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## Inflation Targeting and Inflation Persistence in Asia

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# Inflation Targeting and Inflation Persistence in Asia<sup>1</sup>

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**Abstract:** Following the Asian Financial Crisis in 1997-98, a number of regional central banks have adopted inflation targeting. We explore how successful this framework has been by looking at the persistence of inflation as measured by the sum of the coefficients in an autoregressive model for inflation using Hansen's (1999) median unbiased estimator. In contrast to non-Asian economies, we find that persistence has not declined in recent years. We hypothesise that could reflect the continued importance of the exchange rate in monetary policy in Asia or the large weight attached to food in Asian consumer prices.

**JEL codes:** C22, E31, E5

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# 1 Introduction

Asian economies have historically experienced relatively low and stable inflation rates (Gerlach et al. 2009). Nevertheless, in recent years a number of Asian central banks have adopted monetary policy frameworks involving explicit inflation targeting (Filardo and Genberg 2009). This policy choice reflects the same consideration that led to the introduction of inflation targeting (IT) in a number of advanced economies, including Sweden and the United Kingdom: the need to introduce a new anchor for monetary policy following the abandonment of an earlier fixed exchange rate regime. Thus, after the Asian financial crisis in 1997-98, Korea introduced IT in 1998, Indonesia and Thailand in 2000, and Philippines in 2002 (Ito and Hayashi 2004).

In this paper we explore how successful these policy choices have been, looking at data from economies with and without IT in Asian and elsewhere. It seems natural to judge success by computing the average inflation rate since the adoption of the inflation target. However, it is possible for the average inflation rate to be close to target, but inflation may nevertheless have deviated from it by large amounts for extended periods of time. It therefore seems appropriate to (also) judge success by studying how persistent shocks to inflation have been. In fact, a number of authors have argued that a crucial change in the inflation process in a number of countries in recent years is the reduced persistence of movements in inflation, and have suggested that this is due to the greater focus on inflation stabilization by monetary policy makers across the world (Pagan 2003 and Levin and Piger 2006).

Before proceeding, we emphasise that while IT typically has involved an increase in the weight attached to stabilising inflation in the countries that have adopted it, *any* monetary policy strategy that attaches primary importance to price stability is likely to lead to low level of inflation persistence. Monetary policy makers in both Japan and Singapore (and, outside Asia, in the euro area and in Switzerland) have established long track records of tight inflation control and might therefore not have felt it necessary to adopt IT, yet conduct policy in much the same way as policy makers using explicit IT.

The paper is organised as follows. Section two briefly reviews the literature on the role of IT for inflation persistence in mature and emerging economies. Section three presents an illustrative model useful for gauging the effect of IT on the inflation process. Our preferred measure of inflation persistence is introduced in Section four,

while Section five discusses the results from full-sample as well as rolling-window estimation. Finally, Section six offers some tentative conclusions and suggestions for future research.

## 2 Inflation targeting and inflation persistence

The fall in inflation persistence over the last two decades in major industrial countries is now well documented. Levin and Piger (2006) assess inflation persistence for major industrial economies and find that, conditional on a change in the mean (potentially reflecting a change in monetary policy makers's objectives), inflation is much less persistent than previously thought. Less supportive evidence for a reduction in inflation persistence is provided by Cecchetti and Debelle (2006). They stress that the principal change in the inflation process in the past two decades has been the decline in the mean, not a significant change in persistence. Levin, Natalucci, and Piger (2004) argue that the adoption of IT lowered the degree of inflation persistence in major industrial countries.<sup>2</sup> For the aggregate euro area, however, the results are ambiguous. The widely cited study of O'Reilly and Whelan (2005a) finds no change in inflation persistence over the sample period, while Tillmann (2008) provides evidence in favor of a less persistent inflation since 1999.

The empirical impact of regime changes on inflation persistence is studied in Benati (2008). He estimates a small-scale New-Keynesian model for major industrial countries over various subperiods using Bayesian methods. His main result is that the degree of intrinsic inflation persistence, i.e. the coefficient of lagged inflation within a hybrid Phillips curve, drops significantly towards zero once a credible new monetary regime is in place.

IT is also believed to lower the level of inflation and its variance in emerging market countries, see Amato and Gerlach (2002), Vega and Winkelried (2005), and Goncalves and Salles (2008).<sup>3</sup> None of these studies focuses on inflation persistence. Siklos (2008), in contrast, estimates an first-order autoregressive (AR(1)) process for inflation for a set of emerging market countries and includes a dummy variable

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<sup>2</sup>This finding is compatible with the theoretical analysis in Svensson (1997) who finds that under IT, inflation equals the targeted rate plus random shocks that occur between the time the interest rate is set and the impact on inflation. This implies that shocks to inflation are transient.

<sup>3</sup>Recently, Brito and Bystedt (2010) find that IT has no effect on on the level and the variance of inflation in emerging countries.

indicating the adoption of IT. He finds that IT reduces inflation persistence only in a handful of emerging economies.<sup>4</sup> Recently, Filardo and Genberg (2009) survey the experience with IT in Asia and the Pacific. They also analyze the development of inflation persistence, measured again as the AR(1) coefficient for inflation, and find a drop in persistence only for Korea, New Zealand, and Australia. In other countries, most notably IT countries such as Thailand, the Philippines, and Indonesia, persistence increases.

Beyond studying data for a set of economies that have previously received little attention, this paper is of interest for two reasons. First, it measures inflation persistence by the sum of the coefficients in an autoregressive representation of the inflation process using the median unbiased estimator developed by Hansen (1999). Thus far the literature on inflation persistence in emerging market countries mostly relies on estimates of the AR(1) coefficient. Second, it provides a time-varying measure of persistence obtained from rolling-window estimates. This allows us to assess the dynamics of inflation persistence over time. This has not been done for emerging market countries. Finally, we explicitly allow for structural breaks in the mean of the inflation series. Neglecting these breaks is known to bias the estimates of the AR parameters.

### 3 A simple interpretive model

To interpret the results from the econometric analysis below, it is useful to first consider a simple model for inflation. We assume that inflation,  $\pi_t$ , consists of a permanent part,  $\bar{\pi}_t$ , which obeys a random walk, and a temporary inflation shock,  $v_t \sim N(0, \sigma_v^2)$ . Formally, we have that:

$$\pi_t = \bar{\pi}_t + v_t \tag{1}$$

with

$$\bar{\pi}_t = \bar{\pi}_{t-1} + \eta_t \tag{2}$$

and  $\eta_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\eta^2)$ .

One may think of the random walk component as being inversely related to the central bank's control of inflation. Thus, a central bank that responds strongly to

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<sup>4</sup>In a case study of Korea, Kim and Park (2006) also find inconclusive evidence on the change in inflation persistence.

offset that would otherwise induce long-lasting movements in  $\pi_t$  reduces the variance of the innovations to the permanent shock,  $\sigma_\eta^2$ .

To proceed, suppose we estimate a first-order autoregressive model for inflation:

$$\pi_t = \rho\pi_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

We can then show that the estimate of the autoregressive parameter,  $\hat{\rho}$ , is given by:

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{(N-1)\sigma_\eta^2}{(N-1)\sigma_\eta^2 + \sigma_v^2} \quad (4)$$

where  $N$  denotes the sample length. Note that  $\hat{\rho}$  is bounded by zero and unity. In any finite sample,  $\hat{\rho}$  can be thought of as a measure of the relative importance of permanent,  $\eta_t$ , to temporary,  $v_t$ , shocks to inflation. Thus, in economies in which permanent shocks to inflation dominate,  $\hat{\rho}$  will be relatively high. As argued above, under IT (or any other monetary policy strategy in which the central bank moves interest rates aggressively to offset shocks to inflation),  $\sigma_\eta^2$  and therefore  $\hat{\rho}$  should both be relatively small.

