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# A ranking of VAR and structural models in forecasting

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## Abstract

This paper ranks economic forecasts performances for two structural models against a benchmark of time series models, VAR and ARIMA, according to a set of statistical measures calculated for the main economic aggregates. The period of analysis covers twenty years for annual data (1985-2004) and 28 quarters for quarterly models (1998:1-2004:4). Furthermore, models are tested to see whether predictions contain additional information more than the one showed by a random walk process (Fair-Shiller, 1987). Results show a net supremacy of VAR models over structural models and have significant contribution to information than the one contained in the random walk process.

*JEL Classification:* C180, C320, C530.

*Keywords:* Random Walk, Structural models, Theil Criterion, VAR models.

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## **1. Introduction**

To achieve economic forecasts, practitioners use a variety of methods. Some prefer to use an implicit scheme they are built from the knowledge of the economy; the expert judgment. Others prefer using the formal diagram based on the economic theory; the structural macroeconomic models. The third category uses statistical models; time series models instead of structural models. The mix of two or more of these methods is generally used to enhance the quality of forecasts (consensus forecast). Despite their ultimate usefulness, models are subject to critics. For some economists, structural macroeconomic models are making room too much to theoretical expectations and prefer to use time series models, especially Vector Auto Regressive (VAR) models in which the place of these expectations is limited. Furthermore, VAR models appeared in the early 80s as a questioning of the methodology underlying the construction and the use of structural models (Sims, 1980) and following the famous Lucas's critic to structural models.

In practice, the advantages of a type over the other depend on the constraints related to the availability of information as well as the ability to capture agents' economic behaviors. The advantage of VAR models, for example, is that their estimate is flexible and less demanding in information and time. In addition, these models allow easily integrating new data. But the VAR models have also their drawbacks: The most one is that standard VAR models are assimilated to "black boxes" because they lack description and economic explanation of the linkages between variables as they do not refer to any economic theory framework. These weaknesses make such models an additional tool of forecasting and cannot totally substitute the structural models.

Structural models require the development of an economic theory and an accounting framework. This allows explaining linkages between variables thus providing forecasts accompanied by economic explanations. Their difficulties are related to the significant efforts of

their designs and updates.

Despite the weaknesses that could surround all these type of models, they remain vital in economic decision, especially in a changing world relying on systems increasingly complicated. Therefore, economic forecasting, despite induced errors, remains essential to policymakers.

The Department of Studies and Financial Forecasts (DSFF)<sup>1</sup>, assigned as missions to advise the Government in terms of economic policy and business cycle analysis has developed a set of tools and models for this purpose. The department constructed two relatively large size structural models that aim to provide an image of the actual functioning of the economy. The first one is on quarterly frequency data and the other one is on annual frequency data. These models are used in forecasting and impact assessment of Government policies and foreign shocks.

To assess the accuracy of the two models in forecasting, we constructed a set of time series models; autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) and vector autoregressive (VAR) models, to evaluate the performances of structural models against this benchmark of statistical models. The assessment is made based on comparison of the generated forecasting errors. This comparison is undertaken based on a set of statistical criteria and the content of information method (Fair and Shiller, 1987).

The next section presents a brief presentation of the compared models. The third section describes the methodology of comparison. The fourth part summarizes the results and the fifth one concludes.

## **2. An overview of the compared models**

Two macroeconomic structural models were developed at the Department of Studies and

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<sup>1</sup> The DSFF is a translation of the french label “Direction des Etudes et des Previsions Financieres” of the Moroccan Ministry of Economy and Finance.

Financial Forecasts to ensure the role of macroeconomic forecasts and assessment of economic policies. This section briefs these structural models as well as the constructed competing ARIMA and VAR models. These models use time series data from the structural models databases. The databases are constructed for the needs of the two structural models using different national sources from which the National Accounts data provided by the High Commissioning of Planning ([www.hcp.ma](http://www.hcp.ma)) is the main source.

