Structural forecast analysis*

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Abstract

This paper shows how the structural representation of a vector autoregressive model can support forecast analysis. We offer a unified framework that formalizes how the structural form of the model can help form a narrative for two key statistics in real-time VAR forecasting: the forecast errors made relative to the outturn of the data, and the revisions of the full forecast made when new data become available. We conduct a real-time exercise on the UK, focusing on the inflation surge that followed the pandemic. We show that the inflation forecast was revised upwards not only due to contractionary supply-side shocks, but also due to a mix of expansionary demand-side shocks.

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1 Introduction

Vector autogressive (VAR) models are widely used both in the academic community and in policy institutions. Since their introduction by Sims (1980), a huge literature has extended the VAR toolkit. A non exhaustive list includes, for instance, developing estimation procedures for inference, deriving identification techniques for causal analysis, studying the relation between VAR models and other macroeconomic models (for instance, DSGE models).

This paper provides a framework formalizing how the structural representation of a VAR model can support forecast analysis. Consider a forecast simulated using data until time T. When data for period $T+1$ become available, one uncovers the forecast error made in the time-T predictions of the model. In addition, the new data release leads to simulate a new forecast starting from $T+1$. This, in turn, determines the full forecast revision over the forecast horizon. As already acknowledged in the literature, the reduced form specification of the VAR suffices to simulate the forecasts if the forecast of interest is an unconditional forecast, or a conditional forecast sustained by reduced form innovations (Waggoner and Zha, 1999). Structural analysis is only needed if the forecast of interest is a conditional forecast based on structural shocks (Baumeister and Kilian, 2014, Bańbura et al., 2015, Antolin-Diaz et al., 2021). Yet, we argue that irrespectively of the forecast of interest, the structural representation of the model can still be valuable to form a narrative of what drives the forecast errors and forecast revisions.

To appreciate the importance of structural narratives for forecast analysis, consider forecasting at policy institutions. Significant resources are invested not only in generating accurate forecasts, but also in forming a narrative that illustrates the possible economic channels consistent with the forecast. The narrative of a forecast is no less important than the forecast itself. A narrative is also required to interpret forecast errors and the forecast revisions.[1] If the researcher only uses reduced form information, then one can only *report* forecast errors and forecast revisions, i.e. document to what extent the forecast made in the previous periods was incorrect, and how the latest forecast differs from the previous one. By contrast, we show how structural analysis can aid forecasting by forming a narrative that explains forecast errors and revisions.

[1] Figure D-4 in the Online Appendix presents the series of official forecasts for UK GDP and UK inflation over time produced by the Bank of England since 2020. As shown by the multiple shaded lines, there have been sizable forecast revisions over time for both GDP and inflation. The figure also shows that the time series of GDP is frequently subject to data revisions.

More specifically, we describe how forecast errors and revisions can be explained by the model in terms of five components: a) changes in the estimated unconditional mean that the model converges to in the medium term, b) changes in any other deterministic component of the model, c) revisions in how long the effects from past estimated shocks are predicted to last over the forecast horizon, d) the effects of new shocks that hit the economy at time $T+1$ as estimated from the new data realizations, and e) (for conditional forecasts) changes in the simulated shocks generated to support the conditioning path over the forecast horizon.

We first illustrate the methodology using a bivariate simulation. We work with pseudo data on variables that, for convenience, we refer to as output growth and inflation, driven by demand and supply shocks. The illustration starts from a period of high growth and high inflation, when the forecast at T predicts a slow reverse to the unconditional mean for both variables. At time $T+1$ the new data reveals two facts. First, that the forecast for output growth is to be revised upwards, having output growth materialized above the previous forecast. Second, that the outturn for inflation was perfectly in line with the forecast (i.e. the forecast error for inflation is zero), but the revised forecast now features an *undershooting* relative to the unconditional mean. The reduced form approach to forecasting can only document these statistics, which, however, call for an economic interpretation. Structural analysis can help in this respect, and allows us to a) explain the positive forecast error on output growth as the joint response to expansionary demand and supply shocks, b) explain the zero forecast error on inflation in light of the matching effects on inflation of the two shocks, c) explain the undershooting of inflation in the new forecast as the delayed response of the recent deflationary supply shock.

We then apply the methodology to the data and describe how our framework can provide a narrative to the forecast paths and forecast revisions in applied work. We build a stylized four-variable SVAR model for the UK economy, and identify four shocks: a demand shock, a supply shock, an energy shock, and a monetary policy shock. We then perform a real-time evaluation exercise, focusing on the period following the Covid-19 pandemic characterized by elevated volatility and the inflation surge. For each quarter, we use the actual vintage of the data, and we produce an unconditional forecast for each variable along with the full decomposition. Our analysis suggests that the initial surge and positive revision of the inflation forecast in 2022Q2 were accounted for not only by a combination of inflationary supply and energy shocks, but also by expansionary demand and monetary policy shocks.

The literature on VAR modeling is very large, and key references include Koop and Korobilis (2010) and Kilian and Lütkepohl (2017). One reason behind the great success of VAR models is that they provide a flexible framework for two separate types of analysis: forecasting and structural analysis. Yet, so far, the two strands of the literature on forecasting and structural modeling have largely developed separately. The existing very limited overlap between the two strands of the literature can lead to believe that there is only limited scope for these two sides of the model to work together. Our paper challenges this view. One direct point of contact between the two strands of the literature is with regard to conditional forecasting, which can be simulated from structural rather than reduced form shocks in order to build scenarios (references above, as well as Chan et al., 2025 and Crump et al., 2025). Another example is the recent literature on optimal policy adjustments, which develops policy evaluation techniques that combine structural impulse responses and reduced form forecasts (Barnichon and Mesters, 2023, Caravello et al., 2024). We are not aware of additional work at the intersection of reduced form and structural VAR models.

Some of the elements in the analysis of this paper have appeared in isolation in some previous work in the literature. Early traces of decompositions of forecast errors and revisions can be found in Todd (1992), who provides a purely narrative discussion, and an algorithm. The relation between forecast revision, impulse responses and structural shocks is also discussed in Giannone et al. (2004). Brazdik et al. (2014) discuss a DSGE model decomposing forecast errors and forecast revisions in terms of the changes in the conditioning path of the forecasts. Giannone and Primiceri (2024) explore forecast errors as indicators of prevailing contemporaneous structural demand and supply shocks. Compared to this literature, we aim to take the analysis forward by providing a single, comprehensive framework that jointly studies real-time forecasting in the presence of data revisions, exploring both deterministic and stochastic drivers of the forecast errors and revisions, and allowing for both conditional and unconditional forecasts.[2]

The decomposition of forecast errors and forecast revisions into deterministic components and structural shocks does not strictly require working with VAR models and can be extended, for instance, to Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium models. We work with VARs for their high tractability. We view this framework as illustrative of the broader potential of deriving the connection between reduced form forecast analysis and structural representations, which can be derived more generally in state

[2]Our paper elaborates over earlier work circulated in Brignone and Piffer (2025).

space models. The method is general enough that can be applied within both frequentist and Bayesian settings, and can be extended to the case in which only a subset of the structural shocks of interest are identified. In principle, the decomposition of the forecast revisions into its structural drivers offers a new dimension along which identifying restrictions can be introduced, in the spirit of narrative sign restrictions (Antolín-Díaz and Rubio-Ramírez, 2018, Giacomini et al., 2022). We leave this part of the analysis for future research.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows section 2 illustrates the methodology. section 3 shows a bivariate illustration. section 4 shows an application to demand and supply shocks in real time. Conclusions follow.

2 Methodology

In this section we first summarize the general SVAR model used for the analysis. We then use it to show the decomposition of the forecast errors and forecast revisions. We initially work with the special case in which no data revision takes place between forecasts, and in which the population values of the model parameters are known. We then generalize the analysis to allow for data revision and parameter estimation.

2.1 The model

The reduced form model is given by

$$\boldsymbol{y}_t = \sum_{l=1}^{p} \Pi_l \boldsymbol{y}_{t-l} + \boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{u}_t, \tag{1a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{u}_t \sim N(\boldsymbol{0}, \Sigma), \tag{1b}$$

while the structural form of the model also adds

$$\boldsymbol{u}_t = B\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t, \tag{2a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \sim N(\boldsymbol{0}, I), \tag{2b}$$

where it holds that

$$\Sigma = BB', \tag{3a}$$

$$B = \chi(\Sigma)Q. \tag{3b}$$

$\boldsymbol{y}_t$ is a $k \times 1$ vector of endogenous variables. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$ is a $k \times 1$ vector of structural shocks driving the data, and are assumed Normally distributed with diagonal covariance matrix normalized to the identity matrix. The reduced form innovations $\boldsymbol{u}_t$ are a linear function of the structural shocks via equation (2a). The reduced form covariance matrix Σ is functionally constrained to the $k \times k$ impact matrix of the shocks B via equation (3a). Equation (3b) relates Σ and B via the Cholesky decomposition of Σ (captured by function $\chi(.)$, although any other unique decomposition of Σ is also admissible) and the $k \times k$ orthogonal matrix Q. Π_l represents the reduced form autoregressive parameters of the model at horizon l, $l = 1, .., p$, while $\boldsymbol{c}$ is a constant term. We refer to Arias et al. (2018) for a detailed discussion of alternative parametrizations of vector autoregressive models.

Typically, structural impulse responses are defined with respect to a single structural shock. They can be generated by simulating recursively from equations (1a)-(2a) after setting $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t = \boldsymbol{e}_j \bar{\epsilon}$, with $\boldsymbol{e}_j$ a $k \times 1$ vector of zeros except for entry j, which is set to 1. This procedure generates impulse responses to a single structural *scalar*-shock of size equal to $\bar{\epsilon}$. For the analysis of this paper, it is helpful to generalize this concept to a structural *vector*-shocks $\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$, where $\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$ can now take nonzero value in more than one entry. For simplicity, we refer to this impulse response as a *composite impulse response* associated with the generic impulse vector $\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$, and write it as $\boldsymbol{\phi}(h, \bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}})$, with h the number of periods after the shock occurs. Formally, iterate model (1a) backwards to rewrite the data at time t as a function of the data in periods $\big(t-1-\tau, .., t-p-\tau\big)$, with $\tau \geq 0$. This gives

$$\boldsymbol{y}_t = \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \Phi_{l+1,\tau} \boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l} \; + \; \Phi_{0,\tau-1} \boldsymbol{c} \; + \; \sum_{l=0}^{\tau-1} \Phi_{1,l} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T-l}, \tag{4}$$

where the formulas for Φ are available in Appendix A of the Online Appendix as well as in Kilian and Lütkepohl (2017). Composite impulse responses for periods $h = 0, 1, .., \tau$

are given by

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(0, \bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) = B\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}, \tag{5a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(1, \bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) = C_1 B\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}, \tag{5b}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(2, \bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) = C_2 B\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}, \tag{5c}$$

$$\vdots \tag{5d}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(\tau, \bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) = C_\tau B\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}. \tag{5e}$$

By construction, if $\bar{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} = \boldsymbol{e}_j\bar{\epsilon}$, only shock j is subject to an impulse, and composite impulse responses coincide with conventional impulse responses.

2.2 Interpreting the forecast error and forecast revision

We are interested in how to use composite impulse responses to interpret forecast errors and forecast revisions. For this purpose, define $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T)}$ as the h-steps period ahead forecast made at time T, with $h = 1, .., H$ the forecast horizon. The $k \times H$ array of forecasts $Y^{(T)} = [\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T)}, .., \boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T)}, .., \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T)}]$ is made when the data $[\boldsymbol{y}_1, .., \boldsymbol{y}_T]$ is available. At time $T{+}1$, the data realization $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}$ becomes available, and $Y^{(T+1)} = [\boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T+1)}, .., \boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T+1)}, .., \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T+1)}]$ is generated using data $[\boldsymbol{y}_1, .., \boldsymbol{y}_T, \boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}]$. Note that we hold the end of the forecast horizon at $T{+}H$ (rather than extending it to $T{+}H{+}1$) for simplicity. Last, when no data revisions occurs between forecasts, the observables $[\boldsymbol{y}_1, .., \boldsymbol{y}_T]$ are the same for both forecasts. Instead, some of the observables change if data revisions take place.

We are interested in using composite impulse responses to interpret two related but different objects: the forecast error

$$\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1} = \boldsymbol{y}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T)}, \tag{6}$$

and the forecast revision

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+3}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+3}^{(T)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{7}$$

In words, the forecast error reports the difference between the data realization at time $T{+}1$ and the forecast made for that period at time T. The forecast revision, instead, is the change in the full profile of the forecast over the rest of the forecast horizon.[3]

Define $U^{(T)} = [\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)}, .., \boldsymbol{u}_{T+h}^{(T)}, .., \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T)}]$ the reduced form innovations simulated to generate the forecast $Y^{(T)}$, and define $E^{(T)} = [\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}^{(T)}, .., \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+h}^{(T)}, .., \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+H}^{(T)}]$ the underlying simulated structural shocks, with $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{t+h}^{(T)} = B^{-1}\boldsymbol{u}_{t+h}^{(T)}$. Three cases summarize the alternative approaches to forecasting with VAR models: a) if $Y^{(T)}$ is an unconditional forecast, the researcher draws $U^{(T)}$ from the distribution (2a), sometimes directly setting $U^{(T)}$ equal to zero; b) if $Y^{(T)}$ is a conditional forecast simulated from *reduced* form shocks, the researcher draws $U^{(T)}$ from equation (2a) subject to linear restrictions that ensure the conditioning path of interest (Waggoner and Zha, 1999); c) if $Y^{(T)}$ is a conditional forecast simulated from *structural* shocks, the researcher draws $E^{(T)}$ from equation (2b) subject to linear restrictions that ensure the conditioning path of interest (Baumeister and Kilian, 2014, Bańbura et al., 2015, Antolin-Diaz et al., 2021, Chan et al., 2025 and Crump et al., 2025). Our method works irrespectively of the type of simulated forecast as long as both $U^{(T)}$ and $E^{(T)}$ are available. For simplicity, the illustrations and applications shown in this paper only use unconditional forecasts, setting all entries of $(U^{(T)}, E^{(T)})$ to zero.

2.3 A simplified setting

In this section we help set ideas by working under selected simplifying assumptions, which we remove in the next section: we assume that a) the model includes no constant and only one lag of the endogenous variables, b) the true parameter values of the model are known, and hence also the realizations of the shocks up to when the forecast is made, and c) no data revision occurs between periods. Equation (1a) hence simplifies to

$$\boldsymbol{y}_t = \Pi \boldsymbol{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{u}_t, \tag{8}$$

where (Π, B, Σ) are now treated as known parameters, and $(\boldsymbol{u}_t, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t)$ are known, with $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t = B^{-1}\boldsymbol{u}_t$.

[3] Our method can be extended to forecast errors and forecast revisions at time $T+1$ relative to forecasts made in periods *earlier* than T. For simplicity, the analysis outlined in the paper only studies the case relative to the forecast at time T.