## 4 Measuring inflation persistence

The above model is highly stylized and too simple to take to the data. Following O'Reilly and Whelan (2005a) and Levin and Piger (2006), among others, our preferred measure of persistence is the sum of the autoregressive coefficients in a univariate process of inflation. Let  $\alpha$  be an intercept term and  $\varepsilon_t$  a serially uncorrelated shock. We can then generalise (3) to an AR( $q$ ) process for inflation

$$\pi_t = \alpha + \sum_{k=1}^q \beta_k \pi_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t \quad (5)$$

The sum of autoregressive coefficients is  $\rho = \sum_{k=1}^q \beta_k$ . According to Andrews and Chen (1994),  $\rho$  is the best scalar measure of persistence in  $\pi_t$ , since a monotonic relationship exists between  $\rho$  and the cumulative impulse response function of  $\pi_{t+j}$  to  $\varepsilon_t$ . Rewrite expression (5) as

$$\pi_t = \alpha + \rho\pi_{t-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{q-1} \gamma_k \Delta\pi_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t \quad (6)$$

where  $\Delta\pi_t = \pi_t - \pi_{t-1}$ . If  $\rho = 1$ , the inflation process contains a unit root. If, by contrast,  $|\rho| < 1$ , the process is stationary. In the empirical application below, the appropriate lag length  $q \leq q^{\max}$  is chosen according to the Akaike information criterion (AIC) with a maximum lag length of  $q^{\max} = 4$  (quarters).

Estimates of  $\rho$  obtained from least squares estimation suffer from a bias as  $\rho$  approaches unity. Furthermore, confidence bands based on a normally distributed  $\rho$  do not have the correct coverage. Therefore, we follow the literature and resort to Hansen's (1999) median unbiased estimator of  $\rho$ . His grid bootstrap approach is used to construct confidence bands for  $\rho$  with correct coverage. The bootstrap calculations are based on 999 draws and 101 grid points over a range spanned by the sample persistence surrounded by four OLS standard errors.

The presence of structural breaks in the mean of the inflation process can bias the estimates of persistence upwards. To account for this bias we include an appropriate dummy variable  $d_t$  in the regression equation, which is unity in  $t \geq s$ , where  $s$  is the break date, and zero elsewhere

$$\pi_t = \alpha + \delta d_t + \rho\pi_{t-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{q-1} \gamma_k \Delta\pi_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t \quad (7)$$

To locate the break date, we utilize the test provided by Andrews and Ploberger (1994).

We search for a structural break in the inflation process using a sequential  $F$ -test, i.e. the Andrews-Quandt maximum test statistic ( $SupF$ ). Andrews and Chen (1996) and O'Reilly and Whelan (2005b) show that the size distortion of this statistic is substantial at high levels of persistence, in particular for tests of a break in the intercept term. Therefore, we cannot rely on the asymptotic critical values provided by Andrews (1993). Here we perform a bootstrap and estimate an AR(1) model by OLS, draw residuals and generate, based on the estimated coefficients, a set of  $N$  artificial series. For each of these generated series, we perform the break test. The  $\alpha$ -th percentile of the resulting distribution is used as the  $1 - \alpha$  percent critical value.

## 5 Results

In this paper we use quarterly inflation rates, measures as the yearly change of the Consumer Price Index (CPI) in percentage points. The data spans the period 1985:1 to 2009:2 and is taken from the IMF's International Financial Statistics database.

We study Indonesia, Korea, the Philippines and Thailand, which all conduct monetary policy using IT.<sup>5</sup> We also present estimates for Japan, Malaysia and Singapore that do not have IT regimes but nevertheless gear monetary policy to price stability. Japan and Singapore have operated with a managed float and have maintained low and stable inflation since the early 1980s. With solid low-inflation credentials, neither economy has felt a need to adopt IT. Malaysia fixed the ringgit to the US dollar during the Asian financial crisis and only abandoned the peg in 2005 following the Chinese authorities' introduction of increased exchange rate flexibility for the renminbi. Monetary policy in Malaysia is now best described as following an eclectic strategy, but with considerable weight attached to inflation outcomes.

We also study data from Hong Kong SAR, which has operated monetary policy with a currency board since 1983. While this arrangement was intended to provide Hong Kong with a firm monetary anchor following an decade of high and volatile inflation after the introduction of floating exchange rates in the early 1970s, such arrangements generate pronounced swings in inflation in response to shocks to equilibrium real exchange rates.<sup>6</sup> Given the exchange rate regime, it thus seems likely that shocks to inflation are more persistent in Hong Kong than elsewhere.

The set of countries in the Asia-Pacific region is completed by Australia and New Zealand. While New Zealand was the first country to adopt IT in 1990, Australia followed shortly afterwards in 1993. We also present estimates for a number of non-Asian economies that conduct monetary policy with IT. This group includes both emerging (Chile, Israel and South Africa) and advanced economies (Norway, Canada, Sweden and the UK).

The inflation series are depicted in Figures ?? to 2. As a consequence of the Asian financial crisis in 1997-98, inflation rates rose sharply in Indonesia, Korea and Thailand, which introduced IT in response, and in Malaysia, which fixed the exchange rate. The figures also show that in many countries inflation rose sharply in 2007 in response to rising oil and food prices.

Table 1 offers some descriptive statistics about the properties of inflation in these countries and warrants two comments. First, inflation has typically been lower and less volatile in the last decade than previously, suggesting that central banks have

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<sup>5</sup>The Bank of Thailand targets core inflation, defined as inflation excluding fresh food and energy prices. However, to the extent that the deviation between core and headline inflation is temporary, this distinction would seem to be of little importance for the question at hand.

<sup>6</sup>See this discussion in Gerlach and Gerlach-Kristen (2006).



attached greater importance to price stability in setting monetary policy. Second, the importance of this shift seems independent of whether monetary policy is conducted using IT.

## 5.1 Before and after 1997

In this section we contrast inflation persistence in Asian economies before and after the Asian Financial Crisis in 1997-98 which led several Asian economies to adopt IT. This comparison is made difficult by the fact that the crisis in many cases led to a sharp increase in inflation. In order to account for this turbulent period we compare persistence in a pre-1997:2 sample with persistence in a post-2000:1 sample. However, this latter period is also disturbed by a sharp run-up in inflation in 2007, following large shocks to oil and, arguably more important for the economies studied here, food prices. We therefore report results both for the time period 2000:1-2007:2 and for 2000:1-2009:2.

The baseline findings are reported in Table 2. Interestingly, the estimates do not point to a generalised reduction in inflation persistence: it declines somewhat in Korea and the Philippines, remains broadly unchanged in Indonesia and increases in Thailand (although not significantly so). In Australia and New Zealand, by contrast, inflation persistence drops from high levels before 1997 to much lower levels. In most cases persistence is even lower if the last two years of the sample period are included in the estimation. Turning to the Asian comparison group, see Table 3, persistence declines in Malaysia and Singapore, remains essentially unchanged in Japan but increases in Hong Kong. Indeed, Hong Kong displays the greatest level of persistent, which is perhaps not surprising given its monetary policy regime. In the non-Asian reference countries, inflation persistence broadly falls as shown in Table 4.

