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Predictive Evaluation of Econometric Forecasting Models in Commodity Futures Markets

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Abstract. *The predictive accuracy of various econometric models, including random walks, vector-autoregressive and vector-error-correction models, are investigated using daily futures prices of four commodities (the S&P500 index, treasury bonds, gold, and crude oil). All models are estimated using a rolling-window approach, and evaluated by both in-sample and out-of-sample performance measures. The criteria considered include system criteria, where we evaluate multiequation forecasting models, and univariate forecast-accuracy criteria. The five univariate criteria are root mean square error (RMSE), mean absolute deviation (MAD), mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), confusion matrix (CM), and confusion rate (CR). The five system criteria used include the trace of second-moment matrix of the forecast-errors matrix (TMSE), the trace of second-moment matrix of percentage-forecast errors (TMAPE), the generalized forecast-error second-moment matrix (GFESM), and a trading-rule profit criterion (TPC) based on a maximum-spread trading strategy. An in-sample criterion, the mean Schwarz information criteria (MSIC), is also computed. Our results suggest that error-correction models perform better in shorter forecast horizons, when models are compared based on quadratic loss measures and confusion matrices. However, the error-correction models which we consider perform better at all forecast horizons (one to five steps ahead) when models are compared based on a profit-maximization loss function. Further, our error-correction model, where the error-correction term is constructed according to a cost-of-carry equilibrium condition, outperforms our alternative error-correction model, which uses the price spreads as the error-correction term.*

Keywords. forecasting, futures market, cointegration

1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been continued interest in the forecastability of future spot prices using the term structure of futures prices. This research is motivated by both the need to test economic theories, and by the desire to evaluate alternative forecasting strategies. In Fama and French (1987) and French (1986), for example, the forecastability of futures prices is used as evidence to support both the cost-of-carry equilibrium

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theory of Kaldor (1939), Working (1949), Brennan (1958), and Telser (1958), where the basis (the difference between futures and spot prices) is explained by storage costs and a convenience-yield component, and the view that the basis can be explained by the expected-risk premium (Dusak 1973; Breeden 1980; Hazuka 1984). In Bessembinder et al. (1995) and Swanson, Zeng, and Kocagil (1996), forecastability of commodity prices is related to mean reversions. Swanson and White (1995) evaluate the information in the term structure of interest rates using linear and nonlinear models. Wahab, Cohn, and Lashgari (1994) examine gold-silver intermarket arbitrage, based on predictions from cointegrating relationships. Lu and Leuthold (1994) investigate cointegration relations among spot and futures prices of corn and soybeans, and related implications for hedging and forecasting.

In this article, we examine the forecast performance of several models using daily futures prices for four commodities. The econometric models used include a random walk without drift (RW), a random walk with drift (RWD), a vector-autoregressive model with time trend (VAR), a vector error-correction model with the price spread as the error-correction term (SPD), and a vector error-correction model with the cost-of-carry as the error-correction term (COC). One question that we attempt to answer has been previously addressed by Clements and Hendry (1995) and Hoffman and Rasche (1996); namely: What is the advantage of incorporating cointegrating relations in short- and medium-term forecasting models? We also examine two different error-correction terms based on different theories.

To allow the term structure of prices to evolve over time, we estimate all models dynamically, using fixed-length rolling windows of 250 days (approximately one year), and construct forecasts based on forecast horizons of one day to five days (one-step-ahead to five-step-ahead forecasts). The data used to forecast prices is updated daily as new observations become available, and ex ante forecasts are constructed. The results are then compared with true values, and out-of-sample forecasting errors are generated. Then, a number of model-selection criteria based on these errors are applied and analyzed. Such an approach, often called a model-selection approach, has advantages over the more traditional hypothesis-testing approach. One reason is that the approach allows us to focus on out-of-sample forecasting performance without worrying about the specification of a correct model.

The model-selection criteria considered in this paper include both full system criteria, where multiequation forecast models are examined, and univariate forecast-evaluation criteria, based on each variable in the system. The five univariate criteria include root-mean-square error (RMSE), mean-absolute deviation (MAD), mean-absolute percentage error (MAPE), confusion matrix (CM), and confusion rate (CR). The five system criteria used include the trace of second-moment matrix of forecast errors matrix (TMSE), the trace of second-moment matrix of percentage forecast errors (TMAPE), the generalized forecast-error second-moment matrix (GFESM), as well as a trading-rule profit criterion (TPC) based on a maximum-spread trading strategy. An in-sample criterion, the mean Schwarz information criterion (MSIC), is also computed. Furthermore, we also conduct two statistical tests. One is based on the confusion rate, and tests whether a model is useful as a predictor of the sign of price changes. The other test is the asymptotic loss differential test of Diebold and Mariano (1995), which examines whether two models are equally accurate, based on predictive ability.

By adopting a model-selection approach to commodity prices in a real-time forecasting scenario, we attempt to shed light on the usefulness of econometric forecasting, and the empirical relevance of modeling theoretical relationships between futures and spot prices when constructing forecasting models. Moreover, we propose a heuristic approach to modeling stochastic cointegration which is implied by the cost-of-carry equilibrium, and find that these models outperform other models, which are in many cases more parsimonious, especially when a profit measure is used to compare models. In particular, our results suggest that error-correction models perform better in shorter forecast horizons, when models are compared based on quadratic loss measures and confusion matrices. However, the error-correction models that we consider perform better at all forecast horizons (one to five steps ahead) when models are compared based on a profit-maximization loss function. Further, our error-correction model, where the error-correction term is

constructed according to a cost-of-carry equilibrium condition, outperforms our alternative error-correction model, which uses price spreads as the error-correction terms.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses data, while Section 3 outlines the forecasting models examined in this paper. Section 4 describes estimation strategies, and Section 5 introduces the model-selection criteria used. Section 6 summarizes the results and concludes.

2 Data

Daily settlement prices for four futures markets are employed. All price data are obtained from Knight-Ridder Financial's CRB InfoTech Commodity data base. Our samples include two mineral contracts (crude oil and gold) and two financial contracts (Treasury bonds and the S&P 500 index). Crude-oil data are from the New York Mercantile Exchange, gold data are from the New York Commodity Exchange, Treasury bond data are from the Chicago Board of Trade, and the S&P 500 index is from the Chicago Mercantile Exchange.