$Y^{(T)}$ can be computed as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+3}^{(T)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Pi \\ \Pi^2 \\ \Pi^3 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^H \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_T + \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \Pi & I & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \Pi^2 & \Pi & I & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-1} & \Pi^{H-2} & \Pi^{H-3} & \dots & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+2}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+3}^{(T)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix}, \tag{9}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \Pi \\ \Pi^2 \\ \Pi^3 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^H \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_T + \begin{pmatrix} I \\ \Pi \\ \Pi^2 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-1} \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ I & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \Pi & I & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-2} & \Pi^{H-3} & \dots & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+2}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+3}^{(T)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{10}$$

This could be a conditional or an unconditional forecast in a way reflected by the selection of $U^{(T)}$.

It is instructive to notice that at time $T+1$ the data realization $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}$ under model (8) differs from the forecast $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T)}$ according to equation

$$\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1} = \Pi \boldsymbol{y}_T + \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}, \tag{11}$$

$$= \underbrace{\Pi \boldsymbol{y}_T + \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)}}_{\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T)}} + \underbrace{(\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)})}_{\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1}}, \tag{12}$$

$$\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1} = \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)}, \tag{13}$$

$$= B(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}^{(T)}). \tag{14}$$

Put differently, the forecast error $\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1}$ (which, by definition, equals the difference between the data realization $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}$ and the forecast $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T)}$) coincides with the difference between the realization of the actual innovation generating the data ($\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}$) and the draws used at time T to simulate the forecast ($\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)}$). Since the innovations $\boldsymbol{u}_t$ are ultimately driven by structural shocks $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$, the forecast error is driven by the difference between the actual realizations of the structural shocks behind the data at time $T+1$ ($\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}$) and the values $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}^{(T)}$ of the structural shocks consistent with the reduced form innovations $\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)}$ used to simulate the forecast. If equation (8) is the true model, it is the inability to correctly predict $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}$ that drives the forecast error made at time

$T{+}1$.[4]

For the forecast made at time $T{+}1$ until horizon $T{+}H$, it holds that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T+1)} \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+3}^{(T+1)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T+1)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Pi^2 \\ \Pi^3 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^H \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_T + \begin{pmatrix} \Pi & I & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \Pi^2 & \Pi & I & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-1} & \Pi^{H-2} & \Pi^{H-3} & \dots & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+2}^{(T+1)} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+3}^{(T+1)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T+1)} \end{pmatrix}, \tag{15}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \Pi^2 \\ \Pi^3 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^H \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_T + \begin{pmatrix} \Pi \\ \Pi^2 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-1} \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1} + \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \Pi & I & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-2} & \Pi^{H-3} & \dots & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+2}^{(T+1)} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+3}^{(T+1)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T+1)} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{16}$$

Note that generating the new forecast $Y^{(T+1)}$ requires simulating possibly new innovations $U^{(T+1)}$ that might well differ from $U^{(T)}$, a case that could, for instance, arise if the forecast is a conditional forecast. Note also that the first line in the above equation features $\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}$ (rather than $\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)}$), namely the innovations responsible for the data realization $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}$.

Subtracting all but the first row of (10) from equation (16) highlights the following equation pinning down the forecast revision:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+2}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+3}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+3}^{(T)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+H}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \Pi \\ \Pi^2 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^H \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{(\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)})}_{\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1} = B(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}^{(T)})}}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_1} + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} I & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \Pi & I & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Pi^{H-2} & \Pi^{H-3} & \dots & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_{T+2}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{u}_{T+2}^{(T)} \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+3}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{u}_{T+3}^{(T)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{u}_{T+H}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix}}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2}. \tag{17}$$

In words, two elements are responsible for the forecast revision within the simplified setting studied in this section. The first, $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_1$, is the composite effect associated with the forecast error $\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1}$ over the full forecast horizon. This is the composite impulse

[4] Part of the literature refers to forecast errors as $\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}$ rather than $\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1}$. Under the special case considered in this section, $\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1} = \boldsymbol{v}_{T+1}$ when $\boldsymbol{u}_{T+1}^{(T)} = \mathbf{0}$. This is no longer sufficient under the more general case considered in subsection 2.4, due to the potential role played by the possible revision in the deterministic component of the model and/or the role of past shocks.

response defined in the previous section, evaluated at the difference in the structural shocks driving $\boldsymbol{v}_{T+1}$, i.e. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(T)}_{T+1}$ (equation 14), and delayed by one period (i.e. premultiplied by Π). The second, $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2$, is the effects associated with the difference in the shocks $U^{(T)}$ and $U^{(T+1)}$ simulated to generate the two forecasts.

A special case simplifies things further and highlights a key idea that was also discussed in Giannone et al. (2004). Suppose that $(Y^{(T)}, Y^{(T+1)})$ are computed as an unconditional forecast that assumes zero future shocks. This corresponds to $\boldsymbol{u}^{(T)}_{T+h} = \mathbf{0}$ for $h = 1, .., H$ and $\boldsymbol{u}^{(T+1)}_{T+h} = \mathbf{0}$ for $h = 2, .., H$. Equations (14) and (17) now simplify to

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}^{(T)}_{T+1} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+1} \\ \boldsymbol{y}^{(T+1)}_{T+2} - \boldsymbol{y}^{(T)}_{T+2} \\ \boldsymbol{y}^{(T+1)}_{T+3} - \boldsymbol{y}^{(T)}_{T+3} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{y}^{(T+1)}_{T+H} - \boldsymbol{y}^{(T)}_{T+H} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I \\ \Pi \\ \Pi^2 \\ \vdots \\ \Pi^H \end{pmatrix} B\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}. \tag{18}$$

This equation shows that the forecast error and forecast revisions (first and remaining entries of 18) coincide with the sum of the impulse responses, weighted by the shocks that hit at time $T+1$, as discussed in Giannone et al. (2004). Put differently, under the special case considered in this section, forecast errors and forecast revisions are equal to the composite impulse response defined in equation (5) evaluated at $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}$.

Equation (18) helps highlight an importance result. In general, forecast errors and forecast revisions are viewed as statistics documenting either the error made in the first period of the forecast, or the update in the full remaining forecast. Yet, policy institutions always give great importance to being able to form a narrative that helps explain the forecast errors and revisions. Equation (18) helps think of the forecast errors and revisions as the output of the structural shocks that hit the model-economy at time $T+1$. Since these shocks are structural, the forecast error and revision can now be decomposed into economically meaningful stochastic events, for instance as the response to demand rather than supply shocks. Forecast errors and revisions hence become economically interpretable objects.

2.4 Extension to a more general setting

The above section works under the assumption that the data generating process is a VAR model with no constant, whose parameters are known, and where no data revision occurs between T and $T{+}1$. We now generalize the analysis.

Call $[\boldsymbol{y}_1^{(T)},..,\boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau}^{(T)},\boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau+1}^{(T)},..,\boldsymbol{y}_T^{(T)}]$ and $[\boldsymbol{y}_1^{(T+1)},..,\boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau}^{(T+1)},\boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau+1}^{(T+1)},..,\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}^{(T+1)}]$ the datasets available to compute the forecasts at time T and $T{+}1$, respectively. The notation allows for data revision to take place between forecasts. Call $(\Pi_l^{(T)},\boldsymbol{c}^{(T)},B^{(T)})$ the parameter values used for the forecast at time T, and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t^{(T)}$, $t=1,..,T$ the implied estimates of the structural shocks. A similar notation holds for the forecast at time $T{+}1$. Equation (4) can now be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T)} = {} & \underbrace{\sum_{l=0}^{p-1}\Phi_{l+1,h+\tau}^{(T)}\boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l}^{(T)}}_{\boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}} + \underbrace{\Phi_{0,h+\tau-1}^{(T)}\boldsymbol{c}^{(T)}}_{\boldsymbol{dc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}} + \\ & + \underbrace{\sum_{l=0}^{\tau-1}\Phi_{1,h+l}^{(T)}B^{(T)}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T-l}^{(T)}}_{\boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}} + \underbrace{\sum_{l=1}^{h}\Phi_{1,h-l}^{(T)}B^{(T)}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+l}^{(T)}}_{\boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}},\end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

see Appendix A of the Online Appendix. This decomposition highlights that the forecast can be thought of as composed of four distinct parts:

- $\boldsymbol{dc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}$ captures the role attributed to the data up to time $T-\tau$. Model stationarity implies that this part converges to zero as $\tau+h$ increases. By construction, this term pools together the effects of all shocks from until time $T-\tau$;

- $\boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}$ can be viewed as capturing the role attributed to the unconditional mean, because as $\tau+h\to\infty$, this term converges to the unconditional mean of the model;

- $\boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}$ captures the role played by the structural shocks that were estimated between time $T-\tau+1$ and T;

- $\boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}$ captures the role played by the structural shocks consistent with the simulated innovations for the forecast period between $T{+}1$ and $T{+}H$.

$(\boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)},\boldsymbol{dc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)})$ refer to the deterministic component of the model, while $(\boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)},\boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)})$ relate to the stochastic component of the model. While one might refer to $\boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}$ as the starting condition, this should be intended as the role of all shocks up to τ periods before the forecast decomposition begins, as all shocks up to time $T-\tau$ are pooled together rather than disentangled. The decomposition into separate structural shocks starts from $T-\tau+1$, and τ can be selected as needed. Compared to the existing literature, the historical decompositions in Kilian and Lütkepohl (2017) and Bergholt et al. (2024) set $h=0$ and $\tau=T$ and interpret the stochastic component as the role associated with the structural shocks from the full sample period.

Iterating equation (19) forward to study the h-period ahead forecast made at time $T{+}1$ gives

$$\boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T+1)} = \underbrace{\sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \Phi_{l+1,h+\tau}^{(T+1)} \boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l}^{(T+1)}}_{\boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)}} + \underbrace{\Phi_{0,h+\tau-1}^{(T+1)} \boldsymbol{c}^{(T+1)}}_{\boldsymbol{dc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)}} + \\ + \underbrace{\sum_{l=-1}^{\tau-1} \Phi_{1,h+l}^{(T+1)} B^{(T+1)} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T-l}^{(T+1)}}_{\boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)}} + \underbrace{\sum_{l=2}^{h} \Phi_{1,h-l}^{(T+1)} B^{(T+1)} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+l}^{(T+1)}}_{\boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)}}. \tag{20}$$

Note that both forecasts are written as a function of the data until $T{-}\tau$, rather than writing the forecast made at time $T{+}1$ as a function of data up to $T{-}\tau{+}1$. Note also that the structural shocks at time $T{+}1$ move from the future stochastic component $\boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}$ (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}^{(T)}$) to the present stochastic component $\boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)}$ (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}$), since they were simulated for the forecast made at time T, but estimated for the forecast at time $T{+}1$.

With this setting, the forecast revisions for horizons $h=2,..,H$ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T+1)} - \boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T)} = \quad & \boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)} - \boldsymbol{dc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)} + \\ & + \boldsymbol{dc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)} - \boldsymbol{dc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)} + \\ & + \boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)} - \boldsymbol{sc1}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)} + \\ & + \boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T+1)} - \boldsymbol{sc2}_{T+h}^{(\tau,h;T)}. \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

This equation illustrates to what extent the forecast revision is driven by a) an update in the estimate of the unconditional mean of the model, b) an update in the role of all shocks from up to $T-\tau$, as summarized by the starting condition, c) a revision in the role attributed by the two forecasts to the shocks estimated between time $T{-}\tau{+}1$ and T, d) an effect associated with the shocks that hit at time $T{+}1$ relative to the value simulated in the forecast from time T, e) and a change in the role of future shocks over the remaining forecast horizon.

The four components from equation (21) potentially reflect a combination of changes in the parameter estimates and changes in the estimates of the shocks. The new data release for $T+1$ can lead to changes in the estimates of the parameters. This, potentially combined with the revision of the data until time T, can lead to changes in the estimates of the shocks until period T. Changes in the parameter estimates can lead to changes in the deterministic component of the model, including the unconditional mean. In addition, changes in the parameter and/or shocks can lead to changes in how the model predicts the shocks from until time T to generate effects that still unfold in the forecast horizon.[5]

Equation (21) shows the decomposition of the forecast revision. A similar decomposition holds with respect to the forecast error. Following equation (4), the data realization $\boldsymbol{y}_{T+1}$ can be decomposed into the deterministic component up to time $T-\tau$ and the role of the structural shocks from $T-\tau+1$ to $T+1$. Hence, similar to the forecast revisions, also forecast errors can be decomposed into the role attributed to the change in the deterministic component and the role of the subsequent structural shocks.

3 An illustration using simulated data on a bivariate model

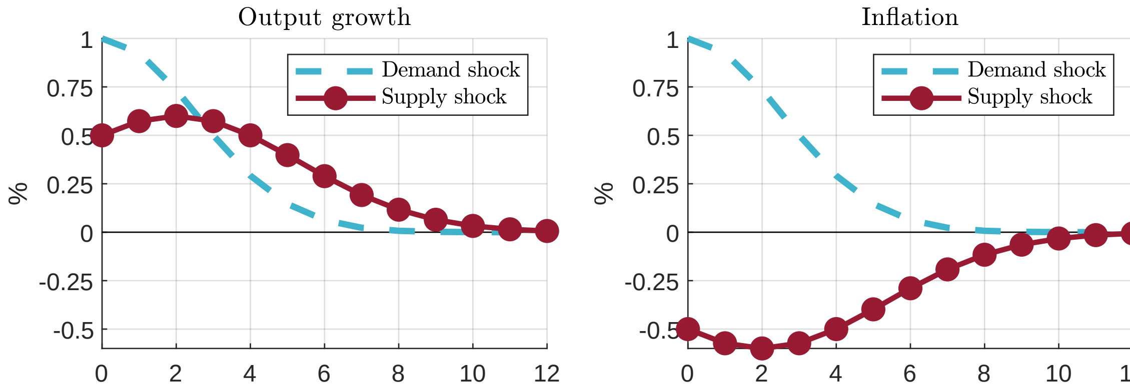
We use a bivariate simulation to further illustrate the decomposition of forecast errors and revisions proposed in the paper.

We specify the data-generating process as a bivariate SVAR model with a constant term and 12 lags. We use the model to generate data for the generic variables y_{1t} and y_{2t}, which are driven by shocks ϵ_{1t} and ϵ_{2t}. For simplicity, we refer to the variables as output growth and inflation, and view the structural shocks as pseudo demand and supply shocks. These interpretations are purely illustrative, as we work with simulated data.

To set the model's parameters, we follow the approach proposed by Canova et al. (2024). We first specify the true impulse responses of output growth and inflation to

[5]We acknowledge that the revision in the deterministic component $\boldsymbol{dc2}$ can capture revisions in the role of the structural shocks that hit up to time $T-\tau$. For this reason, we suggest to select τ large enough to ensure that most of the revisions in the role of the shocks is attributed to $\boldsymbol{sc1}$, so that it can be decomposed into individual structural shocks.

Figure 1: Illustration: true impulse responses



the demand and supply shocks. We then set the true parameters of the model equal to the SVAR parameters consistent with the true impulse responses. Figure 1 shows the true impulse responses of the model.[6] A positive one-standard-deviation demand shock (blue dashed lines) increases output growth and inflation on impact by 1%. The responses then slowly revert back to zero, reaching half of the impact effect three periods after the shock. By contrast, a positive one-standard-deviation supply shock (red dotted line) increases output growth on impact by 0.5% and decreases inflation by 0.5%. Contrary to demand shocks, supply shocks generate limited contemporanous effects, but hump-shaped impulse responses that reach the peak effect 2 periods after the shock, at a value that is 20% higher than the impact effect. The SVAR parameters consistent with these impulse responses imply model stationarity. Last, we set the true constant terms of the model such that the model-implied unconditional mean for the pseudo output growth and inflation equals 1.5% and 2%, respectively.

