Model Selection and Forecast Comparison in Unstable Environments

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Abstract

We propose new methods for analyzing the relative performance of two competing, misspecified models in the presence of possible data instability. The main idea is to develop a measure of the relative “local performance” for the two models, and to investigate its stability over time by means of statistical tests. The models’ performance can be evaluated using either in-sample or out-of-sample criteria. In the former case, we suggest using the local Kullback-Leibler information criterion, whereas in the latter, we consider the local out-of-sample forecast loss, for a general loss function. We propose two tests: a “fluctuation test” for analyzing the evolution of the model’s relative performance over historical samples and a “sequential test”, that monitors the models’ relative performance in real time. Compared to previous approaches to model selection and forecast comparison, which are based on measures of “global performance” (e.g., Vuong (1989) and West (1996)), our focus of the entire time path of the models’ relative performance may contain useful information that is lost when looking for a globally best model. Our methods can be applied to nonlinear, dynamic, multivariate models estimated by a variety of techniques. An empirical application provides insights into the time variation in the performance of Smets and Wouters’ (2003) DSGE model of the European economy relative to that of VARs.

Keywords: Model Selection Tests, Misspecification, Structural Change, Forecast Evaluation, Kullback-Leibler Information Criterion

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1 Introduction

This paper proposes new techniques for comparing the performance of competing models in the presence of model misspecification and structural instability. This is a realistic and relevant environment for applied macroeconomists, forecasters and policy makers for two reasons. First, policy makers and economic forecasters often face the problem of choosing the best performing model out a number of competing models, which can only be approximations of the truth. Second, the empirical importance of structural instabilities or “breaks” has been widely recognized for macroeconomic data. For example, Stock and Watson (2003) show that instabilities affect most macroeconomic time series; McConnell and Perez-Quiroz (2000) report evidence in favor of a break in the volatility of U.S. GDP and Fernald (2005) and Francis and Ramey (2005) investigate the implications of breaks in hours worked for the debate on the effects of technology shocks. As a consequence, prominent macroeconomists are now recognizing the importance of instabilities and incorporating them in their theoretical models. For example, Cogley and Sargent (2005) consider models with time-varying parameters, Clarida et al. (2000) introduce structural breaks in monetary policy; Justiniano and Primiceri (2007) and Fernandez-Villaverde and Rubio-Ramirez (2005, 2006) consider dynamic stochastic general equilibrium (DSGE) models with time-varying parameters. The main insight of the paper is that, in unstable environments, it is plausible that the relative performance of competing models may itself change over time. This possibility is supported by recent empirical evidence reported in the forecasting literature (e.g., Stock and Watson, 2003), which shows that, even though some models outperform naive benchmarks in certain periods, this is not necessarily true when considering different periods.

As we discuss below, the existing techniques for model selection and forecast comparison appear inadequate in an environment characterized by instability and model misspecification, because they do not account for the possibility that the performance of the models may itself be changing. This paper fills this gap by proposing convenient techniques for analyzing the evolution over time in the performance of competing, misspecified models.

We propose two approaches, which address different evaluation objectives. The first can be used by empirical macroeconomists and forecasters interested in analyzing the evolution in the performance of two competing models over historical samples. The main idea is to develop a measure of the relative “local performance” of the models, and to test its stability over time by means of a “fluctuation test”. The test is easily implemented by plotting the (appropriately normalized) sample path of the estimated measure of local performance, together with boundary lines which, if crossed, signal instability. The performance can be evaluated using either in-sample or out-of-sample criteria. In the former case, we introduce a measure that can be interpreted as a “local Kullback-Leibler information criterion (KLIC)”, whereas in the latter, we consider what we
call the “local out-of-sample forecast loss”, for a general, user-defined loss function. The fluctuation test, although convenient to obtain, does now however have optimality properties. We thus further provide a test for the null hypothesis of equal performance of the two models at each point in time that is optimal against the alternative hypothesis that there is a one-time break in the relative performance, and propose a method for estimating the timing of the break. We call this the “optimal test”.

The second evaluation objective that we address is when a researcher is interested in monitoring the relative performance of two competing models in real time, in order to detect any deviation from the relative performance that was observed over the historical sample. To this end, we propose a “sequential test”.

To better understand why existing econometric techniques are inadequate in conducting model selection and forecast evaluation in an environment characterized by instability and misspecification, it might be useful to divide the literature into two groups. The first group proposes techniques for model selection and forecast comparison that allow for misspecification, but their approach is to select the model with the best “global performance”, which in practice amounts to selecting the model that performs best on average. The performance can be measured either in terms of in-sample fit (e.g., Vuong (1989); Rivers and Vuong (2002); see Fernandez-Villaverde and Rubio-Ramirez (2006) for an application to the selection between competing macro models), or out-of-sample forecast loss (e.g., Diebold and Mariano (1995); West (1996); McCracken (2000)). In the realistic presence of structural instability, however, the relative performance of the two models may itself be time-varying, and thus averaging this evolution over time may result in a loss of information. For example, a forecaster or policymaker may select the model that performed best on average over a particular historical sample, ignoring the fact that the competing model is a more accurate description of the recent data or that it produces more accurate forecasts when considering only the recent past. Such wrong choices would lead to poor forecasts and unsuccessful policymaking. The second strand of the literature is that about parameter instability tests. This literature focuses on one specific model, and tests for instability in its parameters under the assumption that the model is correctly specified (e.g., Andrews (1993), Bai and Perron (1998), Hansen (2000), Elliott and Muller (2005)), or instability in its forecast performance, allowing for misspecification (Giacomini and Rossi (2005)). The example in Section 2 illustrates the relationship between parameter instability and instability in relative performance. The example, inspired by our empirical application, considers the comparison between a linearized Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium (DSGE) model and a VAR, which can be viewed as imposing different sets of misspecified restrictions on the parameters of an ARMA data-generating process (DGP), which are possibly time-varying. We show that the local relative KLIC in this case captures the relative degrees of misspecification of the two models at each point in time, by measuring how far each misspecified restriction is from
the true restriction (which is a particular function of the DGP parameters). If the DGP parameters vary over time, whether the relative performance of the models varies or not depends on whether the parameters vary in a way that makes the true restriction also vary. For instance, the parameters may change but in a way that leaves the true restriction, and thus the relative performance of the models, unchanged. This suggests that a test for instability in the parameters in the DSGE and/or VAR would not necessarily say anything about the stability in their relative performance. The possibility of a non-constant relative performance between two forecasting models is considered by Giacomini and White (2006), who argue that the relative forecast performance may differ in different states of the economy. They take however a different approach, which involves assessing whether one can relate the out-of-sample relative losses to observable economic variables. In the context of in-sample model selection tests, Rossi (2005) proposes tests to select between two models in the presence of possible parameter instability. She only focuses however on the case of nested and correctly specified models, whereas this paper considers a more general environment.

Our methods have many useful applications, and we show an example in our empirical analysis. Recent developments in empirical macroeconomics (Smets and Wouters, 2003, Del Negro and Schorfheide, 2004) have shown that it is possible to estimate DSGE models whose performance is comparable to that of VARs. However, the measures of relative performance used in these papers are average measures over historical samples, which might hide important changes in the relative performance of the models over time. We select one such representative DSGE model – Smets and Wouters’ (2003) DSGE model for the European area – and offer some insight into the time variation in the performance of their model relative to that of VARs.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The first section discusses a motivating example inspired by our empirical application, namely the comparison of a DSGE model’s performance with that of a VAR. There we show interesting cases in which existing tests fail to recognize the time variation in the relative performance of the two models and therefore would induce the applied researcher to select the “wrong” model. The second section describes our methods in detail. In the third section we apply our techniques to analyze the performance of Smets and Wouters’ (2003) DSGE model of the European economy relative to the performance of VARs. Consistently with the literature, we find evidence of time variation in the parameters of the DSGE, thus signaling fundamental changes in the structure and in the shocks of the model. Interestingly, our techniques show an improvement in the relative performance of the DSGE model versus the VAR over the nineties.
2 Motivating example

The following simple example - inspired by our empirical application - illustrates the main issues associated with testing for model selection and forecast comparison in the presence of misspecification and structural instability, and motivates our approach.

