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16 **1. Introduction**

17 The impact of economic policy decisions depends, to a great extent, on
18 how they are communicated and affect agents' expectations, and hence their
19 actions. Indeed, private agents can form expectations about the future course
20 of fiscal policy by combining information conveyed by government announce-
21 ments and privately collected information. In an economic system with dis-
22 persed information where the government has potentially superior informa-
23 tion on its procedures, forecasts and policy plans, policymakers can coordin-
24 ate private agents' beliefs and reduce disagreement by releasing additional
25 information about current and future policies.

26 This paper focuses on the expectation coordination effects of fiscal policy
27 communication and provides an empirical assessment of the implications of
28 disagreement amongst agents for the transmission of fiscal impulses in the
29 United States. We develop an indirect measure of precision of fiscal policy
30 communication derived from forecasters' disagreement on the future path
31 of federal fiscal spending, based on the Survey of Professional Forecasters
32 (SPF). The underlying intuition is that a clear fiscal policy communication
33 can coalesce private sector expectations on future policy measures, which in
34 turn reduces agents' disagreement. Based on this, we formulate our empirical

35 strategy consistently with the implications of imperfect information models
36 (see Mankiw and Reis, 2002, Woodford, 2002, Sims, 2003 and Reis, 2006a,b)
37 by structuring it in the three following steps.

38 First, in order to pin down the fluctuations in disagreement that are due
39 to policy communication and not to cyclical macroeconomic disturbances, we
40 project the cross sectional dispersion of forecasts about future government
41 spending onto the disagreement about current output. Second, following
42 Ricco (2015), we identify fiscal spending shocks using individual revision of
43 expectations at different horizons in US Survey of Professional Forecasters
44 (SPF) data which we name ‘fiscal news’. In doing this, we recognise that
45 the presence of information frictions crucially modifies the econometric iden-
46 tification problem of fiscal shocks.² Third, we estimate an Expectational
47 Threshold VAR (ETVAR) model using Bayesian techniques, where the prox-
48 ies for fiscal news shocks are included together with a number of macroeco-
49 nomic variables. The threshold variable is our disagreement index, and the
50 threshold level is endogenously estimated.

51 Our results provide evidence that, during periods of high disagreement on

²In the presence of imperfect information, new information is only partially absorbed over time. Therefore, average forecast errors are likely to be a combination of both current and past structural shocks and cannot be thought of as being, *per se*, a good proxy for structural innovations (as, for example, proposed in Ramey, 2011).

52 fiscal policy, spending shocks have weak effects on the economy. Conversely,
53 in periods of low disagreement, the output response to the spending news
54 shock is positive, strong and significantly different from zero, reaching a cu-
55 mulative medium-term multiplier of about 2.7 after 16 quarters. Our analysis
56 also shows that the stronger stimulative effects in times of low disagreement
57 are mainly the result of an accelerator effect of planned fiscal spending on
58 investment. During the low disagreement regime, the Federal Reserve tends
59 to be more reactive to spending increases than in periods of high disagree-
60 ment. Overall, our analysis highlights the case for policy signalling as a tool
61 to reduce disagreement and enhance the impact of spending shocks.

62 Our results speak to the literature on fiscal foresight (see Ramey, 2011,
63 Leeper et al., 2012 and Leeper et al., 2013), and on state-dependent effects of
64 fiscal policy (see, for example, Auerbach and Gorodnichenko, 2012, Owyang
65 et al., 2013 and Caggiano et al., 2014).

66 However, differently from these works, our paper connects to the recent
67 literature on imperfect information and on the formation of economic ex-
68 pectations (see, amongst others, Mankiw et al., 2004, Doovern et al., 2012,
69 Coibion and Gorodnichenko, 2010, 2012, Andrade and Le Bihan, 2013 and
70 Andrade et al., 2014). In fact, we employ an identification scheme of fiscal

71 shocks that is coherent with the implications of imperfect information mod-
72 els and use expectational data in order to study the effects of disagreement
73 amongst agents. Importantly, we focus on the role of public signals in re-
74 ducing disagreement and in coordinating expectations. To the best of our
75 knowledge, this is the first empirical attempt to study how different levels of
76 precisions in fiscal policy communication affect the transmission mechanism
77 of fiscal shocks, through disagreement.

78 In doing that we also relate to the literature on policy communication.
79 The analysis of the trade-offs underlying the provision of public signals by
80 policy-makers to an economy in which agents have dispersed information was
81 pioneered by Morris and Shin (2003a,b) in the context of monetary policy.³
82 Differently from this literature, our paper focuses on fiscal policy and provides
83 stylised empirical facts on the implication of increased transparency, without
84 studying the relation between public and private signal from a welfare per-
85 spective. In this respect, it is more closely related to Melosi (2012) that
86 proposes an econometric study of a signalling channel of monetary policy.

87 This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 discusses the properties of

³More recent theoretical contributions have been proposed, amongst others, by Angeletos et al. (2006), Baeriswyl and Cornand (2010), Hachem and Wu (2014), Frenkel and Kartik (2015).

88 expectational data on US fiscal spending. Section 3 is devoted to the con-
89 struction of the fiscal policy disagreement index used in this paper. Section
90 4 comments on the identification of fiscal shocks. Section 5 illustrates our
91 Bayesian Threshold VAR model. Section 6 presents our main results and
92 provides insights on the transmission channels. Finally, Section 7 concludes.

93 **2. Forecasting Fiscal Spending**

94 In the Philadelphia Fed’s quarterly SPF, professional forecasters are asked
95 to provide expected values of a set of 32 macroeconomic variables for both
96 the present quarter (nowcast) and up to four quarters ahead (forecast). SPF
97 forecasters do not know the current value of these macroeconomic variables,
98 which are only released with a lag. The panelists’ information set includes
99 the BEA’s advance report data, which contains the first estimate of GDP
100 (and its components) for the previous quarter. The deadline for responses is
101 the second to third week of the middle month of each quarter.⁴

102 For ‘real federal government consumption expenditures and gross invest-
103 ment’, the main series of interest in this work, professional forecasters’ in-

⁴The Survey does not report the number of experts involved in each forecast or the forecasting method used. Professional forecasters are mostly private firms in the financial sector. On average, in the sample, there are 29 respondents per period of which 22 appear in consecutive periods.

