to the subprime mortgage crisis. It allowed the U.S. Treasury to spend up to \$700 billion to purchase illiquid assets like mortgage-backed securities and supply liquidity to banks. "By affecting the public's expectations about the future path of policy, this forward guidance can impact the current economy." (Plosser, 2014)

In this paper, the HNKPC takes the form specified by Equation 6. It's important to remember the nonstationarity of the dependent and independent variables.

Based on shapes of the graphs in Figure 2 and Augmented Dickey-Fuller test results in Table 7 for *infl*, *uegap* and the expected future rate of inflation *ffr*, the dependent and independent variables are not stationary at level. *Infl* and *ffr* are only stationary at the 10% and 5% critical level, but not at the 1% level. The variables become stationary after taking the first difference. The error is also

nonstationary, indicating that the regression is spurious at level.

1999-2014

Table 8

Equation 5, 1998-2014

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/10/14 Time: 09:48 Sample (adjusted): 1998M12 2014M01 Included observations: 182 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.091307	0.142487	0.640809	0.5225
INF(-1)	0.880025	0.031148	28.25270	0.0000
UE_GAP	0.034469	0.038236	0.901472	0.3686
FFR	0.055561	0.030279	1.834967	0.0682
R-squared	0.861496	Mean dependent var	2.371585	
Adjusted R-squared	0.859162	S.D. dependent var	1.231871	
S.E. of regression	0.462302	Akaike info criterion	1.316536	
Sum squared resid	38.04270	Schwarz criterion	1.386953	
Log likelihood	-115.8047	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.345082	
F-statistic	369.0537	Durbin-Watson stat	1.151778	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/10/14 Time: 09:45 Sample (adjusted): 1999M01 2014M01 Included observations: 181 after adjustments Convergence achieved after 13 iterations				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.666932	0.531522	1.254758	0.2112
INF(-1)	0.626194	0.230325	2.718745	0.0072
UE_GAP	-0.016976	0.089558	-0.189558	0.8499
FFR	0.098035	0.090150	1.087472	0.2783
AR(1)	0.655113	0.234427	2.794527	0.0058
R-squared	0.891334	Mean dependent var	2.375880	
Adjusted R-squared	0.888864	S.D. dependent var	1.233920	
S.E. of regression	0.411352	Akaike info criterion	1.088502	
Sum squared resid	29.78108	Schwarz criterion	1.176858	
Log likelihood	-93.50942	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.124323	
F-statistic	360.9105	Durbin-Watson stat	1.843325	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

The HNKPC model is weak when used for the entire span of selected data.

Table 8 shows the coefficient for ffr lacks explanatory power both before and after the model is corrected for serial correlation, after the error becomes stationary after applying AR(1). The unemployment gap is weakly significant, and lagged inflation is statistically insignificant.

This makes intuitive sense. The theory behind the model relies on the power of central bank policy, which is most influential when authorities explicitly confirm short-term stabilization plans to the public.

Model weakness before 2006

The results are the same when a sample size of the model is adjusted for 1999-2006. The ffr coefficient is not significant, and the residuals are serially correlated. After adding the AR(1) for correction, the model still fails to show that ffr is significant. It can be concluded that the hybrid New Keynesian model for inflation is weak in a period absent of explicit forward guidance.