It is well known that the presence of structural breaks in mean inflation can lead to an overestimate of the degree of persistence. In order to control for shift in mean inflation, we check for a break in post-2000 inflation dynamics using the bootstrap approach sketched before. We find evidence for a structural break in the inflation process for Malaysia in 2005:1, for the Philippines in 2004:1 and for Thailand in 2003:4. For the non-Asian countries we find breaks in 2004:2 for Canada and in 2003:2 for the UK. For the other countries we cannot find a significant structural break. Controlling for these breaks, however, leaves all results qualitatively unchanged, see Table 5. Hence, we can conclude that the minor effect of IT on inflation persistence in Asia

does not stem from neglecting the role of shifts in mean inflation.

## 5.2 Rolling window evidence

To illustrate the behavior over time of the persistence measure, we next estimate the model using a moving 32 quarter window and obtain an estimate of the evolution over time of persistence. For each window, we also compute confidence intervals as explained above. Note that if we take time variation in persistence seriously, we should also allow for varying lag lengths in each sample window. The adoption of IT could lead to fewer lags being sufficient to describe the inflation process. Therefore, we allow the lag order to be different in each window as determined by the AIC. As mentioned before, neglecting a structural break in the mean inflation rate leads to spuriously high estimates of inflation persistence. Thus far the literature on the performance of IT in Asian emerging market countries does not take account of this problem. As the estimation window moves over the sample period, the impact of structural breaks is reduced. Nevertheless, most estimation windows include the Asian crisis in 1997-98. Therefore, we control for a structural break in 1998:3 when the fallout from the Asian financial crisis was most readily apparent, without explicitly testing for its significance.

The results in Figures 7 to 19 (which include 90% confidence bands), show a systematic pattern of declining persistence until 2005-6, and then a gradual rise. While one is tempted to conclude that this decline is due to the adoption of IT, what appears to be happening is that the sharp change of inflation following the onset of the Asian financial crisis constitutes a temporary shock, which reduces the estimated persistence of innovations to inflation. Once that episode drops out of the eight-year window used to compute the graphs, the measured persistence rises back to some "normal," and relatively high, level. Again, we conclude that the persistence of inflation shocks is higher among IT economies in Asia than elsewhere.

It is of interest to compare these results with those for Switzerland and the euro area.<sup>7</sup> Both economies adopted a new monetary regime at the turn of the century (1999 for the euro area and 2000 for Switzerland). Although neither central bank targets inflation, both central banks have adopted a numerical definition of price stability which is the overriding objective for policy. Thus, the distinction between these regimes and conventional IT strategies is limited. Interestingly, inflation persistence

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<sup>7</sup>These results are taken from Tillmann (2008) and (2010).

fell in both economies soon after the new regime was put in place, see Figures 20 and 21.

## 6 Conclusions

It is widely noted that the introduction of monetary policy strategies focussed on achieving low and stable inflation has been associated in many countries with a sharp decline in the persistence of inflation shocks. Formally, this literature proceeds by estimating a low-order autoregression for the quarterly percentage change in consumer prices and studies the estimated sum of the autoregressive parameters. Applying this approach to a sample of Asian countries which operate monetary policy with a range of strategies – including IT, exchange rate pegs and "eclectic" strategies – we find little evidence that inflation persistence has declined. Indeed, inflation persistence appears broadly unchanged over time.

What might explain these differences? We offer two hypotheses for future research. First, Asia has a long history of relatively modest and stable inflation. Moreover, the Asian inflation targeters have not been as successful as economies elsewhere in maintaining inflation close the targeted level. Overall, it is thus possible that the introduction of IT has not led to a large change in the behaviour of inflation. One potential reason why the inflation process has not changed significantly is that Asia central banks continue to attach great weight to the exchange rate in the formulation of monetary policy despite the adoption of IT. While this may be surprising from the perspective of IT central banks elsewhere, policy makers in Asia may be particularly concerned about the exchange rate in light of the inherent risk of currency mismatches in the financial sector, as suggested by their experiences during the Asian financial crisis.

Second, this differences may reflect differences in the structure of the economy rather than a lack of commitment of Asian central banks to low and stable inflation. For instance, the weight on food on the CPI is quite strongly correlated (inversely) with per capita income (IMF 2007, p. 13). Given that food prices are tend to be quite volatile, it is possible that they elicit much larger second-round effects on wages and other prices than in economies in which food is less important in the inflation process.

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Table 1: Descriptive statistics

	Year of IT adoption	Mean inflation		Variance of inflation	
		pre-1997:2	post-2000:1	pre-1997:2	post-2000:1
<i>Asian inflation targeters</i>					
Australia	1993	5.96	3.25	8.97	1.41
Indonesia	2000	7.77	8.79	4.00	16.17
Korea	1999	5.44	3.17	4.98	0.88
New Zealand	1990	6.09	2.73	30.87	0.67
Philippines	2002	9.88	5.01	54.52	8.94
Thailand	2000	2.18	1.24	0.85	3.32
<i>Non-Asian inflation targeters</i>					
Canada	1990	3.21	2.23	2.87	0.67
Chile	1991	16.67	3.74	53.39	4.67
Israel	1991	14.67	1.94	18.32	5.46
Norway	2001	4.12	2.11	5.70	1.63
South Africa	2000	12.93	5.31	13.05	14.24
Sweden	1992	4.79	1.63	9.68	1.18
UK	1992	4.53	2.76	5.61	1.55
<i>Non-inflation targeters</i>					
Hong Kong	-	3.90	-0.01	1.58	1.96
Japan	-	1.31	-0.16	1.44	0.50
Malaysia	-	2.73	2.37	2.14	2.39
Singapore	-	1.76	1.54	1.96	3.99