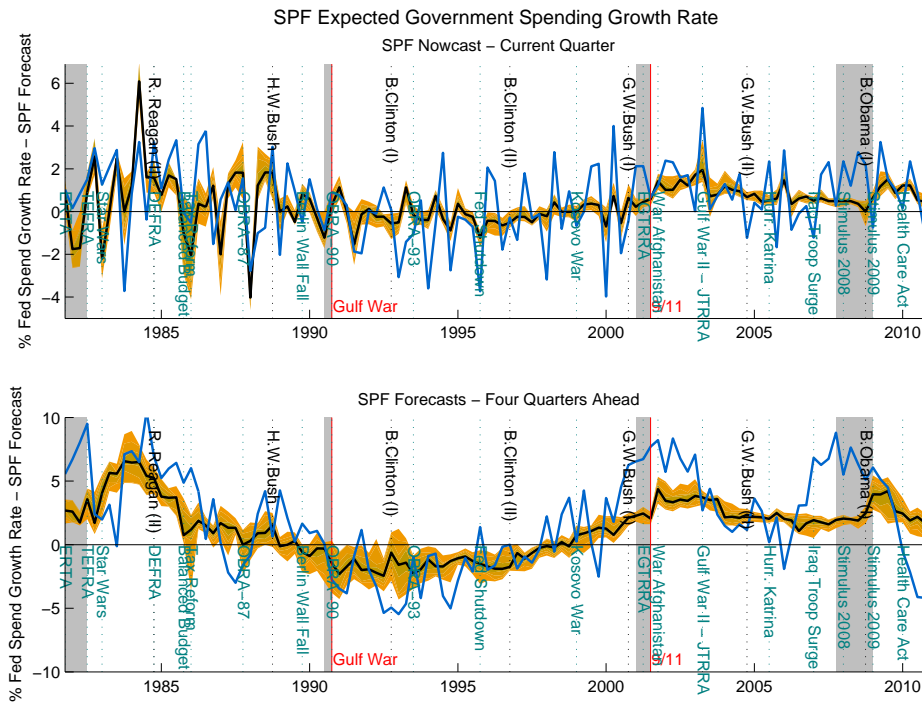


Figure 1: **Government Spending Expected Growth rates – Fan Chart.** The figure plots the SPF median expected growth rate for the current quarter and for the four future quarters, together with forecasters’ disagreement up to one standard deviation (orange), and the realised growth rates (blue). Grey shaded areas indicate the NBER Business Cycle contraction dates. Vertical lines indicate the dates of the announcement of important fiscal and geopolitical events (teal), presidential elections (black), and the Ramey-Shapiro war dates (red).

104 dividual responses have been collected from 1981Q3 to 2012Q4. Figure 1
 105 reports the median expected growth rate of federal spending for the current
 106 quarter and for the four quarters ahead, together with forecasters’ disagree-
 107 ment (the cross-sectional standard deviation of individual forecasts) and the
 108 historically realised growth rates.

109 Some features of the SPF’s survey data on fiscal spending are noteworthy
110 and common to the forecasts of other macroeconomic variables. As is evident
111 in Figure 1, expectations about fiscal spending are more stable than the
112 actual series. Expectations are sluggish in that they typically underestimate
113 the movements of the forecast variable, despite being able to capture low
114 frequency movements. Moreover, experts’ forecasts exhibit predictable errors
115 and can be Granger-predicted (see Ricco, 2015). Experts disagree as they
116 report different predictions at different forecast horizons and when updating
117 their forecasts. The extent of their disagreement evolves over time (see Figure
118 1 and discussion in Section 4). Finally, forecast revisions at different horizons
119 for a given event in time are positively correlated.

120 The above facts are broadly consistent with professional forecasters’ data
121 being generated in a model of imperfect information rational expectations.
122 In fact, imperfect information models in the form of delayed-information or
123 noisy-information are able to account for at least three important features
124 of expectational data: the presence of disagreement, the forecastability of
125 errors, and the autocorrelation of expectation revisions. As shown by Coibion
126 and Gorodnichenko (2010), the latter can be used to evaluate the implied

127 degree of information rigidity.⁵

128 **3. Disagreement over Fiscal Policy**

129 We propose an index of precision of fiscal policy communication derived
130 from the forecasters' disagreement on the future path of fiscal spending. The
131 underlying intuition is that a clear fiscal policy communication can coalesce
132 private sector expectations on future policy measures, which in turn reduces
133 agents' disagreement. Conversely, higher than average disagreement about
134 future government spending reveals poor communication from the govern-
135 ment about the future stance of fiscal policies.

136 Developing this idea, we focus on the component of the disagreement
137 among forecasters about the future federal spending developments that is
138 orthogonal to the disagreement about current macroeconomic conditions.
139 The resulting index has three main features: (1) it relies on expectational
140 real time ex-ante data only; (2) it is linearly uncorrelated with the business
141 cycle; (3) it is fully non-judgmental. Moreover, it is consistent with our
142 definition of fiscal shocks that are extracted from the same expectational
143 dataset, and on a similar time horizon.

⁵In our sample, the serial correlation between forecast revisions is around 0.2, implying a degree of information rigidity of 0.8.

144 To construct the index for fiscal policy disagreement, a two-step procedure
145 is followed. First, the time-varying cross-sectional standard deviation of the
146 SPF forecasts (disagreement) for real federal government spending is com-
147 puted at the four-quarters horizon. Second, the component of disagreement
148 related to discretionary policy is extracted by projecting the disagreement
149 among forecasters about the future development of fiscal spending onto the
150 disagreement about the current macroeconomic conditions. This is done in
151 order to address the issue of exogeneity with respect to the macroeconomic
152 cycle. We think of this component as affected by the policy communication
153 regime.

154 We justify this procedure (i) theoretically, using a simple noisy-information
155 model to discuss under which assumptions the index obtained could be cor-
156 rectly thought of as an approximation of the agents' disagreement about the
157 discretionary fiscal spending and (ii) empirically, matching this index with a
158 historical narrative.

159 *3.1. Disagreement in a Stylised Noisy-information Model*

160 A simple noisy-information model with Bayesian learning can help in
161 more precisely defining the concepts used and in clarifying the assumptions
162 underlying our approach. A stylised reduced form equation that decomposes

163 government spending into a discretionary component and an automatic one
 164 can be written as

$$g_t = \mu_g + g_t^d + \kappa y_{t-1} , \quad (1)$$

165 where μ_g is a constant, g_t^d is the discretionary component of fiscal spending
 166 and the term κy_{t-1} represent the (lagged) systematic response of fiscal spend-
 167 ing to business cycle fluctuations. Similarly to Lahiri and Sheng (2010), we
 168 assume that each agent i , at each quarter t , receives a public signal from
 169 the policymaker that is informative about the future growth of discretionary
 170 fiscal spending, g_{t+h}^d , at horizon h

$$n_{t+h} = g_{t+h}^d + \eta_{t,h} , \quad \eta_{t,h} \sim \mathcal{N} (0, \sigma_{(\eta)t,h}^2) . \quad (2)$$