Following the notation in Fernandez-Villaverde, Rubio-Ramirez, Sargent and Watson (2006) (henceforth FRSW), suppose that the equilibrium of the economy has a state-space representation with possibly time-varying coefficients:

\[ x_{t+1} = A_t x_t + w_t \]
\[ y_t = C_t x_t + D_t w_t, \quad t = 1, \ldots, T. \]

The shock \( w_t \) is \( i.i.d. N(0,1) \), \( x_t \) is a state variable and \( y_t \) is the observable variable measured over a sample of size \( T \) (we focus on the univariate case for ease of illustration, but all the results readily apply to the multivariate case). Suppose that \( 0 < |A_{t-1} - C_t D_t| < 1 \), which implies that the data-generating process (DGP) in (1) is invertible (as shown by FRSW) and has the following ARMA(1,1) representation:

\[ y_t = A_{t-1} y_{t-1} + D_t w_t + (C_t - A_{t-1} D_t) w_{t-1}. \]

(2)

The true conditional density of \( y_t \), given the information set at time \( t - 1 \), is thus:

\[ h_t^{true} : N(A_{t-1} y_{t-1} + (C_t - A_{t-1} D_t) w_{t-1}, D_t^2). \]

Suppose that the researcher considers instead two competing, misspecified models for the conditional density of \( y_t \). The first model is a non-invertible “DSGE” model, whose equilibrium representation is as in (1), but with \( |A_{t-1} - C_t D_t| = 1 \). To fix ideas, first suppose that the parameters are known. In this case, it is easy to show that the imposition of this incorrect restriction results in the following misspecified density for \( y_t \) :

\[ f_t : N(A_{t-1} y_{t-1} - D_t w_{t-1}, D_t^2), \]

(3)

with parameters \( \theta_t = (A_{t-1}, D_t) \).

The second model is an AR(1), which is misspecified in that it ignores the MA component in the DGP (2), and can thus be viewed as imposing the restriction \( |A_{t-1} - C_t D_t| = 0 \). The resulting misspecified density for \( y_t \) is thus:

\[ g_t : N(A_{t-1} y_{t-1}, D_t^2), \]

(4)

with parameters \( \gamma_t = (A_{t-1}, D_t) \).
2.1 In-sample fluctuation test

Suppose the researcher is interested in analyzing the relative performance of the two models over historical samples, accounting for the possibility that the performance may be varying over time. In this section, we consider the case in which the measure of relative performance for the two models at time $t$ is the relative distance of the misspecified densities $f_t$ and $g_t$ from the true density $h_t^{true}$, measured by the Kullback-Leibler Information Criterion (KLIC):

$$\Delta KLIC_t = E \left[ \log h_t^{true} - \log g_t(\gamma_t) \right] - E \left[ \log h_t^{true} - \log f_t(\theta_t) \right]$$

(5)

$$= E \left[ \log f_t(\theta_t) - \log g_t(\gamma_t) \right], \quad t = 1, ..., T.$$  

(6)

If $\Delta KLIC_t > 0$, we conclude that $f_t$ performs better than $g_t$, since it is closer to the truth, or, equivalently, has the largest expected loglikelihood. The $\Delta KLIC_t$ in our example is given by:

$$\Delta KLIC_t = A_{t-1} - C_tD_t^{-1} - 1/2.$$  

(7)

The $\Delta KLIC_t$ reflects the relative degrees of misspecification of the two models at time $t$. To give some intuition about the expression for the $\Delta KLIC_t$, note that the models assume that the restriction $|A_{t-1} - C_tD_t^{-1}|$ is either 0 (AR) and 1 (DSGE), whereas its true magnitude is somewhere in between. Which model performs better at time $t$ thus depends on how close the true value of $|A_{t-1} - C_tD_t^{-1}|$ is to either bound. The two models perform equally well when this value is half-way between the bounds.

Concerning the possibility of time variation in the relative performance of the DSGE and AR, which is our main focus here, note that (7) implies that the relative performance can vary because the coefficients of the DGP change in different ways, which in turn induces time-variation in the relative degrees of misspecification for the two models. On the other hand, it can also happen that the parameters vary, but in a way that leaves $\Delta KLIC_t$ unchanged so that the relative performance of the models is constant even though the underlying DGP is unstable. This discussion also suggests that a structural break test on the parameters of the DSGE and/or AR would not necessarily be informative about the stability of the models’ relative performance, since the latter is determined by the stability of a particular transformation of the DGP parameters (in the example, $A_{t-1} - C_tD_t^{-1}$).

One difficulty that arises when attempting to estimate the $\Delta KLIC_t$ is that it depends on the unknown parameters $\theta_t$ and $\gamma_t$. To overcome this problem, we focus instead on what we call the “local $\Delta KLIC$”, obtained by measuring the average relative performance over moving windows of size $m$:

$$\text{Local } \Delta KLIC : E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \left( \log f_j(\theta_{t,m}) - \log g_j(\gamma_{t,m}) \right) \right], \quad t = m/2 + 1, ..., T - m/2,$$  

(8)
where $\sum_j = \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2}$, $m$ is chosen to be an even number (without loss of generality) and $\theta_{t,m}^*$ and $\gamma_{t,m}^*$ are the pseudo-true parameters for the models estimated over the window of size $m$:

$$\theta_{t,m}^* = \max_\theta E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \log f_j(\theta) \right] \text{ for model } f$$

$$\gamma_{t,m}^* = \max_\gamma E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \log g_j(\gamma) \right] \text{ for model } g.$$ 

Unlike the $\Delta KLIC_t$, the local $\Delta KLIC$ can be consistently estimated by substituting $\theta_{t,m}^*$ and $\gamma_{t,m}^*$ with the maximum likelihood estimates of the models’ parameters computed over each moving window, and for this reason it is the object of interest of our analysis.

In the example, the pseudo-true parameters for the DSGE and the AR and the local $\Delta KLIC$ are relatively complicated due to the fact that they account for the misspecification in the conditional means for each model. We do not therefore report their analytical expressions, but show the time plot of the local $\Delta KLIC$ in two scenarios that illustrate the types of time variation in the relative performance of the DSGE and the AR models that may arise in economic applications. In the first scenario, $C$ and $D$ are constant, but the autoregressive coefficient $A_t$ varies over time. In the second, $A$ and $C$ are constant, but $D_t$ has a break in the middle of the sample, which corresponds to a decrease in the variance of the shock. The solid line in the two panels of Figure 1a shows the time-variation in the sample path of the local $\Delta KLIC$ (8) (computed using a window of size $1/5$ of the sample size) that occurs in these two scenarios.

Figure 1a also reports the “global” $\Delta KLIC$ (the dot in Figure 1a), which would be the object of interest in e.g., Vuong (1989) or Rivers and Vuong (2002). The figure shows that these existing approaches would be misleading, in that they would likely suggest that the two models perform equally well (left panel of Figure 1a) or that the AR model performs better (right panel of Figure 1a), whereas the local $\Delta KLIC$ correctly reveals that the AR performs better at the beginning of the sample and that the DSGE is better at the end of the sample.