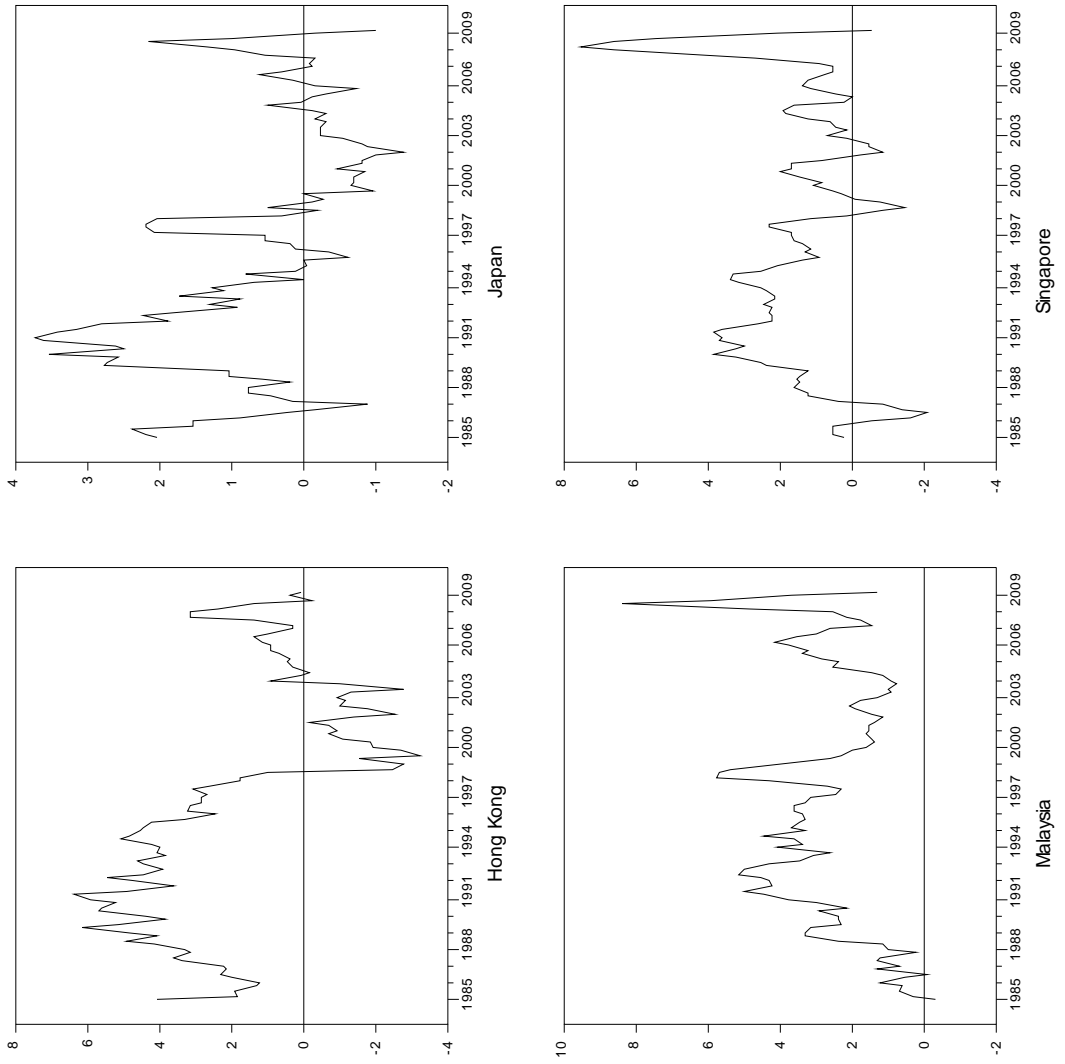


Figure 1: Inflation in Asian non-inflation targeting economies.



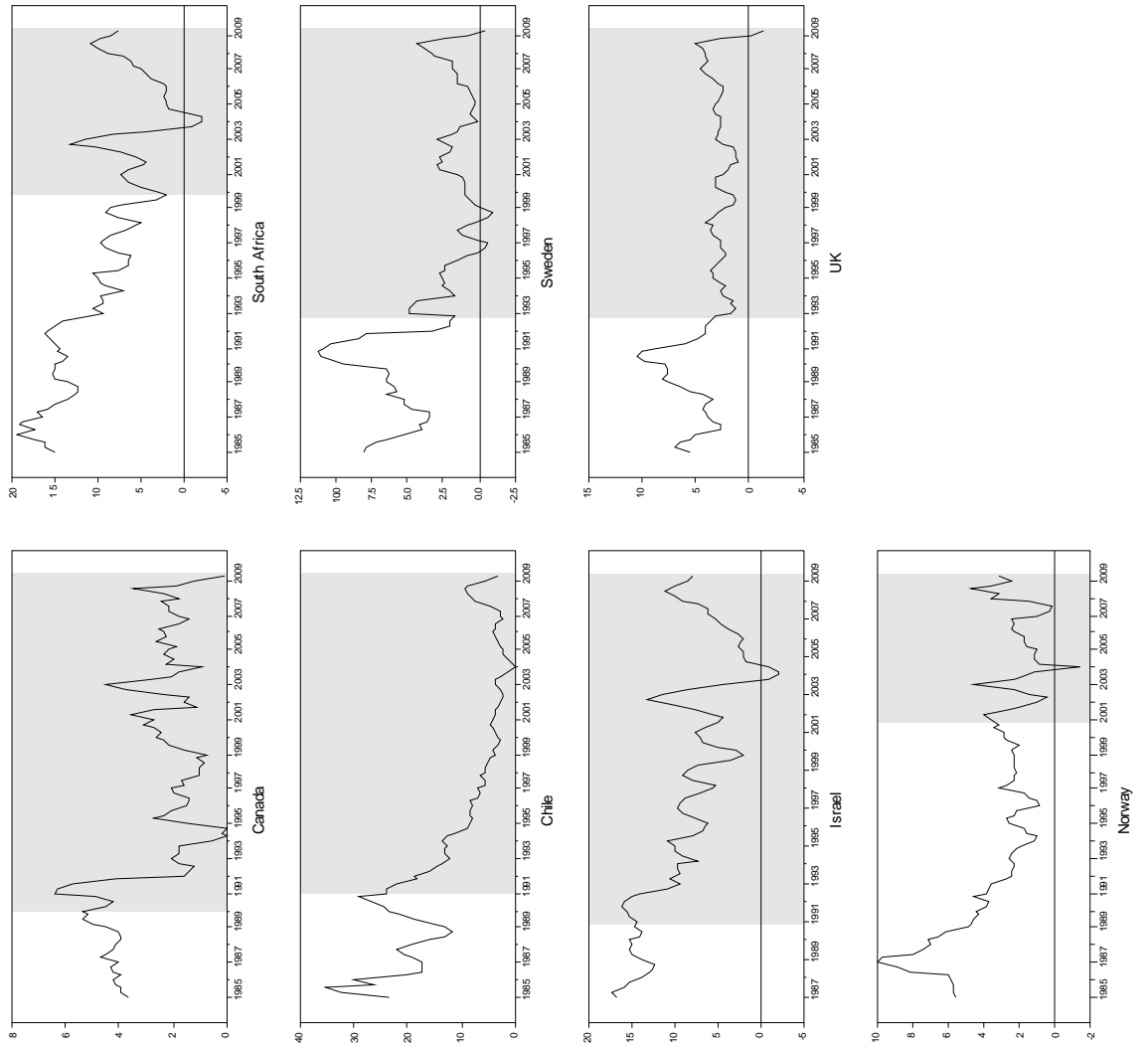


Figure 2: Inflation in other inflation targeting countries.

Table 2: Inflation persistence in Asian IT countries

economy	sample	lag order	$\rho$	90% confidence band
Australia	1985:1 - 1997:2	4	0.98	[0.89, 1.04]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	0.38	[0.12, 0.64]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	0.47	[0.22, 0.77]
Indonesia	1985:1 - 1997:2	4	0.60	[0.36, 0.87]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	3	0.61	[0.43, 0.82]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	3	0.63	[0.43, 0.87]
Korea	1985:1 - 1997:2	4	0.84	[0.72, 1.02]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	0.60	[0.39, 0.83]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	1	0.73	[0.51, 1.06]
New Zealand	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	0.94	[0.84, 1.04]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	0.48	[0.28, 0.69]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	0.56	[0.37, 0.76]
Philippines	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	0.87	[0.77, 1.00]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	0.40	[0.18, 0.63]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	0.47	[0.24, 0.74]
Thailand	1985:1 - 1997:2	3	0.84	[0.59, 1, 10]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	0.43	[0.08, 0.82]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	3	0.88	[0.54, 1.18]

*Notes:* The table reports Hansen's (1999) mean unbiased estimator of the sum of autoregressive coefficients  $\rho$  and the bootstrapped 90% confidence bands based on 101 grid points and 999 replications. The lag order is chosen according to the AIC.

Table 3: Inflation persistence in Asian non-IT countries

economy	sample	lag order	$\rho$	90% confidence band
Hong Kong	1985:1 - 1997:2	4	0.87	[0.75, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	3	0.92	[0.74, 1.08]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	3	1.01	[0.74, 1.14]
Japan	1985:1 - 1997:2	4	0.87	[0.72, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.78	[0.60, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	1	0.86	[0.63, 1.09]
Malaysia	1985:1 - 1997:2	1	0.91	[0.78, 1.05]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.70	[0.54, 0.88]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	0.80	[0.65, 1.02]
Singapore	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	0.94	[0.84, 1.04]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	3	0.72	[0.60, 0.84]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	0.66	[0.45, 0.90]

*Notes:* The table reports Hansen's (1999) mean unbiased estimator of the sum of autoregressive coefficients  $\rho$  and the bootstrapped 90% confidence bands based on 101 grid points and 999 replications. The lag order is chosen according to the AIC.