171 Agents complement the information carried by the public signal using other
 172 sources of information. That is, they receive a private signal or a signal
 173 obtained by random sampling from diffuse information publicly available,
 174 i.e.,

$$s_{t+h}^i = g_{t+h}^d + \zeta_{t,h}^i , \quad \zeta_{t,h}^i \sim \mathcal{N} (0, \sigma_{(\zeta)i,t,h}^2) . \quad (3)$$

175 Without loss of generality, we can assume that the public and the private sig-
 176 nals are independent. Each forecaster combines the two signals, via Bayesian
 177 updating, to form conditional expectations for g_{t+h}^d :

$$\widehat{g}_{i,t+h}^d = \mathbb{E}^i [g_{t+h}^d | n_{t+h}, s_{t+h}^i] = \frac{\sigma_{(\eta)t,h}^2 s_{t+h}^i + \sigma_{(\zeta)i,t,h}^2 n_{t+h}}{\sigma_{(\zeta)i,t,h}^2 + \sigma_{(\eta)t,h}^2}. \quad (4)$$

The disagreement at time t amongst forecasters about discretionary fiscal spending at time $t + h$ can be defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+h}^d) &\equiv \mathbb{E} \left[\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\widehat{g}_{i,t+h}^d - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \widehat{g}_{j,t+h}^d \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{\sigma_{(\eta)t,h}^2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\sigma_{(\zeta)i,t,h}^2}{\sigma_{(\zeta)i,t,h}^2 + \sigma_{(\eta)t,h}^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j \neq i}^N \frac{\sigma_{(\zeta)j,t,h}^2}{\sigma_{(\zeta)j,t,h}^2 + \sigma_{(\eta)t,h}^2} \right), \quad (5) \end{aligned}$$

178 where $\widehat{g}_{i,t+h}$ is the individual forecast defined in equation (4). From Eq.
 179 (5), it is clear that when the precision of the public signal (the inverse of
 180 its variance) goes to infinity, the disagreement amongst agents goes to zero.
 181 Therefore, variations in the precision of the public signal are reflected in the
 182 variations of agents' disagreement over time. We think of the variance of
 183 the public signal on discretionary spending as dependent on the willingness
 184 of the policymaker to blur or clarify the policy indication, as well as the

185 policymaker’s credibility.⁶

186 In our empirical analysis, we conceive the policy communication as roughly
187 having two ‘polar’ regimes: high and low precision. While fluctuations of
188 disagreement may be due to the endogenous dynamics of absorption of new
189 information, as suggested by delayed-information models, we think of shifts
190 in disagreement as a reflection of policy communication regimes.

191 3.2. Cyclical Variations in Disagreement

192 In order to pin down fluctuations in government spending disagreement
193 that are due to policy communication and not due to cyclical macroeconomic
194 disturbances, we need to control for variations of disagreement along the
195 business cycle. In fact, it has been documented that disagreement about GDP
196 growth strongly intensifies during recessions and reduces during expansions
197 (see Dovern et al., 2012). For a linearised reduced form equation for output
198 of the following form, which we might think as derived from a structural
199 model

$$y_t = \mu_y + \sum_{i=1}^n c_n y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^m d_j g_{t+j}^d + a_t , \quad (6)$$

⁶The precision of the privately extracted signal, possibly using diffused information, may depend on the information system, the policy decision process and institutional framework. We assume that, over the period of study, fluctuations in the precisions of the private signals are small compared to the variations in the variance of the public signal.

200 where the first sum is an autoregressive component of output up to lag n ,
 201 the second is the sum of the output responses to the path of fiscal spending
 202 up to horizon m (the maximum horizon on which the government is able to
 203 release information) and a_t is a combination of macroeconomic shocks. The
 204 disagreement about total government spending (the observed quantity) is

$$\mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+1}) = (1 + d_1\kappa)\mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+1}^d) + \kappa^2\mathcal{D}_t(y_t) . \quad (7)$$

205 Hence, by regressing the disagreement amongst forecasters about the future
 206 development of fiscal spending onto the disagreement about current mac-
 207 roeconomic conditions, one can extract a measure of disagreement about
 208 discretionary policy measures.⁷

209 In light of the considerations made above, we regress the disagreement

⁷Regressing $\mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+1})$ onto $\mathcal{D}_t(y_t)$ can generate an endogeneity issue due to the fact that the residual in Eq. 7 may be correlated with the regressor. However, for our purpose, the bias introduced is likely to be small. A simple dimensional argument provides the intuition for this. Regressing $\log(\mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+1}))$ onto $\log(\mathcal{D}_t(y_t))$, one would find

$$\hat{\kappa}^2 = \frac{\text{Cov}(\log(\mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+1})), \log(\mathcal{D}_t(y_t)))}{\text{Var}(\log(\mathcal{D}_t(y_t)))} = \kappa^2 + (1 + d_1\kappa)d_1^2 \frac{\text{Var}(\log(\mathcal{D}_t(g_{t+1}^d)))}{\text{Var}(\log(\mathcal{D}_t(y_t)))} . \quad (8)$$

We can assess the order of magnitude of the second term observing that - based on SPF historical data - the ratio of disagreement on current output over disagreement on future government spending is around 10^{-1} , hence the constant d_1^2 (the output multiplier of a quarter ahead increase in fiscal spending) has to be of order 10^{-2} . Hence, we conclude that the bias is at most of order 10^{-2} , while κ^2 is likely to be of order one.

210 of the forecasts on real government spending for the four quarters ahead -
211 measured as the log of the cross-sectional standard deviation - on the log-
212 disagreement of the forecasts on current GDP, its lags, and a constant. In
213 doing this, we assume that forecasts of future government spending do not
214 incorporate information about other macroeconomic shocks affecting future
215 but not current GDP. Our fiscal policy disagreement index is thus obtained by
216 exponentiating and standardising the regression residuals. By construction,
217 these residuals are linearly uncorrelated with the disagreement about current
218 macroeconomic conditions.⁸

219 *3.3. Policy Disagreement*

220 Our fiscal policy disagreement index is reported in Figure 2. It appears
221 to well track a narrative of the main events surrounding the management
222 of fiscal policy in the US since the 1980s. The first peak coincides with the
223 announcement of the “Star Wars” programme by Reagan in 1983Q1. The
224 index then rises with the 1984 presidential elections and following the fiscal
225 activism of President Reagan’s second term. The next spike in disagreement
226 is related to the fall of the Berlin wall. In the 1990s, the index shows increases

⁸As a robustness check, we have also added the dispersion of the forecasts on current unemployment and CPI inflation to the regressors. Results (not shown, available upon request) are broadly unchanged.

227 in disagreement generated by the presidential elections, the change from a
 228 Republican to a Democratic administration, the ‘federal shutdown’ in 1995,
 229 and the war in Kosovo. In the 2000s, the disagreement index spikes in relation
 230 to the war in Afghanistan and the 2001 and 2003 Bush tax cuts, followed by
 231 the Gulf War, Iraq War troop surge, the 2008 and 2009 stimulus acts and,
 232 finally, the ‘Debt Ceiling Crisis’ of 2011.