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1 For example, for the AR, $A^*$ does not equal $A$ even when the coefficients are constant, because $A^*$ reflects the omitted variable bias (since $y_{t-1}$ is correlated with the omitted variable $w_{t-1}$).

2 Specifically, we let $A_t = -.5 + t/T + \varepsilon_t$, $\varepsilon_t \sim i.i.d. N(0, .25)$; $C = -.5$; $D = 1$.

3 Specifically, we let $A = .5$; $C = -.6$ and $D_t = -1.3$ for $t \leq T/2$; $D_t = 1.2$ for $t > T/2$. 
Regarding the implementation of our test, the basic intuition is to consider the sample analog of the local $\Delta KLIC$ (8), and normalize it to obtain the fluctuation statistic:

$$F_{t,m}^{IS} = \hat{\sigma}^{-1} m^{-1/2} \sum_j \left( \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_{t,m}) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_{t,m}) \right), \quad t = m/2 + 1, \ldots, T - m/2,$$

(9)

where $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is a suitable estimator of the asymptotic variance (given in Proposition 1) and $\hat{\theta}_{t,m}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{t,m}$ are the maximum likelihood estimates of the models' parameters computed over each moving window. Our Proposition 1 characterizes the behavior of the sample path of $F_{t,m}^{IS}$ under the null hypothesis that the local $\Delta KLIC$ (8) equals zero at each point in time. In practice, Table 1 provides boundary lines (depending on the ratio $m/T$) that are crossed by the limiting process with small probability under the null hypothesis, so that rejection occurs if the sample path of the fluctuation statistics crosses such boundaries.

For illustration, Figure 1b plots the fluctuation statistics together with 10% boundary lines from Table 1 for the two scenarios considered in Figure 1a. We see that the sample path of the fluctuation statistics mimics that of the local $\Delta KLIC$, revealing in both scenarios that the AR model performs better in the first part of the sample whereas the DSGE model performs better in the second part of the sample. Since the sample path of the fluctuation statistics crosses the boundaries, the null hypothesis that the DSGE and the AR perform equally well at each point in time is rejected at the 10% significance level.
2.2 Out-of-sample analysis

If the goal is instead to analyze the relative out-of-sample forecast performance of the two models over historical samples, one would use the out-of-sample fluctuation test. This consists of first choosing a forecast horizon \((h)\) and an in-sample size \((R)\), and then estimating the models recursively, using only the in-sample observations, to derive a sequence of \(h\)-step-ahead out-of-sample forecasts for times \(t = R + h, ..., T\), for a total of \(P = T - (R + h) + 1\) forecasts. The measure of relative performance in this case is the difference of the expected forecast losses computed over the out-of-sample portion of the sample. The analysis is similar to that for the in-sample case, the main difference being that one must now take into account that the forecast losses depend on parameters estimated over a different sample. This issue is handled differently in the asymptotic framework of West (1996) or that of Giacomini and White (2006). For simplicity, we restrict attention to the latter framework, but point out below the necessary modifications if one wishes to consider the former framework. To fix ideas, assume a quadratic loss, a rolling scheme and a one-step ahead forecast horizon. The measure of relative forecast performance for the DSGE vs. the AR is:

\[
E \left[ \left( y_t - \tilde{A}_{t-1,R}y_t + \tilde{D}_{t-1,R}w_t \right)^2 - \left( y_{t+1} - \tilde{A}_{t,R}y_t \right)^2 \right], \quad t = R + 1, ..., T.
\]  

(10)
Here $\hat{A}_{t-1,R}, \hat{D}_{t-1,R}$ are the parameter estimates for the DSGE based on the sample including data indexed $t-R, ..., t-1$ and $\hat{A}_{t-1,R}$ is the parameter estimate for the AR based on the same sample. When the expressions in (10) is positive, we conclude that model $f$ performs better than model $g$. Similarly to the in-sample analysis, we estimate the time path of the models’ relative performance by considering a sequence of statistics computed over moving windows of size $m$:

$$F_{t,m}^{OOS} = \tilde{\sigma}^{-1}m^{-1/2} \sum_j \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_j_{-1,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{j-1,R}), \ t = R + 1 + m/2, ..., T - m/2,$$

(11)

where $\Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_j_{-1,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{j-1,R}) = (y_j - \hat{A}_{j-1,R}y_{j-1} + \hat{D}_{j-1,R}w_{j-1})^2 - (y_j - \hat{A}_{j-1,R}y_{j-1})^2$ and the expression for $\tilde{\sigma}$ is given in (17) below$^4$.

The out-of-sample fluctuation test consists of characterizing the sample path of $F_{t,m}^{OOS}$ and deriving boundary lines under the null hypothesis that the measure of relative performance (10) is equal to zero at each point in time. The only difference with the in-sample analysis is that the boundary lines now depend on the ratio $m/P$, where $P$ is the out-of-sample size, rather than on $m/T$. For a given value of $m/P$, the boundary lines are the same as for the in-sample case, and are reported in Table 1.

### 2.3 Optimal test against a one-time break

The fluctuation test only characterizes the behavior of our test statistic under the null hypothesis that the two models perform equally well at each point in time, and does not have a particular alternative hypothesis in mind. If the researcher is willing to make additional assumptions on the behavior of the time path of the relative performance under the alternative, it is possible to construct tests with optimal properties against such alternative. For example, one situation of interest from an economic point of view is the case in which there is one break in the relative performance at one unknown point in time, such as that depicted in the right panel of Figure 1a. This is an important case in practice, as it describes sudden changes in the relative performance of the models concomitant to major economic events.

An optimal test against this alternative can be constructed as follows. First, we compute a sequence of test statistics for $t = [0.15T], ..., [0.85T]$:

$$\Phi_T (t) = LM_1 + LM_2 (t),$$

$^4$The difference between the West (1996) and the Giacomini and White (2006) framework is in the expression for $\tilde{\sigma}$, which in West’s (1996) framework would contain terms that capture the effect of estimation uncertainty. West’s (1996) framework allows the forecasts to be produced by a fixed, rolling and recursive scheme, whereas the Giacomini and White (2006) framework only allows a fixed or rolling scheme. One the other hand, West’s (1996) framework rules out comparisons between nested models, whereas in our framework the out-of-sample fluctuation test is applicable to both nested and non-nested models.
where

\[ LM_1 = \sigma^{-2T^{-1}} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_T) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_T) \right) \right)^2 \]

\[ LM_2(t) = \sigma^{-2(t/T)^{-1}} \left( 1 - t/T \right)^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{t} \left( \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_{1,t}) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_{1,t}) \right) \right]^2, \]

where \( \hat{\theta}_T = (\hat{A}_T, \hat{D}_T) \) are the DSGE parameters estimated over the full sample; \( \hat{\gamma}_T \) are the corresponding full-sample parameter estimates for the AR; \( \hat{\theta}_{1,t} \) and \( \hat{\gamma}_{1,t} \) are the DSGE and AR parameters estimated over the sample indexed \( 1, \ldots, t \) and \( \sigma^2 \) is given in (20) below. Our statistic is then:

\[ QLR_T = \sup_t \Phi_T(t), \quad t \in \{ [0.15T], \ldots [0.85T] \} \] (12)

If such statistic is greater than the critical value provided in Proposition 3 below, then one would reject the null hypothesis.

One of the advantages of this approach is that, when the null hypothesis is rejected, it is possible to estimate the time of the break. In addition, there is no need for the researcher to specify the size of the moving window \( m \).