Table 4: Inflation persistence in other IT countries

Economy	Sample	Lag order	$\rho$	90% confidence band
Canada	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	0.94	[0.83, 1.04]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	0.00	[-0.35, 0.33]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	-0.09	[-0.42, 0.26]
Chile	1985:1 - 1997:2	4	0.92	[0.81, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.82	[0.72, 0.92]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	0.80	[0.65, 1.02]
Israel	1987:1 - 1997:2	3	0.92	[0.79, 1.06]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.77	[0.64, 0.90]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	0.78	[0.62, 1.00]
Norway	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	1.01	[0.92, 1.05]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	1	0.70	[0.48, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	1	0.70	[0.44, 1.08]
South Africa	1985:1 - 1997:2	1	1.02	[0.89, 1.07]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.82	[0.73, 0.92]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	0.79	[0.69, 0.91]
Sweden	1985:1 - 1997:2	3	0.94	[0.82, 1.05]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.81	[0.64, 1.05]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	0.80	[0.65, 1.00]
UK	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	0.94	[0.86, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	0.73	[0.56, 0.88]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	0.80	[0.65, 1.01]

*Notes:* The table reports Hansen's (1999) mean unbiased estimator of the sum of autoregressive coefficients  $\rho$  and the bootstrapped 90% confidence bands based on 101 grid points and 999 replications. The lag order is chosen according to the AIC.

Table 5: Inflation persistence in Asian IT countries after accounting for structural breaks

Economy	Sample	Lag order	Break date	$\rho$	90% confidence band
Canada	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	-	0.94	[0.83, 1.04]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	2004:2	-0.02	[-0.35, 0.35]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	2004:2	-0.09	[-0.42, 0.26]
Malaysia	1985:1 - 1997:2	1	-	0.91	[0.78, 1.06]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	2005:1	0.70	[0.54, 0.88]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	2005:1	0.80	[0.65, 1.01]
Philippines	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	-	0.87	[0.77, 1.00]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	2004:2	0.40	[0.18, 0.63]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	4	2004:2	0.48	[0.23, 0.74]
Thailand	1985:1 - 1997:2	3	-	0.84	[0.60, 1.10]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	4	2003:4	0.42	[0.10, 0.80]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	3	2003:4	0.88	[0.52, 1.18]
UK	1985:1 - 1997:2	2	-	0.94	[0.86, 1.03]
	2000:1 - 2009:2	2	2003:2	0.73	[0.56, 0.92]
	2000:1 - 2007:2	2	2003:2	0.79	[0.65, 1.01]

*Notes:* The table reports Hansen's (1999) mean unbiased estimator of the sum of autoregressive coefficients  $\rho$  and the bootstrapped 90% confidence bands based on 101 grid points and 999 replications. The lag order is chosen according to the AIC.