We use the model to construct the following exercise. We simulate 200 periods of pseudo data, initializing the data at the unconditional mean of the model. To generate data, we randomly draw shocks from their distribution, except for the demand shock in the last five periods, which we set equal to one standard deviation. This generates a period of strong output growth and elevated inflation, which serves as starting point of the exercise. Then, starting from period $T = 200$, we simulate an unconditional forecast until horizon $T{+}H = 220$, assuming zero future shocks. Last, we simulate data for period $T{+}1 = 201$ and then simulate a new unconditional forecast from the point of view of period $T{+}1$ over the forecast horizon $T{+}2 = 202$ to $T{+}H = 220$,

[6] We refer to Appendix B of the Online Appendix for the detailed discussion of the parametrization of the model.

still assuming zero future shocks. This framework implies forecast errors at time $T+1 = 201$, and a forecast revision from $T+2 = 202$ to $T+H = 220$. We use the structural form of the model to help interpret the economic forces driving the forecast errors and revisions.

Following the discussion in the previous section, we set $\tau = 5$ in equations (19)-(20) and interpret the forecast errors and revisions as the sum of four components:

a) the difference in the role that the two forecasts associate with the unconditional mean of the model;

b) the difference in the role that the two forecasts associate with the shocks before time $T-\tau$, as summarized by the starting condition;

c) the difference in the role that the two forecasts associate with the shocks that hit the model-economy in the overlapping sample period between $T-\tau+1 = 196$ and $T = 200$;

d) the role that the forecast made at time $T+1 = 201$ associates with the shocks at time $T+1 = 201$, which the forecast at time T set to zero.

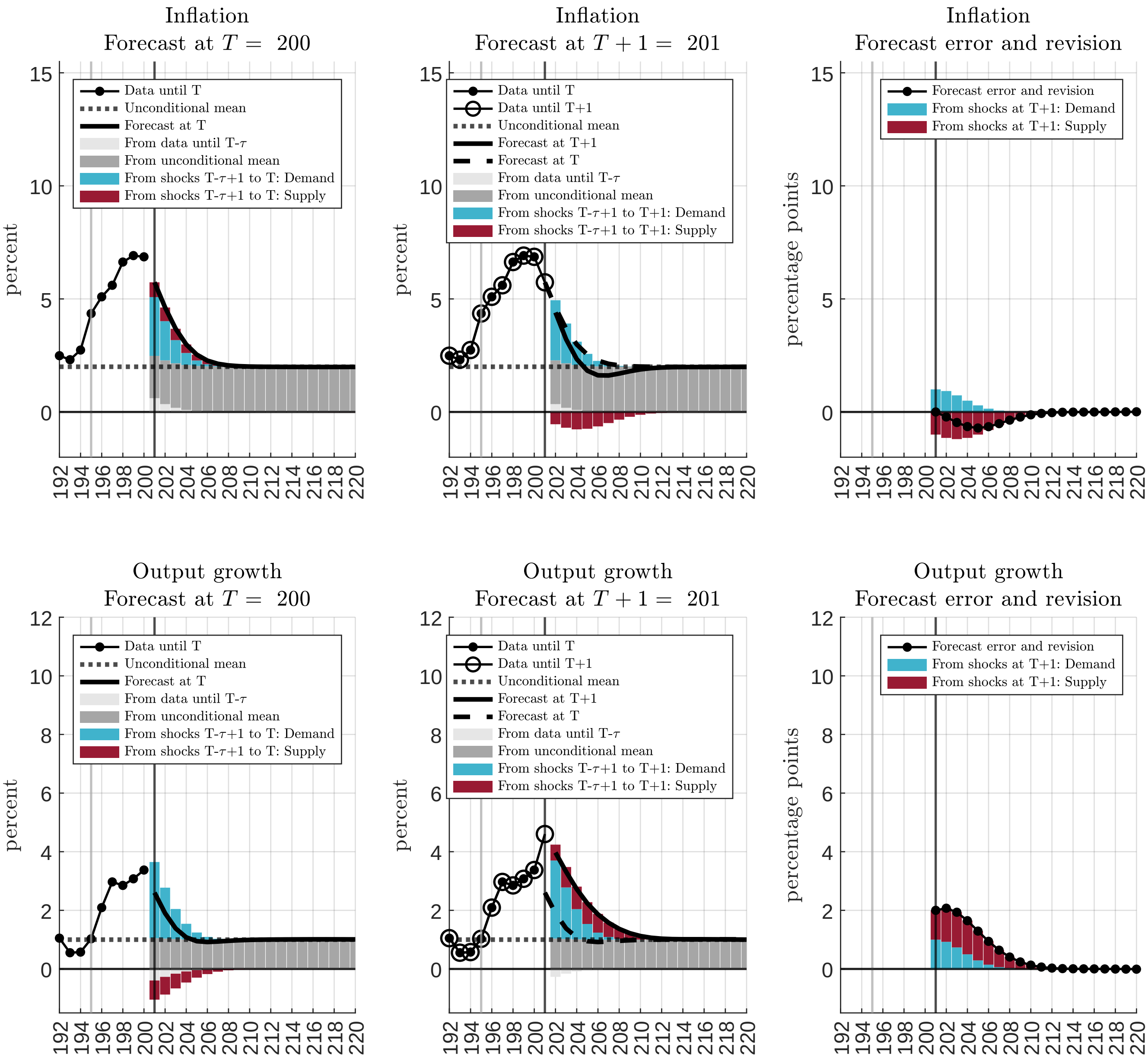
Since we simulate unconditional forecasts that assume zero future shocks, the revision of these shocks plays no role in explaining forecast errors and forecast revisions.

3.1 Illustration in a simplified setting

We begin from a case where we initially assume no data revision between forecasts. This means that the data covering the period up to T is the same when forecasting at time T or at $T+1$. We also temporarily assume that the true parameters of the model are known when generating both forecasts. These are important assumptions because they imply that points a)-b)-c) outlined above are null, leading to the special case from equation (18) from subsection 2.3. We then generalize the simulation in the second part of this section. Both forecasts are unconditional forecasts generated from the reduced form representation of the model, setting the future shocks to zero.

Figure 2 reports the analysis for both inflation (top panel) and output growth (bottom panel). For both panels, the left plots show the data available until time T, the unconditional mean of the model, the forecast made at time T, and its decomposition into deterministic component and stochastic components for shocks between $T-\tau+1$ and T. The middle plots show the data available both until time T and $T+1$, the

Figure 2: Illustration with no data revision and true parameters



Note: The left-hand side panels show the forecast at time T (solid line), while the middle panels show the new forecast at time T+1 (solid line) along with the one produced at time T (dashed line). Both forecasts are decomposed into the role of the different components up to time T and T+1 respectively: demand shock (blue bars), supply shocks (red bars) and deterministic component (gray bars). The right-hand side panels plot the marginal difference between the forecasts, along with the contribution of each component.

unconditional mean of the model, the forecast at time $T-1$, the new forecast made at time $T+1$, and the decomposition of the new forecast into deterministic component, and the stochastic component from shocks between $T-\tau+1$ and $T+1$. The right plots show the forecast error made at time $T+1$, the forecast revision until $T+H$, and the decomposition of the forecast error and revision. In all figures, the gray vertical line indicates $T-\tau$ while the vertical black line indicates $T+1$.

The left plots of Figure 2 show that at time T, the model predicts a slow decline of output growth and inflation towards the unconditional mean, with no undershooting relative to the long term. At time $T+1$ (middle plots) the new data turns out to be in line with the forecast for inflation, but 2% above the forecast for output growth. In addition, the new forecast outlines that inflation will temporarily *undershoot* the unconditional mean, and output growth will decline much less rapidly. The right-hand side plots display this graphically: inflation shows no forecast error and a downward forecast revision, with a temporary undershooting of the unconditional mean, while output growth features a positive forecast error and positive forecast revision.

A purely reduced form approach to forecasting would provide very limited support to the interpretation of the forecast errors and forecast revisions. A researcher would not be able to go beyond stating that the new forecast at $T+1$ suggests an upward revision for the forecast for output growth and a downward revision for the forecast for inflation, and that there was no forecast error for inflation and a positive forecast error for output growth.

The methodology proposed in this paper offers a tool to derive a structural narrative of the forecast errors and forecast revisions. Let us first analyze the drivers of the forecasts made at time T and $T+1$. The left-hand side panels of Figure 2 show that the forecast at time T is partly driven by the strong demand shocks that have hit the system up to time T, and which are still propagating through the system. As these shocks fade away, the forecast converges to the unconditional mean. The forecast made at time $T+1$ (middle plots) still shows a strong (yet weaker) effect from the demand shocks that have hit up to time T. It also shows a larger role associated with the shocks from time $T+1$, which were assumed to be zero from the point of view of the forecast at time T.

In this illustration, the data realizations at $T+1$ were generated by simulating a positive one-standard-deviation demand shock and a positive (deflationary) two-standard-deviation supply shock. The joint effects of these shocks are noticeable in the middle panels. On output growth, both shocks are expansionary, and explain the strong forecast error between the two periods. Yet, for inflation, the fact that no forecast error is detected hides the fact that two opposite forces are playing out: an inflationary demand shock, and a deflationary supply shock. The undershooting of inflation predicted by the forecast made at time $T+1$ can now be rationalized as the effect of the supply shock: since supply shocks generate relatively weaker effects on impact but feature delayed effects via hump-shaped responses (see Figure 1), the large deflationary supply shock materializes in the medium term of the forecast, explaining the forecast revision and the undershooting of inflation.

The right-hand side plots of Figure 2 confirm that the forecast errors and forecast revisions are driven by the structural shocks that hit at time $T+1$. By contrast, no role is played by the revision in the deterministic component nor the role of the latest shocks before period $T+1$. This result is driven by the fact that no revisions apply to the data, and that the same (true) parameter values are used for both forecasts, hence the same estimates of the shocks. As a result, both forecasts predict the same role played by the deterministic component of the model. For the same reason, the two forecasts attribute the same role to the shocks between time $T-\tau+1$ and T. The only factor that differs is the treatment of period $T+1$. The forecasts made at time T assumes zero shocks at $T+1$, which hence play no role over the forecast. The forecast made at time $T+1$ infers the shocks at time $T+1$ from the data, hence these shocks will be a driving forces of the variables over the forecast horizon.[7]

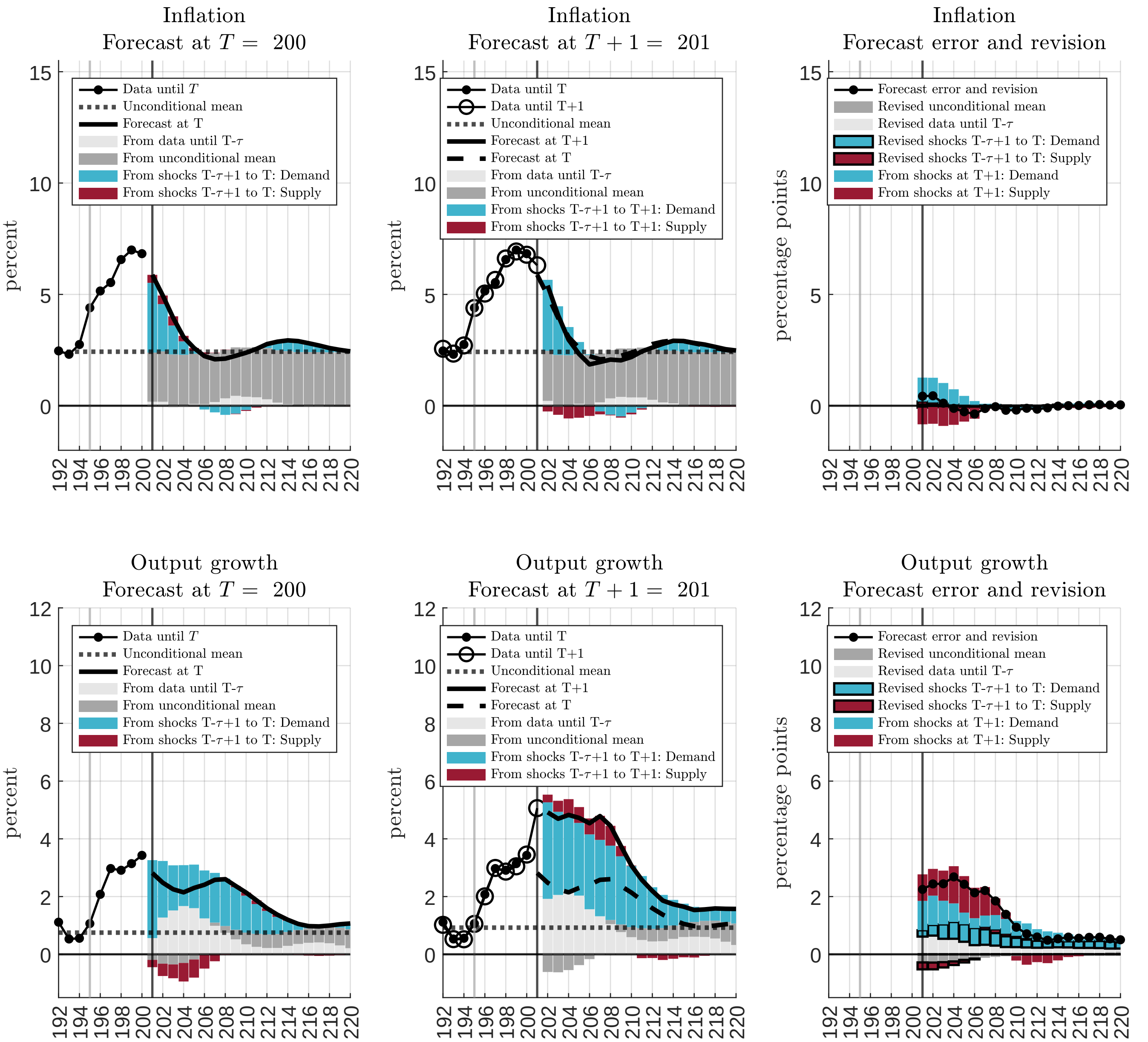
3.2 Illustration in a generalized setting

We conclude the illustration by bringing into the discussion the more realistic scenario in which the parameters are estimated, and the data is subject to revisions from one forecast to the other. This has important consequences. The combination of data revision up to time T and data release at $T+1$ leads to changes in the parameter estimates and the estimates of the shocks up to tome T. This jointly implies that, contrary to the simplified case from the previous section, the forecasts can build on different estimates of the unconditional mean of the model and of the role associated with the shocks up to time T.

We start from the original data at time T and add noise, modeled as the realization of independent Normal random variables with standard deviation set equal to 0.05. We

[7]Figure B-1 in the Online Appendix breaks down the stochastic components of each forecast into the contribution from the shocks of each period (composite impulse responses).

