# FORECASTING MILK PRICES USING MILK SUPPLY AND INFLATION

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## FORECASTING MILK PRICES USING MILK SUPPLY

## AND INFLATION

## SÜT MİKTARI VE ENFLASYON İLE SÜT FİYAT TAHMİNİ

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#### İMZA

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- 2) Süt fiyatı 2) Milk price
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#### **ABSTRACT**

We study the forecasting of milk prices in Turkey using milk supply and inflation. Three different models are proposed: Vector Autoregressive Model, Vector Error Correction Model and an Autoregressive Model. The standard approach to evaluate performance of forecast models are comparison of root mean square error (RMSE) and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) values. We conclude that an autoregressive model has a better forecasting performance compared to the other two models in terms of both MAPE and RMSE criterion.

#### ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, Türkiye'deki süt miktarını ve enflasyonu kullanarak süt fiyatlarını inceledik ve gelecek için tahmin yaptık. Tahminler Vektör Otoregresif Model(VAR), Vektör Hata Düzeltme Modeli (VECM) ve Otoregresif Model (AR) olmak üzere üç farklı model ile yapıldı. Modeller arasında kıyaslama genel olarak Karesel Ortalama Hata (RMSE) ve Ortalama Mutlak Yüzde Sapma (MAPE) kriterleri üzerinden yapılmaktadır. Bu kıyaslamalar sonucunda Otoregresif modelinin diğer modellere göre hem MAPE hem de RMSE kriterlerine göre daha iyi performans gösterdiği sonucuna vardık.

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#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Forecasting prices of raw materials is an important and challenging area of research for both academia and business world. Obtaining accurate forecasts of prices will enable companies to have better forecasts of their profits, hence to take precautionary action if a negative financial situation is expected. This concept becomes more crucial as the raw material becomes more expensive since in this case, the profits are more sensitive to variance in prices. Having observed a high fluctuation in historical monthly milk prices, it is clear that a more accurate forecast of milk prices will highly contribute to the financial decision process of companies producing dairy products.

Estimating the price relationships and analyzing the nature of price changes from supplier to producer is an important tool to gain insight along the competition in food markets. Bakucs and Fertö (2006) state that two forces determine the access and price of the raw materials in food market: supply and demand. The growth in supply of raw materials depends on the weather conditions, which can be explained by the concept of seasonality. If due to seasonality, the supply of raw materials is low, resulting scarcity will drive the price of raw materials upward. Hence, the supply of materials constitutes a crucial variable in the estimation of material prices.

The purpose of this study is to estimate the dynamics of the milk prices in a given time period using milk supply and inflation and to choose the best performing model among Vector Autoregressive Model, Vector Error Correction Model and an Autoregressive Model in terms of MAPE and RMSE criteria.

The data used in this study is from January 1979 to September 2007. The regressions are performed using monthly data from Turkish milk market. We obtain results in favor of

Autoregressive Model compared to the other two models in terms of forecasting performance.

The remainder of paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present a brief review on literature on models forecasting the raw material prices. In Section 3, we describe forecasting models in detail: Vector autoregressive model, vector error correction model and basic autoregressive model. In Section 4, we explain the data on Turkish milk market and provide a careful analysis of the stationarity properties of the data. Empirical results of the forecasting models are compared in Section 5. We conclude in Section 6.

#### 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a growing literature on the dynamics of raw material prices. Bakucs and Fertö (2006) examine the dynamics of the marketing margin on the Hungarian beef market. Using monthly data from January 1992 to March 2000 for exogeneity tests, they conclude that causality runs from producer to retail prices, despite the common belief that price transmission on the Hungarian beef market is symmetric on both short and long run. They basically employ vector auto regression model for price forecasts.

 Ayadi (2005) focuses on the relationship between oil prices and levels of economic activity. With a data period of 1980-2004, he concludes that oil producing countries experience an increase in wealth when oil prices rise due to the effect of oil price change on industrial production index. He also employs a unique model, although different to Bakucs and Fertö (2006), namely the vector auto regression model.

 Shin & Sohn (2006) propose a new approach that combines Generalized Auto Regressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity (GARCH), neural network and random walk models on a weight that reflects the inverse of the exponentially weighted moving average of the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) of each model. They focus on predicting currency exchange rates using daily exchange rates between January 1999 and February 2003. They apply their model to the prediction of the exchange rates between the Korean won and Japanese yen. Consistent with our study, they compare results using MAPE and conclude that the proposed model performs better than the GARCH, neural networks and random walk.