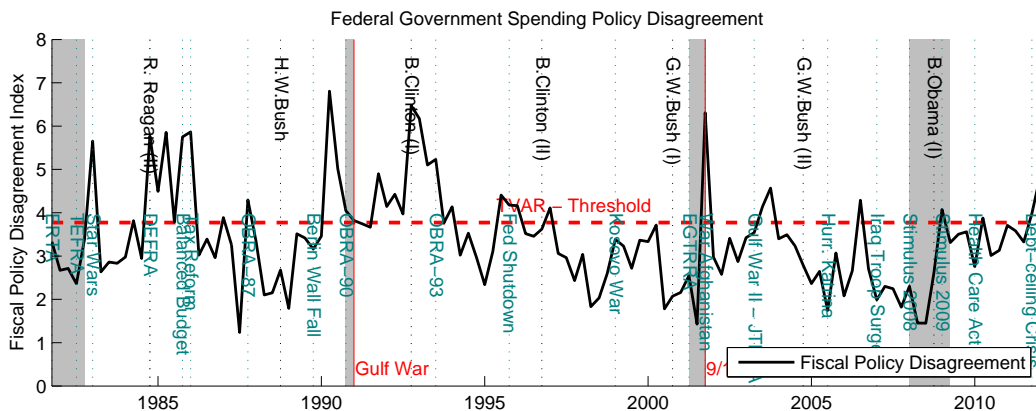


Figure 2: **Policy Disagreement Index** - Time series of the fiscal policy disagreement index based on the dispersion of SPF forecasts (black). Grey shaded areas indicate the NBER business cycle contraction dates. Vertical lines indicate the dates of the announcement of important fiscal and geopolitical events (teal), presidential elections (black), and the Ramey-Shapiro war dates (red). The thick red dashed line indicate the TVAR endogenous threshold.

233 **4. Fiscal News**

We identify fiscal shocks using SPF forecast revisions of federal government consumption and investment forecasts, which can be thought of as fiscal

news. The h quarters ahead forecast error can be decomposed into the flow of fiscal news, which updates the agents' information set \mathcal{I}_t over time:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underbrace{g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-h}^* g_t}_{\text{forecast error}} &= \underbrace{(g_t - \mathbb{E}_t^* g_t)}_{\text{nowcast error}} + \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}_t^* g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-1}^* g_t)}_{\text{nowcast revision}} + \dots \\
 h \text{ periods ahead} & \qquad \qquad \qquad \notin \mathcal{I}_t \qquad \qquad \qquad (\text{news at } t) \in \mathcal{I}_t \\
 & \qquad \qquad \qquad \dots + \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}_{t-h+1}^* g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-h}^* g_t)}_{\text{forecast revision}} \cdot \quad (9) \\
 & \qquad \qquad \qquad (\text{news at } t-h+1) \in \mathcal{I}_{t-h+1}
 \end{aligned}$$

234 where \mathbb{E}^* is the agents' expectation operator and g is government spending
 235 growth. The first term on the right-hand side corresponds to the *nowcast*
 236 *error*, which can be thought of as a proxy for agents' misexpectations which
 237 can be revealed only at a later date (at least after a quarter). The other com-
 238 ponents (nowcast and forecast revisions) can be seen as proxies for the *fiscal*
 239 *news*, which are related to current and future realisations of fiscal spending,
 240 and are received by the agents and incorporated into their expectations.

241 We define two measures of fiscal news in the aggregate economy that
 242 are both related to the revision of expectations of the government spending
 243 growth rate in the current quarter and in the future 3 quarters (the maximum

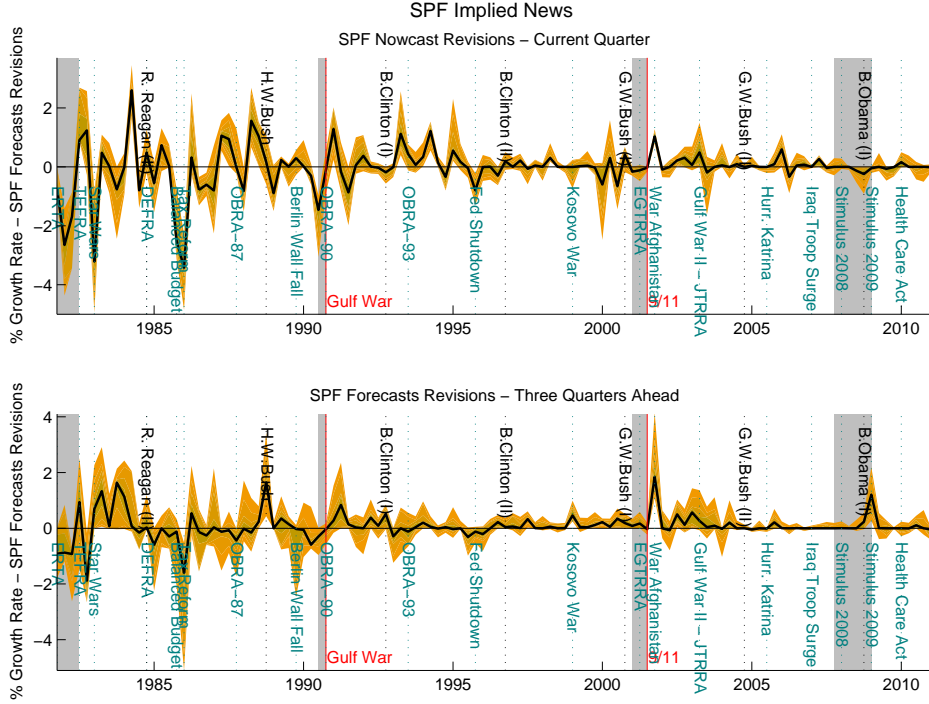


Figure 3: **Government Spending News – Fan Chart.** The figure plots the mean implied SPF news on the current quarter and for future quarters, together with forecast disagreement up to one standard deviation. Grey shaded areas indicate the NBER Business Cycle contraction dates. Vertical lines indicate the dates of the announcement of important fiscal and geopolitical events (teal), presidential elections (black), and the Ramey-Shapiro war dates (red).

244 horizon available in the data):

$$\mathcal{N}_t(0) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbb{E}_t^{*i} g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-1}^{*i} g_t) , \quad (10)$$

$$\mathcal{N}_t(1, 3) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{h=1}^3 (\mathbb{E}_t^{*i} g_{t+h} - \mathbb{E}_{t-1}^{*i} g_{t+h}) , \quad (11)$$

245 where i is the index of individual forecasters. Figure 3 plots the mean implied
 246 SPF news on the current quarter and for future quarters, together with fore-
 247 caster disagreement up to one standard deviation. In the empirical analysis
 248 which follows, we use these two news measures, labelled as *nowcast revision*
 249 (equation 10) and *forecast revision* (equation 11), respectively.