Figure 3: Illustration with data revision and estimated parameters



Note: The left-hand side panels show the forecast at time T (solid line), while the middle panels show the new forecast at time T+1 (solid line) along with the one produced at time T (dashed line). Both forecasts are decomposed into the role of the different components up to time T and T+1 respectively: demand shock (blue bars), supply shocks (red bars) and deterministic component (gray bars). The right-hand side panels plot the marginal difference between the forecasts, along with the contribution of each component.

then start from the original data until $T+1$ and subject it to noise, drawn in the same way as for time T. We use both datasets to estimate the reduced form parameters via Ordinary Least Squares. Last, we estimate the structural impact effect of the shocks by applying to the estimated Cholesky decomposition of the estimated reduced form variances the true orthogonal matrix associated with the data generating process. Forecasts and decompositions are then generated using the parameter estimates and the data subject to noise.[8]

The analysis with data revision is reported in Figure 3. While the narrative of the forecasts and the decompositions is similar to Figure 2, a few differences are worth highlighting. First, both forecasts associate a higher role of the data up to time $T-\tau$ (and hence of the shocks up to time $T-\tau$) compared to Figure 2. Second, the fact that the two forecasts use different parameter estimates and hence different estimates of the shocks implies that the forecasts can associate different roles to the shocks in the period between $T-\tau+1$ and T. For instance, the forecast made at time $T+1$ interprets the demand shocks between $T-\tau+1$ and T as being more expansionary and the supply shocks as being more contractionary compared to the forecast at time T. The effects of the revised shocks on inflation and output growth are reported in the right-hand side panels by the highlighted bars.[9]

4 An application to the surge of inflation in 2022

In this section, we use our methodology in a SVAR model for the UK economy. We apply the framework explained in section 2 to analyze the period of high inflation that followed the Covid-19 pandemic. We first describe the specification of the model, including the data, identification of the shocks, and estimation procedure. We then outline the real-time forecast exercise, and discuss the results on forecast errors and revisions. We keep the model parsimonious and tractable, as the main intent of this section is to showcase the possible use and benefits of the methodology.

[8] We follow this approach in order to avoid entering issues related to the identification of the shocks, which we view as relevant only in applications and not strictly important for the simulation exercise from this section.

[9] Figure B-2 in the Online Appendix breaks down the stochastic components of each forecast into the contribution from the shocks of each period (composite impulse responses).

4.1 Model specification, identification, and estimation

We estimate an SVAR model of the form described in equation (1)-(2)-(3). The model includes four variables: (i) the UK policy rate captured by the Bank rate; (ii) Real GDP; (iii) the consumer price index; (iv) Real oil prices. Except for the Bank rate, all variables enter the model in log difference, in order to ensure stationarity. The frequency of the data is quarterly, and the full sample covers the period from 1992Q1 to 2025Q3.

We identify four structural shocks, so that data volatility is fully explained by the identified shocks in our system. We use sign restrictions (Uhlig, 2005; Baumeister and Hamilton, 2015; Arias et al., 2018) to identify generic demand and supply shocks, along with a monetary policy shock and an energy shock. Restrictions, reported in Table D-1 of the Online Appendix, are rather standard in the literature, and are introduced only on the impact effect of the shocks, with no restrictions on the future horizons nor on the contemporaneous relationship among variables.

We set $p = 4$ as the number of lags of the model. To deal with the volatility over the Covid period, we add Covid-19 dummies for the quarters from 2020Q1 to 2020Q4.[10] We then estimate the model using Bayesian methods. We use a Minnesota prior combined with a single-unit-root prior to discipline the deterministic component, as in Bergholt et al. (2024). We follow Giannone et al. (2015) and use a hierarchical approach to the hyperparameters of the model. The estimation of the Covid dummies follows the pandemic prior approach proposed by Cascaldi-Garcia (2022). Finally, we apply the methodology proposed by Arias et al. (2018) to identify the four structural shocks.

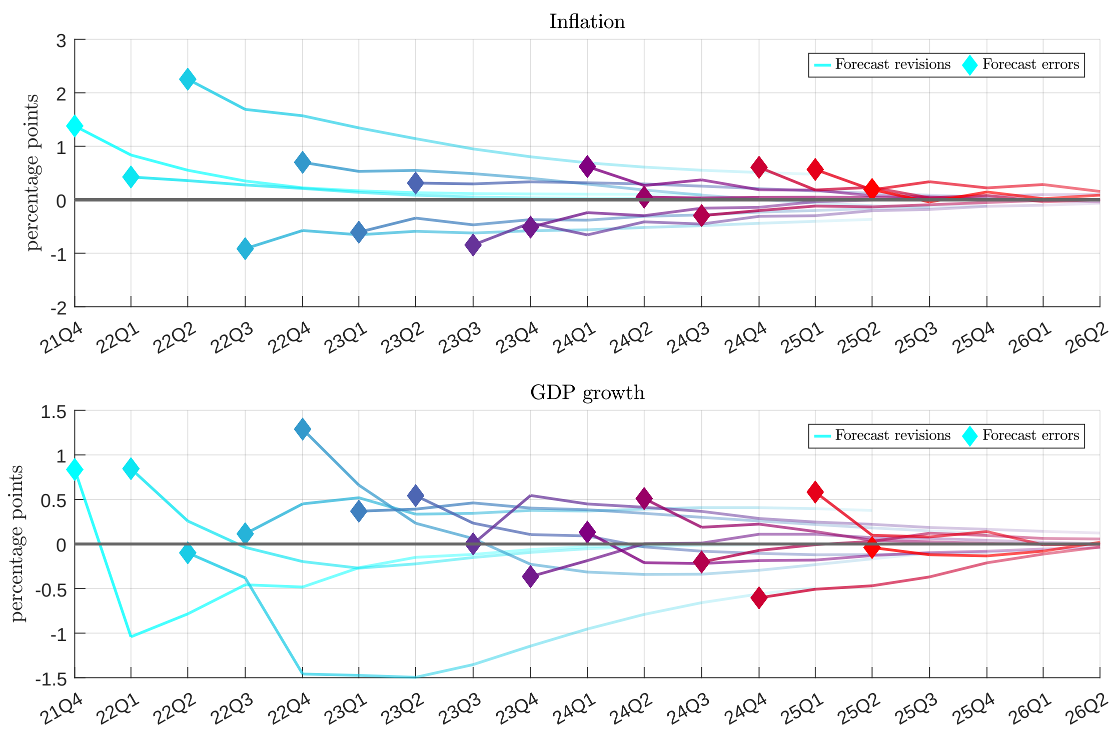
4.2 Results from forecast analysis

Our goal is to replicate on real data what described in section 3 on simulated data. To do this, we conduct a real-time forecast exercise and iterate over each of the sixteen quarters that go from 2021Q4 to 2025Q3. For each quarter, which we label as time T, we estimate the model with data from 1992Q2 up to time T and we produce an unconditional forecast with zero future shocks, simulating the forecast H-steps ahead

[10]The introduction of Covid dummies requires adding an additional term to the deterministic component from equations (19)-(20). Our approach is also compatible with other ways of handling the large outliers from the Covid pandemic, including period-specific stochastic volatility (Lenza and Primiceri, 2022) and fat tails (Kociecki et al., 2025.

with $H = 12$.[11] We then move to the next quarter and compute the forecast error given the data at time $T{+}1$. We re-estimate the model using data from 1992Q2 to $T{+}1$, simulate the new forecast made at $T{+}1$, and compute the forecast revisions relative to the previous quarter. We conduct the exercise using the vintages of the data available at each new quarter, so that we can also account for the possible role of data revisions over time. Last, for each quarter we apply the forecast decomposition outlined in section 2, setting $\tau = 12$. This implies that we decompose each forecast into the role of the data up to three years before the forecast and into the subsequent structural shocks.[12]

Figure 4: Sequence of estimated mean forecast errors and forecast revisions

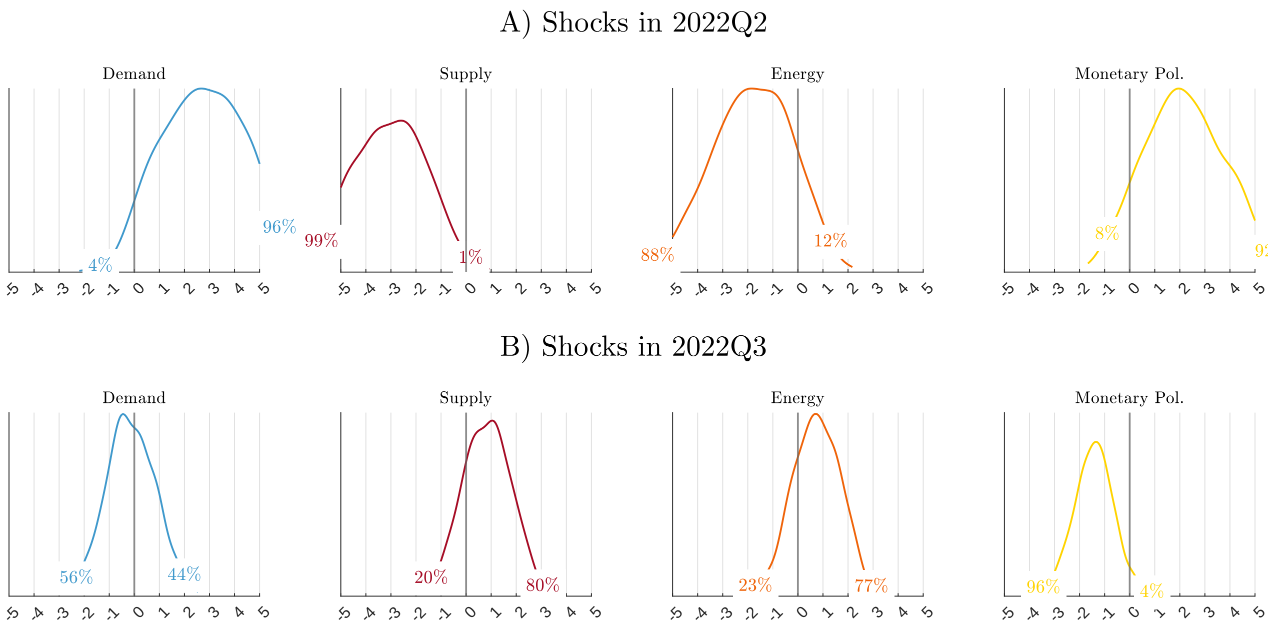


Note: Diamonds indicate forecast errors for each forecast produced in a specific quarter, while lines the related forecast revisions.

[11] We choose $H = 12$ as it coincides with the 3-years ahead forecast horizon usually analyzed by central banks.

[12] More precisely, we simulate the forecasts using data until 2021Q4 and then until 2022Q1, and decompose both as a function of the data until 2018Q4 and the subsequent shocks. Then, we simulate the forecast at 2022Q2. Decompose the forecasts at 2022Q1 and 2022Q2 as a function of the data up to 2019Q1 and the subsequent shocks. We continue until the forecasts for 2025Q2 and 2025Q3, which are decomposed as a function of the data up to 2022Q2 and the subsequent shocks.

Figure 5: Estimated structural shocks



Note: The top panel shows the marginal posterior distribution of shocks for 2022Q2 as estimated when data up to 2022Q2 became available. The bottom panel shows the same for 2022Q3. Each plot reports the Positive values mean that the shocks are expansionary. This means that GDP increases for all the shocks analyzed, while inflation increases with demand and monetary policy shocks, and decreases with supply and energy shocks, see Figure D-5.

Before discussing our structural forecast decompositions, we find it helpful to document the *reduced form* results of this exercise. Figure 4 reports the sequence of forecast errors and forecast revisions implied by the model for QoQ inflation (top panel) and QoQ GDP growth (lower panel). The diamond in each period t reports the forecast error for that period, while the line that starts from each diamond reports the subsequent forecast revision.[13] A few findings are immediately visible from the figure. First, forecast errors and revisions over 2022 and 2023 are sizable for both GDP and inflation, and bigger compared to subsequent periods. This is not surprising, and many in the literature have documented sizable forecast errors in this period (see, for instance, Ball et al., 2022, Koch and Noureldin, 2024 and Giannone and Primiceri, 2024). Second, the comovement in the forecast errors and forecast revisions for inflation and GDP growth can vary considerably across periods. For example, in 2022Q4

[13]The forecast error at time t is reported as the difference between the first data realization that became available at time t for time t data and the forecast made for that period at $t-1$. The forecast revision is reported as the difference between the newly formed forecast made at time t and the previous forecast made at $t-1$.

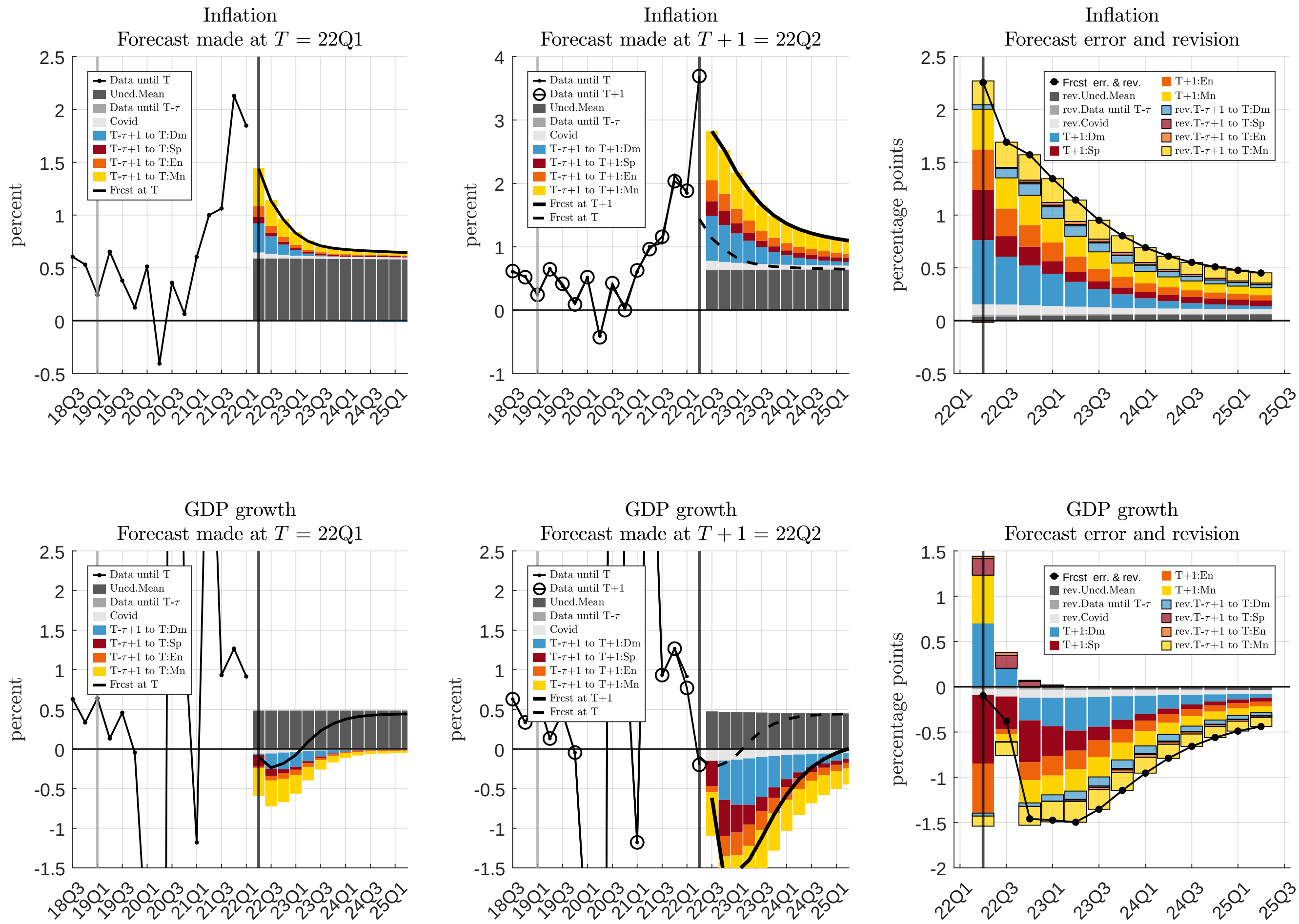
the forecast errors comoved positively. By contrast, in 2022Q2 – the quarter right after the Russian invasion of Ukraine – a strong positive forecast errors for inflation is associated with a very mild negative forecast error for GDP growth. Third, in some periods, small forecast errors can be associated with large forecast revisions, as, for instance, for GDP growth in 2022Q2 and 2022Q3.