Our sample period starts on April 1, 1990 and ends on October 31, 1995. The out-of-sample period used is April 1, 1991 to October 31, 1995. Thus, the first forecast (for April 1, 1991) is constructed based on in-sample estimation using the period April 1, 1990 to March 30, 1991. The one-year in-sample size is chosen arbitrarily. However, we don't expect that the results will be affected. In Swanson, Zeng, and Kocagil (1996), we used the same data with three-month, six-month, and one-year in-sample sizes, and did not find any effects from choosing different in-sample sizes. Futures prices are collected for the active contract months of the commodities, which are months 1–12 for crude oil, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 for gold, and 3, 6, 9, and 12 for both Treasury bonds and the S&P 500 index. Futures prices are ordered according to their maturity, and are called *nearby prices*, with the nearby one corresponding to the nearest maturity, and the nearby two referring to contract with the second nearest maturity, etc. Several nearby price series are created for each commodity. In particular, for crude oil, gold, and Treasury bonds, eight nearby price series are created, while three series for the S&P 500 index are created. Overall, the sample size is around 1,400 for each commodity.

According to Bessembinder et al. (1995), Bailey and Chan (1993), and Fama and French (1987), the prices of first-nearby futures contracts can be used to proxy for the spot price. Therefore, our analysis based on the futures prices can also be extended to *basis movements*, or spreads between futures prices and spot prices. One advantage of using futures prices is that we avoid problems that arise when overlapping contracts are used, as well as problems associated with the volatility near the delivery periods.

3 Forecasting Models

The first model we consider is a simple random walk without drift. Let F_t be an $N \times 1$ price vector at time t for a given commodity, and let N be the number of nearby contracts this commodity has. Thus, $F_t = (F_{1,t}, \ldots, F_{N,t})'$, where $F_{j,t}$ is the j^{th} nearby contract price. Then:

$$F_t = F_{t-1} + e_t, \tag{RW}$$

where e_t is an $N \times 1$ vector of white-noise errors.

The second model considered is also a random walk, but with a drift term:

$$F_t = \alpha + F_{t-1} + e_t, \tag{RWD}$$

where α is an $N \times 1$ vector of intercepts. Random-walk models explicitly impose a unit root on the system, and often perform well relative to a wide class of more complex models, in practice, and are thus useful benchmarks.

The third model examined is a linear vector-autoregressive model defined as follows:

$$F_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 t + \sum_{i=1}^{p} A_i F_{t-i} + e_t, \tag{VAR}$$

where α_0 and α_1 are $N \times 1$ vectors, and A_i $(i = 1, \ldots, p)$ are $N \times N$ coefficient matrices. Notice that the forecasts are based on price levels rather than differences. Level VARs may outperform differenced VARs empirically, even though the variables are nonstationary. One reason why this may be the case is that differencing could result in a loss of information.

We also examine two vector-error-correction models (VECs). One of them uses price spreads as the error-correction terms:

$$(1 - L)F_t = \alpha + CZ_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} B_i(1 - L)F_{t-i} + e_t, \tag{SPD}$$

$$Z_{t-1} = (Z_{1,t-1}, \ldots, Z_{N-1,t-1})', \text{ and}$$

$$Z_{j,t-1} = F_{j+1,t-1} - F_{j,t-1}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, N-1.$$

Notice that L is the lag operator, Z_{t-1} is an $(N-1) \times 1$ vector, α is an $N \times 1$ vector, C is an $N \times (N-1)$ matrix, and B_i $(i = 1, \ldots, p)$ are $N \times N$ coefficient matrices. Augmented Dicky Fuller (ADF) tests were done for all elements of Z_{t-1}, for each commodity, and all were found to be I(0), using the terminology of Engle and Granger (1987), at the 5% level. (Also, all elements of F_t for each commodity were found to be I(1)). In our second VEC model, we define the error-correction terms by examining the cost-of-carry equilibrium condition.

The theory of storage stipulates that the j^{th} $(j = 1, \ldots, p)$ nearby futures price, $F_{j,t}$, and the i^{th} $(i = 1, \ldots, p)$ nearby futures price, $F_{i,t}$ $(i < j)$, must satisfy the following equation:

$$F_{j,t} = F_{i,t}e^{S_{ij,t}(\tau - t)} \tag{1}$$

where $S_{ij,t}$ is the continuously compounded rate of the cost of carry, minus the rate of the convenience yield for the period between the expiration dates of the i^{th} and j^{th} nearby contracts, and $\tau - t$ is the maturity difference between j^{th} and i^{th} contracts. The above relationship holds given a no-arbitrage condition, in the absence of transaction costs, delivery-option features of the futures contracts. It follows from Equation 1 that futures prices are cointegrated (given prices are I(1) and that $S_{ij,t}(\tau - t)$ is I(0)), with cointegration vector $(1, -e^{S_{ij,t}(\tau - t)})$. This type of cointegration vector may be called stochastic; see Granger and Swanson (1997) for further details.

We estimate the cointegration vectors among the pairs of futures contracts by taking the average of $S_{ij,t}$, which is computed directly from Equation 1:

$$S_{ij,t} = \frac{(\ln F_{j,t} - \ln F_{i,t})}{(j - i) * cl},$$

where cl is the number of days within a single cycle of a given commodity. For example, gold has a delivery cycle of two months, so $cl = 2 \times 20 = 40$ days, assuming there are 20 trading days in a month. Actually, $cl = (\tau - t)/(j - i)$, where $\tau - t$ is the maturity differential between the two contracts. Let S_t be the average of $S_{ij,t}$ $(i, j = 1, \ldots, p$, and $i < j)$, or

$$S_t = \left(\frac{1}{M}\right) \sum_{j=i+1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} S_{ij,t},$$

where $M = N(N-1)/2$ is the number of different pairs given a commodity. We then approximate each $S_{ij,t}$ by S_t. The corresponding vector-error correction is:

$$(1 - L)F_t = A + CZ_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} B_i(1 - L)F_{t-i} + e_t, \tag{COC}$$

$$Z_{t-1} = (Z_{1,t-1}, \ldots, Z_{N-1,t-1})', \text{ and}$$

$$Z_{j,t-1} = F_{j+1,t-1} - e^{S_{t-1}(j-i)*cl}F_{j,t-1}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, N-1.$$

4 Estimation Strategies

The estimations of random-walk models are implemented directly, with drift terms computed from the price average in each given rolling window of observations. The VAR parameters are estimated by using the least squares method. The lag length is selected by minimizing the Schwarz Information Criteria (SIC), calculated as follows:

$$\mathrm{SIC} = \ln(|\Sigma|) + n * \ln 250 / 250,$$

where $|\Sigma|$ is the determinant of the covariance matrix, based on the in-sample regression residuals, and n is the total number of parameters estimated in all equations. For example, if each equation is an N-variable VAR with p lags, an intercept, and a deterministic time trend, each equation will have $2 + pN$ parameters and $n = pN^2 + 2N$. The SIC penalizes the addition of more lag variables by increasing (thus offsetting) the effect of reduced $|\Sigma|$ from including extra variables in the VAR. Our strategy is to choose an "optimal" lag length, by beginning with a maximum $p = 12$ lags, and decreasing p until the SIC is minimized. The maximum lag chosen really does not matter in our cases, as the final lag length is often 1 or 2.