 In their study, Gronewold, Guoping and Anping (2006) examine the regional spillover of production in China using a Vector Autoregressive Model. They try to find out the flow direction and the amount of a shock to GDP in different regions. Working on a set of data from 1953 to 2003, they find evidence on strong spillovers from the coast region to both regions but shocks to the western region prove to have no flow-on effect on the other two regions. As in the study of Ayadi (2005), they employ a VAR model for forecasting prices.

Despite the abundant literature on the forecast of material prices, literature on forecasting milk prices is not yet developed. Moreover, the comparison of price forecast models is not a well-explored subject in the literature. This paper constitutes a unique study by offering a comparison of various models of forecasting milk prices.

#### 3. FORECASTING MODELS

In this study, we analyze three different forecasting models: Vector autoregressive model, vector error correction model and an autoregressive model. Our aim is choosing the best performing model among these three models by comparing their forecast accuracies. Two commonly used criteria are employed to evaluate and compare the performance of the models. The first criterion is root mean square error (RMSE).

Assuming  $\hat{y}_k$  is the prediction variable of  $y_k$ :

RMSE=
$$
\sqrt{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=1}^{N}(y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2}
$$

The second performance indicator is mean absolute percentage error (MAPE). Using the same notation, MAPE is defined as:

$$
MAPE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left| \frac{y_k - \hat{y_k}}{y_k} \right| \times 100\%
$$

#### 3.1. Vector Autoregressive Model

The first model is Vector Autoregressive Model, adopted from the multivariate modeling of Sims (1980). VAR model has been advocated by Sims (1980) as a way to estimate dynamic relationship among jointly endogenous variables without imposing strong a priori restrictions such as exogeneity of the variables (Harris, 1995). As Enders (1996) states, VAR analysis serves for determining the interrelationships among variables.

Let  $x_t$  be an AR (p) process:

$$
x_{t} = m + \beta_{1}x_{t-1} + \beta_{2}x_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_{p}x_{t-p} + \varepsilon_{t}
$$

Consider a column vector with k different variables,  $x_t = [x_{1t} x_{2t} ... x_{kt}]$  where model is expressed in its past time values. This is called vector autoregression, namely; VAR. For a positive integer p, VAR (p) is denoted as:

$$
x_{t} = m + B_{1}x_{t-1} + B_{2}x_{t-2} + \dots + B_{p}x_{t-p} + \varepsilon_{t}
$$

where  $B_i$  are k x k matrices of coefficients, m is a k x 1 vector of constants and  $\varepsilon$  is a vector white noise process with the following properties.

$$
E(\varepsilon_t) = 0 \quad \text{for all t}
$$

$$
E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_s) = \begin{cases} \Omega_{s} & \text{if } s = t \\ 0 & \text{if } s \neq t \end{cases}
$$

where  $\Omega$  is the covariance matrix and is positive definite, implying that  $\varepsilon$ 's are not correlated (Johnson and Dinardo, 1997).

For a simpler case, let  ${r \brace r}$  be affected by current and past realizations of  ${z \brace z}$  sequence and visa versa. Consider a bivariate system:

$$
r_{t} = a_{10} - a_{12}z_{t} + \gamma_{11}r_{t-1} + \gamma_{12}z_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{rt}
$$

$$
z_{t} = a_{20} - a_{21}r_{t} + \gamma_{21}r_{t-1} + \gamma_{22}z_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{zt}
$$

With the underlying assumptions:

(1)  $r_t$  and  $z_t$  are stationary

(2)  $\varepsilon_{rt}$  and  $\varepsilon_{zt}$  are white-noise disturbances with deviations of  $\sigma_r$  and  $\sigma_z$ 

(3)  $\{\varepsilon_n\}$  and  $\{\varepsilon_{zt}\}$  are uncorrelated white noise disturbances. (Enders, 2006)

Using matrix algebra, we can denote these equations in one as follows.

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_t \\ z_t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{10} \\ a_{20} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{t-1} \\ z_{t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{rt} \\ \varepsilon_{zt} \end{bmatrix}
$$

Let B=
$$
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 1 \end{bmatrix}
$$
,  $y_t = \begin{bmatrix} r_t \\ z_t \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\Gamma_0 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{10} \\ a_{20} \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\Gamma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\varepsilon_t = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{rt} \\ \varepsilon_{zt} \end{bmatrix}$ .