### 2.4 Sequential test

The goal of the sequential test is to provide a tool for monitoring the relative performance of the two models over the post-historical sample \( T + 1, T + 2 \) etc., to assess whether previous model selection decisions are reversed by the arrival of new information.

Suppose that the two models performed equally well, on average, in the historical sample. One would like to know whether this continues to be true as new data become available, for example by comparing the models’ relative performance on a sample that includes the new observations. The problem with implementing a sequence of tests of equal performance with a fixed significance level is that it would result in size distortions for the overall procedure. The idea behind our approach is to conduct a sequence of full-sample tests, but utilizing modified critical values that control the overall size.

The procedure is implemented as follows. At every point in time \( t = T + 1, T + 2, \ldots \) the researcher evaluates the measure of relative performance up to that time, that is the sample analog of the rescaled \( \Delta KLIC \) at time \( t \):

\[ J_t = \sigma_t^{-1} t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_t, \hat{\gamma}_t). \] (13)
where $\hat{\sigma}^2_t$ is given below in (23). The critical values for the $J_t$ statistic at time $t$ are $c_\alpha = \sqrt{r_\alpha^2 + \ln(t/T)}$, where $r_\alpha$ depends on the size of the test, $\alpha$. Typical values of $(\alpha, r_\alpha)$ are $(0.05, 2.7955)$ and $(0.10, 2.5003)$. The null hypothesis is rejected when $|J_t| > c_\alpha$. The sign of $J_t$ identifies which model is best (for example, if $J_t > 0$ the first model is better).

3 Econometric methodology

3.1 Notation

We first introduce the notation and discuss the assumptions about the data, the models and the estimation procedures. We are interested in selecting a model for $y_t$, which we assume for simplicity to be a scalar (for the in-sample test, the extension to the multivariate case is straightforward), using a collection of variables $z_t$, possibly containing lags of $y_t$. We let $x_t = (y_t', z_t)'$.

For the in-sample analysis, we assume that two competing possibly nonlinear dynamic models for $y_t$ specify different (misspecified) conditional densities $f_t$ and $g_t$, which depend on parameters $\theta \in \Theta$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$ that are estimated by Maximum Likelihood (ML). The implementation of the fluctuation test involves estimating the models recursively over moving windows of size $m < T$. Let $\sum_j = \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2}$. At time $t$, the sample is $(x_{t-m/2+1}, ..., x_{t+m/2})$ and the parameter estimate for $f$ (the definitions for $g$ are analogous) is $\hat{\theta}_{t,m} = \arg\max_{\theta \in \Theta} m^{-1} \sum_j \log f_j(x_j, \theta)$, with corresponding pseudo-true parameter $\theta^*_{t,m} = \arg\max_{\theta \in \Theta} m^{-1} \sum_j E[\log f_j(x_j, \theta)]$. For the in-sample fluctuation test, we thus have $\Delta L_j \left( \hat{\theta}_{t,m}, \hat{\gamma}_{t,m} \right) = \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_{t,m}) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_{t,m})$.

For the out-of-sample analysis, we assume that the researcher has divided the sample into an in-sample portion of size $R$ and an out-of-sample portion of size $P$ and obtained two competing sequences of $h$–step ahead out-of-sample forecasts by estimating the models using either a fixed or rolling estimation window. For a general loss function $L$, we thus have sequences of $P$ out-of-sample forecast loss differences, $\left\{ L^f(y_t, \hat{\theta}_{t-h,R}) - L^g(y_t, \hat{\gamma}_{t-h,R}) \right\}_{t=R+h}$, which depend on the realizations of the variable and on the in-sample parameter estimates for each model $\hat{\theta}_{t-h,R}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{t-h,R}$. Unlike for the in-sample case, for which we restrict attention to maximum likelihood estimation, for the out-of-sample fluctuation test any estimation procedure is allowed. The parameters are estimated recursively, over a sample including data indexed $1, ..., R$ (fixed scheme) or $t - h - m + 1, ..., t - h$ (rolling scheme). For the in-sample fluctuation test, we thus have $\Delta L_j \left( \hat{\theta}_{j-h,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{j-h,R} \right) = L^f(y_j, \hat{\theta}_{j-h,R}) - L^g(y_j, \hat{\gamma}_{j-h,R})$.

3.2 The fluctuation test

3.2.1 In-sample analysis

We make the following assumptions for the in-sample fluctuation test.
Assumption IS: Let \( \tau \) be s.t. \( t = [\tau T] \) and \( \tau \in [0,1] \). (a) \( \left\{ T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{[\tau T]} \Delta L_j (\theta, \gamma) \right\} \) obeys a Functional Central Limit Theorem (FCLT) for all \( \theta \in \Theta, \gamma \in \Gamma \); (b) \( \tilde{\theta}_{t,m} \) satisfies a Strong Uniform Law of Large Numbers: \( \tilde{\theta}_{t,m} \to \theta_{t,m}^* \) uniformly over \( \Theta \) (and similarly for \( \tilde{\gamma}_{t,m} \)); (c) \( \nabla f_j (\theta), \nabla g_j (\gamma) \) satisfy a Uniform Law of Large Numbers; (d) \( \sigma^2 = \lim_{m \to \infty} E (m^{-1/2} \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j (\theta_{t,m}^*, \gamma_{t,m}^*))^2 > 0 \) (e) \( m/T \to \mu \in (0, \infty) \) as \( m \to \infty, T \to \infty \); (f) \( \Theta, \Gamma \) are compact.

Assumption (d) imposes global covariance stationarity for the sequence of loss differences, and it thus limits the amount of heterogeneity permitted under the null hypothesis. This assumption is in principle stronger than necessary, but it facilitates the statement of the FCLT (see Wooldridge and White, 1988 for a general FCLT for heterogeneous mixing sequences). Note that global covariance stationarity allows the variance to change over time, but in a way that ensures that, as the sample size grows, the sequence of variances converges to a finite and positive limit.

The following Proposition provides a justification for the in-sample fluctuation test.

**Proposition 1 (In-sample fluctuation test)** Suppose Assumption IS holds. Let 
\[
F_{t,m}^{IS} = \sigma^{-1} m^{-1/2} \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \left( \log f_j (\tilde{\theta}_{t,m}) - \log g_j (\tilde{\gamma}_{t,m}) \right), \quad t = m/2 + 1, ..., T - m/2, 
\]
where \( \sigma^2 \) is a HAC estimator of the global asymptotic variance \( \sigma^2 \), for example
\[
\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum_{i=-q(m)+1}^{q(m)-1} (1 - |i/q(m)|) m^{-1} \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j (\tilde{\theta}_{t,m}, \tilde{\gamma}_{t,m}) \Delta L_{j-i} (\tilde{\theta}_{t,m}, \tilde{\gamma}_{t,m}), \quad (14)
\]
with \( q(m) \) a bandwidth that grows with \( m \) (e.g., Newey and West, 1987). Under the null hypothesis \( H_0 : E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \Delta L_j (\theta_{t,m}^*, \gamma_{t,m}^*) \right] = 0 \) for all \( t = m/2 + 1, ..., T - m/2, \)
\[
F_{t,m}^{IS} \to [B (\tau + \mu/2) - B (\tau - \mu/2)] / \sqrt{\mu}, \quad (15)
\]
where \( t = [\tau T], m = [\mu T] \) and \( B (\cdot) \) is a standard univariate Brownian motion. The boundary lines for a significance level \( \alpha \) are \( \pm k_\alpha \) where \( k_\alpha \) solves
\[
P \left\{ \sup_{\tau} \left\| B (\tau + \mu/2) - B (\tau - \mu/2) \right\| / \sqrt{\mu} > k_\alpha \right\} = \alpha. \quad (16)
\]
Simulated values of \( (\alpha, k_\alpha) \) for various choices of \( \mu \) are reported in Table 1. The null hypothesis is rejected when \( \max_{m/2+1 \leq t \leq T-m/2} |F_{t,m}^{IS}| > k_\alpha. \)

3.2.2 Out-of-sample analysis

We make the following assumptions for the out-of-sample fluctuation test.