Note that seemingly unrelated regression does not improve the efficiency of the least-square estimators, because all regressions have identical right-hand-side variables, and the error terms are assumed to be serially uncorrelated with constant variance. Also, we estimate VARs in levels. Excellent discussions on applying VAR models can be found in Sim (1980), Enders (1995), Hoffman and Rasche (1996), and Clements and Hendry (1995). Using level VARs instead of differenced VARs can be justified by noting that differencing might lead to a loss of information with respect to comovements among variables. The advantage of applying level VARs is that we may better mimic the true data-generating process. Vector-error correction models are also estimated using the least-squares method. However, the SIC is used to first select the number of error-correction terms, and then the order p of the VECs.

Finally, we adopt a rolling-window regression approach in all estimations. We estimate the parameters of all regressions at each point of time using a fixed sample size, and then forecast prices based on these estimated parameters. At each day, all the estimators and models are updated as our fixed 250-day sample moves forward one period. The forecasting horizons examined are one to five days, or one to five steps ahead.

5 Model-Selection Criteria

We employ a number of out-of-sample model-selection criteria to evaluate the predictive performance of the five models considered, across four commodities and five forecast horizons. These criteria can be classified into two categories: criteria for a multi-equation system, and criteria for a univariate forecast.

All criteria are calculated using forecast errors based on all rolling samples, and forecast horizons. Since we construct one- to five-steps ahead forecasts, each model generates five error series, and five system-wide model-selection criteria are calculated for each of the five forecasting models examined. As a result, $5 \times 5 \times 5 = 125$ system-wide statistics are computed. Meanwhile, we also examine the forecasting performance of a single variable within each system, or all nearby-contract prices for each commodity. Since there are five criteria for the univariate forecast evaluation, we will produce $5 \times 5 \times 8 = 200$ (criteria $\times$ forecast horizon $\times$ nearby contracts) criteria values for Treasury bonds, gold, and crude oil, and $5 \times 5 \times 4 = 100$ criteria values for the S&P 500 index. We also construct Diebold and Mariano predictive-accuracy tests for pairwise model comparison, as well as a market-timing test based on confusion matrices and associated χ^2 tests of independence. Next we discuss each criterion used.

5.1 The Evaluation Criteria for the Full System

5.1.1 The Trace of Mean-Square-Error Matrix: TMSE

$$\text{TMSE} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sqrt{\frac{\text{trace}(U_t' U_t)}{T}},$$

where T is the number of out-of-sample forecast errors, and *trace* stands for the trace of the bracketed matrix.

5.1.2 The Trace of Mean-Absolute Percentage-Error Matrix: TMAPE

$$\text{TMAPE} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sqrt{\frac{\text{trace}[(U_t./F_t)'(U_t./F_t)]}{T}},$$

where F_t is the price vector that we forecast, and ./ denotes element-by-element division.

5.1.3 The Generalized Forecast-Error Second Moment: GFESM The GFESM was proposed by Clements and Hendry (1993). They showed that minimization of the GFESM is equivalent to maximizing the corresponding predictive-likelihood function. The major advantage of GFESM is its property of invariance to linear transformations of the variables. Also, it condenses the relative forecast performance of all horizons into a single criterion. Clements and Hendry (1993) recommended the following:

$$\text{GFESM} = \ln|V_T|,$$

$$V_t = E(U_t U_t'),$$

$$U_t' = (U_{t+1}', \ldots, U_{t+h}'), \text{ and}$$

$$U_{t+i}' = (U_{1,t+1}', \ldots, U_{N,t+h}'), \quad i = 1, \ldots, 5,$$

where E is the expectation operator, h is the longest forecast horizon, and $u_{j,t+i}$, $j = 1, \ldots, N$ are the i-steps-ahead forecast error associated with the j^{th} nearby forecast, for some given commodity. We use Newey-West (1987) autocorrelation and a heteroskedasticity consistent covariance-matrix estimator to estimate V_T, to ensure that it is positive definite. In particular:

$$\hat{V}_T = \hat{\Gamma}_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{5} \left(1 - \frac{m}{6}\right)(\hat{\Gamma}_m + \hat{\Gamma}_m'), \text{ and}$$

$$\hat{\Gamma}_m = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=m+1}^{T} U_t U_{t-m}', \quad m = 0, 1, \ldots, 5.$$

5.1.4 The Mean Schwarz Information Criterion: MSIC The SIC is a complexity penalized likelihood measure (see Schwarz 1978; Rissanen 1978). It is the only in-sample model-selection criterion used in this paper. The in-sample SIC may not offer a convenient shortcut to true out-of-sample performance, as was shown in Swanson and White (1995). However, the in-sample SIC can be very useful in other contexts, such as in selecting candidate forecasts in forecast combination (see Swanson and Zeng 1996). The Mean Schwarz Information Criteria (MSIC) is calculated as follows:

$$\text{MSIC} = \ln(|\Sigma|) + n \ln 250/250$$

5.1.5 The Trading-Rule Profitability Criterion: TPC Our final system measure is a trading-rule based profitability criterion. As was suggested by Leitch and Tanner (1991), conventional selection statistics like mean-square errors may not be closely related to economic profits. This implies that a profit measure may be more appropriate to evaluate the forecasts from our different models.

We construct an intracommodity trading strategy (a maximum-spread trading strategy). The spreads are the price differentials between futures contracts with different maturities. For a given commodity that has N nearby contracts, the total number of spreads will be $N(N-1)/2$. For an h-step-ahead forecast, the maximum-spread trading strategy can be conducted as follows:

Step 1. At time t, forecast all nearby-contract prices of F_{t+h} (h-steps ahead).