It is clear that

$$
\mathbf{B} \, \mathbf{y}_t = \Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \mathbf{e}_t
$$

Multiplying both sides by  $B^{-1}$ , we obtain the VAR model in the standard form:

$$
y_t = A_0 + A_1 y_{t-1} + \mathcal{C}_t
$$

where  $A_0 = B^{-1} \Gamma_0$ ,  $A_1 = B^{-1} \Gamma_1$  and  $e_t = B^{-1} \varepsilon_t$ .

#### 3.2. Vector Error Correction Model

The underlying concept in a Vector Error Correction Model is cointegration of

regression variables. Let  $\rho$  denote the vector  $(\rho_1, \rho_2, \ldots, \rho_n)$  and  $x_t$  denote the

vector  $(x_{1t}, x_{2t}, \dots, x_{nt})$ . Assume that these variables are in long-run equilibrium when

$$
\rho_1 x_{1t} + \rho_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \rho_n x_{nt} = 0
$$

Or as in matrix notation, when  $\rho x_t = 0$ . The deviation from long-run equation is denoted as  $e_t$ , where

$$
e_t = \rho x_t
$$

The components of the vector  $x_t = (x_{1t}, x_{2t},...,x_{nt})$  are cointegrated of order d, b, denoted as  $x_t \sim CI(d, b)$ , if the following properties are satisfied.

- i. All components of  $x_t$  are integrated of order d
- ii. There is a vector  $\rho = (\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_n)$  such that the linear combination

 $\rho x_t = \rho_1 x_{1t} + \rho_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \rho_n x_{nt}$  is integrated of order (d-b) where b>0.

The vector  $\rho$  is called the cointegration vector (Enders, 2006).

For vector auto regression model, let  $z_t$  be a vector of n endogenous variables. Define an n x 1 vector auto regression model for  $z_t$  as follows.

$$
z_{t} = B_{1}z_{t-1} + ... + B_{k}z_{t-k} + u_{t} \qquad u_{t} \sim \text{IN}(0, \Sigma)
$$

where each  $B_i$  is an (n x n) matrix. The vector auto regression equation can be reformulated into a vector error-correction form as below.

$$
\Delta z_{t} = \Gamma_{1} \Delta z_{t-1} + \dots + \Gamma_{k-1} \Delta z_{t-k+1} + \Pi z_{t-k} + u_{t}
$$

where  $\Gamma_i = -(I - B_1 - ... - B_i)$ , (i=1,...,k-1), and  $\Pi = -(I - B_1 - ... - B_k)$ .

Both long-run and short-run information are included in this equation by the estimates of  $\overline{\Gamma}_i$ and  $\Pi$ .  $\Pi = \alpha \beta'$  where  $\alpha$  represents the speed of adjustment and  $\beta$  is a matrix of long-run coefficients (Harris, 1995).

#### 3.3. Autoregressive Model

 Autoregressive model is a time series model which is based on using own historical time series values to forecast the future time series values of a variable. Let  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n$  be a time series. For a dependent variable  $Y_k$  let an estimated regression equation relating  $Y_k$  to the three most recent time series values  $Y_{k-1}, Y_{k-2}, Y_{k-3}, \ldots$  be:

$$
\hat{Y}_k = a_0 + a_1 Y_{k-1} + a_2 Y_{k-2} + a_3 Y_{k-3} + \dots
$$

where  $a_0, a_1, a_3, \ldots$  are coefficients and  $\hat{Y}$  is the estimated value. (Williams, 1996) Regression models, in which the independent variables are past realizations of the dependent variable, are called autoregressive models.

First-order autoregression is denoted by AR (1) and stated as follows.

$$
Y_t = c + \varphi Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \qquad \qquad \forall \ \ |\varphi| \ge 1
$$

where  $\{\varepsilon_t\}$  is a sequence of white noise. Note that E  $(\varepsilon_t)$  =0 and E  $(\varepsilon_t^2)$  =  $\sigma^2$ , i.e.  $\{\varepsilon_t\}$  has zero mean and a variance equal to  $\sigma^2$  (Hamilton, 1994).