**Assumption OOS:** Let \( \tau \) be s.t. \( t = [\tau P] \) and \( \tau \in [0,1] \). (a) \( \left\{ P^{-1/2} \sum_{j=R+h}^{[\tau P]} \Delta L_j (\tilde{\theta}_{j-h,R}, \tilde{\gamma}_{j-h,R}) \right\} \) obeys a FCLT; (b) \( \sigma^2 = \lim_{m \to \infty} E (m^{-1/2} \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j (\tilde{\theta}_{j-h,R}, \tilde{\gamma}_{j-h,R}))^2 > 0 \) (c) \( m/P \to \mu \in (0, \infty) \) as \( m \to \infty, P \to \infty. \)
Note that, unlike the in-sample test, which requires the parameters of the two models to be estimated by ML, the out-of-sample test does not impose restrictions on the estimation method used to produce the forecasts for the two models. This is because we use the same asymptotic framework as in Giacomini and White (2006). Giacomini and White (2006) also provide primitive conditions for assumption OOS(a), which allow the data to be mixing and heterogeneous and essentially require the use of a “rolling” or “fixed” estimation window scheme in producing the out-of-sample forecasts.

The procedure for deriving the out-of-sample fluctuation test is analogous to that for the in-sample case. The only difference is that the time variation of the relative forecast performance is only analyzed over the out-of-sample portion of size $P$, rather than over the full sample of size $T$. Proposition 1 is thus modified as follows.

Proposition 2 (Out-of-sample fluctuation test) Suppose Assumption OOS holds. Let $F_{t,m}^{OOS} = \hat{\sigma}^{-1} m^{-1/2} \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_{j-h,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{j-h,R})$, $t = R + h + m/2, ..., T - m/2$, where $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is a HAC estimator of $\sigma^2$, for example

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum_{i=-q(m)+1}^{q(m)-1} (1 - |i/q(m)|) m^{-1} \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_{j-h,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{j-h,R}) \Delta L_{j-i}(\hat{\theta}_{j-i-h,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{j-i-h,R}),$$

(17)

$q(m)$ is a bandwidth that grows with $m$ (Newey and West, 1987). Under the null hypothesis $H_0 : E\left[\Delta L_t(\hat{\theta}_{t-h,R}, \hat{\gamma}_{t-h,R})\right] = 0$ for all $t = R + h, ..., T$,

$$F_{t,m}^{OOS} \Rightarrow \left[B(\tau + \mu/2) - B(\tau - \mu/2)\right]/\sqrt{\mu},$$

(18)

where $t = \lceil \tau P \rceil, m = \lceil \mu P \rceil$ and $\mathcal{B}(\cdot)$ is a standard univariate Brownian motion. The boundary lines for a significance level $\alpha$ are $\pm k_\alpha$ where $k_\alpha$ solves

$$P\left\{\sup_{\tau} \left|\left[B(\tau + \mu/2) - B(\tau - \mu/2)\right]/\sqrt{\mu}\right| > k_\alpha\right\} = \alpha.$$

(19)

Simulated values of $(\alpha, k_\alpha)$ for various choices of $\mu$ are reported in Table 1.

3.3 The optimal test

The assumptions that guarantee validity of the optimal test are the same as those for the in-sample fluctuation test.\(^5\) The following proposition gives the justification for the optimal test.

\(^5\)We let $t = \lceil \tau T \rceil$ in this section, so Assumption IS(e) should read: $t/T \to \tau \in (0, \infty)$ as $t \to \infty, T \to \infty$. It is intended that Assumptions IS(a,b,c) hold for both the full sample and the partial sample sums and estimators.
Proposition 3 (Optimal test against a one-time break) Suppose Assumption IS holds. Let $QLR_T = \sup_t \Phi_T(t), t \in \{[0.15T], ..., [0.85T]\}$, where

$$LM_1 = \hat{\sigma}^{-2} T^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\hat{\varrho}_T) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_T)) \right]^2$$

$$LM_2(t) = \hat{\sigma}^{-2} T^{-1} (t/T)^{-1} (1 - t/T)^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{t} (\log f_j(\hat{\varrho}_{1,t}) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_{1,t})) \right] - (t/T) \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\hat{\varrho}_T) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_T)),$$

$\hat{\sigma}^2$ a HAC estimators of the asymptotic variance $\sigma^2 = \text{var} \left( T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T)) \right)$, for example

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{i=-q(T)+1}^{q(T)-1} (1 - |i/q(T)|) T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\hat{\varrho}_T) - \log g_j(\hat{\gamma}_T)) \left( \log f_{j-i}(\hat{\varrho}_T) - \log g_{j-i}(\hat{\gamma}_T) \right).$$

Consider the null hypothesis

$$H_0 : E \left[ t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\theta^*_1,t) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_1)) - (T - t)^{-1/2} \sum_{j=t+1}^{T} (\log f_j(\theta^*_2,t) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_2)) \right] = 0,$$

for every $t = 1, 2, ..., T$, where $\theta^*_1,t$ is the pseudo-true parameter for the sample indexed $1, ..., t$ and $\theta^*_2,t$ is the pseudo-true parameter for the sample indexed $t+1, ..., T$ (similar definitions hold for $\gamma^*_1$ and $\gamma^*_2$). We have $QLR_T \Rightarrow \sup_{\tau} \frac{RB(\tau)}{RB(0)} + B(1)' B(1)'$, where $t = \lfloor \tau T \rfloor$, and $B(\cdot)$ and $BB(\cdot)$ are, respectively, a standard univariate Brownian motion and a Brownian bridge. The null hypothesis is thus rejected when $QLR_T > k_\alpha$. The critical values $(\alpha, k_\alpha)$ are: $(0.05, 9.8257)$, $(0.10, 8.1379)$, $(0.01, 13.4811)$.

Among the advantages of this approach, we have that: (i) when the null hypothesis is rejected, it is possible to evaluate whether the rejection is due to instabilities in the relative performance or to a model being constantly better than its competitor; (ii) if such instability is found, it is possible to estimate the time of the switch in the relative performance; (iii) the test is optimal against one time breaks in the relative performance. This is achieved by using the following procedure for a test with overall significance level $\alpha$:

(i) test the hypothesis of equal performance at each time by using the statistic $QLR^*_T$ from Proposition (3) at $\alpha$ significance level;

(ii) if the null is rejected, compare $LM_1$ and $\sup_t LM_2(t), t \in \{[0.15T], ..., [0.85T]\}$, with the following critical values: $(3.84, 8.85)$ for $\alpha = 0.05$, $(2.71, 7.17)$ for $\alpha = 0.10$, and $(6.63, 12.35)$ for $\alpha = 0.01$. If only $LM_1$ rejects then there is evidence in favor of the hypothesis that one model is
constantly better than its competitor. If only $LM_2$ rejects, then there is evidence that there are instabilities in the relative performance of the two models but neither is constantly better over the full sample. If both reject then it is not possible to attribute the rejection to a unique source.\(^6\)

(iii) estimate the time of the break by $t^* = \arg \max_{t \in \{0.15T, \ldots, 0.85T\}} LM_2(t)$.