Step 2. Select the i^{th} and j^{th} nearby contracts, such that $|(P_{i,t} - P_{j,t}) - (F_{i,t+h} - F_{j,t+h})|$ is the maximum among $N(N-1)/2$ possible spreads. Here, $P_{i,t}$, and $P_{j,t}$ are the current futures prices of the i^{th} nearby contract and the j^{th} nearby contract.

Step 3. At time t, shorten the spread $(P_{i,t} - P_{j,t})$, when $(P_{i,t} - P_{j,t}) - (F_{i,t+h} - F_{j,t+h})$ is positive; or shorten the spread $(P_{j,t} - P_{i,t})$ when $(P_{i,t} - P_{j,t}) - (F_{i,t+h} - F_{j,t+h})$ is negative.

Step 4. At $t+h$, lengthen the same spread, and cash in the "profit."

Step 5. Repeat Steps 1–4, and accumulate the losses or profits until the sample expires.

Thus, one examines comparable spreads of contracts maturing at different dates for the same commodity. If one spread is anticipated to fluctuate most, then either lengthen or shorten that spread today, depending upon the direction of forecasts, and take the opposite position in the same spread in the next period.

Note that the above rule is a buy-and-hold strategy, where the arbitrageurs during each day enter into offsetting positions against the spread taken h days ago. However, this may not be the best strategy, because the position taken based on forecasts h days ago will not be updated as extra data becomes available. One reason we didn't use a more sophisticated strategy is that we are primarily interested in the forecasting accuracy of the different models for the given forecast horizon. The transaction costs are not considered. However, we expect that evaluation of the relative performance of different models should not be affected by this omission, since our strategy restricts trading volume to one unit per day, and more importantly, all models involve the same trading frequency. Also, the capital requirement for mark to market should not be a problem, as the holding periods are short and the offsetting position will always be taken cyclically. Overall, though, capital availability is not a trivial question in a spread-based trading strategy. A more detailed discussion can be found in Abken (1989). Other questions affecting the implementation of a trading strategy involve the potential illiquidity issues, and problems associated with the delivery periods of futures contracts. These are ignored in this study. An overview of similar issues can be found in Ma, Mercer, and Walker (1992).

Finally, one possible reason why a spread-based trading strategy could result in a positive profit is mean reversion. A partial list of relevant literature where this issue is discussed includes Cecchetti, Lam, and Mark (1990), Fama and French (1988), Kim, Nelson, and Startz (1991), Miller, Muthuswamy, and Whaley (1994), as well as Bessembinder, et al. (1995) and Swanson, Zeng, and Kocagil (1996).

5.2 Evaluation Criteria for Univariate Forecasts

5.2.1 Root-Mean-Square Error (RMSE) The RMSE is one of the most widely used measures of forecast accuracy. For individual-contract and nearby-forecast errors given by $fe_{i,t}$, $t = 1, \ldots, T$, for forecast model i ($i = 1, \ldots, 5$),

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T} fe_{i,t}^2}.$$

While simple and intuitive, MSE is not without potential drawbacks. First, MSE may be inconsistent with profit measures, as was pointed out in Leitch and Tanner (1991), Stekler (1991) and Swanson and White (1995). Furthermore, MSE is not invariant to nonsingular, scale-preserving linear transformations. This problem is discussed in Clements and Hendry (1993, 1995).

5.2.2 Mean-Absolute Deviation (MAD) and Mean-Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) The MAD and MAPE are closely related to MSE, and are

$$\text{MAD} = \frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T} |fe_{i,t}|,$$

and

$$\text{MAPE} = \frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left|\frac{fe_{i,t}}{FE_t}\right|,$$

where FE_t is the actual price series to be predicted.

5.2.3 The Diebold-Mariano Predictive-Accuracy Test (DM Test) We also construct the asymptotic loss-differential test proposed in Diebold and Mariano (1995). Using only the loss-differential series and the assumption that the loss-differential series is covariance stationary and short memory, the DM test has a null hypothesis that both forecasting models are equally accurate. Let $\{d_t\}_{t=1}^{T}$ be the loss-differential series. Then the test statistic is:

$$\text{DM} = \bar{d}\,/\sqrt{2f(0)/T} \sim N(0,1),$$

where $\bar{d} = (1/T)\sum_{t=1}^{T} d_t$ is the sample mean loss differential, $f(0) - (1/2\pi)\sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{+\infty}\delta(\tau)$ is the spectral density of the loss differential at frequency zero, and $\delta(\tau) = E(d_t d_{t-\tau})$ is the autocovariance of the loss differential at displacement τ. Then $f(0)$ is estimated in the usual way, as a two-sided weighted sum of sample autocovariances:

$$2\pi\hat{f}(0) = \sum_{=-(T-1)}^{T-1} L[\tau/S(T)]\hat{\delta}(0), \text{ and}$$

$$\hat{\delta}(\tau) = (1/T)\sum_{t=|\tau|+1}^{T} (d_t - \bar{d})(d_{(t-|\tau|)} - \bar{d}),$$

where $L[\tau/S(T)]$ is the lag window and $S(T)$ is the truncation lag. Following the suggestion of Diebold and Mariano (1995), we use a rectangular lag window defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} L[\tau/S(T)] &= 1 \quad \text{for } |\tau/S(T)| < 1, \\ &= 0 \quad \text{otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

Note that assuming $(h-1)$-dependence of loss differentials for h-step-ahead forecasts implies only $(h-1)$ sample autocovariances needed in the estimation of $f(0)$, so that $S(T) = h - 1$.

The loss-differential series used in our analyses are:

$$\begin{aligned} d_t &= (fe_{i,f})^2 - (fe_{j,t})^2 \text{ for the test based on MSE;} \\ d_t &= |fe_{i,t}| - |fe_{j,t}| \text{ for the test based on MAD; and} \\ d_t &= \left|\frac{fe_{i,t} - fe_{j,t}}{FE_t}\right| \text{ for the MAPE test,} \end{aligned}$$

where $fe_{i,t}$ and $fe_{j,t}$ correspond to the forecast-error sequences from two forecast models i and j, which are being compared.