#### 4. THE DATA

#### 4.1. Data Analysis

 The data for this study is provided by the database of Ac-Nielsen. Ac-Nielsen is a company that collects data from the market including the variables such as volume, market share, prices and numeric distribution of products, in order to inform the market players about the market conditions, dynamics and trends. Sampling is designed to yield data that is representative of the population and the market including the data all over the country.

 The country of study is Turkey, a developing country where dairy products are consumed in large amounts. The yearly raw milk supply in Turkey reached 227.071.636 tons by the end of 2007. The monthly average of raw milk supply is around 18.922.636 tons. Turkey is a growing market in dairy products; the total market value of the raw milk increased by an amount of % 69 during the period 2000-2007. Ac-Nielsen collects data over seven regions of Turkey on the volume and price of milk on a monthly basis.

Loy and Weaver (2006) mention that the only way of working with products that have seasonality, such as milk, is using monthly data. Following their advice, we do analysis on a monthly basis for the period 1979-2007. Below are the tables analyzing the time series of the variables. The variable volume is the total amount of milk supply and the variable price is the average price of one kilogram of milk in that specific month. This average price includes all the relevant sale prices, on a wide range from the largest multinationals to the smallest regional shops. The variable inflation data is the logarithm of the monthly CPI (Consumer Price Index) data.

 Following the literature, we analyze milk amounts and milk prices in logarithms. Hence, our final variables are denoted as log amount, log price and inflation (as inflation is already denoted in logarithm). The differences of these logarithmic variables are denoted as; diff lgamount, difflgprice and diff inf, respectively.

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#### Table-4.1: The milk price&amount combinations over time



Seasonality is clearly observed in the milk volume data. The low season for milk supply starts from June and continues until March. The high season for milk supply is the month of May. In the range of our data, the minimum ratio of the price of the highest season to that of the lowest season is 0.8 (observed in 1989) whereas the highest ratio is 2.3 (observed in 1979).





As supply of milk fluctuates, so does the price of milk. The milk price starts to increase every year in June as the milk supply in the market starts to decrease. From 1979 to 2007, the

ratio of milk price at the beginning of the year to that at the end of the year is at its minimum at 0.9 in 2005. The maximum of the ratio is at 2.6 in 1994.



#### Table-4.3: Milk prices over time

Table-4.4: Descriptive statistics of the data

<b>Summary descriptive statistics</b>					
Variable name	log_amount	log_price	inflation		
<b>Mean</b>	6.737403	3.584142	0.28517		
<b>Median</b>	6.962369	3.403498	0.18315		
<b>Maximum</b>	7.359164	5.785885	2.613645		
Minimum	5.554368	0.943	$-2.539$		
Std. Dev.	0.459733	1.603213	1.681454		

 As shown in Table 4.4, milk amount has a mean of 6.74 and a median of 6.96 and the standard deviation is 0.46 (all numbers are rounded). Milk price has a mean of 3.58 and a median of 3.40 and the standard deviation is 1.60. The relevant statistics for inflation are 0.29, 0.18 and 1.68, respectively. The histograms of the variables are demonstrated in the Appendix 8.1.2.

#### 4.2. Stationarity Analysis

The concept of stationarity is crucial in model building. If a model is based on past realizations of a time series, then a researcher assumes implicitly that there is some regularity in the process that generates the time series. This concept of regularity in the time series is what is referred to as stationary. In a more technical form, a stationary time series is time series that has constant mean and variance across time. If  $\{y_t\}$  is a stationary series, the mean, variance, and autocorrelations can usually be well approximated by sufficiently long time averages based on the single set of realizations (Enders, 2005). If the variables are not stationary series, they will need to be differenced once. Hence, the first step of analyzing time series models is performing stationary tests.

The models containing non-stationary variables will often lead to a problem of spurious regression, whereby the results suggest that there are statistically significant relationships between the variables in the regression model when in fact all this is obtained is evidence of contemporaneous correlations rather than meaningful causal relations (Harris, 1995).

Park (1990) states that starting point of the specification of time series models is obtaining stationary series. The presence of unit root implies non-stationarity. Hence, we begin the empirical analysis with testing of unit root properties of our three basic variables: log amount, log price and inflation. Depending on the outcome of these tests, different model structures will be proposed.