Table 9
Equation 6, 1998-2014

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 09:55 Sample (adjusted): 1998M12 2006M11 Included observations: 96 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.503878	0.283575	1.776881	0.0789
INF(-1)	0.816776	0.054219	15.06443	0.0000
UE_GAP	-0.106808	0.208486	-0.512302	0.6097
FFR	-0.014247	0.083144	-0.171351	0.8643
R-squared	0.773530	Mean dependent var	2.643949	
Adjusted R-squared	0.766146	S.D. dependent var	0.813524	
S.E. of regression	0.393408	Akaike info criterion	1.012834	
Sum squared resid	14.23882	Schwarz criterion	1.119682	
Log likelihood	-44.61603	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.056024	
F-statistic	104.7452	Durbin-Watson stat	1.490087	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 09:59 Sample (adjusted): 1999M01 2006M11 Included observations: 95 after adjustments Convergence achieved after 13 iterations				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.734148	0.767149	0.956982	0.3411
INF(-1)	0.440030	0.282403	1.558163	0.1227
UE_GAP	0.296554	0.323829	0.915773	0.3622
FFR	0.218451	0.135602	1.610970	0.1107
AR(1)	0.635713	0.252258	2.520094	0.0135
R-squared	0.795242	Mean dependent var	2.654999	
Adjusted R-squared	0.786141	S.D. dependent var	0.810564	
S.E. of regression	0.374844	Akaike info criterion	0.926584	
Sum squared resid	12.64574	Schwarz criterion	1.060998	
Log likelihood	-39.01272	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.980897	
F-statistic	87.38559	Durbin-Watson stat	1.732313	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test				
F-statistic	12.00287	Prob. F(2,90)	0.0000	
Obs*R-squared	20.21434	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.0000	

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test				
F-statistic	0.514600	Prob. F(2,89)	0.5995	
Obs*R-squared	1.097282	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.5777	

“Even if policymakers choose not to be so explicit, the actions a central bank takes over time can enhance the public’s understanding of how the institution is likely to set policy. This helps make the central bank’s policy choices at least somewhat predictable.” (Plosser, 2014) If reputation through action is the best signal for the broader economy, then there is a risk the public may not completely comprehend the signal a central bank is trying to send. In a way, Plosser saw this as the Fed’s “communication problem.”

2006-2014

The story changes in the sub-period 2006-2014, when the U.S. economy dealt with the consequences of the housing and credit bubbles and coped through the post-Financial Crisis recovery period.

Testing the model in this time frame allowed it to capture both the endogeneity of inflation persistence and forward-looking expectations. These particular features have been credited by Antipin and Luoto (2008) for good forecasting performance in their own studies of univariate and multivariate VAR

Table 10
Equation 6, 1999-2006

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 09:55 Sample (adjusted): 1998M12 2006M11 Included observations: 96 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.503878	0.283575	1.776881	0.0789
INF(-1)	0.816776	0.054219	15.06443	0.0000
UE_GAP	-0.106808	0.208486	-0.512302	0.6097
FFR	-0.014247	0.083144	-0.171351	0.8643
R-squared	0.773530	Mean dependent var	2.643949	
Adjusted R-squared	0.766146	S.D. dependent var	0.813524	
S.E. of regression	0.393408	Akaike info criterion	1.012834	
Sum squared resid	14.23882	Schwarz criterion	1.119682	
Log likelihood	-44.61603	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.056024	
F-statistic	104.7452	Durbin-Watson stat	1.490087	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/22/14 Time: 09:59 Sample (adjusted): 1999M01 2006M11 Included observations: 95 after adjustments Convergence achieved after 13 iterations				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.734148	0.767149	0.956982	0.3411
INF(-1)	0.440030	0.282403	1.558163	0.1227
UE_GAP	0.296554	0.323829	0.915773	0.3622
FFR	0.218451	0.135602	1.610970	0.1107
AR(1)	0.635713	0.252258	2.520094	0.0135
R-squared	0.795242	Mean dependent var	2.654999	
Adjusted R-squared	0.786141	S.D. dependent var	0.810564	
S.E. of regression	0.374844	Akaike info criterion	0.926584	
Sum squared resid	12.64574	Schwarz criterion	1.060998	
Log likelihood	-39.01272	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.980897	
F-statistic	87.38559	Durbin-Watson stat	1.732313	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test				
F-statistic	12.00287	Prob. F(2,90)	0.0000	
Obs*R-squared	20.21434	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.0000	

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test				
F-statistic	0.514600	Prob. F(2,89)	0.5995	
Obs*R-squared	1.097282	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.5777	

forecasting models.