250 The identification of fiscal shocks using expectation revisions is consist-
 251 ent with an imperfect information framework. As observed in Coibion and
 252 Gorodnichenko (2010), in more general models of imperfect information, the
 253 average *ex-post* forecast errors across agents and the average *ex-ante* forecast
 254 revisions are related by the following expression:

$$\underbrace{g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-h}^* g_t}_{\text{forecast error}} = \frac{\lambda}{1 - \lambda} \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}_{t-h}^* g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-h-1}^* g_t)}_{\text{forecast revision (news)}} + u_{t-h+1,t}, \quad (12)$$

255 where λ is the parameter of information rigidity ($\lambda = 0$ in the case of full
 256 information), $\mathbb{E}_{t-h}^* x_t$ is the average forecast at time $t - h$, and $u_{t-h+1,t}$ is a
 257 linear combination of rational expectations errors from time $t - h$ to time t .
 258 Hence, conditional on the past information set, the revision of expectations
 259 is informative about structural innovations. In fact, from Equation (12) one
 260 readily obtains:

$$\underbrace{(\mathbb{E}_{t-h}^* g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-h-1}^* g_t)}_{\text{news at t-h}} = \lambda \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}_{t-h-1}^* g_t - \mathbb{E}_{t-h-2}^* g_t)}_{\text{news at t-h-1}} + (1 - \lambda) u_{t-h} . \quad (13)$$

261 In particular, we will think of the parameter of information rigidity related
 262 to fiscal spending as having two possible values, λ_L and λ_H , reflecting the
 263 policy communication regime.

264 5. A Bayesian Threshold VAR

265 In order to study the effects of policy communication in the transmis-
 266 sion of fiscal shocks, we estimate a Threshold Vector-Autoregressive (TVAR)
 267 model with two endogenous regimes. In the TVAR model, regimes are defined
 268 with respect to the level of our fiscal spending disagreement index (high and
 269 low disagreement). A threshold VAR is well suited to provide stylised facts
 270 about the signalling effects of fiscal policy and to capture difference in re-
 271 gimes with high and low disagreement. Moreover, the possibility of regime
 272 shifts after the spending shock allow us to account for possible dependency
 273 of the propagation mechanism on the size and the sign of the shock itself.

274 Following Tsay (1998), a two-regime TVAR model can be defined as

$$y_t = \Theta(\gamma - \tau_{t-d}) (C^l + A^l(L)y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^l) + \Theta(\tau_{t-d} - \gamma) (C^h + A^h(L)y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^h) , \quad (14)$$

275 where $\Theta(x)$ is an Heaviside step function, i.e. a discontinuous function whose
276 value is zero for a negative argument and one for a positive argument. The
277 TVAR model allows for the possibility of two regimes (high and low dis-
278 agreement), with different dynamic coefficients $\{C^i, A_j^i\}_{i=\{l,h\}}$ and variance
279 of the shocks $\{\Sigma_\varepsilon^i\}_{i=\{l,h\}}$. Regimes are determined by the level of a threshold
280 variable τ_t with respect to an unobserved threshold level γ . In our case, the
281 delay parameter d is assumed to be a known parameter and equal to one, in
282 order to check for the role of the communication regime in place right before
283 the shock hits the economy.⁹

284 We estimate the TVAR model using Bayesian technique and the stand-
285 ard Minnesota and sum-of-coefficients prior proposed in the macroeconomic
286 literature. The adoption of these priors has been shown to improve the
287 forecasting performance of VAR models, effectively reducing the estimation

⁹The baseline TVAR model is estimated with 3 lags. Results are, however, robust if 2 or 4 lags are included. Longer lag polynomial are not advisable due to the relatively short time series available.

288 error while introducing only relatively small biases in the estimates of the
289 parameters (e.g., Banbura et al., 2010).

290 The TVAR model specified in Eq. (14) can be estimated by maximum
291 likelihood. It is convenient to first concentrate $\{C^i, A_j^i, \Sigma_\varepsilon^i\}_{i=\{l,h\}}$, i.e., to hold
292 γ (and d) fixed and estimate the constrained MLE for $\{C^i, A_j^i, \Sigma_\varepsilon^i\}_{i=\{l,h\}}$.
293 In fact, conditional on the threshold value γ , the model is linear in the
294 parameters of the model $\{C^i, A_j^i, \Sigma_\varepsilon^i\}_{i=\{l,h\}}$. Since $\{\varepsilon_t^i\}_{i=\{l,h\}}$ are assumed to
295 be Gaussian, and the Bayesian priors are conjugate prior distributions, the
296 Maximum Likelihood estimators can be obtained by using least squares. The
297 threshold parameter can be estimated, using non-informative flat priors, as

$$\hat{\gamma} = \arg \max \log \mathcal{L}(\gamma) = \arg \min \log |\hat{\Sigma}_\varepsilon(\gamma)|, \quad (15)$$

298 where \mathcal{L} is the Gaussian likelihood (see Hansen and Seo, 2002). Details
299 on the Bayesian priors adopted, on the criteria applied for the choice of the
300 hyperparameters and on the estimation procedure are provided in the on-line
301 appendix.

302 Our baseline TVAR model includes the SPF implied fiscal news, the mean
303 SPF forecast of GDP growth for the current quarter and four quarters ahead,

304 the fiscal policy disagreement index, federal government spending, the Barro-
305 Redlick marginal tax rate¹⁰, total private consumption and investment, real
306 GDP and the Federal Fund Rate. We use quarterly data from 1981Q3 to
307 2012Q4 in real log per capita levels for all variables except those expressed
308 in rates (see on-line appendix for data description).

309 In order to identify fiscal news shocks inside our model, we assume that
310 discretionary fiscal policy does not respond to macroeconomic variables within
311 a quarter. We also assume that agents observe only lagged values of mac-
312 roeconomic variables and that, in forecasting future government spending,
313 they incorporate the discretionary policy response to the expected output.
314 Finally, we assume that there are no shocks to future realisations of output
315 not affecting its current realisation (e.g., technology or demand shocks) that
316 are foreseen by the policymakers and to which the government can react.
317 These assumptions allow for a recursive identification of the fiscal shocks in

¹⁰The marginal tax rate is originally produced at the annual frequency by Barro and Redlick (2009), based on the NBER's TAXSIM model (see website). To generate data at the quarterly frequency we have applied the Litterman (1983)'s random walk Markov temporal disaggregation model - which is a refinement of Chow and Lin (1971) that allows to avoid step changes due to serial correlation in the regression's residuals - using as indicators quarterly data on GDP, prices and tax receipts.