### **2.1. The macroeconomic structural models**

The first model is a structural quarterly macroeconomic model abbreviated by SQMM. Over the period 1998-2002, the DSFF assigned to the "Conference Board of Canada" the construction of this model for the Moroccan economy. The objective of this model is to meet the needs of the Department in terms of forecasting, understanding of macroeconomic developments and assessment of economic policy measures and impact of external shocks. This model describes the Moroccan economy through 375 equations, from which 187 equations reflect the behaviors of economic agents. The number of control variables included in the model are of 86 including 20 variables related to the fiscal policy and 10 to the financial and monetary policies. The rest are exogenous variables regarding the international environment or demographics. The choice of specifications adopted was often imposed by arguments from theoretical or empirical considerations. The main difficulty in this model refers to deficiencies related to the information system on the quarterly data. The large number of constructed quarterly time series weakens the performance of this model.

The second structural model is an annual macroeconomic model named hereafter SAMM. The establishment of this model was conducted with the collaboration of "EUROSTAT Bureau", over the period 2002-2004, under the Free Trade Agreement between Morocco and European

Union. The goal is to replace the old annual model used previously for the preparation of the macroeconomic framework underlying the Finance Act. The old one was actually a simple sheet in Excel developed in 1996 and is not taken into account by the current comparison. The principal missions of the SAMM are: to deliver simulated scenarios of economic policies, to study the effects of exogenous shocks and to display forecasts in the short and medium term.

The general theoretical framework of the two structural models is based on a New Keynesian structure. Some patterns have been slightly modified to take into account the characteristics of the Moroccan economy, and to better reproduce the main economic linkages of the country. For this, appropriate treatments were granted to any phenomenon that presents a particular aspect for the country and contributes by a significant weight in the economy. This concerns first of all the agricultural sector which is treated as a supply side determined mainly by the frequency of the weather conditions.

## **2.2 ARIMA and VAR models:**

The two structural models of the DSFF are compared to a set of ARIMA and VAR models constructed for a number of key aggregates namely; GDP, Consumption, Gross Fixed Capital Formation, Export and Import for the annual data. For the quarterly data, GDP and added values<sup>2</sup> by sector are considered.

ARIMA model stands for Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average. It is defined as a stationary process function of its own lags (the AR component), and a moving average of stochastic errors (the MA component). The implementation of ARIMA models are done

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<sup>2</sup> Added values are: energy, mining, manufacturing, building and construction, trade, transport and communication, and other services.

following the Box-Jenkins methodology. This method follows a number of steps. The first step is to transform data to stabilize the series and determine the order of integration  $d$  by appropriate stationary tests (Augmented Dickey-Fuller and Phillips-Peron tests). The second step is to determine the number of lags  $p$  for the autoregressive component by studying the autocorrelation function (ACF) and the order  $q$  for the Moving Average component MA ( $q$ ) by considering the partial autocorrelation functions (PACF). The third step is to estimate the candidate models and run information criteria to select the best one. The fourth step run tests for autocorrelations and white noise residuals. In case of failure in the fourth step, procedure is repeated from the second step, otherwise the model is ready to use for forecast. Table 1 summarizes the best candidate models for constructed annual and quarterly ARIMA. All the models have in common an integrated component of first order; all the series are non stationary.

Table 1: ARIMA models

		AR(p)	I(d)	MA(q)	Selected model
Annual	Variables	p	d	q	ARIMA(p,d,q)
	GDP	1	1	0	ARIMA(1,1,0)
ARIMA	Import	0	1	3	ARIMA(0,1,3)
	Export	0	1	4	ARIMA(0,1,4)
models	Gross Fixed Capital Formation	0	1	1	ARIMA(0,1,1)
	Household consumption	1	1	0	ARIMA(1,1,0)
	GDP	4	1	4	ARIMA (4,1,4)
Quarterly	Added Values of :				
	➤ Energy	8	1	8	ARIMA (8,1,8)
ARIMA	➤ Mining	4	1	4	ARIMA (4,1,4)
	➤ Manufacturing	1	1	1	ARIMA (1,1,1)
Models	➤ Transport and communication	2	1	1	ARIMA (2,1,1)
	➤ Buildings and Public Works	0	1	1	ARIMA (0,1,1)
	➤ Commerce	0	1	4	ARIMA (0,1,4)
	➤ Other services	1	1	3	ARIMA (1,1,3)

On the contrary of univariate time series ARIMA, VAR models are a vector of two or more of interrelated variables in which each vector component is a function of its own past values and

the past values of the other components of the vector to a finite order  $p$  (lags). The important step in VAR modeling is the determination of the order of such lags.