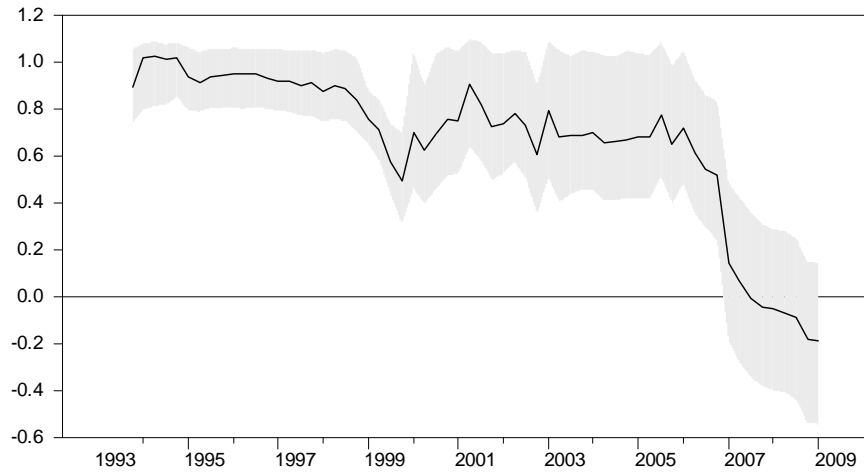


Figure 3: Canada: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window

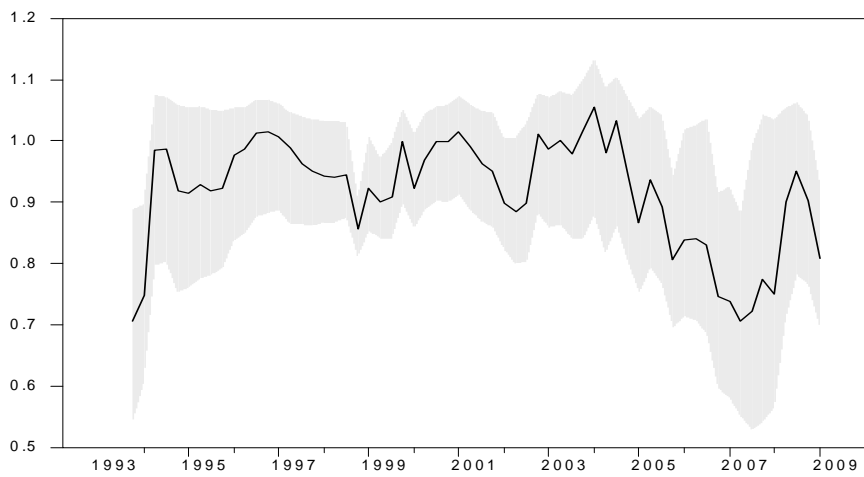


Figure 4: Chile: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window

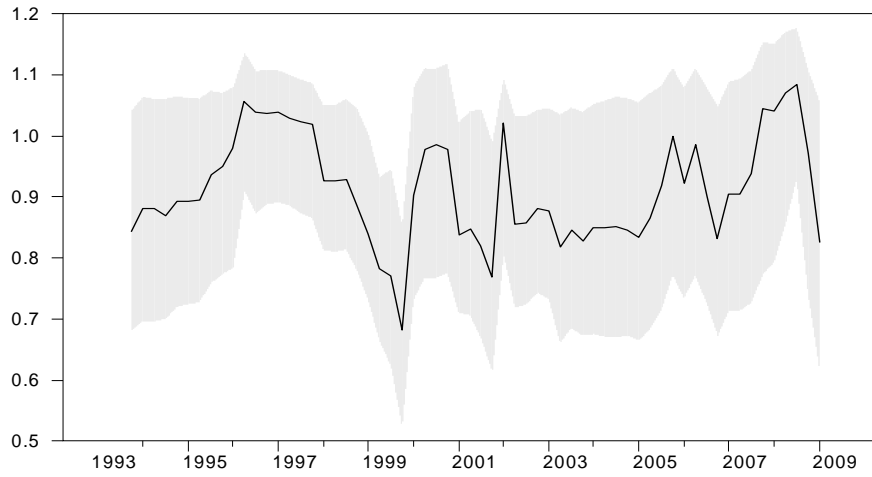


Figure 5: Sweden: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window

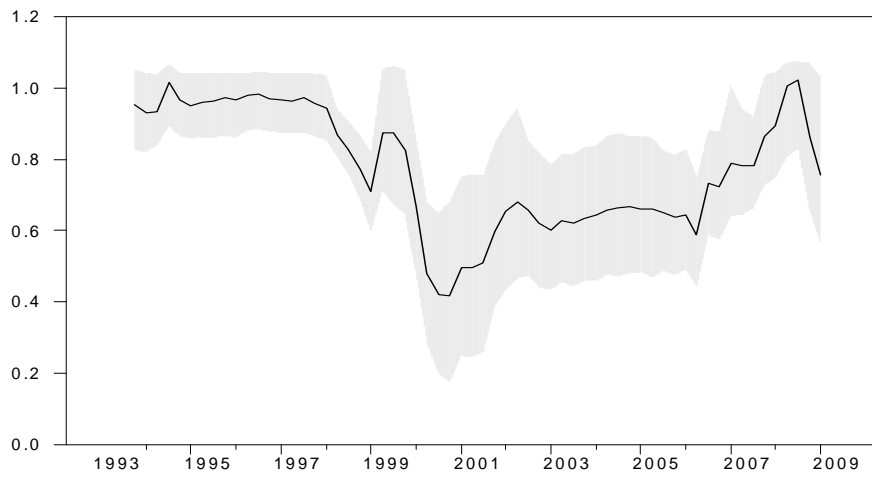


Figure 6: UK: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window

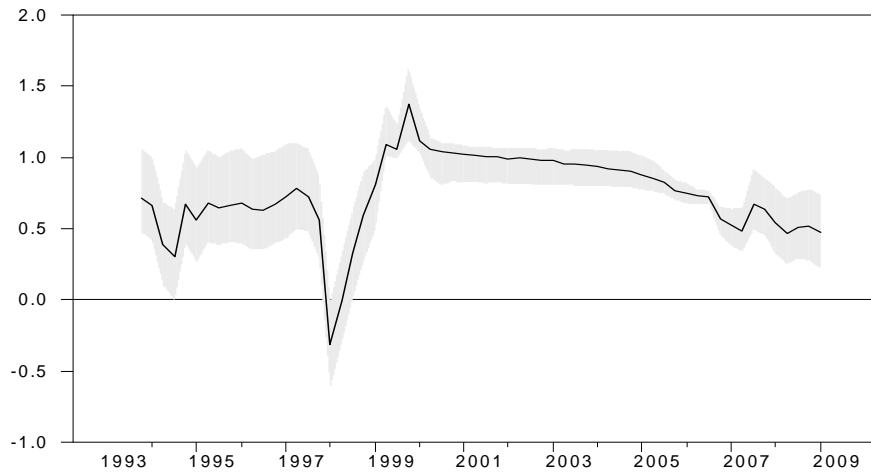


Figure 7: Indonesia: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

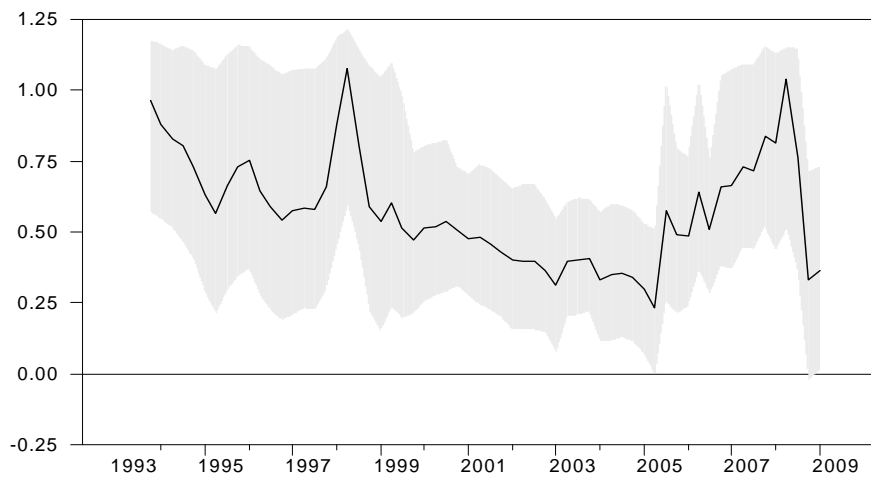


Figure 8: Thailand: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3



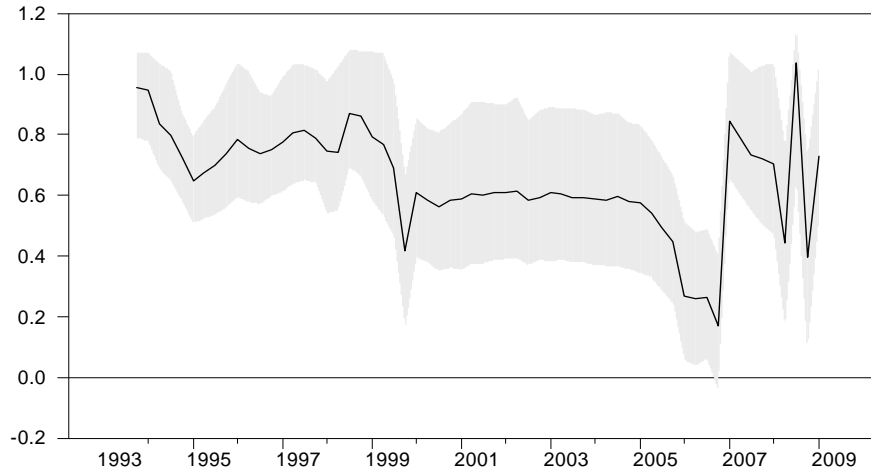


Figure 9: Korea: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