The combined analysis of forecast errors and forecast revisions of GDP growth and inflation in Figure 4 could also potentially inform on a demand-side or supply-side narratives, depending on whether forecast errors and revisions of inflation and GDP growth comove positively or negatively, respectively. Let us focus, for instance, on 2022Q4. Given the positive comovement of the GDP growth and inflation forecast errors, one can probably infer that a demand-side shock was the main driver behind the change. While this approach offers a useful indication of the most likely prevailing shocks, this "reduced-form" approach is subject to limitations. First, it potentially overestimates the role of a single type of shocks, as in each quarters other shocks could play an important role, and thus deserved to be better analysed. Second, in those cases where one of the two variables depict limited forecast errors, it becomes difficult to infer the nature of the prevailing shocks that drove these revisions.

The quarter corresponding to 2022Q2 is a clear example of when a simple analysis on inflation and GDP growth comovement is not enough. This quarter is characterised by a positive forecast error for inflation with very small (or almost zero) forecast error for GDP growth. To better understand the drivers behind the errors, one can analyse the shocks estimated by the model between the rounds. The top panel of Figure 5 shows the posterior marginal distribution of the estimated structural shocks that hit in that period. The distributions refer to shocks estimated using the earliest vintage of the data, hence data up to 2022Q2 for the top panel. The figure reports strong contractionary supply-side shocks (both supply and energy), along with marked expansionary demand-side shocks (both demand and monetary policy), which are consistent with the positive forecast error for inflation, and that explain why there is small revision for GDP growth, as the shocks have opposite effects on output. Similarly, 2022Q3 also shares a similar feature, with sizable a forecast error for inflation but very small on GDP growth. The lower panel of Figure 5 reports the posterior marginal distribution of the shocks for 2022Q3. It suggests that opposite contemporaneous forces might be playing out on output, namely contractionary supply-side shocks and an expansionary monetary policy shock.[14]

[14]See Figure D-6 in the Online Appendix for the distributions of the shocks in 2022Q2 and 2022Q3

Figure 6: Forecast analysis for 2022Q2

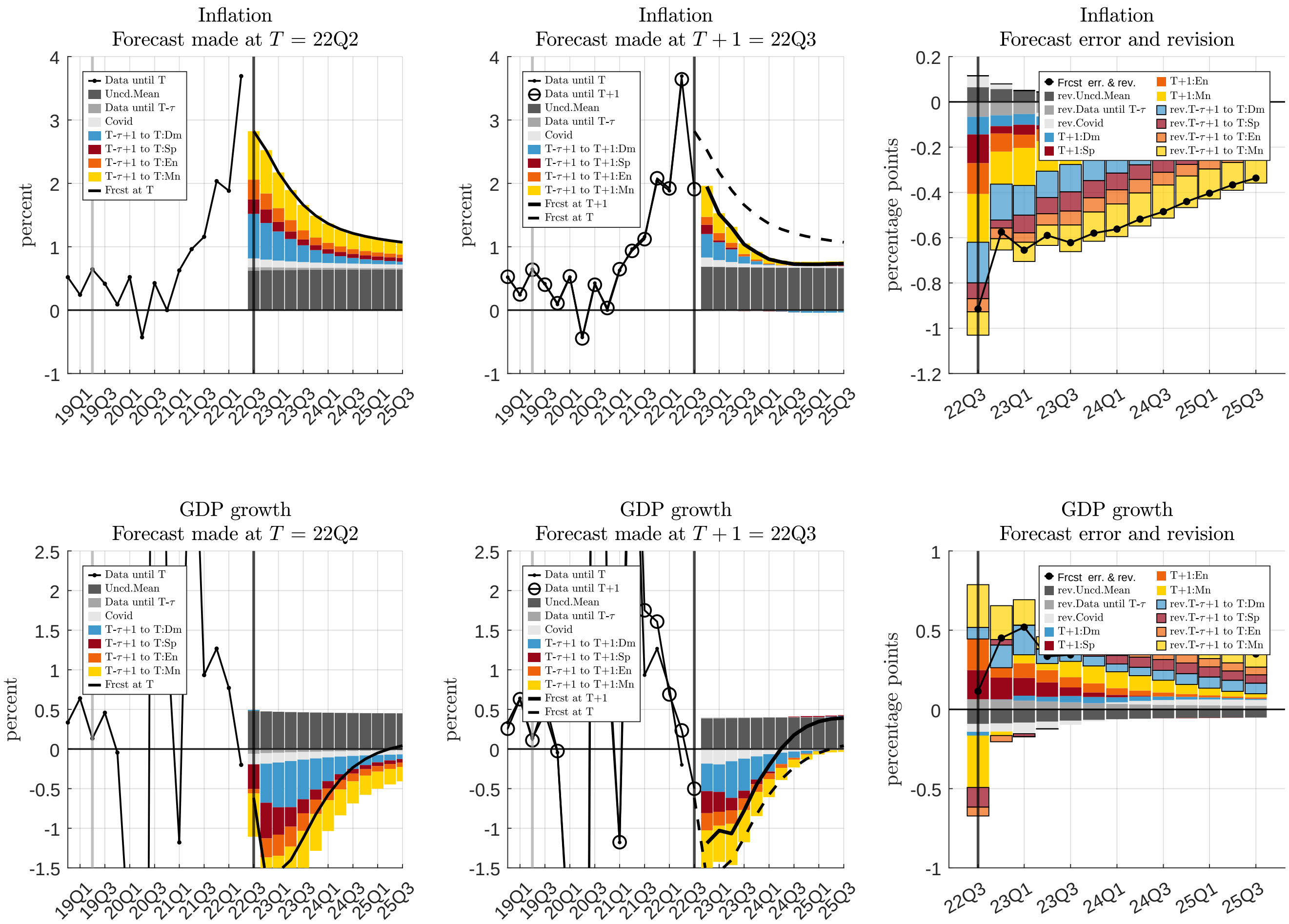


Note: The left-hand side panels show the forecast at time T (solid line), while the middle panels show the new forecast at time $T+1$ (solid line) along with the one produced at time T (dashed line). Both forecasts are decomposed into the role of the different components up to time T and $T+1$ respectively: demand (blue bars), supply (red bars), energy (orange bars), monetary policy shocks (yellow bars) and deterministic component (grey bars). The right-hand side panels plot the marginal difference between the forecasts, along with the contribution of each component.

In line with the methodology discussed in section 2, we complement the analysis from Figure 5 by jointly studying all possible forces that play out on forecast errors and forecast revisions: *a*) possible changes in the role of the shocks that hit up to three years before the forecast, as pooled into the starting condition (or "Data up to time $T-\tau$"), *b*) possible changes in the unconditional mean of the model, *c*) the

estimated using subsequent three quarters of data vintages.

Figure 7: Forecast analysis for 2022Q3



Note: The left-hand side panels show the forecast at time T (solid line), while the middle panels show the new forecast at time T+1 (solid line) along with the one produced at time T (dashed line). Both forecasts are decomposed into the role of the different components up to time T and T+1 respectively: demand (blue bars), supply (red bars), energy (orange bars), monetary policy shocks (yellow bars) and deterministic component (gray bars). The right-hand side panels plot the marginal difference between the forecasts, along with the contribution of each component.

role associated with the revision of the shocks estimated in the last three years before period T; and d) the role associated with the latest shocks that were estimated for T+1, which were assumed to equal zero from the point of view of time T.[15] Figure 6 reports the results for 2022Q2. As observed in Figure 4, this quarter is associated with the largest forecast error for inflation, which came in 2.3 percentage points higher with

[15] In this application, we also make explicit the role of the deterministic component linked to the Covid dummies.

respect to the forecast produced in 2022Q1, and with a forecast error for GDP growth equal to -0.05 percentage points.

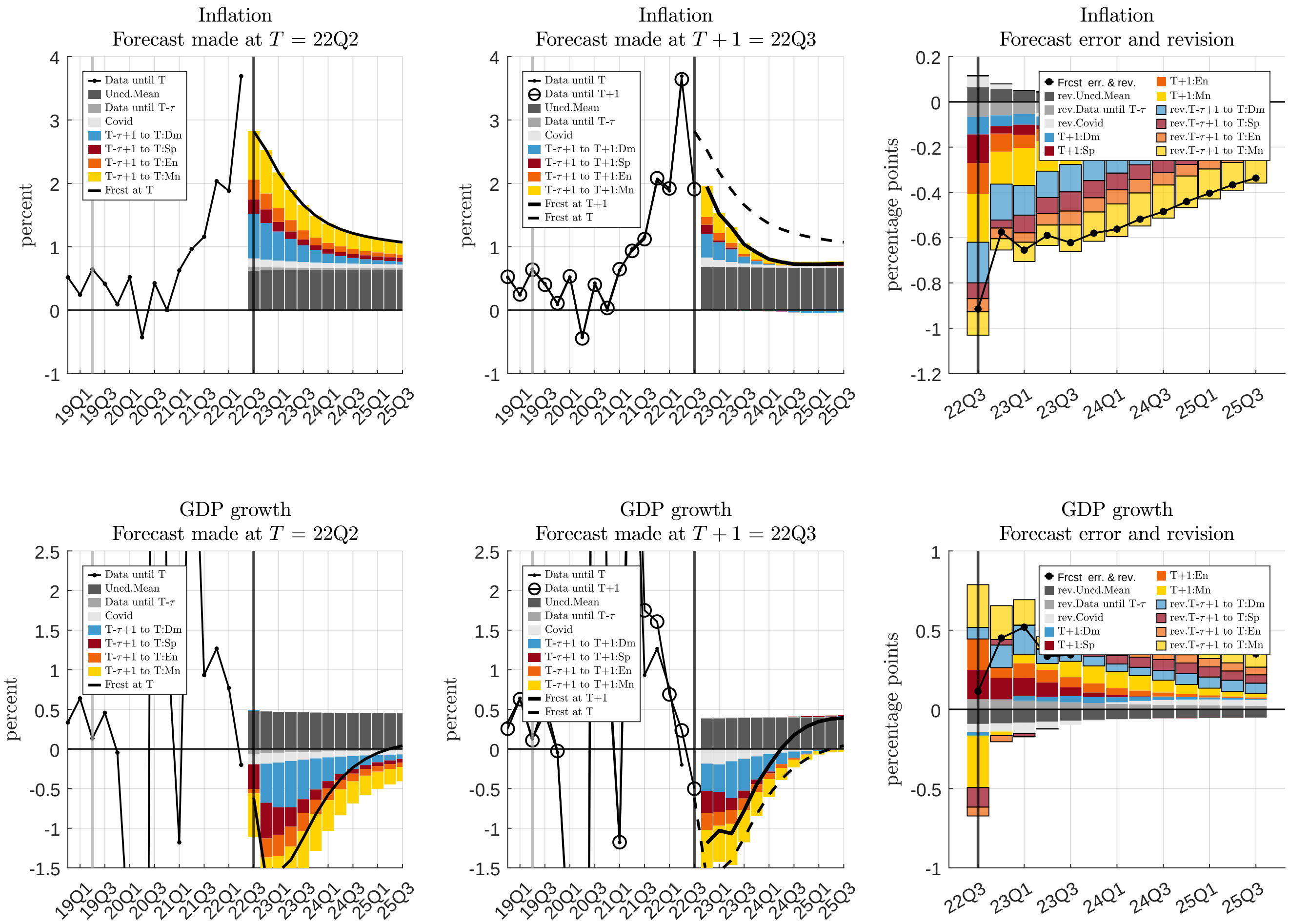
We begin by describing the *absolute* forecasts shown in the left and middle plots of Figure 6. The figure shows the pointwise mean forecasts and pointwise mean of each of its components. In 2022Q1 (left-hand side panels) the model predicts GDP growth to reach -0.5% around 2022Q3, and inflation to reach 1.5%, before moving gradually to 0.5% towards the end of the horizon. Our decomposition suggests that the inflation forecast is elevated due to a mix of negative supply (in red) and energy (in orange) shocks, but also expansionary demand (in blue) and monetary policy (in yellow) shocks. The *absolute* narrative is similar for GDP growth, with negative supply and energy shocks causing GDP growth to be weak. At the same time, previously positive demand and monetary shocks turn negative on growth, contributing to the weak forecast.[16] As we reach $T+1 = 2022Q2$, the data is found to have been revised, as can be seen by the difference between the dotted and the circled lines in the middle panels. Data in 2022Q2 came in almost -0.05 percentage points lower than what predicted in 2022Q1 for GDP, and almost 2.3 percentage points higher for inflation. On the latter, the new forecast produced at time $T+1$ is overall higher for inflation, but lower for GDP. In *absolute* space, the model interprets the elevated path for the inflation forecast similarly to time T, with a mix of negative supply and energy shocks, and positive demand and monetary policy shocks all pushing up on inflation.

The left-hand side panels complement these results by plotting the decomposition of the marginal change between the two forecasts, and thus help us interpret what drives the forecast errors and revisions between quarters. As shown by the right-hand side panels in Figure 6, only around 1 percentage points of the 2.3 forecast error for inflation was driven by the supply-side (supply and energy) shocks estimated for 2022Q2, as the rest of the forecast error is interpreted by the model as a combination of demand-side (demand and monetary policy) shocks. The revision of the role of previous shocks over the last three years before the forecast is instead found to play a more marginal role in driving the forecast errors and revisions. The interpretation for GDP growth is similar, the small forecast error for GDP growth is explained by a mix of contractionary supply-side shocks and expansionary demand-side shocks, which however all push down over the forecast horizon.

This analysis discussed so far for 2022Q2 and 2022Q3 can be conducted for every

[16] The apparent puzzle of the role of monetary and demand shocks between Inflation and GDP growth depends on the persistency of past shocks, which is linked to the IRFs reported in Figure D-5.