318 which the fiscal variables are ordered as follow

$$(\mathcal{N}_t(0) \quad \mathbb{E}_t^* \Delta \text{GDP}_t \quad \mathcal{N}_t(1, 3) \quad \mathbb{E}_t^* \Delta \text{GDP}_{t+4} \quad Y_t')' \quad (16)$$

319 and Y_t is a vector containing the macroeconomic variables of interest. Results
320 are robust to ordering expectations about future output before fiscal news
321 related to future quarters.

322 It is worth stressing that this ordering is consistent with the structure of
323 expectation revisions delivered by models of imperfect information (see equa-
324 tion 13). Indeed, the VAR structure controls for past expectations revisions
325 for a given event in time, isolating the contemporaneous structural shocks
326 from components due to the slow absorption of information.

327 **6. Disagreement and the Transmission of Fiscal Shocks**

328 Figure 4 reports the impulse responses to the 3-quarter ahead fiscal news
329 shock, formalised in equation 11, and generated by the 11-variables TVAR
330 described in equation 14. Indeed, our main objects of interest are the news
331 shocks related to future changes to government spending. In fact, given the
332 more extended time lag between news and the actual implementation of the
333 policy change, these shocks are more likely to be affected by policy commu-

334 nication than the nowcast revisions.¹¹ The responses are ‘intra-regime’ IRFs,
335 i.e, computed assuming no transition between regimes.

336 In order to facilitate the comparison between the two regimes, the impulse
337 responses have been normalised to have a unitary increase in federal spend-
338 ing at the 4-quarters horizon. Also, the IRFs of the variables in log-levels
339 have been re-scaled by multiplying them by the average ‘Variable-to-Federal
340 Spending’ ratio. In this way, the GDP, investment and consumption IRFs
341 can be interpreted in ‘dollar’ terms. The impulse responses of the Federal
342 Funds rate, of the marginal tax rate, and of the forecast and nowcast for
343 GDP growth can be interpreted in terms of basis points change. The blue
344 lines with crosses (for the low-disagreement regime, hereafter “L-D”) and red
345 lines with circle markers (for the high-disagreement regime, hereafter “H-D”)
346 indicate the reaction of the endogenous variables to an innovation in the
347 forecast spending revision, with the shaded areas describing the evolution of
348 the 68% coverage bands.

349 While the response of federal spending to the policy announcement is
350 similar across the two regimes, the TVAR results reveal a very different

¹¹The forecast revisions are also of particular interest because their time horizon is likely to include the shocks relative to budgetary news (usually impacting a period of one year, i.e., four quarters).

SPF 1981-2012 - TVAR Intra-Regimes IRFs

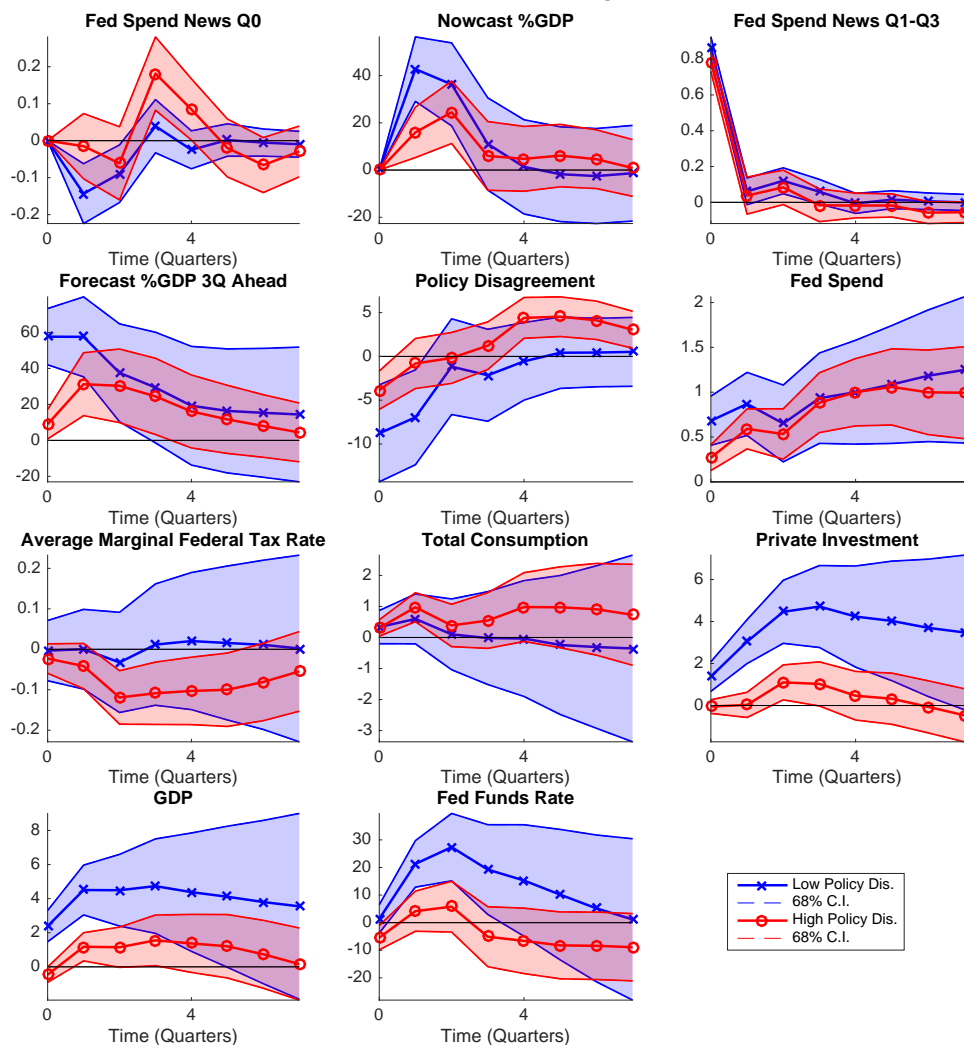


Figure 4: **Within-regime impulse responses - Impact of forecast revisions.** The shock corresponds to one standard deviation change in the revision of the spending forecasts three quarters ahead. The responses are generated under the assumption of constant disagreement regime. Impulse responses have been normalised to have a unitary increase in Federal Spending at the 4-quarters horizon. Blue crossed line and fans (68% coverage bands) are relative to the low-disagreement regime, while the red lines with circle markers and fans (68% coverage bands) are relative to the high disagreement regime. Sample: 1981Q3-2012Q4.