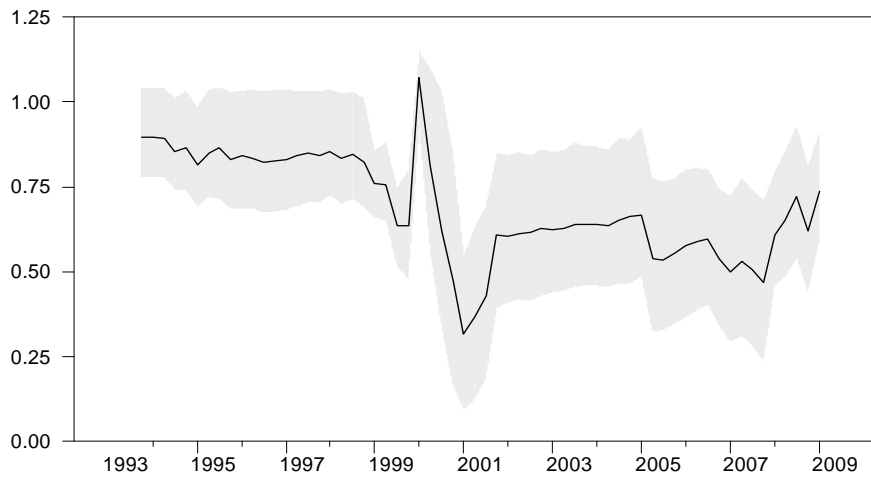


Figure 10: Philippines: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

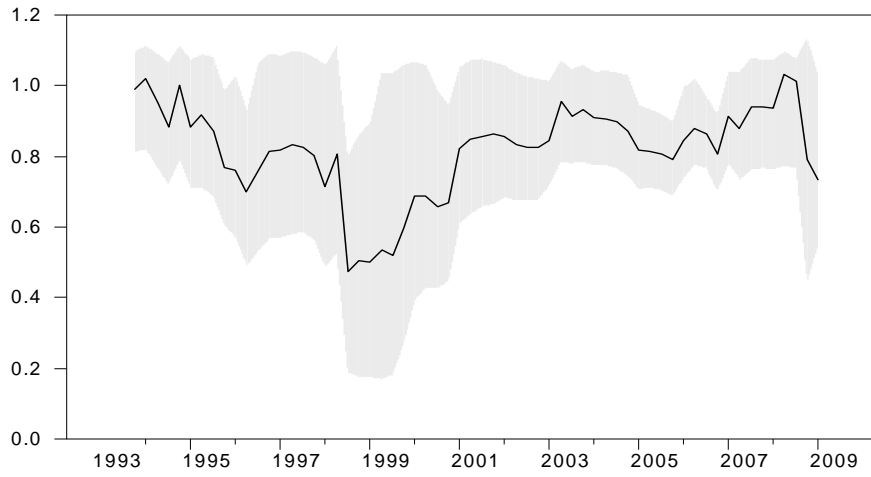


Figure 11: Malaysia: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

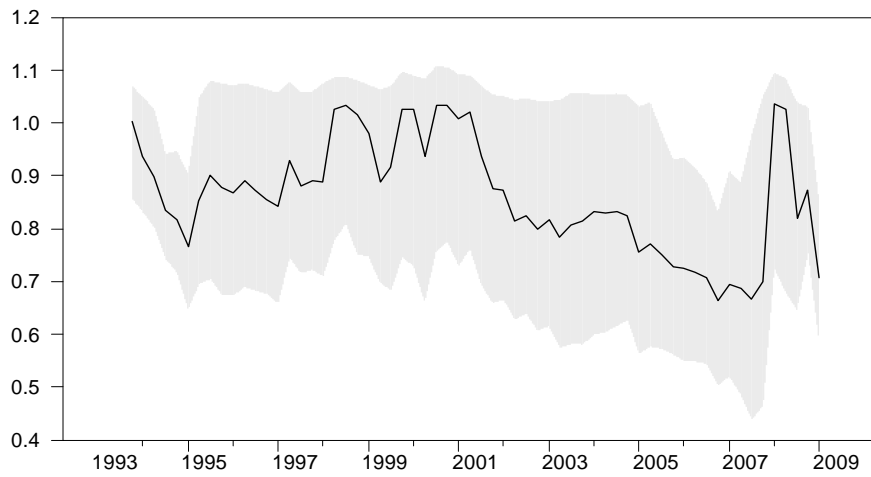


Figure 12: Singapore: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

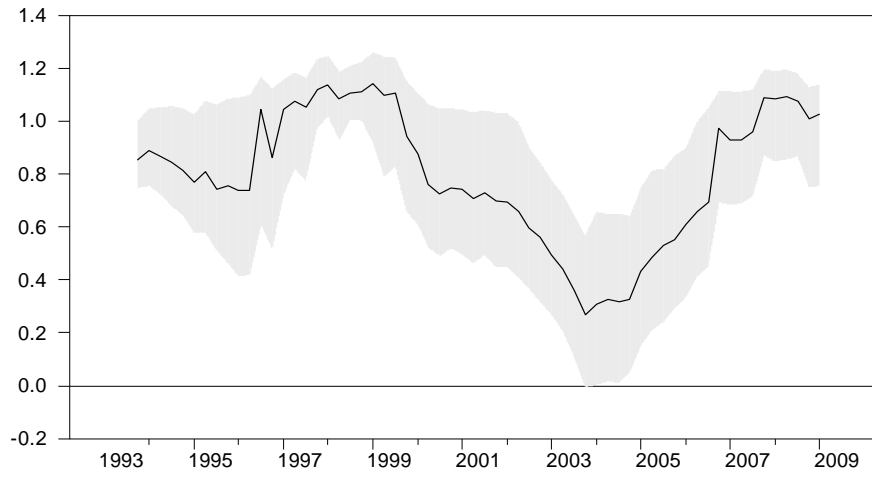


Figure 13: Hong Kong: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

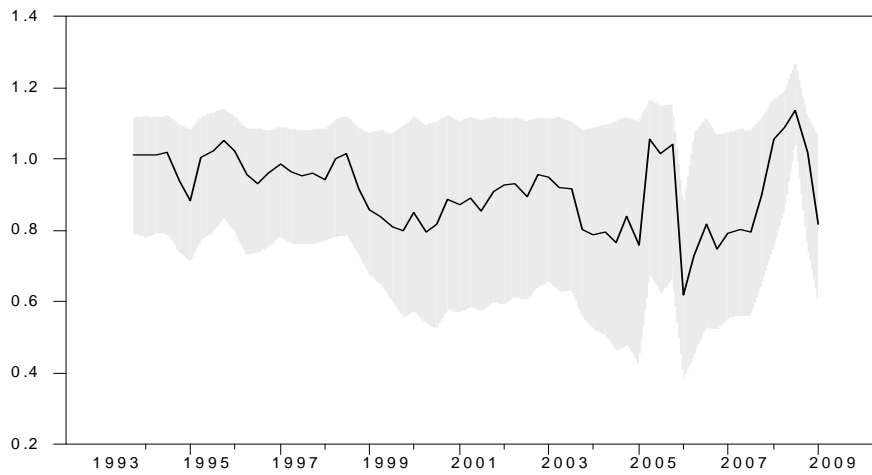


Figure 14: Japan: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

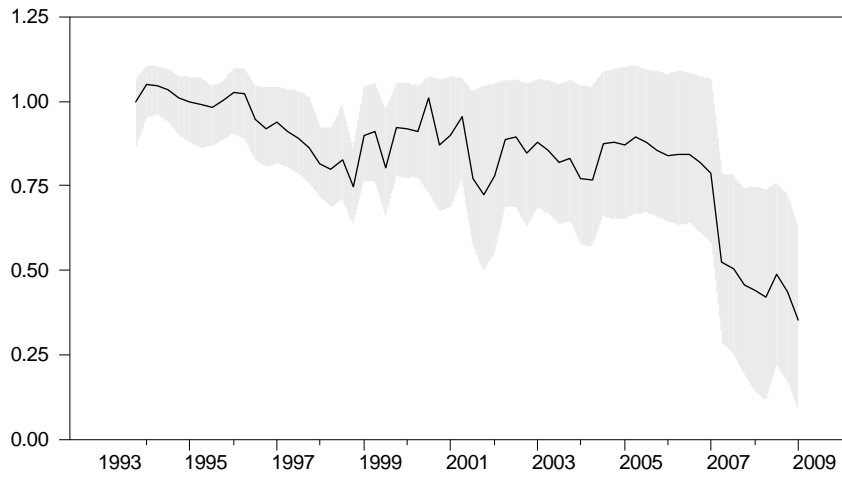


Figure 15: Australia: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

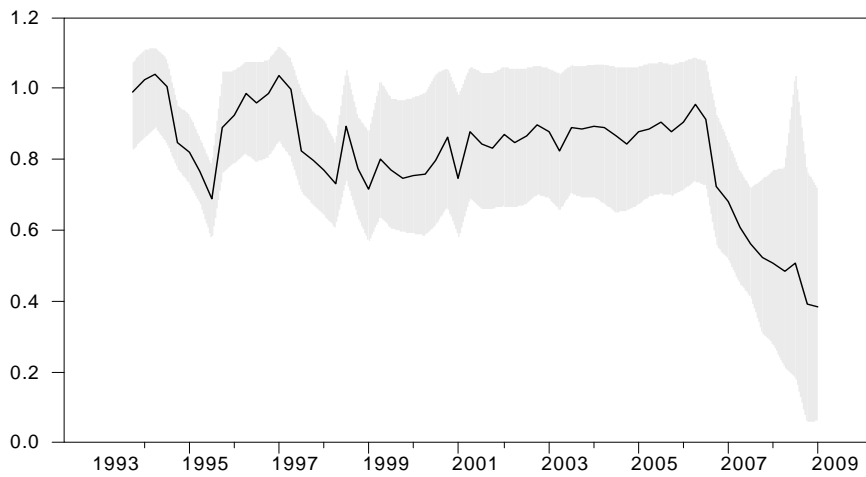


Figure 16: New Zealand: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