Restoring and preserving stability in the markets has been the primary goal of the Fed. By clearly communicating its policies and the time frame in which it is expected to operate has been crucial to recovery efforts. It's an attempt to moderate the uncertainties inherent in speculation. Muth's (1961) paper contemplated the quantitative properties of well-informed expectations of price: the reduction of price variances when its effect as a market disturbance is spread out over several time periods, "thereby allowing shocks partially to cancel one another out. Speculation is profitable, although no speculative opportunities remain. These propositions might appear obvious."

Table 11 coefficients for lagged inflation and federal funds rate are statistically significant. In the case of the latter, this is notable since it lacked explanatory power when the same model is used for the entire span of the data series. Lagged inflation and ffr are highly significant while the unemployment gap is not. However, the model's Durbin Watson statistic of 0.999934 indicates that there is positive serial correlation.

Table 11
Equation 6, 2006-2014

Dependent Variable: INFL				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 05/10/14 Time: 17:18				
Sample: 2006M12 2014M01				
Included observations: 86				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-0.185599	0.256046	-0.724867	0.4706
INFL(-1)	0.929841	0.043937	21.16282	0.0000
UE_GAP	0.079524	0.062708	1.268162	0.2083
FFR	0.118269	0.056328	2.099638	0.0388
R-squared	0.879582	Mean dependent var		2.067551
Adjusted R-squared	0.875176	S.D. dependent var		1.521317
S.E. of regression	0.537488	Akaike info criterion		1.641574
Sum squared resid	23.68925	Schwarz criterion		1.755730
Log likelihood	-66.58770	Hannan-Quinn criter.		1.687517
F-statistic	199.6530	Durbin-Watson stat		0.999934
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

To correct this, the AR(1) term is added. The new D-W statistic of 1.797173 places it within the acceptable range of “no serial correlation.” An ADF test on the residuals also rejects the null that there is a unit root.

In this revised output, lagged inflation and the federal funds rate are highly significant, while the unemployment gap is not. This model seems to support the argument underlying hybrid NKPC literature that future expectations of inflation can be influenced by a central bank authority.

It should be noted that the Fed’s forward guidance policy is built around explicit announcements to the public that inflation will remain low as it continues to extend its stabilizing policies. Chief among these policies is the decision to keep the federal funds rate at 0.25%.

Within the context of this model, the federal funds rate is meant to represent future expectations because of how it influences short-term rates. A good time series model will display no serial correlation, no heteroskedacity and normal distribution of its residuals. The ADF test above points to the absence of a unit root.

Table 12 also shows an LM test confirming the absence of serial correlation in the residuals. The Obs R^2 of 4.60 and its p-value of 0.09 – more than the 0.05

Table 12
Equation 6 with AR, 2006-2014

Dependent Variable: INFL Method: Least Squares Date: 05/10/14 Time: 17:30 Sample: 2006M12 2014M01 Included observations: 86 Convergence achieved after 21 iterations				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.334653	1.119389	1.192306	0.2366
INFL(-1)	0.441876	0.101109	4.370297	0.0000
UE_GAP	-0.184649	0.247129	-0.747177	0.4571
FFR	0.750175	0.323417	2.319531	0.0229
AR(1)	0.929288	0.036892	25.18963	0.0000
R-squared	0.916273	Mean dependent var	2.067551	
Adjusted R-squared	0.912139	S.D. dependent var	1.521317	
S.E. of regression	0.450940	Akaike info criterion	1.301416	
Sum squared resid	16.47110	Schwarz criterion	1.444111	
Log likelihood	-50.96091	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.358844	
F-statistic	221.6081	Durbin-Watson stat	1.797173	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test			
F-statistic	2.236283	Prob. F(2,79)	0.1136
Obs*R-squared	4.607988	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.0999

Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey			
F-statistic	0.752702	Prob. F(3,82)	0.5239
Obs*R-squared	2.304790	Prob. Chi-Square(3)	0.5116
Scaled explained SS	4.703787	Prob. Chi-Square(3)	0.1948

p-value needed to reject the null – also confirms that there is no serial correlation. Residuals are also homoskedastic. The Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test statistic of 2.30 and p-value of 0.5116 cannot reject the null hypothesis that residuals are heteroskedastic. The results of this model are also consistent with the findings of Gali et al (2001) that the forward-looking term in HNKPC models are typically large and highly significant.