5.2.4 Confusion Matrix (CM) and Confusion Rate (CR) An alternative model-selection criterion is the market-timing criterion suggested by Henriksson and Merton (1981), Schnader and Stekler (1990), Pesaran and Timmermann (1994), and Stekler (1994), which can be used to forecast the economic turning point. The confusion rate calculated in this paper is retrieved from a 2×2 contingency table, called the confusion matrix (CM). The following is the definition of a CM:

		Actual Price Movement	
		Up	Down
Predicted Price Movement	Up	n_{11}	n_{12}
	Down	n_{21}	n_{22}

where

$$\begin{aligned} n_{11} &= \text{number of cases correctly predicted up,} \\ n_{21} &= \text{number of cases wrongly predicted down,} \\ n_{12} &= \text{number of cases wrongly predicted up, and} \\ n_{22} &= \text{number of cases correctly predicted down.} \end{aligned}$$

The confusion rate is then computed as the frequency of off-diagonal elements, or

$$\text{CR} = (n_{12} + n_{21})/T,$$

where $T = n_{11} + n_{12} + n_{21} + n_{22}$. The best model according to CR is the least confused one—the one with the smallest value of CR.

Pesaran and Timmermann (1994) showed that the test of market timing (in the context of forecasting the direction of asset-price movements) proposed by Henriksson and Merton (1981) is asymptotically equivalent to the standard χ^2 test of independence in a confusion matrix, when the column and row sums are not a priori fixed, which is the case in this analysis. We examine the standard χ^2 test of independence. The null hypothesis is independence between the actual and the predicted directions. Thus, rejecting the null hypothesis provides direct evidence that the model is useful as a predictor of the sign of change in the prices. The χ^2 test statistic is calculated as:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{2} \frac{(n_{ij} - ne_{ij})^2}{ne_{ij}},$$

where ne_{ij} is the expected value of n_{ij}. The value of ne_{11}, for example, can be computed by following these four steps. First, compute the probability of actual up, which is $(n_{11} + n_{21})/T$. Second, calculate the probability of predicted up, $(n_{11} + n_{12})/T$. Third, compute the joint probability of actual up and predicted up as the product of the above two, or $[(n_{11} + n_{12})/T][(n_{11} + n_{21})/T]$. Then, $ne_{11} = (n_{11} + n_{12})(n_{11} + n_{21})/T$.

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} ne_{22} &= (n_{12} + n_{22})(n_{21} + n_{22})/T, \\ ne_{12} &= (n_{11} + n_{12})(n_{12} + n_{22})/T, \text{ and} \\ ne_{21} &= (n_{11} + n_{12})(n_{21} + n_{22})/T. \end{aligned}$$

6 Forecast Performance

This section discusses empirical results reported in Tables 1 through 9. Tables 1 through 4 present the results from system-based criteria. In particular, Tables 1 and 2 report the rankings of each model, and Tables 3 and 4

Table 1
Model Rankings by System Criteria: One-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Criterion	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500						
	TMSE	2	4	5	3	1
	TMAPE	2	4	5	3	1
	GFESM	5	4	3	2	1
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2
Treasury Bonds						
	TMSE	3	4	5	2	1
	TMAPE	3	4	5	2	1
	GFESM	5	4	3	2	1
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2
Gold						
	TMSE	3	4	5	2	1
	TMAPE	3	4	5	2	1
	GFESM	5	4	3	2	1
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2
Crude Oil						
	TMSE	3	5	4	2	1
	TMAPE	3	5	4	2	1
	GFESM	5	4	3	2	1
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2

Entries tabulate the rankings of the five models considered: random walk without drift (RW), random walk with drift (RWD), vector autoregression (VAR), vector-error correction with price spreads as error-correction terms (SPD), and vector-error correction with a cost-of-carry equilibrium condition used to construct the error-correction terms (COC). An entry of 1 stands for the best performance according to the model-selection criterion in the same row, while 5 indicates the worst performance. The five-system model-selection criteria are trace of mean-square-error matrix (TMSE), trace of mean-absolute percentage error matrix (TMAPE), generalized forecast-error second-moment matrix (GFESM), mean Schwarz information criterion (MSIC), and trading-rule profitability criterion (TPC). See above discussion. The rankings are computed based on the figures in Table 3.

report the criteria values upon which these rankings are based. Tables 5 through 8 give our forecasting results for univariate-forecast-based model-selection criteria. In particular, Tables 5 and 6 report the relative rankings, and Tables 7 and 8 contain the criteria values. Finally, Table 9 reports the pairwise model-comparisons statistics based on Diebold-Mariano predictive-accuracy tests for all the commodities and their nearbys. Only the results from one-step-ahead and five-step-ahead forecasts are reported here, but the results for two- to four-step-ahead forecasts are available upon request.

The entries in Tables 1 and 2 represent the rankings of our five models based on the five different system model-selection criteria, and four different commodities. A ranking of 1 represents the best model with respect to the corresponding model-selection criterion, while 5 stands for the worst model, etc. Table 1 suggests, first, that error-correction models dominate, based on all criteria for one-step-ahead forecasts. Between the two error-correction models, COC outperforms SPD except when based on the in-sample MSIC. Second, random walk models outperform VAR, based on the criteria of TMSE and TMAPE, but underperform VAR, based on the GFESM and TPC in one-step-ahead forecasts. Also, adding drift terms to the random-walk models does not improve the forecasting performance, based on TMSE and TMAPE, although the reverse is

Table 2
Model Rankings by System Criteria: Five-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Criterion	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500						
	TMSE	1	2	3	4	5
	TMAPE	1	2	3	4	5
	GFESM	1	2	3	5	4
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2
Treasury Bonds						
	TMSE	1	2	3	4	5
	TMAPE	1	2	3	4	5
	GFESM	1	2	4	5	3
	TPC	5	4	3	1	2
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2
Gold						
	TMSE	1	2	3	4	5
	TMAPE	1	2	3	4	5
	GFESM	1	2	3	5	4
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2
Crude Oil						
	TMSE	1	2	3	4	5
	TMAPE	1	2	3	4	5
	GFESM	1	2	4	5	3
	TPC	5	4	3	2	1
	MSIC	5	4	3	1	2

See notes to Table 1. The rankings are computed based on the figures in Table 4.

true, based on all other model-selection criteria. Third, from Table 3, note that the profits, based on the TPC, differ by up to 60% for one-step-ahead forecasts across models.

As the forecast horizon is increased, the error-correction models lose their dominance (see Tables 2, 4, 6, and 8), and random-walk models perform best when based on criteria other than the TPC and MSIC. However, for our profit measure (TPC), the error-correction models continue to outperform all others. This is indicative of the importance of specifying appropriate loss functions, based on the needs of each individual end-user of our forecasts.

