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# Factors of predictive power for metal commodities

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# A B S T R A C T

There are numerous forecasting studies on commodity prices using various micro- and macroeconomic indicator sets. However, commodity markets have undergone a substantial transformation in the last 20 years, with periods of the financialization, and possibly also a de-financialization, which should also be reflected in the commodity price forecasts. To identify the changes in price predictors and determinants, we individually forecast 24 metal prices onemonth ahead in the pre- and post financial crisis period, where we identify the autoregressive price components having a large impact across all commodities and periods. However, interest rates are of larger impact in the first sub-sample, whereas commodity- and financial market indices are dominating in the second sub-sample. Further, we perform an out-of-sample forecast over the entire timespan, where we are able to significantly outperform the predefined benchmark forecast models, a random-walk and a random-walk with drift, in 12 of the 24 cases.

# **1. Introduction**

Metals mark a cornerstone for the global economy, for importing and exporting countries alike, see [Byrne](#page-29-0) et al. ([2013\)](#page-29-0) for example, while certain industry sectors require large amounts of specific metals, such as lithium and cobalt within the battery industry. While there are numerous forecasting studies on commodity indices and partly also individual prices, using various microand macroeconomic indicator sets, commodity markets have undergone a substantial transformation within the last 20 years, with periods of the financialization, and possibly also a de-financialization, which should also be reflected in the commodity price forecasts as well.

Through the increased index investments in commodities since the beginning of the millennium, their prices are hypothesized to be closer related to prices of other commodities, as well as to the conditions of financial markets in general, a phenomenon called financialization, see [Cheng](#page-29-1) and Xiong [\(2014](#page-29-1)) for example. Moreover, as the monetary policy changed significantly over the last two decades, from the interest-rates based policy towards unconventional monetary policy in response to the big financial crisis in '07 to '09, so did the policy impact on the determination commodity prices, see [Hammoudeh](#page-29-2) et al. [\(2015](#page-29-2)) for example, while these changes may potentially also affect the forecasting of commodity prices.

The commodities considered in our study include the precious metals gold, silver and platinum, the six industrial metals listed on the London Metal Exchange (LME), as well as 15 minor metals. Our literature review of potential metal price predictors and determinants yields in an initial set of 28 variables, which include micro- and macroeconomic conditions, components extracted from the individual metal price time-series and, where available, the corresponding futures price series, as well as monetary policy measures and exchange rates.

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To analyze the changes in metal markets over time, we initially split our data in two sub-samples, spanning from 01/1995 to 12/2008 and 01/2009 to 12/2019, while we additionally compare our forecasts against predefined benchmarks in the total sample. The individual price predictors and determinants are hereby selected through a two-stage model selection. An initial correlation analysis excludes variables with an absolute Pearson-coefficient smaller than 15% and is followed by a BIC based regression selection, whereby models suffering from multicollinearity are excluded. Through a rolling window estimation of one-month ahead predictive regressions in the total sample, we forecast each commodity individually and compare our results against the random-walk and random-walk with drift benchmark, where we significantly outperform the benchmark for 12 of the 24 commodities. Our results are especially noteworthy for the minor metals, where we exceed the benchmark forecasts for 9 of 15 commodities considered.

Therefore, we contribute to the existing literature in multiple ways. First, we combine numerous micro- and macroeconomic variables in metal-specific predictions, while the previous literature mostly either considers only a selection of the displayed attributes or predicts commodity indices, rather than individual metal prices. Second, we identify the autoregressive price components, represented via the value factor and a lagged price series, as the most important predictor variable across all samples, while its impact is decreasing over time. This is in line with the findings of Gargano and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) ([2014\)](#page-29-3) and [Wang](#page-31-0) et al. [\(2020\)](#page-31-0). Third, we reveal various changes in the metal price predictors over time, such as the commodity indices showing stronger predictive abilities in the second sample, whereas their effect in the price determination largely shifted towards the MSCI world index.

The remainder of this study is structured as follows: Section [2](#page-1-0) provides a literature overview, while Section [3](#page-2-0) displays the data used, followed by the methodology applied in Section [4,](#page-4-0) whereas Section [5](#page-5-0) highlights our empirical findings. Within Section [6](#page-7-0) we analyze the robustness of our findings, which we subsequently discuss in Section [7,](#page-8-0) while Section [8](#page-14-0) concludes.

#### **2. Literature overview**

<span id="page-1-0"></span>The following section provides a short literature overview of the variables considered in metal price forecasts, starting with studies analyzing the predictive and descriptive power of macroeconomic variables, such as exchange rates, inflation measures, monetary policy variables and economic activity indicators. Further, we highlight the relation of commodity prices with financial market variables, as well metal-specific variables, such as the value and momentum factors from the individual price time-series, Futures prices and measures of physical supply and demand.