All series in the previous section and others involved in the VAR models are revealed to be integrated of order 1, i.e. non-stationary and are made stationary by differentiation. Therefore, all variables are introduced in first differences. Lags, orders of VAR models  $p$ , are determined by the Akaike and Schwartz information criteria. We develop a range of models presented in table 2, namely VAR1, VAR2, VAR3 and VAR4 for annual data, VART for eight quarterly variables and VECMT is the same model in error correction form.

Table 2: VAR models

	Model	(d,p)	Variables
Annual Models	VAR1	(1,3)	GDP, consumption and import
	VAR2	(1,3)	GDP, GFCF and exports
	VAR3	(1,3)	Primary, secondary and tertiary added
	VAR4	(1,2)	GDP growth, Inflation and
Quarterly Models	VART	(1,8)	GDP and 7 added values
	VECMT	(1,6)	GDP and 7 added values

### 3. Methodology

The quality of a prediction method with respect to another is measured by a set of statistical criteria. The approach is to rank the models over a period of time according to the rule that the best model is the one on which such criteria are minimized. However, other economic criteria may provide a comparison, especially based on the content of information of the forecast. The economic criteria are indeed necessary especially when two forecasted values are inseparable in terms of statistical criteria. Other measures could be the ability to forecast structural changes or turning points. However, (Jorgenson et al. 1970) conclude that the models that fit best are those who have least structural change.



The forecast error is defined as the difference between the expected value  $\hat{Y}_{jt}$  and the observed value  $Y_{jt}$ . The statistical measures used for comparison are all based on the average of forecast errors committed in a given period  $1-N$ . The comparison can be performed on the whole common history for all models as it may be limited to a given period or some economic cycles.

### 3.1. Statistical measures

The first and simplest measure is the mean error (ME). It describes the average of forecast errors over a given period. For example, a negative average error for the percent change in real GDP reveals that this variable was underestimated during the forecast period. This measure is however useless as negative values can be canceled by positive ones. It is formulated as:

$$ME = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N (\hat{Y}_{jt} - Y_{jt})}{N} \quad (1)$$

The second measure is the mean absolute error (MAE) defined as the average of the absolute values of forecast errors. It handles the ME disadvantage and is formulated as:

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N |\hat{Y}_{jt} - Y_{jt}|}{N} \quad (2)$$

The third measure is the square root of the mean squared errors (SRMSE). This measure is similar to the previous one except that this time, the penalty associated with the forecast error increases squarely and significant errors are penalized more than smaller ones. This measure is greater than the MAE and is presented as:

$$SRMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^N (\hat{Y}_{jt} - Y_t)^2}{N}} \quad (3)$$

The coefficient of Theil U is the fourth proposed measure. In fact, SRMSE can be inefficient; this is particularly the case when the measuring unit of the data is different or when we compare levels. Indeed, an error arising from a forecast expressed in thousands of currency unit may not have the same value as a result of an error expressed in millions of the same currency. To remedy to this inconvenience, the naive model is used to construct the relative error for each variable and each forecast model. To measure the relative contribution, Theil proposed a ratio, called U, of SRMSE of the compared model  $m$  to that one provided by the naive model  $nm$ . The naive model forecasts the next period as the outcome of the current year. In case of  $U = 1$ , it indicates that the studied model performs as the naive model,  $U < 1$ , the studied model is better than the naive model and  $U > 1$  is the opposite. The ratio is:

$$U = \frac{SRMSE_m}{SRMSE_{nm}} \quad (4)$$

Another way to calculate the Theil coefficient is to standardize SRMSE using the standard deviation of changes in the variable provided during a historical period (1985- 2004). Using the standard deviation of changes in the economic variable, we normalize the forecast error and can thus compare the performance of prediction models for all variables provided not only for a variable taken individually. This method is preferable to univariate analysis. We name this statistics as SRMSSE:

$$SRMSSE = \frac{SRMSE_m}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^N (\bar{Y} - Y_t)^2}{N}}} \quad (5)$$