(iv) to extract information on which model to choose, we suggest to plot the time path of the underlying relative performance as:

$$\begin{cases}
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{j=1}^{t^*} \left( \log f_j(\theta_{1,t^*}) - \log g_j(\gamma_{1,t^*}) \right) & \text{for } t \leq t^* \\
\frac{1}{(T-t^*)} \sum_{j=t^*+1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\theta_{2,t^*}) - \log g_j(\gamma_{2,t^*}) \right) & \text{for } t > t^*
\end{cases}$$

This approach can be easily generalized to multiple changes in relative performance by following, for example, the sequential procedure suggested by Bai and Perron (1998).

The fluctuation and the optimal tests have trade-offs. If the researcher is willing to specify the alternative of interest (in this case, a one-time break in the relative performance), then the latter test can be implemented and it will have optimality properties. Furthermore, it allows the researcher to estimate the time of the break. The fluctuation test, on the other hand, does not require the researcher to specify an alternative, and therefore might be preferable for researchers who do not have one.

3.4 The sequential test

Suppose that the two models were equally good in the historical sample of data up to time $T$, based on the fact that they yielded statistically indistinguishable in-sample performance, i.e., that $E \left[ T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \Delta L_j(\theta_T^*, \gamma_T^*) \right] = 0$. We test the null hypothesis that the two models perform equally well for all subsequent periods in the post-historical sample:

$$H_0 : E \left[ t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_j(\theta_t^*, \gamma_t^*) \right] = 0 \text{ for } t = T + 1, T + 2, \ldots, \quad (21)$$

against the alternative $H_1 : E \left[ t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_j(\theta_t^*, \gamma_t^*) \right] \neq 0$ at some point $t \geq T$.

We make the following assumptions:

**Assumption SEQ:** Let $\tau$ be s.t. $t = \lfloor \tau T \rfloor$ and $\tau \in [1, n]$; (a) for every integer $n > 1$, $\left\{ T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor \tau T \rfloor} \Delta L_j(\theta, \gamma) \right\}$ obeys a FCLT for all $\theta \in \Theta$, $\gamma \in \Gamma$; (b) $\hat{\theta}_t$ is consistent for $\theta_t^*$ uniformly over $\Theta$ and in $\tau$; (c) for every integer $n > 1$, $t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_j(\theta_t^*, \gamma_t^*) = E[t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_j(\theta_t^*, \gamma_t^*)] + o_p(1)$, $t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nabla f_j(\theta)$ and $t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nabla g_j(\theta)$ satisfy a Uniform Law of Large Numbers – uniform

\(^6\)This procedure is justified by the fact that the two components $LM_1$ and $LM_2$ are asymptotically independent – see Rossi (2005). Performing two separate tests does not result in an optimal test, but it is nevertheless useful to heuristically disentangle the causes of rejection of equal performance. The critical values for $LM_1$ are from a $\chi^2_1$ whereas those for $LM_2$ are from Andrews (1993).
in the parameter space and in \( \tau \); (d) \( \sigma^2 = \lim_{t \to \infty} E(t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^t \Delta L_j(\theta^*_t, \gamma^*_t))^2 > 0 \); (e) \( \Theta, \Gamma \) are compact.

Assumption (b) requires consistency of the parameter estimates for the two models (see Inoue and Rossi (2005) for more primitive conditions that ensure this); (c) ensures uniform convergence for \( \tau \in [1, n] \).

We test this hypothesis sequentially, that is, by considering a sequence of test statistics, together with appropriate critical values that control the overall size of the procedure, which are given in the following proposition.

**Proposition 4 (Sequential test)** The test statistic for testing the null hypothesis 
\[
E \left[ t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^t \Delta L_j(\theta^*_T, \gamma^*_T) \right] = 0 \text{ against the alternative } H_1 : E \left[ t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^t \Delta L_j(\theta^*_t, \gamma^*_t) \right] \neq 0 \text{ at some } t \geq T \text{ is:}
\]
\[
J_t = \hat{\sigma}^{-1} t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^t \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_t, \hat{\gamma}_t), \quad t = T + 1, T + 2, \ldots,
\]
where \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \) is a HAC estimator of \( \sigma \), e.g.,
\[
\hat{\sigma}^2_t = \sum_{i=-q(t)+1}^{q(t)-1} (1 - |i/q(t)|) t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^t \Delta L_j \left( \hat{\theta}_t, \hat{\gamma}_t \right) \Delta L_{j-i} \left( \hat{\theta}_t, \hat{\gamma}_t \right),
\]
with \( q(m) \) a bandwidth that grows with \( m \) (cf. Newey and West, 1987). The critical value at time \( t \) for a level \( \alpha \) test is \( c_\alpha = \sqrt{r_\alpha^2 + \ln(t/T)} \), where the exact expression for \( r_\alpha \) is given in the proof. Typical values of \( (\alpha, r_\alpha) \) are \( (0.05, 2.7955) \) and \( (0.10, 2.5003) \). The null hypothesis is rejected when \( |J_t| > c_\alpha \).

4 Empirical application: time-variation in the performance of DSGE vs. BVAR models

In a highly influential paper, Smets and Wouters (2003) (henceforth SW) show that a DSGE model of the European economy - estimated using Bayesian techniques over the period 1970:2-1999:4 - fits the data as well as atheoretical Bayesian VARs (BVARs). Furthermore, they find that the parameter estimates from the DSGE model have the expected sign. Perhaps for these reasons, this new generation of DSGE models has attracted a lot of interest from forecasters and central banks. SW’s model features include sticky prices and wages, habit formation, adjustment costs in capital accumulation and variable capacity utilization, and the model is estimated using seven variables: GDP, consumption, investment, prices, real wages, employment, and the nominal interest rate. Their conclusion that the DSGE fits the data as well as BVARs is based on the fact that the marginal data densities for the two models are of comparable magnitudes over the
full sample. However, given the changes that have characterized the European economy over the sample analyzed by SW - for example, the creation of the European Union in 1993, changes in productivity and in the labor market, to name a few - it is plausible that the relative performance of theoretical and atheoretical models may itself have varied over time. In this section, we apply the techniques proposed in this paper to assess whether the relative performance of the DSGE model and of BVARs was stable over time. We extend the sample considered by SW to include data up to 2004:4, for a total sample of size $T = 145$.

In order to compute the local measure of relative performance, (the local $\Delta Klic$), we estimate both models recursively over a moving window of size $m = 70$ using Bayesian methods. As in SW, the first 40 data points in each sample are used to initialize the estimates of the DSGE model and as training samples for the BVAR priors. We consider a BVAR(1) and a BVAR(2), both of which use a variant of the Minnesota prior, as suggested by Sims (2003).7 We present results for two different transformations of the data. The first applies the same detrending of the data used by SW, which is based on a linear trend fitted on the whole sample (we refer to this as “full-sample detrending”). As cautioned by Sims (2003), this type of pre-processing of the data may unduly favour the DSGE, and thus we further consider a second transformation of the data, where detrending is performed on each rolling estimation window (“rolling-sample detrending”).

Figure 2 displays the evolution of the posterior mode of some representative parameters. Figure 2a shows parameters that describe the evolution of the persistence of some representative shocks (productivity, investment, government spending, and labor supply); Figure 2b shows the estimates of the standard deviation of the same shocks; and Figure 2c plots monetary policy parameters. Overall, Figure 2 reveals evidence of parameter variation. In particular, the figures show some decrease in the persistence of the productivity shock, whereas both the persistence and the standard deviation of the investment shock seem to increase over time. The monetary policy parameters appear to be overall stable over time.