In their seminal paper, [Chen](#page-29-4) et al. [\(2010](#page-29-4)) argue exchange rates of commodity exporting countries are supposed to adjust to a change in the expectations of future commodity spot prices more quickly than commodity markets themselves. Therefore, the current exchange rates possibly already contain information on the expected future development of commodity prices and hence bear predictive abilities for them. The empirical evidence is mixed, as [Ciner](#page-29-5) [\(2017](#page-29-5)), Gargano and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) ([2014](#page-29-3)) and [Pincheira-](#page-30-0)[Brown](#page-30-0) and Hardy [\(2019](#page-30-0)) do detect significant predictive abilities of exchange rates for commodity prices, while Groen and [Pesenti](#page-29-6) [\(2011\)](#page-29-6) are unable to support such effects.

Further, a high inflation is supposed to raise the prices for all goods and services, hence metal prices should co-move with inflation, potentially with a lag. [Wang](#page-31-0) et al. ([2020\)](#page-31-0) validate this significant positive influence of the inflation in their prediction of precious metal prices, using the U.S. CPI.

Additionally, metal prices should be inversely related to interest rates via various channels. [Frankel](#page-29-7) and Rose ([2010](#page-29-7)) state higher interest rates lead to higher storage costs and therefore a demand decrease. Further, higher rates alter supply as they spark incentives for commodity producers to invest their revenues on capital markets, see [Frankel](#page-29-8) ([2014\)](#page-29-8). Ultimately, both channels should lower prices and hence testify the inverse relation of the variables, while it is empirically supported by the findings of [Guzmán](#page-29-9) and Silva [\(2018\)](#page-29-9), [Pierdzioch](#page-30-1) et al. ([2016\)](#page-30-1) and Baffes and [Savescu](#page-29-10) ([2014\)](#page-29-10), among others. However, as Frankel and [Hardouvelis](#page-29-11) [\(1985](#page-29-11)) and [Frankel](#page-29-7) and Rose ([2010](#page-29-7)) state, markets actually react to changes in monetary policy, where interest rates are only a measure of conventional monetary policy, while the direction and magnitude of the relation depends on the time-period considered, according to [Frankel](#page-29-12) ([2008](#page-29-12)). This may, at least partly, explain why empirically, [Hammoudeh](#page-29-2) et al. [\(2015](#page-29-2)), [Lombardi](#page-30-2) et al. ([2012\)](#page-30-2) and [Nicola](#page-30-3) et [al.](#page-30-3) [\(2016](#page-30-3)) are unable to confirm the inverse relation of interest rates and commodity prices. Therefore, [Frankel](#page-29-7) and Rose [\(2010](#page-29-7)) state the long-term inflation expectation may be a broader monetary policy variable to consider.

Further, the industrial production and economic activity are considered as demand variable in various metal market studies, for the price determination and prediction. Traditionally, many studies use U.S. based data, motivated by the historical importance of the U.S. economy for commodity markets and the availability of data, see Gargano and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) [\(2014](#page-29-3)) and [Issler](#page-30-4) et al. [\(2014](#page-30-4)), for example. However, since the early 2000's, the rising demand for commodities through emerging economies is hypothesized to increasingly influence commodity prices, while data availability for these variables is limited. Therefore, [Kilian](#page-30-5) ([2009\)](#page-30-5) constructs an economic activity index, which is based on various shipping rates, to circumvent the data limitation issues.

[Bakshi](#page-29-13) et al. ([2011](#page-29-13)) test the predictive abilities of the Baltic Dry Index (BDI), which is among the most prominent shipping indices, on stock markets and three commodity indices, identifying it as a significant predictor, while [Guzmán](#page-29-9) and Silva [\(2018](#page-29-9)) validate the predictive abilities of the index for copper prices.

However, since the financialization of commodity markets connected those more closely with other financial markets, the current situation on stock markets might influence commodity markets. Buncic and [Moretto](#page-29-14) [\(2015](#page-29-14)) therefore use the S&P 500 as predictor variable for copper prices in their study, while their additional predictors, as well as their respective sign of the coefficients, varies over time. Similarly, [Cifuentes](#page-29-15) et al. [\(2020](#page-29-15)) detect a significant effect of the NASDAQ Emerging Markets Index on the risk premium of copper futures contracts, across all analyzed maturities.

In addition to all previously mentioned attributes, further time-series measures have been created, which are hypothesized to predict future price movements within markets. [Asness](#page-28-0) et al. [\(2013](#page-28-0)) transferred the idea of the value factor, initially proposed by Fama and [French](#page-29-16) ([1992\)](#page-29-16) for stock markets, as well as the momentum factor, to commodity markets and hereby increase the portfolio performance when the selection is based on the value or momentum factor, respectively. [Lutzenberger](#page-30-6) et al. [\(2017](#page-30-6)) include these factors as predictors for the spot prices of 30 metals, where they detect high predictive abilities for both variables.