### 3.2. Fair and Shiller procedure

It is difficult to say that the best forecast or the best model compared to others is the one who has the best statistical criterion. If this is the case, it is to assume consistency between forecast accuracy and optimality of the use that is actually in a decision making framework: the opportunity to invest as example.

However, the criterion of information content proposed by (Fair and Shiller, 1987) enhances the previous methods of selecting the best forecasts. This method asserts that prediction is better than another when it contains more information than the other compared to a simple random walk model. Another advantage is that even when a first model is considered better than another on the basis of a statistical test, it is possible that the second contains additional information other the one contained in a random walk process compared to the first model.

Fair and Shiller construct a hypothesis test based on the following regression:

$$ze_{ik} = \alpha + \beta \cdot ze_{ik}^1 + \gamma \cdot ze_{ik}^2 + \varepsilon_t \quad (6)$$

Where ;  $ze_{ik}$  is the percent change of the observed variable  $z$  between  $t$  and  $t+k$ . For  $k=1$ , it is only the instantaneous growth rate.  $ze_{ik}^1$  and  $ze_{ik}^2$  are respectively the errors of forecasts issued from the first and the second model for the variable  $z$  between  $t$  and  $t+k$ . The null hypothesis associated test is that both models provide no additional information at the level of the variable at time  $t+k$ , with respect to a random walk. That is:

$$(H_0): \beta = 0 \text{ and } \gamma = 0 \quad (7)$$

The alternative hypothesis test is at least one of the two coefficients is non null:

$$(H_1): \beta \neq 0 \text{ and/or } \gamma \neq 0 \quad (8)$$

If  $\beta$  (respectively  $\gamma$ ) is significantly non null, then the forecast from model 1 (respectively from model 2) contains additional information absent in the prediction provided by the model of random walk and there is no additional information from prediction provided by model 2 (respectively model 1). When both coefficients are significantly different from zero at the same time, there is significant economic information in the two forecasts from the two models other than the information provided by the random walk model.

#### **4. Comparative Analysis**

The comparison presented in this section was conducted over the period 1985 to 2004 for annual forecasts. The annual comparison was made considering a sample of five economic aggregates: gross domestic product (GDP), consumption (C), gross fixed capital formation (GFCF), imports of goods and services (MGS) and exports of Goods and services (XGS). As for the analysis for the quarterly models, the comparison was made between 1998 and 2004 over a sample of eight variables namely; GDP and added values of energy, mining, manufacturing, construction and public works, commerce, transport and communication and other services. In addition, the statistical measures are calculated for the variables growth rates instead of their levels.

##### **4.1. Comparison by statistical criteria**

The objective is to rank different models of the Department of Studies and Financial

Forecasts by their ability to predict the future. This depends on the capacity to generate the history. Assuming that a good model in forecasting is the one able to well simulate its data history, the forecasted variables are drawn from backward simulations of the observed data. The prediction error  $e_{Mt}$  at time  $t$  for a model  $M$  and a variable  $Y$  is defined as the difference between the simulated  $\hat{Y}_{Mt}$  value and the observed value  $Y_t$ :  $e_{Mt} = \hat{Y}_{Mt} - Y_t$

First, we evaluate models according to the annual statistical criteria, based on a single variable (real economic growth). Second, we compare the models for a sample of variables (GDP and its components) for each criterion separately. Finally, the same approach is used for the quarterly comparison.

#### 4.1.1 Ranking of annual models

Table 3 shows the statistical measures of forecast errors calculated for the annual real GDP growth for the benchmark of the annual models. The last two columns of the table stand for ranks of models according to the criterion of Theil U (Rank1) and SMRSSE (Rank2). It also includes the average of measures over all models. Finally, measured criteria obtained from the naive model are also considered for comparison in the last row.