Dickey and Fuller (1979) consider three different regression equations that can be used to test for the presence of a unit root:

$$
\Delta y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t
$$
  

$$
\Delta y_t = a_0 + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t
$$

$$
\Delta y_t = a_0 + \mathcal{y}_{t-1} + a_2 t + \varepsilon_t
$$

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The first is a pure random walk model<sup>1</sup>, the second additionally includes an intercept and the third includes both a drift and a linear trend. The parameter of interest in all equations is  $\gamma$ , if  $\gamma$  =0, the  $\{y_t\}$  sequence contains a unit root. Comparing the resulting t-statistic with the appropriate value reported in the Dickey-Fuller tables allows us to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis  $\gamma = 0$  (Enders, 2005).

For higher-order equations consider p-th order autoregressive process:

$$
y_{t} = a_{0} + a_{1}y_{t-1} + a_{2}y_{t-2} + \dots + a_{p-2}y_{t-p+2} + a_{p-1}y_{t-p+1} + a_{py}t - p + \varepsilon_{t}
$$

For Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test, add and subtract the term  $a_{p} y_{t-p+1}$  to obtain:

$$
y_{t} = a_{0} + a_{1}y_{t-1} + a_{2}y_{t-2} + \dots + a_{p-2}y_{t-p+2} + (a_{p-1} + a_{p})y_{t-p+1} + a_{p}\Delta y_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_{t}
$$

Continue by adding and subtracting the term  $(a_{p-1} + a_p)y_{t-p+2}$  and more terms to obtain:

$$
\Delta y_t = a_0 + \gamma y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=2}^p \beta_i \Delta y_{t-i+1} + \varepsilon_T
$$

where: 
$$
\gamma = (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{p} a_i)
$$
 and  $\beta_i = -\sum_{j=i}^{p} a_j$  (Enders, 2004).

Augmented Dickey- Fuller (ADF) test is performed on all the variables. Intercept and trend terms are introduced to the ADF tests. The results indicate that null hypothesis of stationarity is rejected at 90% confidence level for all the variables. Following this, first differences of these variables are created further to be tested by the ADF test. The intercept is included whereas the trend is not included as this test is performed for the first differences. Maximum lag length is set at 16.

The unit root null hypothesis is rejected for the first differences of all three series. This implies that the first differences of the variables are stationary. We conclude that our three

 $\overline{a}$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Random walk is demonstrated as  $\varepsilon_t = \varepsilon_{t-1} + z_t$  where  $z_t \sim IN(0, \sigma^2)$ )

variables, log\_amount, log\_price and inflation, are not stationary at level however their first

differences are stationary. Table 4.5 contains the results of the stationary tests.



#### Table-4.5: ADF test results Augmented Dickey Fuller Test (ADF Test) Results

#### 5. EMPIRICAL RESULTS

#### 5.1. Forecast of Milk Prices

#### VAR :

The first multivariate model for forecasting milk prices is Vector Auto Regression model. The model is performed using 12 lags of the stationary variables diff\_lgprice, diff 1gamount and diff inf to select the lag-length. The choice of 12 lags is relies on the aim of guaranteeing the inclusion of any possible year-based trend.

Regarding selection of the lag-length of a model, there are three criteria: Akaike Information Criteria (AIC), Schwarz Criteria (SC) and Hannan Quinn Criteria (HQ). Below is the explicit formula of each criterion, where  $n$  is the number of parameters estimated,  $T$  is the number of usable observations (Enders, 2005) and  $RSS<sup>2</sup>$  is the residual sum of squares.

AIC=T 
$$
ln(RSS)+2n
$$
  
\nSC=T  $ln(RSS)+n ln(T)$   
\nHQC=T  $ln(\frac{RSS}{T})+2n ln(T)$ 

All these three criteria results in favor of the model which returns the lowest level of test value. Hence, lag 8, lag 1 and again lag 1 are chosen regarding AIC, SC and HQ methodologies. These selections are presented in Table-5.1, where the selected lag of each criterion is denoted by "<". We'll be using the AIC selection which is lag 8 despite the fact that SC selection and HQ selection is the first lag.

$$
RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (a + bx_i))^2
$$

 $\overline{a}$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Let  $y_i = a + bx_i + \varepsilon_i$  where a and b are coefficients, y and x are the regressand and the regressor and  $\varepsilon$  is the error term. The sum of squares of residuals is the sum of squares of estimates of  $\varepsilon_i$ , that is