351 transmission mechanism in the two regimes. The GDP response is always
352 significant in the L-D regime and higher than in the H-D regime for at least
353 three quarters after the shock. We also compute cumulative medium-run
354 output multipliers, defined as the ratio between the sum of the GDP impulse
355 responses up to the selected horizon (here, at horizon 16 quarters), and the
356 corresponding sum of the responses for federal spending (see also Ilzetzki
357 et al., 2013). The cumulative multiplier in the L-D regime is around 2.7,
358 whereas the one in the H-D regime is around 0.5. The output multiplier
359 from the linear model, averaging the two regimes, is about 1.2. The stronger
360 GDP response in the L-D regime is also reflected in the impact response of
361 3-quarter ahead forecast GDP, thus confirming that a fiscal shock is more
362 powerful in affecting economic expectations in the L-D than in the H-D
363 regime.

364 The responses of the Federal Funds rate, and of total private consump-
365 tion and investment, provide some evidence on the channels through which
366 the two disagreement regimes are associated with a different propagation
367 mechanism. While the response of private consumption is essentially the
368 same in the two regimes (slightly positive on impact before becoming insig-
369 nificantly different from zero), the response of private investment in the L-D

370 regime is significant and higher than the response in the H-D regime which,
371 on the contrary, is never significantly different from zero. The accelerator
372 effect of planned fiscal spending on investment in times characterised by less
373 disagreement may be attributed to the expectation coordination effects of
374 policy communication. The average marginal tax rate declines slightly in the
375 medium run in the high disagreement regime, albeit it is not significantly
376 different from the low disagreement regime response. The monetary policy
377 stance tightens in the low disagreement case, as reflected in the more pro-
378 nounced increase of the Federal Funds Rate. This may be explained by the
379 willingness of the Fed to react to the potential inflationary pressure to the
380 announced extra spending. This seems to reflect a response to the boost
381 in demand observed following the news shock. Finally, our index of policy
382 disagreement tends to decrease in the short-run after the news shock, and
383 especially so in the low disagreement regime. This may be due to the release
384 of information about the fiscal measure, which help to coordinate expecta-
385 tions and has the effect of dissipating the disagreement built-up in the policy
386 debate prior to the announcement (as can also be inferred from Figure 2).

387 The evidence reported in Figure 4 highlights relevant differences between
388 the responses under the two regimes, thus confirming the importance of tak-

389 ing into account the degree of disagreement about future policies when ana-
390 lysing the transmission mechanism of spending shocks.¹²

391 *6.1. Exploring the Transmission Channels*

392 In this section, we further explore the transmission channels of the fiscal
393 spending shocks in the two regimes. In particular, we complement the
394 baseline model with additional variables that are added to the model fol-
395 lowing a ‘marginal approach’.

396 The first chart of Figure 5 shows the response of the Michigan’s Consumer
397 Sentiment Index to the forecast revision. The responses in the two regimes
398 are both positive on impact and in the short-run, but the response in the
399 L-D regime (blue line) is somewhat higher and more persistent than that
400 of the H-D regime (red line), revealing that a clearer policy communication
401 tends to improve private sector confidence. This result provides evidence of
402 an additional confidence channel to the transmission of fiscal shocks (see also
403 Bachmann and Sims, 2012). The figure also highlights that the responses of
404 both durable and non-durable consumption tend to be positive and significant

¹²In the on-line appendix, we also provide results for a robustness exercise carried out by varying the threshold level in an interval that excludes the higher and lower 30% observations of the threshold variable, i.e., the disagreement index. These exercise shows that the different effects stemming from the two communication regimes are confirmed when using alternative values for the disagreement threshold.

405 in the L-D regime in the short-run, whereas the H-D regime is characterised
406 by a negative durable consumption response in the short-run.

407 The responses of private investment's subcomponents help to shed more
408 light on the main drivers of the GDP response in the L-D regime which, as
409 highlighted in Figure 4, is mostly driven by the investment component of
410 GDP. As shown in Figure 5, residential fixed investment and real inventories
411 are important in explaining the strong total private investment response in
412 the L-D regime. At the same time, the non-residential investment responses
413 appear broadly similar, and not statistically different from zero, in the two
414 regimes. These results provide additional evidence of the presence of an
415 accelerator effect of planned fiscal spending on investment in times charac-
416 terised by less disagreement. The private sector appears to be willing to scale
417 up investment and inventories to accommodate the future increase in public
418 demand. The observed persistent growth of federal spending is important in
419 order to explain this behaviour.¹³

420 The response of prices, based on both CPI inflation and GDP deflator
421 inflation, turns out to be similar between the two regimes: it is generally

¹³An average positive response of private investment to fiscal spending announcement is common to news-based identifications (e.g., Ricco, 2015, Forni and Gambetti, 2014 and Ben Zeev and Pappa, 2014).

422 not significantly different from zero, except in the H-D regime where the
423 effect is somewhat negative after one year. A weak response of prices to the
424 government spending shock is in line with related research on the US.¹⁴

425 Figure 5 also shows that civilian employment tends to rise significantly in
426 the L-D regime following the news shock compared to the H-D regime, which
427 instead shows a drop. This is also mirrored in the unemployment response,
428 which falls below zero in the low disagreement scenario. The additional de-
429 mand on the labour market appears to be reflected in the upward movement
430 of wages in the L-D regime. Indeed, real wages and total hours worked sig-
431 nificantly rise in the short-run following the news shock in the L-D scenario,
432 whereas in the H-D scenario the response of wages remains muted. This
433 finding adds to the literature addressing the effects of government spend-
434 ing shocks on real wages (e.g., Perotti, 2008 and Ramey, 2011). Our results
435 shows that, in response to the identified news shock on government spending,
436 real wages tend to rise in the short-run and especially so in the L-D regime.

437 *6.2. Nonlinear Effect of Fiscal News*

438 Figure 6 presents the Generalised Impulse Response Functions (GIRFs)
439 generated by four different shocks: a small positive fiscal shock of half stand-
440 ard deviation and its symmetric negative shock (first two panels), and a large
441 fiscal shock of 1.5 standard deviation and its symmetric negative shock (last
442 two panels). GIRFs can help to understand how the impact on GDP may
443 change in relationship to the size and sign of the shock, accounting for the
444 possibility of endogenous regime shifts triggered by the propagation of the
445 fiscal spending shock (which are not taken into account in the within-regime
446 analysis presented in Figure 4). Unsurprisingly, the inclusion of possible re-
447 gime shifts reduces the difference of the IRFs across the two regimes. A
448 less clear-cut distinction between the two regimes is consistent with an endo-
449 genous propagation of the information about the shock in the economy.¹⁵ It
450 also emerges that negative and positive shocks are characterised by responses
451 that are broadly symmetric, thus highlighting that contractionary and expan-
452 sionary fiscal news have quantitatively similar effects (though, with opposite

¹⁴For example, Dupor and Li (2013) finds little evidence of a positive response of inflation to government expenditure shocks in the US since WWII, even during the Federal Reserve's passive period (1959-1979).