Figure 8: Forecast analysis for 2022Q3



Note: The left-hand side panels show the forecast at time T (solid line), while the middle panels show the new forecast at time T+1 (solid line) along with the one produced at time T (dashed line). Both forecasts are decomposed into the role of the different components up to time T and T+1 respectively: demand (blue bars), supply (red bars), energy (orange bars), monetary policy shocks (yellow bars) and deterministic component (gray bars). The right-hand side panels plot the marginal difference between the forecasts, along with the contribution of each component.

quarter, and thus provide a systematic study of the drivers of the forecast and its change over time. Figure 8 reports the analysis for 2022Q3. The left-hand side panels show the forecast associated with 2022Q2 and its decomposition, while the middle panels report the forecast computed in 2022Q3. Relative to 2022Q2, the forecast errors for inflation is negative and the revision for inflation is downwards. As shown in the right-hand side panels, one of the factors contributing to this finding is a mix of mildly deflationary energy and supply shocks, along with a minor restrictive monetary policy shock. However, contrary to Figure 6, a big role is also played by the revised shocks this time, as now the model reviews the previous shocks to be less inflationary.[17] Overall, it is interesting to notice that the model suggests an important role of demand and monetary policy shocks to explain forecast errors and revisions, a result in line with what found for the US and the Euro Area by Giannone and Primiceri (2024). The increasing role played by demand-type shocks are also confirmed by the next quarter, where the inflation forecast is revised up mainly due to demand shocks, see Figure D-7 in the Online Appendix, but also partially due to an upward revision of the unconditional mean.

Figure 9: Decomposition of forecast errors

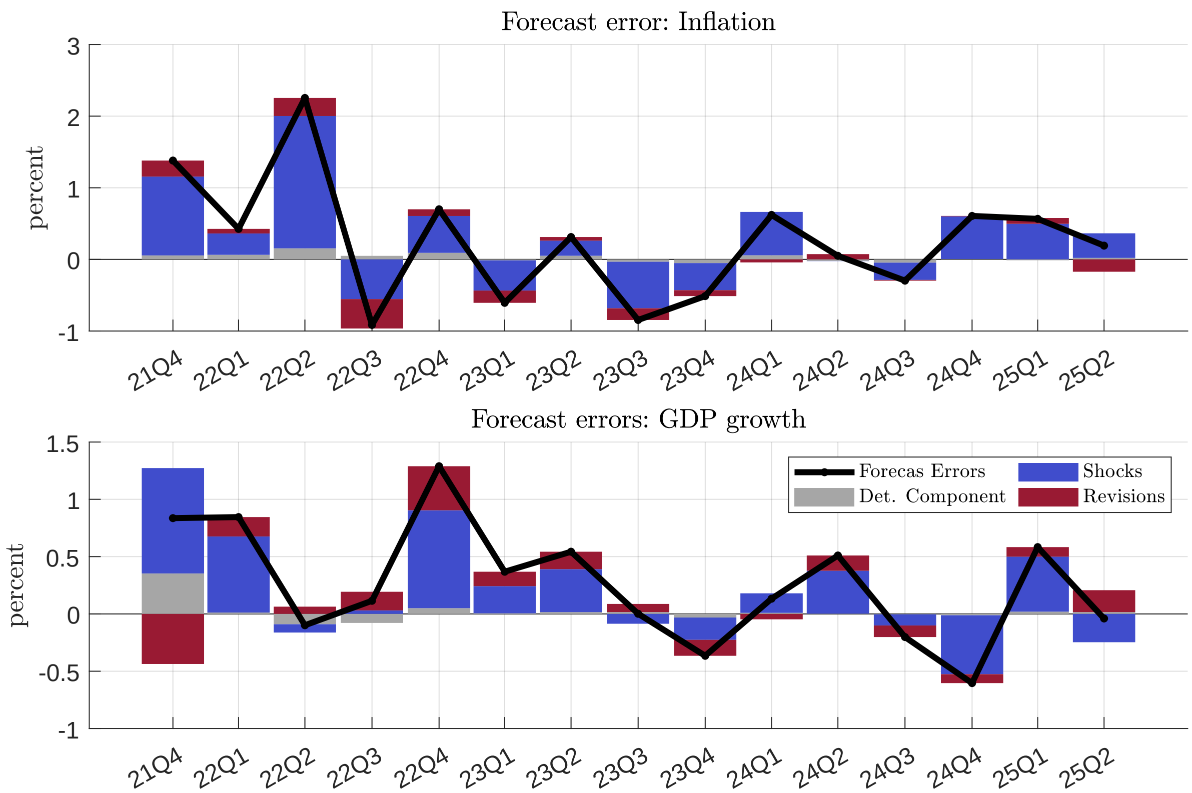
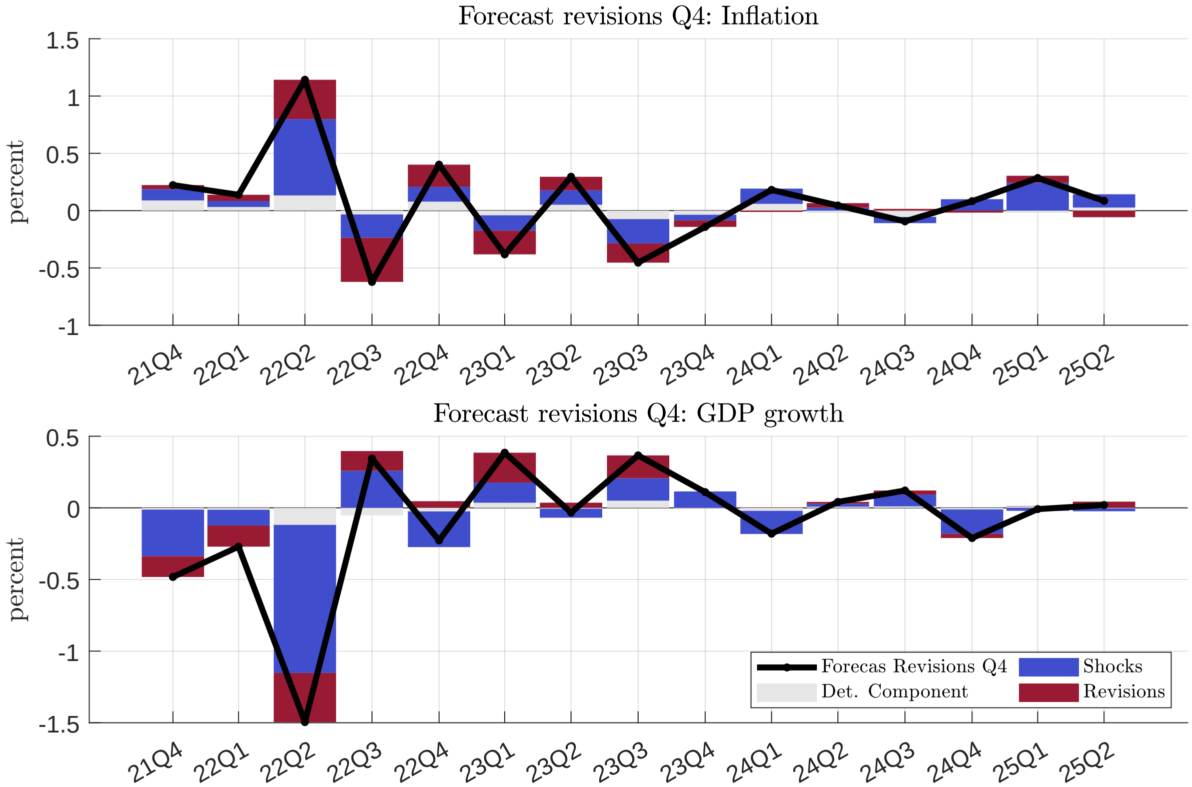


Figure 9 reports the mean decomposition of the forecast error for each quarter from 2021Q4 to 2025Q5. The figure shows the contribution to the forecast error due to the revision in all deterministic components (gray area), the revision in all past shocks (red area) and the realization of the latest shocks (blue area). While a large

[17]See also Figure D-9 in the Online Appendix, which report the revisions of the shocks.

Figure 10: Decomposition of forecast revisions at one year horizon



component of the forecast error is attributed to the realizations of the latest shocks, a sizable component is still associated with revisions in the deterministic component of the model and in the role of past shocks. The results remain largely unchanged when inspecting the one-year-ahead forecast revisions, which is shown in Figure 10.

We conclude the analysis with a word of caution, remarking that careful consideration is required in the model specification to produce accurate forecasts and credibly identified shocks. We stress that the main purpose of this application is not to validate the small-scale model described in this section, but to show the relation between forecast errors, forecast revisions, and structural shocks, describing how the framework from this paper can be applied in a real-time forecast exercise.

5 Conclusions

This paper shows that the structural representation of a VAR model can offer a way to derive a narrative for forecast errors and forecast revisions in terms of structural shocks even when the forecasts of interest are unconditional reduced form forecasts. Since being able to explain the forecasts and its revisions plays a key role in forecasting – especially in policy institutions – we view the method proposed in the paper as a useful new entry to the toolkit of time series methods for macroeconomics.

The methodology proposed in the paper decomposes forecast errors and forecast revisions as a function of three components: *a*) changes in what the paper refers to as the estimated deterministic component of the model, which typically captures the unconditional mean of the model; *b*) the role associated with the estimated shocks in the periods leading up to the forecasts; and *c*) the role of the latest shocks that are estimated after the realization of the new data.

We first show our methodology by using simulated data in a bivariate VAR model. We then apply our method to the UK economy and study forecast errors and revisions in the aftermath of the Russian invasion of Ukraine. We show that the strong upward revision in the inflation forecast in 2022Q2 was driven not only by contrationary supply and energy shocks that hit in 2022Q2, but also by expansionary demand and monetary policy shocks in the same quarter.

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Online Appendix for
"Structural forecast analysis"

Davide Brignone and Michele Piffer

A Derivations

Start from equation (1a) of the paper, which we write here for convenience,

$$\boldsymbol{y}_t = \sum_{l=1}^{p} \Pi_l \boldsymbol{y}_{t-l} + \boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{u}_t, \tag{A-1}$$

and rewrite it in companion form as

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_t = \tilde{\Pi}\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_{t-1} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_t, \tag{A-2}$$

with $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_t = (\boldsymbol{y}'_t, .., \boldsymbol{y}'_{t-p+1})'$, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} = (\boldsymbol{c}', \boldsymbol{0}'_{k(p-1)})'$, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_T = (\boldsymbol{u}'_T, \boldsymbol{0}'_{k(p-1)})'$, $\Pi = [\Pi_1, .., \Pi_p]$, $\tilde{\Pi} = \big[\Pi; [I_{k(p-1)}, 0]\big]$ (Canova, 2011). Define $\tilde{\Pi}^d = \prod_{g=1}^{d} \tilde{\Pi}$ with $\tilde{\Pi}^0 = I$. Iterating backwards starting from the forecast made in period T for horizon $T+h$ gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(T)}_{T+h} &= \tilde{\Pi}\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(T)}_{T+h-1} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h}, && \text{(A-3)}\\
&= \tilde{\Pi}^2\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(T)}_{T+h-2} + [I + \tilde{\Pi}]\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h} + \tilde{\Pi}\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h-1}, && \text{(A-4)}\\
&= \tilde{\Pi}^3\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(T)}_{T+h-3} + \sum_{d=0}^{2}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \sum_{d=0}^{2}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h-d}, && \text{(A-5)}\\
&\ \ \vdots\\
&= \tilde{\Pi}^h\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_T + \sum_{d=0}^{h-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \sum_{d=0}^{h-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h-d}, && \text{(A-6)}\\
&= \tilde{\Pi}^{h+1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_{T-1} + \sum_{d=0}^{h}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \sum_{d=0}^{h}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h-d}, && \text{(A-7)}\\
&\ \ \vdots\\
&= \tilde{\Pi}^{h+\tau}\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_{T-\tau} + \sum_{d=0}^{h+\tau-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \sum_{d=0}^{h+\tau-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_{T+h-d}, && \text{(A-8)}\\
&= \tilde{\Pi}^{h+\tau}\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_{T-\tau} + \sum_{d=0}^{h+\tau-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{\boldsymbol{c}} + \sum_{d=0}^{h+\tau-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\tilde{B}\tilde{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{T+h-d}, && \text{(A-9)}
\end{aligned}$$

where the last equation uses $\tilde{B} = \text{diag}(B, 0_{k(p-1)})$ and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_t = \big(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}'_t, \boldsymbol{0}'_{k(p-1)}\big)'$. Define $\Phi_{0,h+\tau-1}$ the $k \times k$ matrix on the top-left block of $\big(\sum_{d=0}^{h+\tau-1}\tilde{\Pi}^d\big)$. Then define $\{\Phi_{l,d}\}_{l=0}^{p}$ the p matrices of dimension $k \times k$ forming the top row of matrix $\tilde{\Pi}^d$. Equation (A-9) can now be rewritten as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T)} &= \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \Phi_{l+1,h+\tau} \boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l} \; + \; \Phi_{0,h+\tau-1} \boldsymbol{c} \; + && \text{(A-10)} \\
&\quad + \sum_{d=h}^{h+\tau-1} \Phi_{1,d} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+h-d} \; + \; \sum_{d=0}^{h-1} \Phi_{1,d} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+h-d}, \\
&= \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \Phi_{l+1,h+\tau} \boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l} \; + \; \Phi_{0,h+\tau-1} \boldsymbol{c} \; + && \text{(A-11)} \\
&\quad + \sum_{l=0}^{\tau-1} \Phi_{1,h+l} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T-l} \; + \; \sum_{l=1}^{h} \Phi_{1,h-l} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+l},
\end{aligned}
$$

which is equation (19) in the paper, before substituting $\left[\Phi, \boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{y}, B, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}\right]$ with $\left[\Phi^{(T)}, \boldsymbol{c}^{(T)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(T)}, B^{(T)}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(T)}\right]$ on the right hand side to indicate that the data, parameters and shocks refer to estimates made in period T. Equation (20) of the paper can be recovered by adjusting the index l in the summation terms to reflect that $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+1}^{(T+1)}$ are now estimated from the data, i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{y}_{T+h}^{(T+1)} &= \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \Phi_{l+1,h+\tau} \boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l} \; + \; \Phi_{0,h+\tau-1} \boldsymbol{c} \; + && \text{(A-12)} \\
&\quad + \sum_{l=-1}^{\tau-1} \Phi_{1,h+l} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T-l} \; + \; \sum_{l=2}^{h} \Phi_{1,h-l} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T+l},
\end{aligned}
$$

Last, equation (4) can be recovered by removing $^{(T)}$ and setting $h = 0,\ T = t$, which gives

$$
\boldsymbol{y}_t = \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \Phi_{l+1,\tau} \boldsymbol{y}_{T-\tau-l} \; + \; \Phi_{0,\tau-1} \boldsymbol{c} \; + \; \sum_{l=0}^{\tau-1} \Phi_{1,l} B \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{T-l}. \tag{A-13}
$$

B Additional material for the simulation exercise in section 3

The parameter values of the data generating process are set by first specifying the true impulse responses over 12 horizons. Following Canova et al. (2024), we use the following formulation of the Gaussian basis function for each shock j and variable i:

$$\bar{\psi}_{ij,h} = a_{ij} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{(h-b_{ij})^2}{c_{ij}^2}\right)+\frac{b_{ij}^2}{c_{ij}^2}}. \tag{A-14}$$

The function allows us to span $H + 1$ dynamic responses with only a handful of parameters: a_{ij} captures the impact effect of shock j on variable i, b_{ij} corresponds to the horizon at which the peak effect is reached, and equals 0 if no hump-shaped response is desired, c_{ij} controls for the persistence of the response. Equation (A-14) extends the specification by Barnichon and Matthes (2018).