<b>Order</b>	<b>AIC</b>	<b>SC</b>	HQ
lag 12	-7.421	$-6.151$	$-6.914$
lag 11	$-7.415$	$-6.248$	$-6.950$
lag 10	-7.452	$-6.388$	$-7.028$
lag 9	-7.485	$-6.525$	$-7.102$
lag 8	$-7.514<$	$-6.650$	-7.166
lag <sub>7</sub>	$-7.508$	-6.759	$-7.213$
lag 6	$-7.504$	-6.852	$-7.244$
lag 5	-7.464	$-6.915$	-7.245
lag 4	-7.454	$-7.008$	-7.276
lag <sub>3</sub>	-7.444	$-7.101$	$-7.308$
lag 2	$-7.477$	$-7.237$	-7.381
lag 1	$-7.509$	$-7.372<$	-7.454<

Table-5.1: Lag-lenght selection

 As lag 8 is chosen, VAR (8) will be evaluated. The estimation will be performed using data for the period January 1979 - August 2006. Forecasting will be done for the period September 2006 - September 2007(data points from 334 to 345), which is the last one year period of the data. We'll be comparing the estimated values for this period with the actual data in order to figure out the accuracy of the model. In Table-5.2 the forecasts and the quality of the forecasts of VAR from data points 334 to 345 are shown.

Table-5.2: Forecast evaluation of VAR

<b>Horizon</b>	<b>Forecast</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Actual</b>	Error	t-value
334	0.012165	0.03367	0.003149	$-0.009016$	$-0.268$
335	0.011594	0.03402	0.002451	$-0.009143$	$-0.269$
336	0.006676	0.0341	0.019626	0.012951	0.38
337	0.001784	0.03438	$-0.000897$	$-0.002681$	$-0.078$
338	0.001924	0.03475	$-0.001252$	$-0.003175$	$-0.091$
339	0.003779	0.03508	$-0.001264$	$-0.005043$	$-0.144$
340	0.004287	0.03576	$-0.003209$	$-0.007497$	$-0.21$
341	0.010774	0.0361	0.003891	$-0.006883$	$-0.191$
342	0.013211	0.03614	0.050041	0.03683	1.019
343	0.013076	0.03628	0.006409	$-0.006666$	$-0.184$
344	0.013195	0.03633	0.006743	$-0.006452$	$-0.178$
345	0.013756	0.0364	$-0.005786$	$-0.005799$	$-0.159$
$RMSE =$	1.674		$MAPE =$	205.07	

As can be seen in table 5.2, the absolute t-values are below the critical value of 1.96, hence each forecast is significant at 95% confidence level. RMSE of this forecast is 1.674 and MAPE of this forecast is 205.07. These two criteria will be taken into consideration while comparing the models with each other.

#### VECM :

As mentioned in Section 3.2, the underlying concept in a Vector Error Correction Model is cointegration of regression variables. In order to have a long-run equation we apply cointegration tests to the lags of non- stationary variables log\_amount, log\_price and inflation, also accounting for a trend variable. Johansen trace test results are given in Table-3.1. Trace test results provide strong evidence of cointegration of rank one.

Table-3.1: Trace test results					
<b>Null hypothesis</b> H0	<b>Alternative</b> hypothesis Η1	<b>Trace test result</b>	Prob.		
r=0	r>1	54.160	0.002		
r≤1	r > 2	22.677	0.119		
r≤2	r > 3	3.1542	0.848		

The presence of cointegration suggests that there is a long-run equilibrium relationship between the series. So, cointegrated series have an error correction representation.

The long-run equation is defined as:

Log price=0.41171 X log amount + 1.1728 X inflation – 0.0056699 X t + Error Details about the cointegration giving out the long run equation are displayed the table in Appendix 8.2.1.

 Long-run equation implies that as a result of a %1 increase in milk amount, milk price increases by 0.41%. This may be explained by the complex relations of demand and supply in the market. On the other hand, %1 increase in inflation results in a 1.17% increase in milk price. This is consistent with the existing literature on raw material prices.

From the above equation, error term is derived as:

Error=log\_price-0.41171\*log\_amount - 1.1728\*inflation + 0.0056699\*t

Regarding vector error correction model, diff 1gprice, diff 1gamount and diff inf of lag 7 and one period lagged errors are used as variables. The forecast is done for the data points from 334 to 345. In Table-5.3 the forecasts and the quality of the forecasts of VECM are presented.