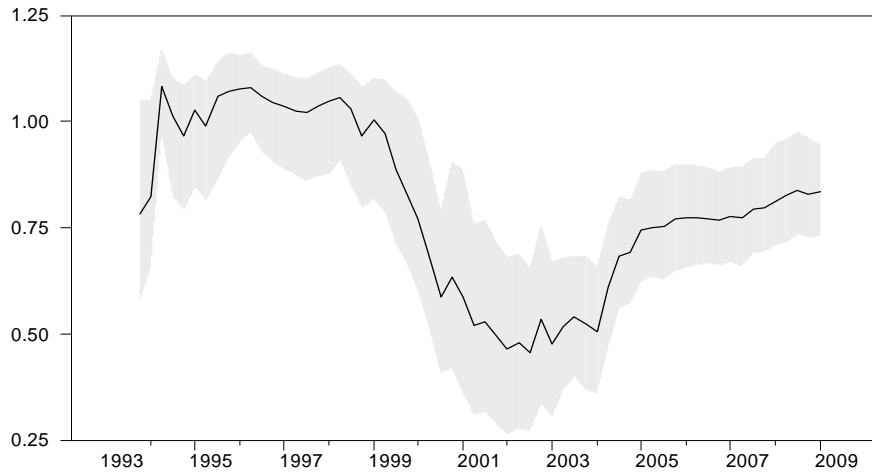


Figure 17: South Africa: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

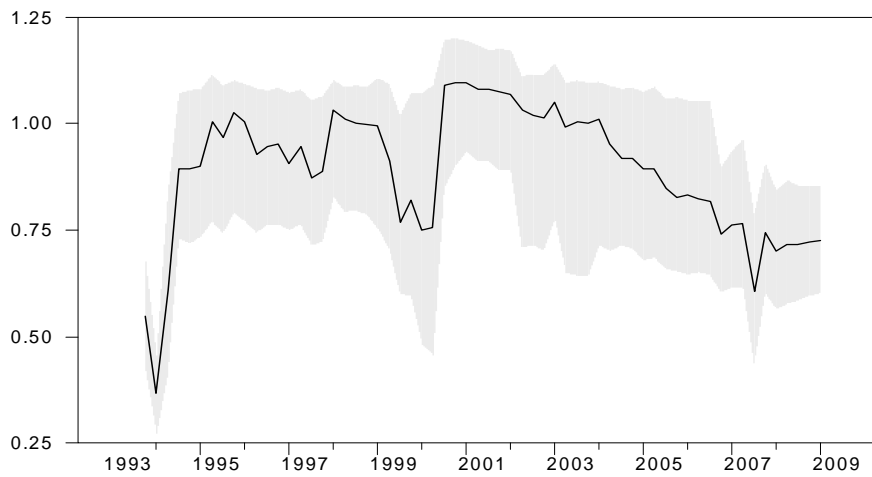


Figure 18: Israel: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

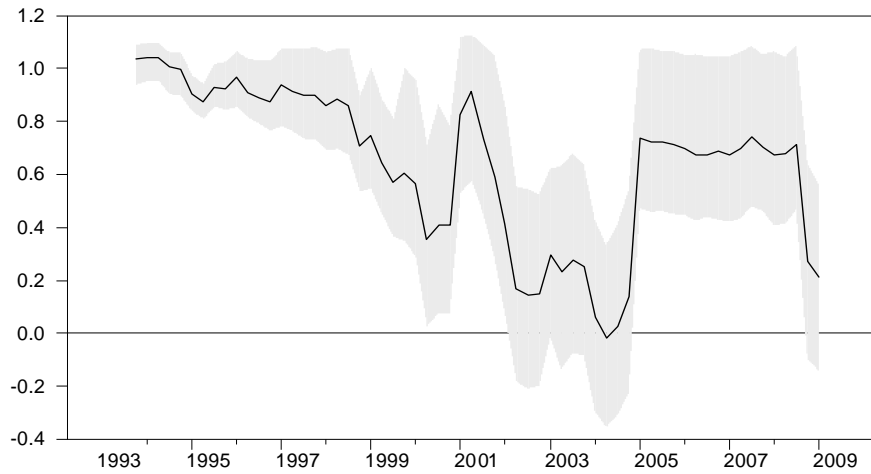


Figure 19: Norway: Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window with a break in 1998:3

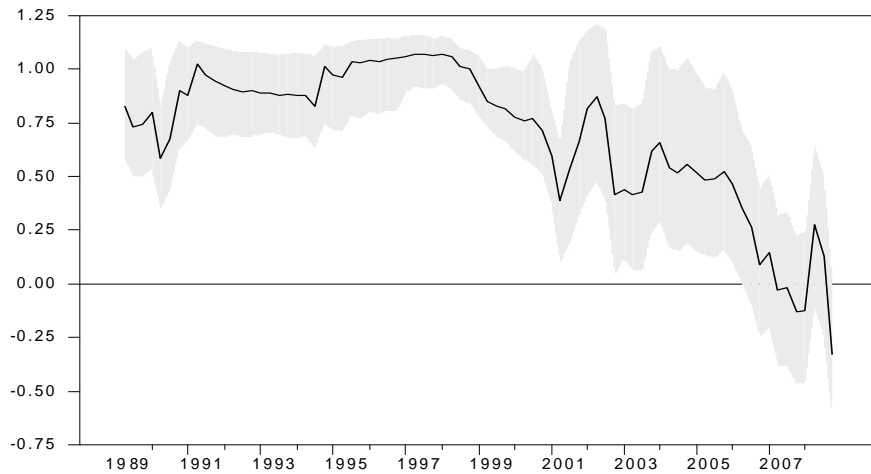


Figure 20: **Switzerland:** Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window, source: Tillmann (2010)

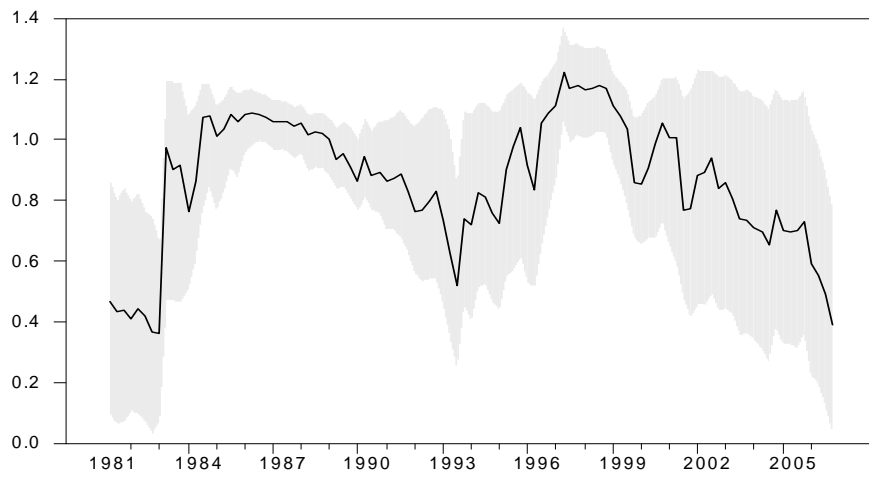


Figure 21: **Euro Area:** Median unbiased estimate of the sum of autoregressive coefficients with a 90% confidence band based on an 8-year rolling window for HICP inflation. The shaded area indicates the EMU period. Source: Tillmann (2008)