We specify $a_{11} = a_{21} = 1$, $a_{12} = 0.5$ and $a_{22} = 0.5$. Hence, a one standard deviation positive shock to the first shock increases both variables by 1, while a one standard deviation positive shock to the second shock increases the first variable by 0.5 and decreases the second variable by 0.5. We then set $b_{11} = b_{21} = 0$ and $a_{12} = a_{22} = 0$, so that the responses to the first shock generate no hump-shaped patterns, while the second shock generates peak effects two periods after the shock. Last, we set c_{ij} so that the response to the first shock reaches 0.5 three periods after the shock, while for the second shock it leads to a peak effect that sits 20% above the impact effect, in absolute value.

The implied impulse responses are shown in Figure 1 of the paper. We then use the method by Canova et al. (2024) to compute the following parameters of a SVAR model with 12 lags:

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.1 \\ 1 & -0.5 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-15}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1.25 & 0.75 \\ 0.75 & 1.25 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-16}$$

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8944 & 0.4472 \\ 0.4472 & -0.8944 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-17}$$

$$\Pi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1.0362 & -0.1103 \\ -0.1103 & 1.0362 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \Pi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -0.1185 & -0.0039 \\ -0.0039 & -0.1185 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-18}$$

$$\Pi_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0825 & 0.0154 \\ 0.0154 & -0.0825 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \Pi_4 = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0420 & 0.0227 \\ 0.0227 & -0.0420 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-19}$$

$$\Pi_5 = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0115 & 0.0157 \\ 0.0157 & -0.0115 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \Pi_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0043 & 0.0027 \\ 0.0027 & 0.0043 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-20}$$

$$\Pi_7 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0086 & -0.0061 \\ -0.0061 & 0.0086 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \Pi_8 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0066 & -0.0072 \\ -0.0072 & 0.0066 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-21}$$

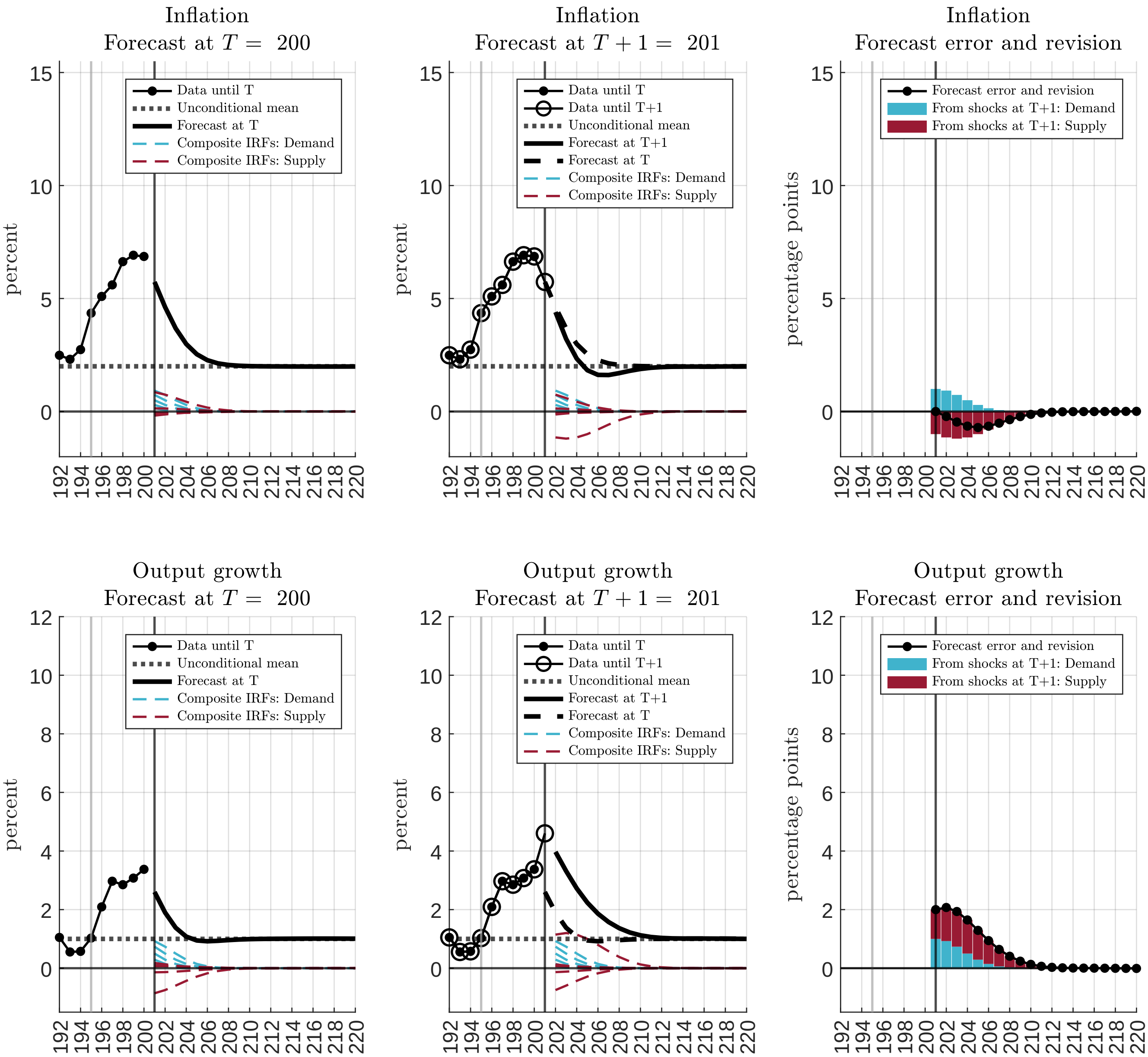
$$\Pi_9 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0026 & -0.0035 \\ -0.0035 & 0.0026 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \Pi_{10} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0007 & 0.0004 \\ 0.0004 & -0.0007 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{A-22}$$

$$\Pi_{11} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0020 & 0.0022 \\ 0.0022 & -0.0020 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \Pi_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0016 & 0.0018 \\ 0.0018 & -0.0016 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{A-23}$$

Last, the constant term were computed as

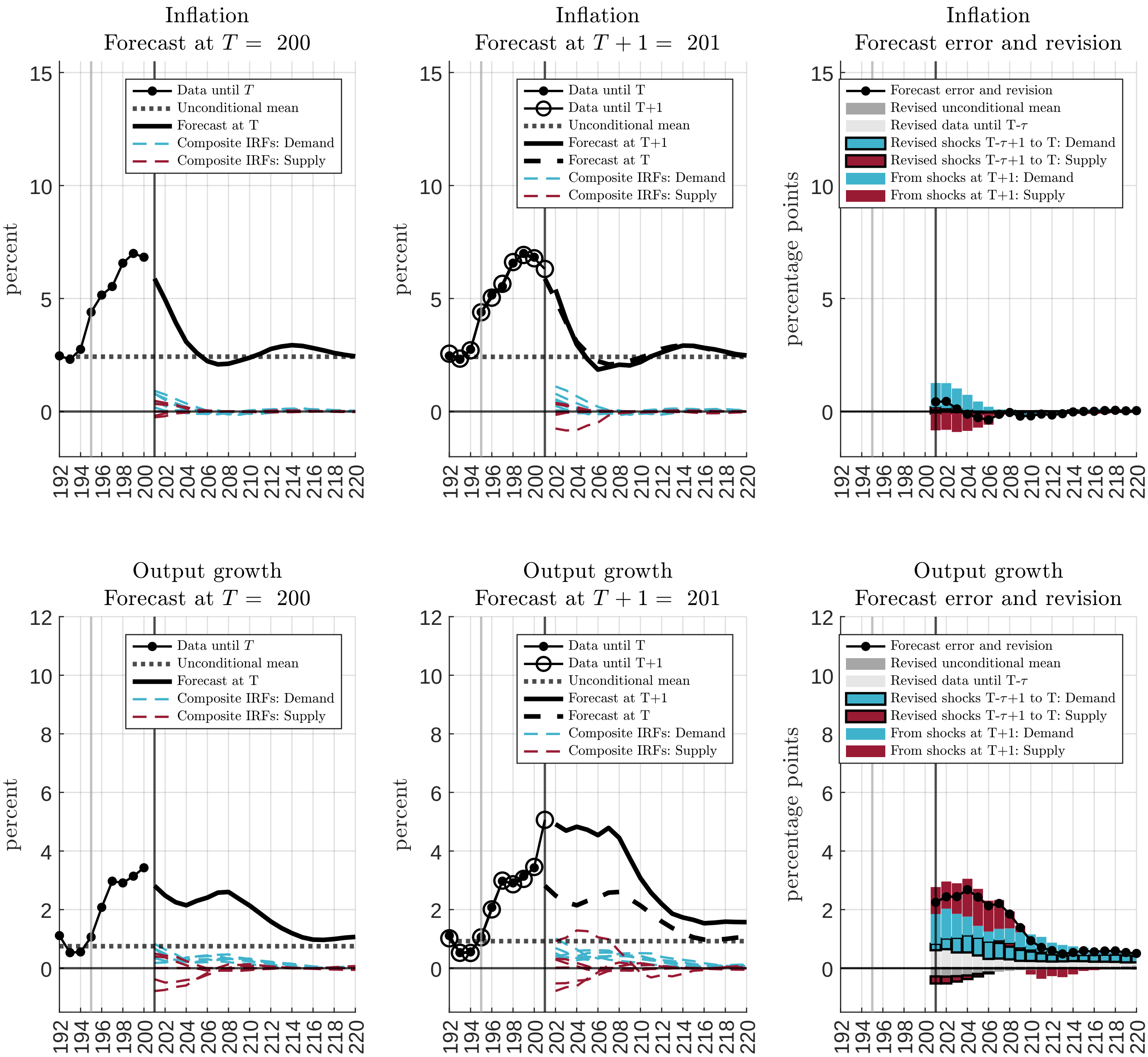
$$\boldsymbol{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.3409 \\ 0.4714 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{A-24}$$

Figure B-1: Illustration with no data revision and true parameters: composite impulse responses



Note: The dashed blue and red lines in the left and middle plots show the individual composite impulse responses for the shocks in each period from $T{-}\tau{+}1$ to either T (left plots) or $T{+}1$ (middle plots). By contrast, Figure 2 in the paper shows the pointwise sum across composite impulse responses.

Figure B-2: Illustration with data revision and estimated parameters: composite impulse responses



Note: The dashed blue and red lines in the left and middle plots show the individual composite impulse responses for the shocks in each period from $T-\tau+1$ to either T (left plots) or $T+1$ (middle plots). By contrast, Figure 2 in the paper shows the pointwise sum across composite impulse responses.

C A comment on changes in sign

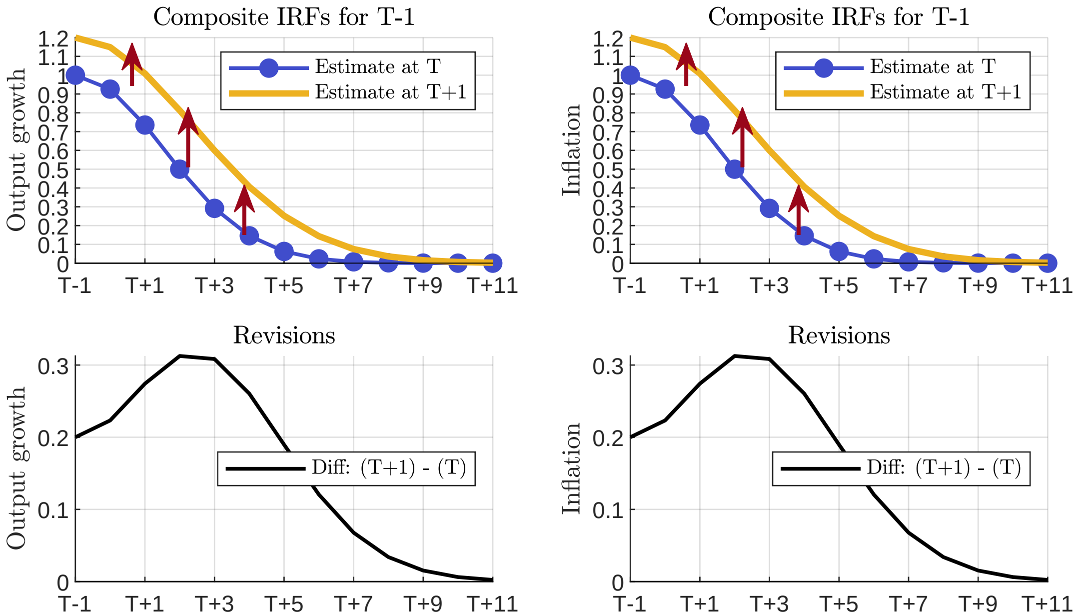
As discussed in the paper, part of the forecast error and forecast revision can be interpreted as the change in the role that the time-T and the time-$T+1$ forecasts associate with shocks before time T. This differential effect is computed as the difference in the impulse responses estimated at time T and at time $T+1$, weighted by the size of the shock that the two forecasts estimate for the period of interest before T. The differential effect of the shocks can follow a very different sign pattern than either of the estimated impulse responses, depending on how the shape of the estimated impulse response chances from T to $T+1$.

As an illustration, suppose for simplicity that the time-T and the time-$T+1$ forecasts are being used to assess the effect that the demand shock at time $T-1$ will still exert on pseudo output and inflation over the course of the forecast horizon. Suppose that both forecasts estimate the size of the shock to equal 1, but the actual estimate of the impulse responses changes across forecasts. Consider the top row of Figure C-3, panel A). The blue dotted line illustrates a simulated impulse response to a demand shock estimated at time T, while the yellow line reports the estimated impulse response from the time-$T+1$ forecast. Both sets of impulse responses imply that a demand shock moves output growth and inflation in the same direction, hence the shock at $T-1$ is found to exert upward pressure on both variables. However, relative to time T, the time-$T+1$ forecast estimates a stronger response of both output growth and inflation. Hence, the contribution of the revision of the shock at time $T-1$ is positive for both output growth and inflation (second row of Figure C-3, panel A).