Table-3.3. Fülecast evaluation on VEUN					
Horizon	<b>Forecast</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Actual</b>	<b>Error</b>	t-value
334	0.010281	0.03313	0.003149	$-0.007132$	$-0.215$
335	0.008927	0.03334	0.002451	$-0.006477$	$-0.194$
336	0.002687	0.03342	0.019626	0.002598	0.507
337	$-0.003496$	0.03361	$-0.000897$	0.002598	0.077
338	$-0.004572$	0.03407	$-0.001252$	0.00332	0.097
339	$-0.004566$	0.03433	$-0.001264$	0.003302	0.096
340	$-0.003483$	0.03468	$-0.003209$	0.000274	0.008
341	0.00287	0.0349	0.003891	0.001021	0.029
342	0.00331	0.0349	0.050041	0.046731	1,339
343	0.000275	0.03494	0.006409	0.006134	0.176
344	$-0.004001$	0.03496	0.006743	0.010744	0.307
345	$-0.005066$	0.03498	0.578588	$-0.005781$	$-0.165$
$RMSE =$	1.669		<b>MAPE =</b>	156.35	

Table-5.3: Forecast evaluation of VECM

 As can be seen in the table, forecast value is significant at each time point. RMSE of this forecast model is 1.669 and MAPE of this forecast is 156.35. These two criteria will be taken into consideration while comparing the models with each other.

AR:

An autoregressive model AR will be used as a univariate model; AR (1) is applied to the data.

Test is issued to select the lag-length to log\_price from lag 1 to lag 12. From the least squares model the lag-length selections of the three criteria's among 12 lags are shown in Table 5.4.

rapie-5.4. Lay-iengni selection					
<b>Order</b>	AIC	$\overline{\text{sc}}$	HQ		
lag 12	$-3.893<$	$-3.745$	$-3.834$		
lag 11	$-3.893$	$-3.756$	$-3.838$		
lag 10	$-3.891$	$-3.766$	$-3.841$		
lag 9	$-3.875$	$-3.760$	$-3.829$		
lag 8	$-3.877$	$-3.774$	$-3.836$		
lag 7	$-3.877$	$-3.786$	$-3.841$		
lag 6	$-3.883$	$-3.803$	$-3.851$		
lag 5	$-3.881$	$-3.812$	$-3.853$		
lag 4	-3.861	$-3.804$	$-3.838$		
lag 3	$-3.866$	$-3.820$	$-3.848$		
lag 2	$-3.871$	$-3.837<$	$-3.857<$		
lag 1	$-3.857$	$-3.834$	$-3.848$		

Table-5.4: Lag-lenght selection

Among the AIC results -3.893 is the smallest value so lag 12 is chosen by AIC. Among the SC results -3.837 is the smallest value so lag 2 is chosen by SC. Among the HQ results -3.857 is the smallest value so lag 2 is chosen by HQ. We'll be using the AIC selection which is lag 12 where SC selection and HQ selection is the second lag.

Forecasting will be done for the data between 333 and 345 to be able to compare AR forecast quality with other models. In Table-5.5 the forecasts and the quality of the forecasts of AR from 334 to 345 are shown.

1 avi <del>c</del> -J.J. <u>UIGLASI GVAILIAIDII UI AIV</u>					
Horizon	Forecast	SE	<b>Actual</b>	Error	t-value
334	5.691	0.03443	5.700	0.009055	0.263
335	5.705	0.05269	5.703	$-0.00126$	$-0.024$
336	5.719	0.06549	5.706	$-0.013149$	$-0.201$
337	5.731	0.07652	5.725	$-0.005898$	$-0.077$
338	5.743	0.08424	5.725	$-0.01871$	$-0.222$
339	5.753	0.08986	5.723	$-0.029705$	$-0.331$
340	5.764	0.09472	5.722	$-0.042205$	$-0.446$
341	5.774	0.0988	5.719	$-0.054842$	$-0.555$
342	5.784	0.1019	5.723	$-0.060874$	$-0.597$
343	5.795	0.1064	5.773	$-0.022456$	$-0.211$
344	5.806	0.1104	5.779	$-0.026707$	$-0.242$
345	5.818	0.1148	5.786	$-0.031896$	$-0.278$
$RMSE =$	0.031954		$MAPE =$	0.46025	

Table-5.5: Forecast evaluation of AR

 For all the forecast values, the t-values are far below the critical value, hence each value is significant at 95% confidence level. RMSE of this forecast is 0.031954 and MAPE of this forecast is 0.46025. These two values will be taken into consideration while comparing the models with each other.