Since in theory the prices of futures contracts should include information about the future spot prices, numerous studies analyze the impact of the futures prices on commodity spot prices, see Chinn and [Coibion](#page-29-17) [\(2014](#page-29-17)) and [Hamilton](#page-29-18) and Wu [\(2015](#page-29-18)) for example, whereas the empirical evidence of their predictive content is rather limited. However, [Boons](#page-29-19) and Prado [\(2019](#page-29-19)) calculate a momentum factor on futures prices, called basis-momentum, and are able to forecast returns of portfolios from a broader set of commodities, specifically the energy and soft commodities, industrial materials such as cotton, rubber and timber, as well as metals. Further, [Fernandez](#page-29-20) ([2020\)](#page-29-20) identifies strong out-of-sample predictive content of the convenience yield for future mineral spot prices. [Bernard](#page-29-21) et al. [\(2008](#page-29-21)) conclude the same for aluminum, although their measure of the convenience yield is different.

Another, quite large strand in the commodity forecasting literature, focuses on the individual time-series of commodity prices. Buncic and [Moretto](#page-29-14) ([2015\)](#page-29-14), for example, include the time-series data of the copper price in their framework, while [Gargano](#page-29-3) and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) ([2014\)](#page-29-3) find the strongest out-of-sample prediction results for a simple AR(1) model. Likewise, [Wang](#page-31-0) et al. [\(2020](#page-31-0)) compare forecasts generated with help of technical indicators, such as momentum factors and moving averages for example. Hereby, they highlight the superior forecast abilities of technical indicators, when compared to traditional economic forecasts.

While many of the above mentioned determinants aim to represent the demand for commodities, a good's price is generally assumed as the result of a supply–demand equilibrium. Therefore, also the physical supply and demand of a commodity should, a least partly, determine and potentially predict fluctuations of individual commodity prices, especially at medium- and long-term horizons, according to [Guzmán](#page-29-9) and Silva [\(2018\)](#page-29-9), while the impact of the variables changes within their study, depending on the time-period analyzed. [Ahumada](#page-28-1) and Cornejo [\(2014](#page-28-1)) focus on supply fluctuations, where they detect a significant effect in the price determination. Since the production of metals is very energy intense, see [Vansteenkiste](#page-31-1) ([2009\)](#page-31-1) for example, oil can be regarded as an input factor for the production and hence a supply variable, rather than a commodity itself. In general, higher energy prices, approximated by the price of oil, are hypothesized to drive metal prices up, see [Akram](#page-28-2) [\(2009](#page-28-2)) for example, while their findings are not statistically significant in this respect. In contrast, [Sari](#page-30-7) et al. ([2010\)](#page-30-7) detect a positive, statistically significant response of gold, silver and platinum spot prices to a shock in oil prices. However, the oil price may also be regarded as an indicator for the stance of the global economy and hence may be interpreted as economic activity indicator as well.

Overall, there is a vast amount of potential predictors for commodity prices, originating from macroeconomic, financial and microeconomic backgrounds, while the effects discovered vary largely between different periods analyzed. Buncic and [Moretto](#page-29-14) [\(2015\)](#page-29-14) detect changes in the predictors for copper prices over time, while [Guzmán](#page-29-9) and Silva [\(2018\)](#page-29-9) show differences in the price determinants for the metal, where the financial market indices show more significant effects in the most recent sub-sample. The same holds for the impact of interest rate changes on the commodity price determination, where the effects either vanish or change signs, depending on the time-period considered, according to [Frankel](#page-29-12) [\(2008](#page-29-12)). Our study contributes to the literature by combining a large set of these variables for metal-specific forecasts, while analyzing the variation of the significant predictors and determinants over time.

#### **3. Data**

<span id="page-2-0"></span>For the analysis of metal markets, we consider three precious metals, the six LME industrial metals, as well as fifteen further minor metals, as displayed in [Table](#page-23-0) [10](#page-23-0). Hereby, the selection of minor metals is primarily based on the availability of historical monthly price series, while we generally use log returns as dependent variable. An overview of the price and potential predictor variables' data sources can be found within [Appendix](#page-15-0) [B,](#page-15-0) while the adjustment of the variables is outlined within [Appendix](#page-15-1) [A.](#page-15-1)

#### *3.1. Metal-specific predictors*

In the following, we display all metal-specific price predictors, while we only outline the formulas for the variables that are based on our own calculations. Hereby, we include the metal-specific worldwide primary production, as provided by U.S. [Geological](#page-31-2) [Survey](#page-31-2) [\(2019](#page-31-2)), as supply variable and the metal's demand by its global apparent consumption, which we obtain by adjusting the U.S. apparent consumption, drawn from U.S. [Geological](#page-31-3) Survey [\(2020](#page-31-3)), by a conversion ratio of the U.S. GDP to the World GDP for the industrial sector. $<sup>1</sup>$  $<sup>1</sup>$  $<sup>1</sup>$ </sup>