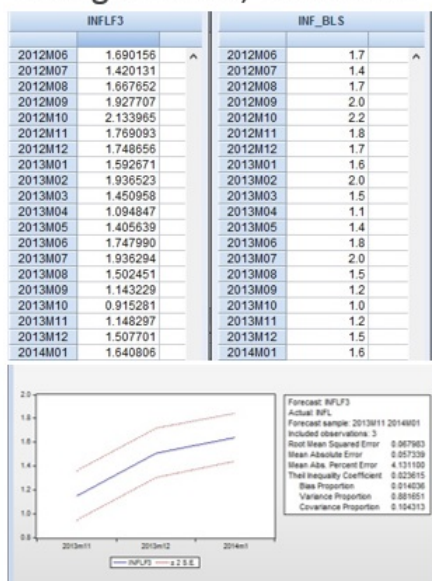
Forecast results

Forecast results for the HNKPC are close to those of the triangle model in the same sub-period 2006-2014. Neither model are deviate far from the inflation figures derived by <http://inflationdata.com> from BLS data.

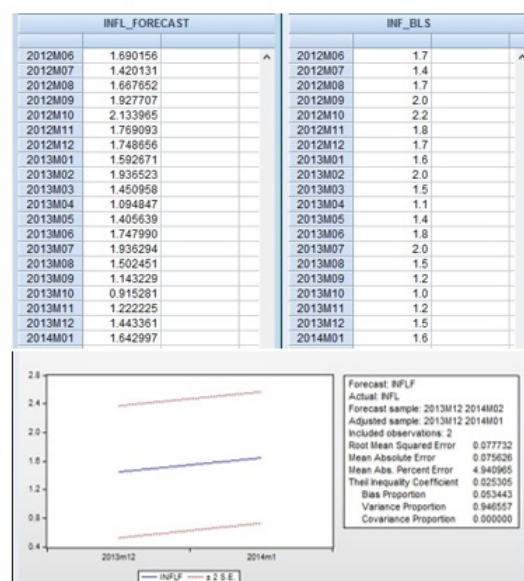
Table 13

Forecast Results: Triangle Model vs. Hybrid NKPC

Triangle model, 2006-2014



Hybrid NKPC, 2006-2014



Conclusion

The outcome of the regression models estimated confirm two things: the triangle model isn't passe, and the HNKPC holds as long as the period under which it is tested is nested in an economic environment of forward guidance.

In the 3-period in-sample forecast, the HNKPC performed better for 2013M11. Its 2014M1 forecast is quite close to the triangle model forecast; forecasts by the two models were nearly on point. The HNKPC is more applicable in times of explicit forward guidance by central banks reflects Gali and Gertler's (1999) assertion that a household and firm's outlook on marginal costs is an important determinant of inflation. That outlook is influenced by lagged term, but the greater explanatory power lies with the forward-looking term. It comes with the caveat that the policy designed to shape future expectations must be as credible as the authorities implementing it. The HNKPC's weakness before 2006 shouldn't be interpreted as a period lacking Fed credibility, but rather the absence of a signal

that specifically informs the market of future inflationary behavior. The Fed at the time was not as deeply immersed in stabilizing the markets as it is today.

The triangle model was robust in all periods. This won't come as a surprise for Gordon (2009), stating that the persistence of inflation has been a feature of post-World War II economy in the United States and is therefore hard to ignore. Although the proxy variable for the forward-looking term showed the credibility of a central bank can influence expectations, the literature on HNKPC isn't united in how to best represent future expectations. That may be part of the reason why the model is prone to over-complication.

The “two approaches need to pay more attention to each other and to engage in a dialogue about which models apply to which episodes, and what factors would motivate a shift in relevance between the alternative models.” (Gordon, 2009) The triangle model still appears to be relevant. The superiority of one model over the other is difficult to prove. The approach to estimating either form of the Phillips curve seems contingent on the context of the period under examination.

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