FIGURE 2 HERE

We then apply our in-sample fluctuation test to test the hypothesis that the DSGE model and the BVAR have equal performance at every point in time over the historical sample.

Figure 3 shows the implementation of the fluctuation test for the DSGE vs. a BVAR(1) and BVAR(2), using full-sample detrending of the data. The estimate of the local relative $Klic$ is evaluated at the posterior modes $\hat{\theta}_{t,m}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{t,m}$ of the models’ parameters, using the fact that $\hat{\theta}_{t,m}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{t,m}$ are consistent estimates of the pseudo-true parameters $\theta_{t,m}^*$ and $\gamma_{t,m}^*$ (see, e.g., Fernandez-Villaverde and Rubio-Ramirez, 2004).

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7 The BVAR’s were estimated using software provided by Chris Sims at www.princeton.edu/~sims. As in Sims (2003), for the Minnesota prior we set the decay parameter to 1 and the overall tightness to .3. We also included sum-of-coefficients (with weight $\mu = 1$) and co-persistence (with weight $\lambda = 5$) prior components.
Figure 3 suggests that the DSGE has comparable performance to both a BVAR(1) and BVAR(2) up until the early 1990s, at which point the performance of the DSGE dramatically improves relative to that of the reduced-form models.

To assess whether this result is sensitive to the data filtering, we implement the fluctuation test for the DSGE vs. a BVAR(1) and BVAR(2), this time using rolling-window detrended data.

The results confirm the suspicion expressed by Sims (2003) that the pre-processing of the data utilized by SW penalizes the reduced-form models in favour of the DSGE. As we see from Figure 4, once the detrending is performed on each rolling window, the advantage of the DSGE at the end of the sample disappears, and the DSGE performs as well as a BVAR(1) on most of the sample, whereas it is outperformed by a BVAR(2) for all but the last few dates in the sample (when the two models perform equally well).

5 Conclusions

This paper provides new tests for model selection and forecast comparison in the presence of possible misspecification and structural instability. We proposed methods for assessing whether there is time variation in the relative performance of possibly nonlinear dynamic models, where the relative performance could be assessed either in-sample or out-of-sample.

For the in-sample case, our techniques are only applicable if the models are non-nested. If the models of interest are instead nested and misspecification is not a concern, the researcher has the following options. A possible counterpart for the in-sample fluctuation test would be the joint test for nested model selection in the presence of underlying parameter instability proposed by Rossi (2005). The counterpart of the sequential test for nested models is discussed instead in Inoue and Rossi (2005). Both tests’ null hypotheses can be expressed as zero restrictions on the parameters of the larger model, and they both test jointly this hypothesis as well as the maintained assumption that the small model is correctly specified.
References


6 Appendix A - Proofs

Proof of Proposition 1. Let \( \sum_j \equiv \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \) for \( t = m/2 + 1, \ldots, T - m/2 \). We first show that 
\[
\sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_{t,m}, \hat{\gamma}_{t,m}) = \sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) + o_p(1). 
\]
Applying a Taylor series expansion, we have that
\[
\sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\hat{\theta}_{t,m}, \hat{\gamma}_{t,m}) \\
= \sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) \\
- \sigma^{-1} \frac{1}{2} \left\{ E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \nabla f_j(\hat{\theta}_{t,m}) \right] \sqrt{m} \left( \hat{\theta}_{t,m} - \theta^*_{t,m} \right) \right. \\
- E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \nabla g_j(\hat{\gamma}_{t,m}) \right] \sqrt{m} \left( \hat{\gamma}_{t,m} - \gamma^*_{t,m} \right) \right\} \\
= \sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) + o_p(1),
\]
where \( \hat{\theta}_{t,m} \) is an intermediate point between \( \hat{\theta}_{t,m} \) and \( \theta^*_{t,m} \). Assumptions (c) and (b) ensure that 
\( E \left[ m^{-1} \sum_j \nabla f_j(\hat{\theta}_{t,m}) \right] \rightarrow 0 \) and Assumption (b) ensures that the second component in the second to last line is \( o_p(1) \). Now write
\[
\sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) \\
= (m/T)^{-1/2} \left( \sigma^{-1}T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) - \sigma^{-1}T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t-m/2} \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) \right). 
\]
By Assumptions (a), (d) and (e), we have
\[
\sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2}\sum_j \Delta L_j(\theta^*_{t,m}, \gamma^*_{t,m}) \implies \left[ B(\tau + \mu/2) - B(\tau - \mu/2) \right] / \sqrt{\mu},
\]
where \( t = [\tau T], m = [\mu T] \). The statement in the proposition then follows from the fact that, under \( H_0 \), \( \sigma \) in (14) is a consistent estimator of \( \sigma \) (Andrews, 1991). Values of \( k_\alpha \) in Table 1 are obtained by Monte Carlo simulations (based on 8,000 Monte Carlo replications and by approximating the Brownian Motion with 400 observations).

Proof of Proposition 2. Let \( \sum_j \equiv \sum_{j=t-m/2+1}^{t+m/2} \) for \( t = R + h + m/2, \ldots, T - m/2 \). We have
\[ \sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2} \sum_j \Delta L_j(\hat{j}-h,R,\tilde{j}-h,R) \]

= \((m/P)^{-1/2}\left(\sigma^{-1}P^{-1/2} \sum_{j=R+h}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j(\hat{j}-h,R,\tilde{j}-h,R) - \sigma^{-1}P^{-1/2} \sum_{j=R+h}^{t-m/2} \Delta L_j(\hat{j}-h,R,\tilde{j}-h,R)\right). \]

By Assumptions (a), (b) and (c), we have

\[ \sigma^{-1}m^{-1/2} \sum_j \Delta L_j(\hat{j}-h,R,\tilde{j}-h,R) \iff [B(\tau + \mu/2) - B(\tau - \mu/2)] / \sqrt{m}. \]

The statement in the proposition then follows from the fact that, under \(H_0\), \(\hat{\sigma}\) in (17) is a consistent estimator of \(\sigma\) (Andrews, 1991).

**Proof of Proposition 3.** First we show that: (I) \(LM_1 = \sigma^{-2}T^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T) \right) \right]^2 + o_p(1)\) and (II) \(LM_2(t) = \sigma^{-2} (t/T)^{-1} (1 - t/T)^{-1} \left[ T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \left( \log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T) \right) + (t/T) T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T) \right) \right]^2 + o_p(1)\)

To prove (I), note that by applying a Taylor expansion:

\[ \sigma^{-2}T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_T) - \log g_j(\tilde{\gamma}_T) \right) \]

= \( \sigma^{-2}T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T) \right) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{-2}T^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \nabla \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_T) \nabla \log g_j(\tilde{\gamma}_T) \right) \]

where \(\hat{\theta}_T\) is an intermediate point between \(\hat{\theta}_T\) and \(\theta^*_T\) (similarly for \(\tilde{\gamma}_T\)). Assumptions (c) and (b) ensure that \(E \left[ \nabla \log f_j(\hat{\theta}_T) \right] \to 0\) and Assumption (b) ensures that the second component in the second to last line is \(o_p(1)\). A similar argument proves (II).