#### 5.2 Comparison of Forecasting Performance

Two commonly used criteria are employed to evaluate and compare these models. The first criterion is root mean square error (RMSE). The second performance indicator is mean absolute percentage error (MAPE). Since these indicators measure the degree of deviation of forecast values from the actual time series values, the smaller the indicator values, the higher is the prediction ability of the model.

 For forecasting, one year period is eliminated from the actual data and performances after the 333rd month are forecasted. Table 6.1 shows the forecasting performances of the models in terms of RMSE and MAPE.

Table-6.1: Forecasting evaluation of the models				
<b>RMSE</b> <b>MAPE</b>				
<b>VAR</b>	1.674	205.07		
<b>VECM</b>	1.669	156.35		
<b>JAR</b>	0.031954	0.46025		

 As shown in the table 6.1, AR has the smallest RMSE and MAPE values so AR is chosen as the best performing model among three proposed forecasting models.

#### 6. CONCLUSION

Using monthly milk price, milk supply and inflation data from Turkey for the period January 1979 – September 2006, we forecast milk prices with three different methods: Vector Autoregressive Model, Vector Error Correction Model and an Autoregressive Model. Regarding the comparison of root mean square error and mean absolute percentage error values, we conclude that Autoregressive Model achieves the highest forecasting performance.

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#### 8. APPENDIX

#### 8.1. Data

#### 8.1.1. Stationary Analysis

Null Hypothesis: LOG\_PRICE has a unit root Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend Lag Length: 12 (Automatic based on AIC, MAXLAG=16)



\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation Dependent Variable: D(LOG\_PRICE) Method: Least Squares Date: 10/26/08 Time: 10:45 Sample (adjusted): 14 345 Included observations: 332 after adjustments





Null Hypothesis: DIFF\_LGPRICE has a unit root Exogenous: Constant<br>Lag Length: 11 (Autom  $\det$  based on AIC, MAVLAG=16)

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation Dependent Variable: D(DIFF\_LGPRICE) Method: Least Squares Date: 10/26/08 Time: 10:45 Sample (adjusted): 14 345 Included observations: 332 after adjustments



	t-Statistic	Prob. $*$
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	$-2.047630$	0.5726
Test critical values: $1\%$ level	$-3.985941$	
$5\%$ level	$-3.423418$	
$10\%$ level	$-3.134664$	

Null Hypothesis: LOG\_AMOUNT has a unit root Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend Lag Length: 12 (Automatic based on AIC, MAXLAG=16)

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation Dependent Variable: D(LOG\_AMOUNT) Method: Least Squares Date: 10/26/08 Time: 10:42 Sample (adjusted): 14 345 Included observations: 332 after adjustments





#### Null Hypothesis: DIFF\_LGAMOUNT has a unit root Exogenous: Constant Lag Length: 12 (Automatic based on AIC, MAXLAG=16)



\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation Dependent Variable: D(DIFF\_LGAMOUNT) Method: Least Squares Date: 10/26/08 Time: 10:44 Sample (adjusted): 15 345 Included observations: 331 after adjustments







\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation Dependent Variable: D(INFLATION) Method: Least Squares Date: 10/25/08 Time: 14:55 Sample (adjusted): 15 345 Included observations: 331 after adjustments







\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation Dependent Variable: D(DIFF\_INF) Method: Least Squares Date: 10/25/08 Time: 15:04 Sample (adjusted): 15 345 Included observations: 331 after adjustments



#### 8.1.2. Histograms



#### 8.2. Empirical Results

#### 8.2.1. Cointegration









#### 8.2.2. Forecasting Results



#### Output of Table-5.1:Lag-lenght selection Progress to date

#### Output of Table-5.2: Forecast evaluation of VAR

Dynamic (ex ante) forecasts for diff Igprice (SE based on error variance only)



#### Output of Table-5.3: Forecast evaluation of VECM



#### Output of Table-5.4: Lag-lenght selection of AR



#### Output of Table-5.5: Forecast evaluation of AR

Dynamic (ex ante) forecasts for log\_price (SE based on error variance only)