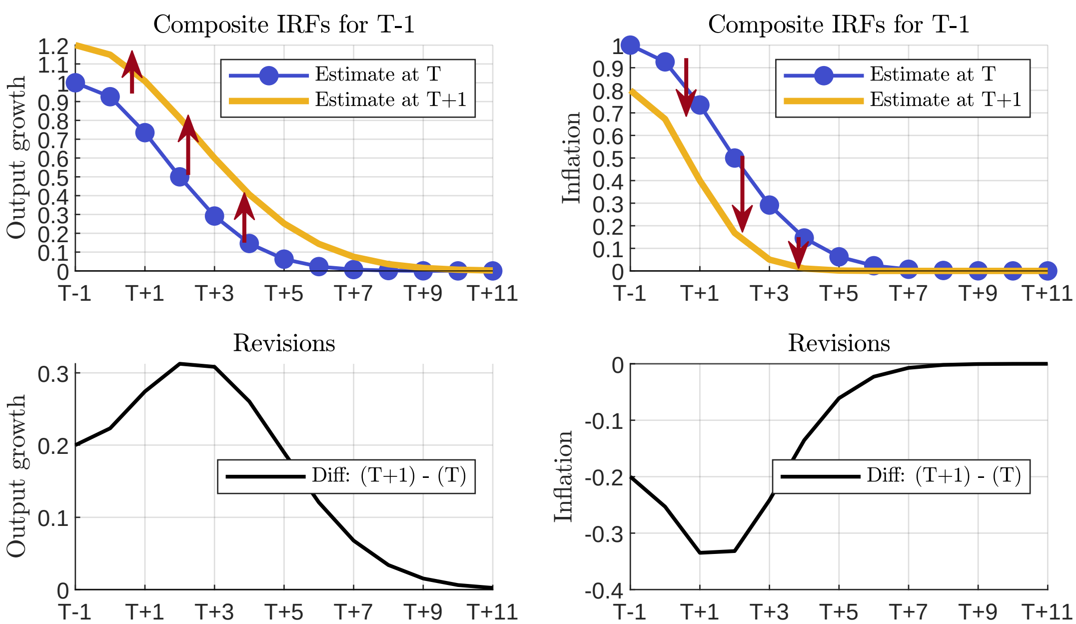
Things are different for Figure C-3, panel B). We still assume that both forecasts estimate the size of the shock at time $T-1$ to equal 1. However, now the forecast at $T+1$ revises upwards the response of output growth upwards, but downwards the response for inflation. While both forecasts still interpret the shock at time $T-1$ as exerting upward pressure on both output growth and inflation, the marginal role attributed to the revision in the estimate of the role of the time-$T-1$ shock is positive for output growth and negative for inflation.

Figure C-3: Illustration of how the revisions in the role of past shocks can feature different signs compared to the underlying impulse responses

A) No change in signs



B) Changes in signs



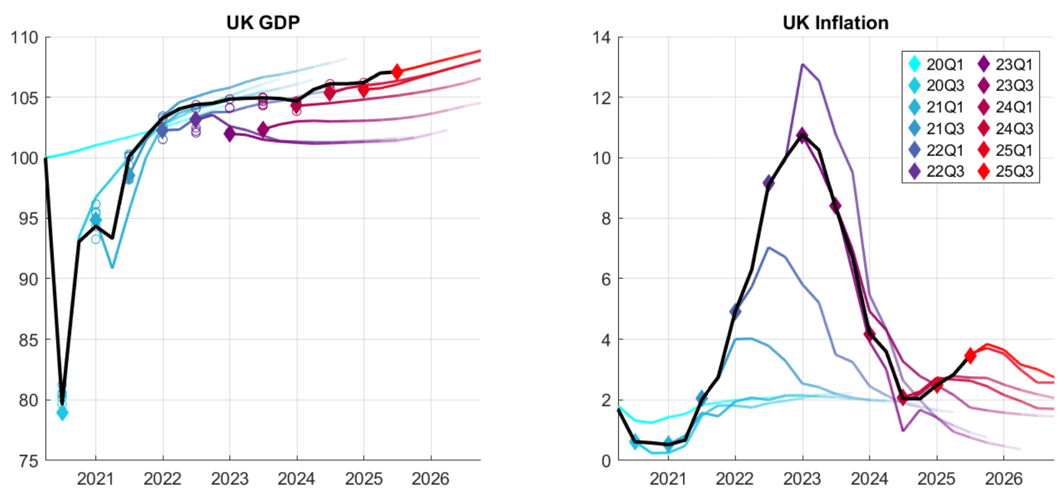
D Additional material for the application in section 4

Table D-1: Identifying restrictions

	Demand	Supply	Energy	Monetary
Bank rate	+			−
Real GDP growth	+	+	+	+
Inflation	+	−	−	+
Real oil prices	+	+	−	+

Note: The rows report model variables, while the columns document the identified shocks. Sign restrictions are introduced only on the impact effect of the shocks.

Figure D-4: Forecast revisions for UK GDP and UK Inflation



Note: Solid lines depict latest data for both UK GDP and UK inflation. The diamonds show the first nowcast for a specific quarters, while the colored shaded lines the related forecast. Finally, the circles exhibit the series of data revisions for a specific quarter.

Figure D-5: IRFs estimated for 2022Q2

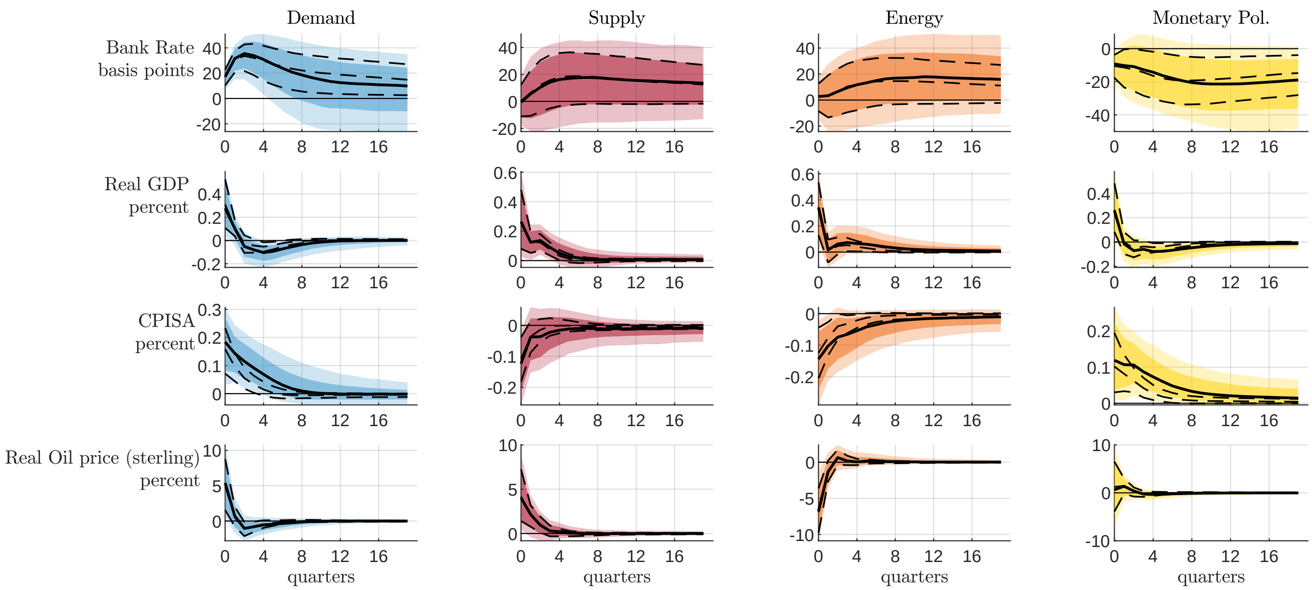
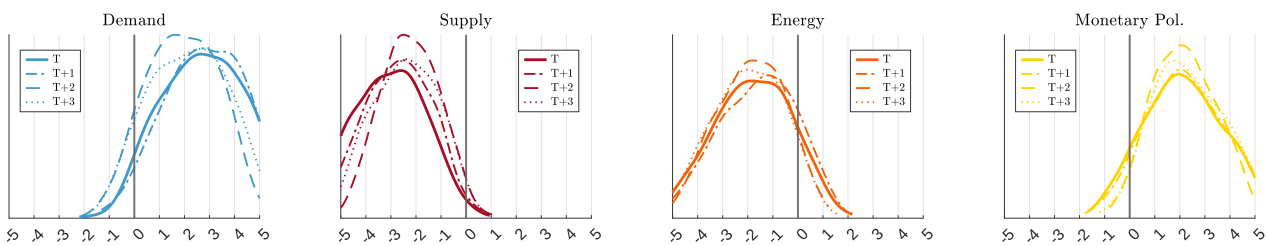
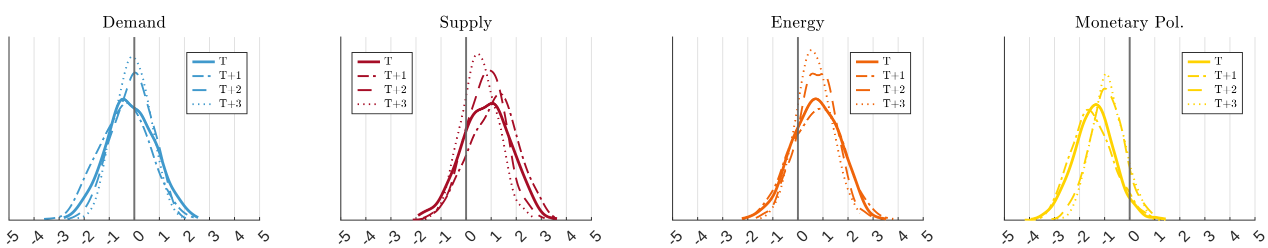


Figure D-6: Estimated structural shocks

A) Shocks in 2022Q2

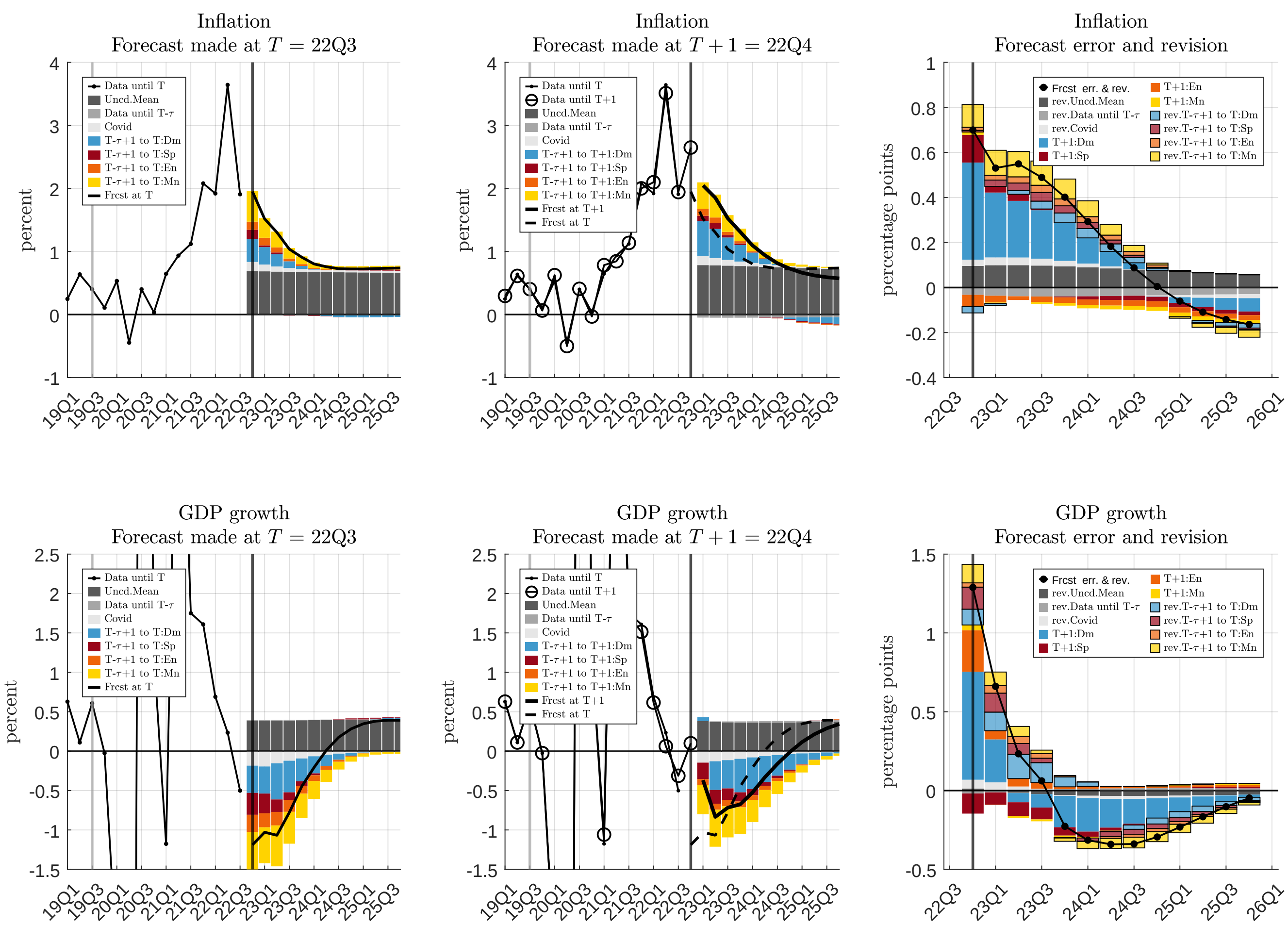


B) Shocks in 2022Q3



Note: The first row shows the marginal posterior distribution of shocks for 2022Q2 estimated over different vintages, with T corresponding to 2022Q2 and $T + h$ the h subsequent quarters. The bottom row shows the same for 2022Q3.

Figure D-7: Forecast analysis for 2022Q4



Note: The left-hand side panels show the forecast at time T (solid line), while the middle panels show the new forecast at time T+1 (solid line) along with the one produced at time T (dashed line). Both forecasts are decomposed into the role of the different components up to time T and T+1 respectively: demand (blue bars), supply (red bars), energy (orange bars), monetary policy shocks (yellow bars) and deterministic component (grey bars). The right-hand side panels plot the marginal difference between the forecasts, along with the contribution of each component.

Figure D-8: Series of the shocks over the last year: 2022Q2

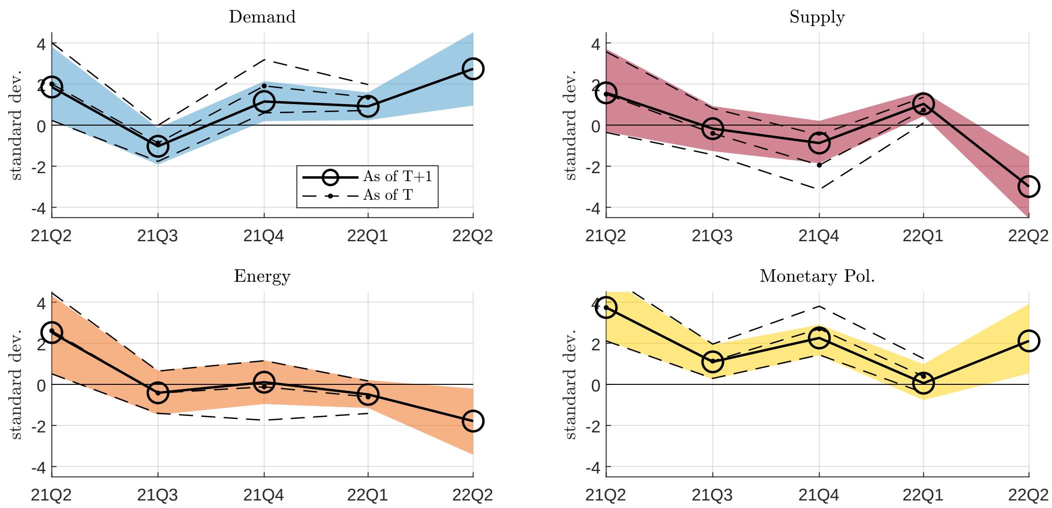


Figure D-9: Series of the shocks over the last year: 2022Q3