By assumptions (a), (d) and (e), under the null hypothesis (??):

\[ \sigma^{-1}T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left( \log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T) \right) \iff B(1) \quad (25) \]
\[
\sigma^{-1} (t/T)^{-1/2} (1 - t/T)^{-1/2} \left[ T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} (\log f_j(\theta^*_t) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_t)) \right] \\
- (t/T) T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T)) \right] \\
\implies \tau^{-1/2} (1 - \tau)^{-1/2} [B(\tau) - \tau B(1)] = \tau^{-1/2} (1 - \tau)^{-1/2} BB(\tau) \tag{26}
\]

where (25) and (26) are asymptotically independent. Then:

\[
LM_1 + LM_2(t) = \sigma^{-2} T^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T)) \right]^2 \\
+ \sigma^{-2} \left( \frac{t}{T} \right)^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{t}{T} \right)^{-1} \left[ T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} (\log f_j(\theta^*_t) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_t)) \right] \\
- \left( \frac{t}{T} T^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{T} (\log f_j(\theta^*_T) - \log g_j(\gamma^*_T)) \right) + o_p(1) \\
\implies B(1)^2 + \tau^{-1} (1 - \tau)^{-1} BB(\tau)^2
\]

and the result follows by the Continuous Mapping Theorem. ■

**Proof of Proposition 4.** Suppose that \( n \) is a fixed positive integer greater than 1. Using similar reasonings to those in the Proof of Proposition 1, we first show that \( \sigma^{-1} t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_{j}(\hat{\theta}_t, \hat{\gamma}_t) = \sigma^{-1} t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_{j}(\theta^*_t, \gamma^*_t) + o_p(1) \). Applying a Taylor series expansion we have that (24) holds. Assumptions SEQ(b), (c) ensure that \( E \left[ t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nabla f_j(\hat{\theta}_t) \right] \) and \( E \left[ t^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nabla g_j(\hat{\gamma}_t) \right] \) are bounded in probability on \( D[1,n] \) and (b) ensures that the second component in the second to last line is \( o_p(1) \) for every \( t \) on \( D[1,n] \). Then, by Assumptions SEQ (a), (d), and (e), we have that \( \sigma^{-1} t^{-1/2} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta L_{j}(\hat{\theta}_t, \hat{\gamma}_t) \Rightarrow B(\tau) / \sqrt{\tau} \) on \( D[1,n] \). Next, it follows from Theorem 1.6.1 in van der Vaart and Wellner (1996, p. 43) that these convergence also holds on \( D[1,\infty) \). The statement in the proposition then follows from the fact that, under the null hypothesis, \( \hat{\sigma} \) in (23) is a consistent estimator of \( \sigma \) (Andrews, 1991). The critical value is then determined from the hitting probability of the Brownian Motion, as in Chu et al. (1996, p.1053): \( P \left\{ |B(\tau)| / \sqrt{\tau} \geq \sqrt{(r^2 + \ln \tau)}, \text{for some } \tau \geq 1 \right\} = 2 \left[ 1 - \Phi(r_\alpha) = r_\alpha \phi(r_\alpha) \right] \), where \( t = [\tau T] \), and \( \phi(.) \) and \( \Phi(.) \) are, respectively, the pdf and cdf of a standard normal distribution. ■
7 Appendix B

Lemma 5 (A bootstrap procedure robust to breaks in variance) In the presence of breaks in $\sigma$ satisfying Assumption $\nu$ in Cavaliere and Taylor (2005), the following bootstrap à la Hansen (2000) provides the correct p-values. Let $\bar{T}_t \equiv m^{-1} \sum_{j=t-m/2}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j$ and let $z_t$ denote an independent $N(0,1)$ sequence. At each point in time $t$ the bootstrap sample is defined as $\Delta L_j^{(b)} \equiv \Delta L_j z_j$, $j = 1, \ldots, m$ and the bootstrap statistic is given by $\sigma_b^{-1} m^{-1/2} \sum_{j=t-m/2}^{t+m/2} \Delta L_j^{(b)}$, where $\sigma_b^2 = m^{-1} \sum_{j=t-m/2}^{t+m/2} (\Delta L_j^{(b)})^2$. The critical values of the sample path can be obtained by Monte Carlo simulation.
Table 1. Critical values for the fluctuation test ($k_\alpha$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\mu$</th>
<th>0.05</th>
<th>0.10</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3.393</td>
<td>3.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.179</td>
<td>2.948</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.012</td>
<td>2.766</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>2.890</td>
<td>2.626</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.779</td>
<td>2.500</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.634</td>
<td>2.356</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.560</td>
<td>2.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.433</td>
<td>2.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.248</td>
<td>1.950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes to Table 1. The table reports critical values for the in-sample and out-of-sample fluctuation tests $F_{t,m}^{IS}$ and $F_{t,m}^{OOS}$ of Propositions 1 and 2.
Figure 2a. Rolling estimates of DSGE parameters (persistence of the shocks).

Notes to Figure 2(a). The figure plots rolling estimates of some parameters in Smets and Wouter’s (2002) model. See Smets and Wouter’s Table 1, p. 1142 for a description.
Figure 2b. Rolling estimates of DSGE parameters (standard deviation of the shocks).

Notes to Figure 2(b). The figure plots rolling estimates of some parameters in Smets and Wouter’s (2002) model using full-sample detrended data. See Smets and Wouter’s Table 1, p. 1142 for a description.
Figure 2c. Rolling estimates of DSGE parameters (monetary policy parameters).

Notes to Figure 2(c). The figure plots rolling estimates of the parameters in the monetary policy reaction function described in Smets and Wouters' (2002) eq. (36), given by:

\[ \Delta R_t = \rho \Delta R_{t-1} + (1 - \rho) \left\{ \pi_t + r_\pi (\pi_{t-1} - \pi_t) + r_Y (\tilde{Y}_t - \tilde{Y}^\mu_t) \right\} + r_{\Delta \pi} (\tilde{\pi}_t - \tilde{\pi}_{t-1}) + r_{\Delta Y} \left( (\tilde{Y}_t - \tilde{Y}^\mu_t) - (\tilde{Y}_{t-1} - \tilde{Y}^\mu_{t-1}) \right) + \eta^R_t, \quad \tilde{\pi}_t = \rho \tilde{\pi}_{t-1} + \eta^\pi_t. \]

The figure plots: inflation coefficient \((r_\pi)\), \(d\) (inflation) coefficient \((r_{\Delta \pi})\), lagged interest rate coefficient \((\rho)\), output gap coefficient \((r_Y)\), \(d\) (output gap) coefficient \((r_{\Delta Y})\), and standard deviation of the interest rate shock \((\sqrt{\text{var}(\eta^R_t)})\).
Figure 3. Fluctuation test DSGE vs. BVARs. Full-sample detrending

Notes to Figure 3. The figure plots the fluctuation test statistic for testing equal performance of the DSGE and BVARs, using a rolling window of size $m = 70$ (the horizontal axis reports the central point of each rolling window). The 10% boundary lines are derived under the hypothesis that the local $\Delta KLIC$ equals zero at each point in time. The data is detrended by a linear trend computed over the full sample. The top panel compares the DSGE to a BVAR(1) and the lower panel compares the DSGE to a BVAR(2).
Figure 4. Fluctuation test DSGE vs. BVARs. Rolling sample detrending

Notes to Figure 4. The figure plots the fluctuation test statistic for testing equal performance of the DSGE and BVARs, using a rolling window of size $m = 70$ (the horizontal axis reports the central point of each rolling window). The 10% boundary lines are derived under the hypothesis that the local $\Delta K L I C$ equals zero at each point in time. The data is detrended by a linear trend computed over each rolling window. The top panel compares the DSGE to a BVAR(1) and the lower panel compares the DSGE to a BVAR(2).