Table 3: Rank of annual models based on the forecast of real GDP growth.

	ME	MAE	SMRSE	U	SMRSS	Rank1	Rank2
SAMM	-0.65	2.13	2.67	0.29	0.28	5	4
ARIMA	0.47	4.61	5.86	0.64	0.97	6	6
VAR1	-0.10	0.85	1.04	0.11	0.11	1	1
VAR2	-0.36	1.01	1.30	0.14	0.14	3	3
VAR3	-0.18	0.92	1.26	0.14	0.13	2	2
Average	-0.16	1.90	2.43	0.26	0.33	4	5
Naïve	0,00	7,32	9,16	1,00	0,97	7	7

This table shows that the three VAR models rank highest according to all measures, followed by the annual model. These models are better than the average of the six models. The ARIMA ranks sixth on the average of models according to U and SMRSSE statistics. According to these

criteria, applied to a single variable, the real GDP growth, we conclude that the VAR models are much better than the structural models in forecasting.

However, it is too early to make a judgment considering only one variable as a basis for ranking. In what follows, we present a series of comparison on the basis of a sample of the main economic variables according to statistical criteria. Table 4 shows calculated statistical measures (SRMSE, U of Theil and SRMSSE) for the forecast errors from annual models (SAMM, ARIMA and VAR) for a sample of variables (GDP, Consumption, Investment, Imports and Exports). We also consider the average over the three annual models and the naïve model calculations in the two last rows. The seventh column shows, for the models, the sum for each criterion over the five variables. This allows ranking the models under this criterion for this sample of variables.

Table 4: Models' Ranking based on statistical criteria

SRMSE	GDP	C	GFCF	M	X	Sum	Rank
SAMM	2.67	3.22	5.11	6.47	1.84	19.31	1
ARIMA	5.86	5.69	9.14	6.5	5.54	32.73	4
VAR	1.20	2.11	6.44	3.37	6.44	19.56	2
Average	3.24	3.67	6.90	5.45	4.61	23.87	3
Naïve	9.16	9.92	8.28	8.52	10.07	45.95	5
U of	GDP	C	GFCF	M	X	Sum	Rank
SAMM	0.29	0.32	0.66	0.76	0.18	2.21	2
ARIMA	0.64	0.62	1.1	0.76	0.75	3.87	4
VAR	0.13	0.21	0.78	0.4	0.64	2.16	1
Average	0.35	0.38	0.85	0.64	0.52	2.75	3
Naive	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	5
SRMSSE	GDP	C	GFCF	M	X	Sum	Rank
SAMM	0.28	0.32	0.60	0.74	0.18	2.12	2
ARIMA	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.97	4.88	5
VAR	0.13	0.21	0.76	0.39	0.62	2.11	1
Average	0.46	0.50	0.78	0.70	0.59	3.04	3
Naive	0.66	0.63	0.92	0.86	0.79	3.86	4

According to SRMSE measure, the annual model is nearly better than the VAR model while for the two criteria of Theil (U and SRMSSE), the VAR model is slightly overcoming the annual

model. The two models rank high over the single time series model (ARIMA) and the naïve model. Over the five variables, the annual model is better in forecasting exports and investments while the VAR is better in forecasting GDP, imports and consumption.

Based on annual data, we can say that the contribution of structural models in forecasting is far from been superior to relatively simple methods of forecasting (VAR methods). Note also that the VAR and the annual models are not clearly distinguishable as to the criterion of SRMSSE; this measure is 2.12 for the annual model versus 2.11 for the VAR. This result suggests more examination in terms of information contained in the forecast (Fair and Shiller procedure).

#### 4.1.2 Ranking of quarterly models

Table 5 summarizes the results of statistical measures applied to the forecasts errors of real GDP growth generated by the quarterly models. The last two columns of the table present a ranking of the models according respectively to the Theil U (Rank1) and SRMSSE (Rank2) measures.