Tables 5 and 6 report the rankings of all models and the values for univariate model-selection criteria, based on one-step-ahead and five-step-ahead forecasts. Table 9 reports the results from DM test statistics. In all of these tables, only the results from the most-recent nearby and most-distant nearby futures contracts are reported, for the sake of brevity.

The conclusions based on the examination of Table 5 are quite similar to the results discussed above for system criteria, as error-correction models still dominate all others for one-step-ahead forecasts. Overall, though, the rankings among different criteria are more consistent than those based on system-wide criteria. In particular, relative rankings for first nearby and distant nearby are the same.

Tables 7 and 8 report the values of all univariate criteria, for all commodities and forecast horizons. Judging by the CR values, it is interesting to note that all models are actually quite accurate, correctly predicting the direction of price changes around 70% of the time. While the S&P 500 has the lowest CR values, Treasury bonds have the largest. At the 10% significance level, all of the χ^2 values suggest rejecting the null hypothesis of statistical independence. In other words, all models are useful for predicting the direction of price changes. Entries in Table 9 are the Diebold-Mariano statistics. At the 10% significance level, all DM statistics suggest accepting the null hypothesis (i.e., each pair of models is equally accurate in terms of prediction).

Table 3
Model Performance by System Criteria: One-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Criterion	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500						
	TMSE	13.68	14.26	14.31	14.07	13.61
	TMAPE	0.66	0.68	0.69	0.67	0.65
	GFESM	−15.45	−15.85	−16.49	−17.37	−18.53
	TPC	5978	6070	6238	6484	6889
	MSIC	13.91	13.89	13.10	13.07	13.07
Treasury Bonds						
	TMSE	8.11	8.32	8.37	8.02	7.42
	TMAPE	0.80	0.82	0.83	0.79	0.73
	GFESM	−60.83	−61.63	−63.15	−65.94	−69.73
	TPC	1329	1423	1639	1835	2127
	MSIC	1.00	0.98	−7.65	−7.91	−7.91
Gold						
	TMSE	32.13	32.94	32.94	32.03	29.82
	TMAPE	1.66	1.70	1.70	1.65	1.54
	GFESM	−44.04	−45.00	−46.62	−49.24	−52.20
	TPC	5338	5888	6688	7544	8394
	MSIC	10.03	10.01	7.84	7.60	7.60
Crude Oil						
	TMSE	2.69	2.72	2.70	2.60	2.43
	TMAPE	0.62	0.63	0.62	0.60	0.56
	GFESM	−75.67	−76.42	−78.07	−80.25	−82.96
	TPC	368	408	448	495	553
	MSIC	−19.14	−19.14	−21.37	−21.58	−21.58

See notes to Table 1. Entries correspond to the values of model-selection criteria based on different models.

Table 4
Model Performance by System Criteria: Five-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Criterion	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500						
	TMSE	5.59	8.35	10.23	10.72	10.98
	TMAPE	0.26	0.40	0.49	0.51	0.52
	GFESM	−114.27	−110.23	−108.41	−107.29	−107.44
	TPC	626	1911	2487	2763	3163
	MSIC	13.91	13.89	13.10	13.07	13.07
Treasury Bonds						
	TMSE	32.13	32.94	32.94	32.03	29.82
	TMAPE	1.66	1.70	1.70	1.65	1.54
	GFESM	−44.04	−45.00	−46.62	−49.24	−52.20
	TPC	5338	5888	6688	7544	8394
	MSIC	10.03	10.01	7.84	7.60	7.60
Gold						
	TMSE	12.78	21.13	27.46	30.04	31.09
	TMAPE	0.66	1.09	1.41	1.55	1.60
	GFESM	−281.77	−273.95	−271.43	−270.44	−270.52
	TPC	856	2413	3832	4670	5271
	MSIC	10.03	10.01	7.84	7.60	7.60
Crude Oil						
	TMSE	1.01	1.71	2.22	2.46	2.54
	TMAPE	0.23	0.40	0.51	0.57	0.59
	GFESM	−437.54	−430.23	−427.98	−427.58	−428.00
	TPC	83	191	280	347	383
	MSIC	−19.14	−19.14	−21.37	−21.58	−21.58

See notes to Table 3.

Table 5
Model Rankings by Univariate Criteria: One-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Nearby	Criterion	Model				
			RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	1	3	5	4	2
		MAD	1	3	5	4	2
		MAPE	1	3	5	4	2
		CR	1	3	5	4	2
	$N = 4$	RMSE	5	4	3	2	1
		MAD	3	5	4	2	1
		MAPE	3	5	4	2	1
		CR	3	5	4	2	1
Treasury Bonds							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	2	3	5	4	1
		MAD	2	4	5	3	1
		MAPE	2	4	5	3	1
		CR	3	4	5	2	1
	$N = 8$	RMSE	2	4	5	3	1
		MAD	2	3	5	4	1
		MAPE	2	3	5	4	1
		CR	3	5	4	2	1
Gold							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	5	3	4	2	1
		MAD	2	3	5	4	1
		MAPE	2	3	5	4	1
		CR	3	2	5	4	1
	$N = 8$	RMSE	4	5	3	2	1
		MAD	4	5	3	2	1
		MAPE	4	5	3	2	1
		CR	4	5	3	2	1
Crude Oil							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	4	5	3	2	1
		MAD	4	5	3	2	1
		MAPE	4	5	3	2	1
		CR	5	4	3	2	1
	$N = 8$	RMSE	3	2	5	4	1
		MAD	5	3	4	2	1
		MAPE	5	4	3	2	1
		CR	5	4	2	3	1

Entries tabulate the rankings of the five forecasting models considered. See notes to Table 1 for model definitions. An entry of 1 stands for the best performance according to the model-selection criterion in the same row, while 5 indicates the worst performance. The four criteria include root-mean-square error (RMSE), mean-absolute deviation (MAD), mean-absolute percentage error (MAPE), and confusion rate (CR). See above discussions. The rankings are computed based on figures in Table 7. Only the results for the first-nearby and the last-nearby contracts are reported.

7 Summary and Conclusion

In this paper, we investigate the predictive accuracy of five econometric models. All models are estimated using a rolling-window approach, so that our evaluations are based on the dynamic out-of-sample forecast performance. The criteria considered include both system and univariate model-selection criteria. For a given commodity, our system includes all traded-nearby futures contracts.