¹⁵The regime switching probabilities between the two regimes suggest that - in the two years following the shock - there is a probability of around 70% to switch from the L-D regime to the H-D one, and vice versa.

453 sign).

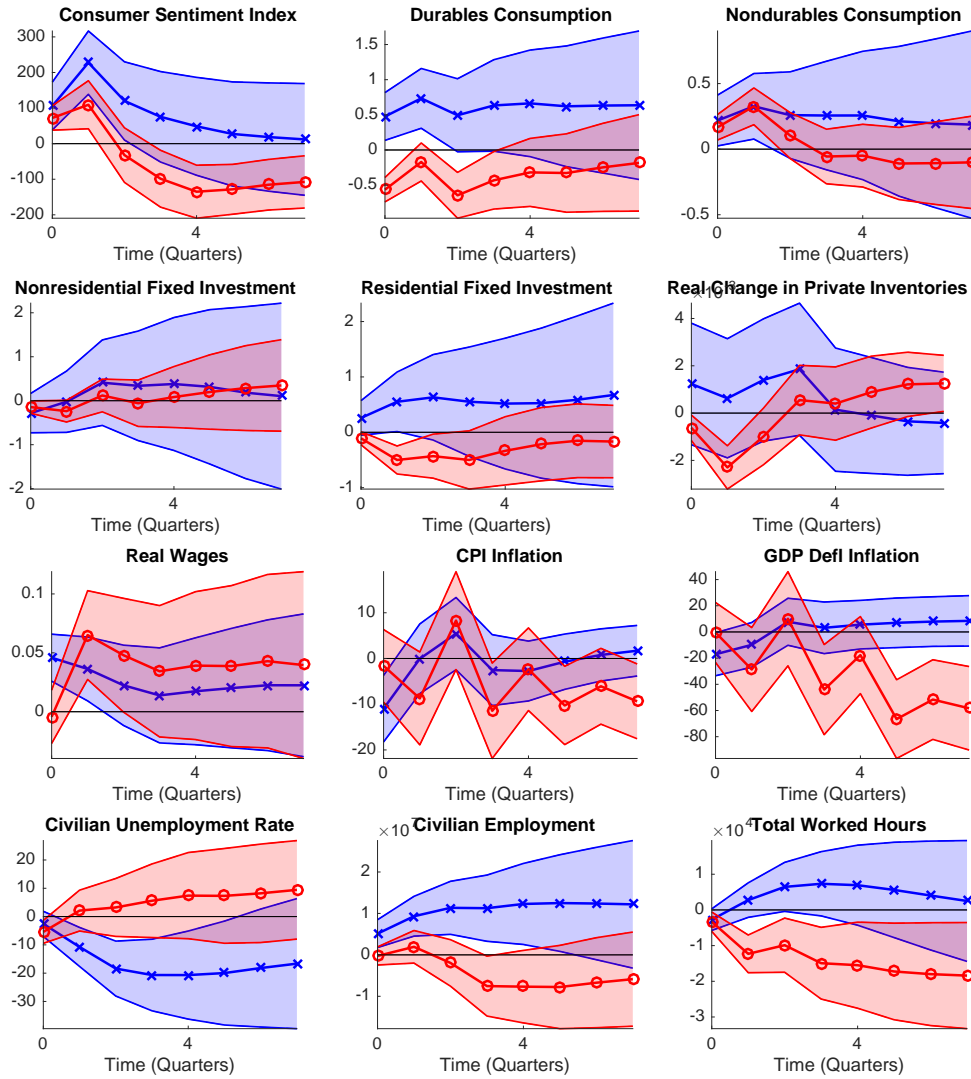


Figure 5: **Impact of forecast revisions on other variables.** Impulse responses of the Michigan’s consumer sentiment index, civilian employment and unemployment, residential fixed investment, non-residential fixed investment and inventories, durable and non-durable consumption, real wages and hours worked, GDP deflator and CPI inflation. IRFs have been estimated resorting to a ‘marginal approach’. For simplicity, we report here only the impulse response of the additional variable. The responses of the other variables are very similar to the baseline case, therefore we do not report them. Blue crossed line and fans are relative to the low-disagreement regime, while the red lines with circles and fans are relative to the high disagreement regime. Sample: 1981Q3-2012Q4.

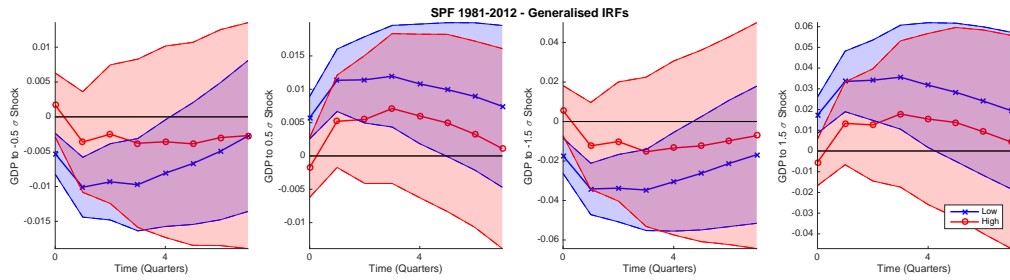


Figure 6: Inter-regime impulse responses - Impact of forecast revisions. The figure reports the GIRFs of a spending shock on GDP from four different shocks, detailed along the y-axis, generated from the baseline 11-variables TVAR. Blue crossed line and fans are relative to the low-disagreement regime, while the red lines with circles and fans are relative to the high disagreement regime. Sample: 1981Q3-2012Q4.

454 7. Conclusions

455 This paper offers new insights into the fiscal transmission mechanism in
456 the US economy by studying the role of disagreement about fiscal policy in
457 the propagation of government spending shocks. The central idea is that
458 disagreement about future government spending reveals poor signalling from
459 the government about the future stance of fiscal policies. At the same time,
460 clear fiscal policy communication can coalesce agents' expectations, thereby
461 reducing disagreement.

462 Our results provide some evidence that, in times of low disagreement
463 about future policies, the output response to news about future government
464 spending growth is positive, strong and persistent. Conversely, periods of
465 elevated disagreement are characterised by a muted output response to fiscal
466 news. The stronger impact of fiscal policy when expectations are coordin-
467 ated is mainly the result of the positive response of investment to news on
468 fiscal spending. This channel is different from the more standard consump-
469 tion accelerator effect proposed in New Keynesian models with rule of thumb
470 consumers, and poses an interesting modelling challenge. Overall, our ana-
471 lysis indicates that fiscal communication can be used as a forward guidance
472 tool to coordinate economic agents' expectations and thus consumption, in-

473 vestment and savings decisions.

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