Table 5: Ranking of quarterly models based on forecasts of real GDP growth

	ME	MAE	SRMSE	U Theil	SRMSSE	Rank1	Rank2
SQMM	-0.26	1.97	2.75	1.77	2.10	5	5
VAR	-0.04	0.64	0.73	0.35	0.56	1	1
ARIMA	0.01	1.49	1.86	1.20	1.42	4	4
Average	-0.10	1.37	1.78	1.11	1.36	3	3
Naïve	1.28	1.39	1.55	1.00	1.18	2	2

The results confirm the improved performance of statistical models such as VAR models with respect to structural models. Indeed, the VAR method ranks first according to all considered criteria; U of Theil, SRMSSE, SRMSE and MAE. The quarterly model SQMM and ARIMA perform less than the average and the naïve model.

Table 6 provides statistical measures for the same models over a sample of GDP and seven

sectoral values added namely ; Energy (VA1), Mining (VA2), Manufacturing (VA3), Commerce (VA4), Building and Public Works (VA5), Transport and Communication (VA6) and Other Services (VA7). The last column of the table delivers the rank based on the sum of the measures over the variables for each model.

Table 6: Ranking of quarterly models

<b>SRMSE</b>	GDP	VA1	VA2	VA3	VA4	VA5	VA6	VA7	Sum	Rank
SQMM	2.75	4.07	5.61	2.95	2.00	3.46	1.47	3.35	25.66	4
VAR	0.73	3.41	6.80	1.33	2.25	3.74	2.10	1.83	22.20	2
ARIMA	1.86	4.50	8.59	1.85	1.33	3.97	2.93	1.83	26.87	5
Average	1.78	3.99	7.00	2.05	1.86	3.72	2.17	2.34	24.91	3
Naïve	1.55	3.43	4.81	1.66	1.04	3.73	2.41	1.74	20.37	1
<b>U of</b>	GDP	VA1	VA2	VA3	VA4	VA5	VA6	VA7	Sum	Rank
SQMM	1.77	1.19	1.17	1.78	1.93	0.93	0.61	1.93	11.30	5
VAR	0.35	1.00	1.40	0.81	1.88	0.95	0.78	0.95	8.10	2
ARIMA	1.20	1.31	1.79	1.12	1.28	1.06	1.21	1.05	10.03	4
Average	1.11	1.17	1.45	1.24	1.70	0.98	0.87	1.31	9.81	3
Naïve	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	8.00	1
<b>SRMSS</b>	GDP	VA1	VA2	VA3	VA4	VA5	VA6	VA7	Sum	Rank
SQMM	2.10	1.20	1.15	2.08	1.99	0.97	0.66	2.80	12.94	5
VAR	0.56	1.01	1.40	0.94	2.24	1.04	0.94	1.53	9.65	2
ARIMA	1.42	1.33	1.76	1.31	1.32	1.11	1.31	1.53	11.09	3
Average	1.36	1.18	1.44	1.44	1.85	1.04	0.97	1.95	11.23	4
Naïve	1.18	1.01	0.99	1.17	1.03	1.04	1.08	1.45	8.95	1

Over the three measures, the VAR model overcomes the structural quarterly model (SQMM).

Considering Theil measures (U and SRMSSE), the quarterly model is even surpassed by the ARIMA model.

#### 4.2. Comparison by Fair and Shiller procedure

According to the statistical criteria in the previous section, VAR models generally overcome structural models. The following section applies the method of Fair and Shiller to rank the models in terms of information contained in the forecasts. The same samples of variables used in comparison with the previous statistical criteria were considered for analysis in this section.