Our results suggest that error-correction models perform better in shorter forecast horizons, when models are compared based on quadratic loss measures and confusion matrices. However, the error-correction

Table 6
Model Rankings by Univariate Criteria: Five-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Nearby	Criterion	Model				
			RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	1	2	4	5	3
		MAD	1	2	5	4	3
		MAPE	1	2	4	5	3
		CR	1	2	5	4	3
	$N = 4$	RMSE	1	2	3	5	4
		MAD	1	2	3	5	4
		MAPE	1	2	3	5	4
		CR	1	2	3	4	5
Treasury Bonds							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	1	2	3	4	5
		MAD	1	2	3	4	5
		MAPE	1	2	3	4	5
		CR	1	2	3	4	5
	$N = 8$	RMSE	1	2	3	5	4
		MAD	1	2	3	5	4
		MAPE	1	2	3	5	4
		CR	1	2	4	5	3
Gold							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	1	2	3	4	5
		MAD	1	2	3	4	5
		MAPE	1	2	3	4	5
		CR	1	2	3	5	4
	$N = 8$	RMSE	1	2	3	4	5
		MAD	1	2	3	4	5
		MAPE	1	2	3	4	5
		CR	1	2	3	4	5
Crude Oil							
	$N = 1$	RMSE	1	2	3	4	5
		MAD	1	2	3	4	5
		MAPE	1	2	3	4	5
		CR	1	2	3	5	4
	$N = 8$	RMSE	1	2	3	4	5
		MAD	1	2	3	4	5
		MAPE	1	2	3	4	5
		CR	1	2	3	4	5

See notes to Table 5. The rankings are computed based on figures in Table 8.

Table 7
Model Performance by Univariate Criteria: One-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Criteria	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500						
$N = 1$	RMSE	3.675	3.994	4.055	3.996	3.841
	MAD	2.707	2.918	2.977	2.957	2.840
	MAPE	0.006	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007
	CM	436,161	398,177	420,187	415,173	419,161
		155,415	169,385	171,389	176,403	172,415
	CR	0.271	0.296	0.307	0.299	0.285
	CHI	61.717	44.518	44.614	46.850	52.869
$N = 4$	RMSE	4.432	4.435	4.325	4.128	4.015
	MAD	2.972	3.041	3.024	2.960	2.885
	MAPE	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007
	CM	444,185	425,191	430,181	434,168	446,161
		152,386	168,380	166,390	162,403	150,410
	CR	0.289	0.308	0.297	0.283	0.266
	CHI	53.992	44.160	48.748	55.313	64.226

Table 7
Continued.

Commodity	Criteria	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
Treasury Bonds						
$N = 1$	RMSE	1.294	1.347	1.401	1.357	1.256
	MAD	0.904	0.941	0.962	0.923	0.864
	MAPE	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.008
	CM	424,215	392,209	414,212	418,201	431,194
		199,401	207,386	209,404	205,415	192,422
	CR	0.334	0.336	0.340	0.328	0.312
	CHI	35.123	28.979	31.986	36.507	44.141
$N = 8$	RMSE	1.138	1.173	1.207	1.151	1.060
	MAD	0.810	0.828	0.864	0.828	0.759
	MAPE	0.008	0.008	0.009	0.008	0.008
	CM	399,223	381,237	384,232	406,218	421,196
		201,415	219,401	216,406	194,420	179,442
	CR	0.342	0.368	0.362	0.333	0.303
	CHI	32.265	22.530	24.586	36.401	49.452
Gold						
$N = 1$	RMSE	4.654	4.593	4.647	4.526	4.203
	MAD	3.269	3.278	3.391	3.338	3.073
	MAPE	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.008
	CM	385,203	375,200	392,229	401,228	410,202
		227,413	220,390	220,387	211,388	202,414
	CR	0.350	0.342	0.365	0.357	0.329
	CHI	26.044	25.491	22.720	26.013	35.939
$N = 8$	RMSE	5.202	5.249	5.153	4.865	4.486
	MAD	3.673	3.706	3.596	3.382	3.144
	MAPE	0.010	0.010	0.009	0.009	0.008
	CM	395,235	394,234	405,206	423,188	440,183
		224,372	226,370	216,402	198,420	181,425
	CR	0.373	0.374	0.343	0.314	0.296
	CHI	19.933	19.314	29.512	41.747	51.166
Crude Oil						
$N = 1$	RMSE	0.526	0.538	0.510	0.495	0.470
	MAD	0.379	0.381	0.366	0.347	0.324
	MAPE	0.021	0.021	0.020	0.019	0.018
	CM	291,151	275,143	286,138	300,137	315,136
		165,299	167,291	170,312	156,313	141,314
	CR	0.348	0.342	0.340	0.323	0.305
	CHI	19.882	18.537	21.206	26.958	33.846
$N = 8$	RMSE	0.316	0.315	0.321	0.317	0.296
	MAD	0.237	0.236	0.236	0.229	0.214
	MAPE	0.013	0.013	0.013	0.012	0.012
	CM	305,154	314,152	320,138	319,141	338,124
		158,288	147,289	143,305	144,302	125,319
	CR	0.344	0.330	0.310	0.314	0.275
	CHI	21.547	25.946	32.256	30.888	45.770

Entries correspond to the values of univariate model-selection criteria. CM stands for "confusion matrix," and CHI refers to the Chi-square test statistic. See notes to Table 5. Only the results based on the first nearby ($N = 1$) and the last nearby ($N = 4$ for S&P 500, and $N = 8$ for others) are reported here.

models which we consider perform better at all forecast horizons (one to five steps ahead) when models are compared based on a profit-maximization loss function. Further, our error-correction model where the error-correction term is constructed according to a cost-of-carry equilibrium condition outperforms our alternative error-correction model, which uses the price spreads as the error-correction term.