Table 7 shows the Failler and Shiller method applied to annual models for a sample of five variables. The first row of the table tests the simultaneous nullity of two coefficients; the two forecasts (of the VAR and the SAMM Models) do not provide any additional information other than that contained in the random walk model. The second row tests the nullity of the coefficient estimates of the VAR; the forecast of the VAR does not provide any additional information than the one already contained in the random walk model, while the third row of the table tests the same hypothesis for the forecast of the structural model SAMM. The last column of the table shows the Fisher statistics read from the Fisher-Snedecor distribution table for a probability of acceptance of the null hypothesis equal 5% and with 17 degrees of freedom (regression is made on 20 observations, from 1985 to 2004, leading to 17 degrees of freedom after removal of 2 explanatory variables and the intercept). This statistic is compared to the empirical Fisher statistics shown by the output of the regression for each variable. The number of tests is the number of 15 linear regression models; two forecasts to test jointly and then separately for the five variables in the sample.

Both VAR and annual models bring additional information than that already contained in the forecast by a model of random walk for three variables: gross fixed capital formation, imports of goods and services and exports of goods and services. By contrast, for GDP and consumption, the null hypothesis of coefficients from simultaneous regression is accepted. Both models do not provide any additional information other than that provided by forecasts of a random walk model for the two variables; GDP and consumption. Individually, the tests confirm the superiority of VAR models as to the contribution to information other than the one provided by the random walk model. Indeed, except for the variable of imports of goods and services, where the annual model outweighs the VAR, the null hypothesis is rejected for the VAR and the results are in favor of auto-regressive models.

Table 7: Results of Fair and Shiller method applied to annual models

Annual	GDP	C	GFCF	M	X	F table at
F(2,17)	1.02*	3.28*	6.20	5.12	6.28	3.59
F(1,17)	1.71*	6.01	12.74	3.17*	53.39	4.45
F(1,17)	0.39*	0.05*	0.05*	9.05	2.80*	

\*: significant at 5%, i.e. we accept the null hypothesis if :  $F_{table} > F_{empirical}$ .

For quarterly models, results of Fair and Shiller regression are presented in table 8. The first column presents the variables labels, the second shows the simultaneous regression Fisher statistics for each variable while the two last columns show the Fisher p-values results for the VAR and SQMM separately. The last row reports the Fisher table statistic at the 5% threshold. Among the eight considered variables, only “other services” variable is generally not significant at the simultaneous regression. For the rest of the variables, where the regression is significant, the results are strong for the VAR model while the regression is significant only for two variables for the quarterly model; GDP and Mining value added. This result confirms the supremacy of the VAR model against the structural model in term of forecasting.

Table 8: Results of Fair and Shiller method applied to quarterly models

	F(2,27) (VAR vs SQMM)	F(1,27) (VAR)	F(1,27) (SQMM)
GDP	6.48	35.50	5.21
Energy	28.14	57.52	3.28*
Mining	22.82	41.13	4.69
Manufacturing	42.01	87.84	1.12*
Commerce	27.78	69.91	1.25*
Buildings and public works	111.88	305.11	0.06*
Transport and communication	36.70	85.78	0.15*
Other services	2.32*	4.10*	0.39*
Fisher table à 5%	3.35	4.21	4.21

\*: significant at 5%, i.e. we accept the null hypothesis if :  $F_{table} > F_{empirical}$ .

## 5. Conclusion and policy recommendations

The comparison allows drawing some lessons to better develop the art of forecasting. The main conclusion is that VAR models, despite they can't fully describe the mechanisms of

functioning for the economy, have shown that they can provide forecasts significantly higher than those obtained from structural macroeconomic models. However, risk associated with decisions based on forecasting is so big. To minimize such risk, forecasters would require a variety of tools to predict and assess the economic and financial forecasts. Mixing tools diminishes the risks associated with relying on one economic model.

The benchmark tools of forecasting presented in this paper has to rely more on estimates derived from vector auto-regression models, given their dominance on all considered criteria. Certainly, this type of models cannot completely be a substitute for structural macroeconomic models, since latter in contrary offer a whole picture of how the economy evolves, but they can be rather a reference or a support in assessing the accuracy of the structural models in forecasting. Furthermore, the tradeoff between constraints of time, logistics and information consumed by structural models, by opposite to the VAR models, to respond to quick deliveries of forecasted information, make building a structural model for such forecasts like constructing a tank to kill a fly.

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