Table 8
Model Performance by Univariate Criteria: Five-Step-Ahead Forecasts

Commodity	Criteria	Model				
		RW	RWD	VAR	SPD	COC
S&P 500						
$N = 1$	RMSE	2.222	2.847	3.242	3.285	3.151
	MAD	1.188	1.745	2.135	2.130	1.979
	MAPE	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.005	0.005
	CM	584,50	575,73	564,97	574,100	576,99
		67,462	76,439	87,415	77,412	75,413
	CR	0.101	0.128	0.158	0.152	0.150
	CHI	174.765	150.522	126.243	130.201	132.116
$N = 4$	RMSE	2.439	2.957	3.349	3.647	3.638
	MAD	1.245	1.753	2.093	2.162	2.096
	MAPE	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.005	0.005
	CM	602,52	591,68	579,86	576,84	568,81
		71,437	82,421	94,403	97,404	104,407
	CR	0.106	0.129	0.155	0.156	0.159
	CHI	163.000	143.338	123.004	122.454	120.578
Treasury Bonds						
$N = 1$	RMSE	0.694	0.943	1.116	1.165	1.207
	MAD	0.349	0.577	0.760	0.825	0.847
	MAPE	0.003	0.006	0.007	0.008	0.008
	CM	565,56	519,86	501,116	499,124	488,139
		70,544	116,514	134,484	135,475	146,460
	CR	0.102	0.164	0.202	0.210	0.231
	CHI	193.741	136.635	107.457	102.533	88.352
$N = 8$	RMSE	0.695	0.896	1.065	1.142	1.127
	MAD	0.349	0.541	0.700	0.769	0.758
	MAPE	0.004	0.005	0.007	0.008	0.008
	CM	538,75	506,107	476,131	468,136	470,123
		79,543	111,511	141,487	148,482	147,492
	CR	0.125	0.177	0.220	0.230	0.219
	CHI	173.472	128.784	95.618	88.708	94.927
Gold						
$N = 1$	RMSE	2.598	3.572	4.175	4.462	4.576
	MAD	1.302	2.183	2.832	3.102	3.154
	MAPE	0.004	0.006	0.008	0.008	0.009
	CM	544,68	507,105	486,129	464,140	470,141
		70,543	107,506	128,482	149,471	142,470
	CR	0.113	0.173	0.210	0.236	0.231
	CHI	183.559	130.719	103.264	84.431	88.283
$N = 8$	RMSE	2.956	3.916	4.651	4.955	4.959
	MAD	1.487	2.382	3.080	3.343	3.416
	MAPE	0.004	0.006	0.008	0.009	0.009
	CM	547,81	507,119	473,146	461,153	456,162
		68,529	108,491	142,464	154,457	159,446
	CR	0.122	0.185	0.235	0.251	0.262
	CHI	176.736	122.401	86.322	76.090	69.357
Crude Oil						
$N = 1$	RMSE	0.280	0.390	0.471	0.515	0.515
	MAD	0.141	0.239	0.312	0.340	0.351
	MAPE	0.008	0.013	0.017	0.019	0.019
	CM	408,42	390,72	371,94	356,96	363,97
		43,410	61,380	80,358	95,354	86,354
	CR	0.094	0.147	0.193	0.212	0.203
	CHI	148.627	113.546	86.704	75.006	80.586
$N = 8$	RMSE	0.184	0.246	0.283	0.306	0.310
	MAD	0.092	0.152	0.194	0.214	0.221
	MAPE	0.005	0.008	0.010	0.011	0.012
	CM	413,52	377,77	355,90	347,107	356,120
		51,387	87,362	109,349	117,332	108,317
	CR	0.114	0.182	0.220	0.248	0.252
	CHI	134.103	90.366	68.790	56.323	55.538

See notes to Table 7.

Table 9
Diebold-Mariano Statistics of Predictive Accuracy

		Model Pairs									
		12	13	14	15	23	24	25	34	35	45
S&P 500											
$h = 1$	RMSE	0.00	−0.01	0.00	−0.01	−0.01	0.00	−0.01	0.01	−0.01	−0.02
	MAD	0.00	−0.01	0.00	−0.01	−0.01	0.00	−0.01	0.01	−0.01	−0.02
	MAPE	0.60	0.77	0.90	0.90	0.64	0.84	0.95	0.65	0.82	0.65
$h = 5$	RMSE	−0.04	−0.06	−0.08	−0.10	−0.04	−0.06	−0.07	−0.03	−0.05	−0.03
	MAD	−0.04	−0.06	−0.08	−0.10	−0.04	−0.06	−0.07	−0.03	−0.05	−0.03
	MAPE	0.61	0.75	0.87	0.86	0.60	0.76	0.87	0.62	0.79	0.62
Treasury Bonds											
$h = 1$	RMSE	0.00	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	−0.02	0.00	0.01
	MAD	0.00	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	−0.02	0.00	0.01
	MAPE	0.57	0.72	0.84	0.87	0.53	0.73	0.83	0.56	0.72	0.54
$h = 5$	RMSE	0.00	−0.01	−0.02	−0.03	−0.01	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	−0.04	−0.02
	MAD	0.00	−0.01	−0.02	−0.03	−0.01	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	−0.04	−0.02
	MAPE	0.57	0.77	0.94	0.94	0.57	0.78	0.93	0.58	0.81	0.59
Gold											
$h = 1$	RMSE	−0.03	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	0.00	−0.01	−0.01	−0.01	−0.01	0.00
	MAD	−0.03	−0.02	−0.03	−0.02	0.00	−0.01	−0.01	−0.01	−0.01	0.00
	MAPE	0.60	0.81	0.96	0.96	0.60	0.82	0.98	0.60	0.82	0.60
$h = 5$	RMSE	−0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01
	MAD	−0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01
	MAPE	0.57	0.79	0.96	0.96	0.60	0.84	0.99	0.62	0.86	0.62
Crude Oil											
$h = 1$	RMSE	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	−0.01	0.00	−0.02	−0.03
	MAD	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	−0.01	0.00	−0.02	−0.03
	MAPE	0.61	0.81	0.93	0.98	0.57	0.81	0.95	0.58	0.80	0.59
$h = 5$	RMSE	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00
	MAD	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00
	MAPE	0.56	0.75	0.81	0.86	0.57	0.76	0.88	0.56	0.78	0.57

Entries are Diebold-Mariano predictive-accuracy test statistics, as discussed above. Given that five models are investigated in this paper, there are $5 \times (5-1)/2 = 10$ pairs of models. Model pair i, j refers to the i^{th} and j^{th} models, where i and j range from 1–5. Models 1–5 are defined as follows: random walk without drift (RW), random walk with drift (RWD), vector autoregressive (VAR), error correction with price spreads as correction terms (SPD), and error correction with cost of carry as correction terms (COC), respectively. The loss-differential test statistics are based on root-mean-square error (RMSE), mean-absolute deviation (MAD), and mean-absolute percentage error (MAPE). All of the results are based on the first-nearby contract for each commodity, and only the results from one-step-ahead ($h = 1$) and five-step-ahead ($h = 5$) forecasts are reported here.

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