Additionally, we represent the production concentration of the supply side as a risk measure, via the Herfindahl–Hirschman-Index (HHI):

<span id="page-2-1"></span>
$$
HHI_{i,t} = 10000 \cdot \sum_{r=1}^{R} \left( \frac{prod_{i,t,r}}{\sum_{r=1}^{R} prod_{i,t,r}} \right)^{2},\tag{1}
$$

 $1$  Since the data for the U.S. GDP of the industrial sector is only available from 1997 onward, we extended the series backwards for the years 1995 and 1996 with the conversion ratio of 1997. While this procedure considers forward looking data, it is not as problematic in this analysis, as the respective data points are not within the out-of-sample window of the prediction part of this study.

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with  $\text{prod}_{i,t} = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \text{prod}_{i,t,r}$  representing the production for metal *i* at time  $t = 1, ..., T$ , for all production countries  $r = 1, ..., R$ , whereby the production data is the per country breakdown of our supply variable, as provided in the annual U.S. Geological Survey Minerals Yearbooks, see U.S. [Geological](#page-31-2) Survey ([2019\)](#page-31-2).

As metal-specific financial variables, regarded as technical indicators by [Wang](#page-31-0) et al. [\(2020](#page-31-0)), we consider the value and momentum factor, as proposed by [Asness](#page-28-0) et al. ([2013\)](#page-28-0). The value factor of commodity  $i$  at time  $t$  is defined as the log of the average spot price from 4.5 to 5.5 years ago,  $\overline{price_i}$ , divided by the most recent spot price:

$$
VAL_{i,t} = \ln\left(\frac{\overline{price}_{i,t}}{\overline{price}_{i,t}}\right).
$$
 (2)

As all predictor variables are lagged one-month in the empirical application of our prediction framework, only the value factor  $VAL_{i,i-1}$  is used for the price prediction at time t.

The momentum factor of commodity *i* at time *t* is measured as the cumulative raw return,<sup>[2](#page-3-0)</sup> of the past 12 months for each metal, while neglecting the most recent month's return  $return_{i+1}$ :

<span id="page-3-0"></span>
$$
MOM_{i,t} = \prod_{\overline{i}=2}^{12} (1 + return_{i,t-\overline{i}}) - 1.
$$
 (3)

It is constructed to represent current market dynamics and measures, as its name indicates, the momentum of the price series. Since we use our data set for a forecast exercise of future spot prices, we include the first-running futures contract as predictor for the future spot prices as well.

Moreover, following the theory of storage, as described in Fama and [French](#page-29-22) [\(1988](#page-29-22)) and [Fernandez](#page-29-20) ([2020\)](#page-29-20), we approximate the benefit of physically holding a metal via the interest-adjusted basis, which we define as:

$$
CY_{i,t} = SIR_t - \frac{1}{T_1 - t} \ln \left( \frac{FUT_{i,t}}{price_{i,t}} \right),\tag{4}
$$

with  $SIR_t$  denoting the 3-Month U.S. Treasury Rate and  $FUT_{i,t}$  the three-month futures contract, which is, according to [Table](#page-24-0) [11](#page-24-0), the first-running contract  $FUT1_{it}$  for the industrial metals, while it represents the second running futures contract  $FUT2_{it}$  for silver and gold.<sup>[3](#page-3-1)</sup> As for the value factor, only the lagged interest-adjusted basis is used in the price prediction, hence the price prediction is not compromised by information of leading data.

<span id="page-3-1"></span>Further, we consider the basis-momentum factor of [Boons](#page-29-19) and Prado ([2019\)](#page-29-19), representing a risk component that originates from speculators and financial market participants, defined as the difference between the momentum of the first- and second-running futures contracts,  $FUT1_i$ , and  $FUT2_i$ .

$$
BM_{i,t} = \prod_{i=2}^{12} (1 + return_{FUT1_{i,t-i}}) - \prod_{i=2}^{12} (1 + return_{FUT2_{i,t-i}})
$$
\n(5)

#### *3.2. Macroeconomic and financial market predictors*

Additionally, we consider a broad set of macroeconomic and financial market variables, as displayed in [Table](#page-24-1) [12.](#page-24-1) For interest rates, we include the federal funds rate and the 3-Month U.S. Treasury Rate as U.S. short-term interest rates, as well as the 10-Year U.S. Treasury Rate as U.S. long-term interest rate. Motivated by the rapid growth of the Chinese economy and its importance for the worldwide metal supply and demand, we add the Chinese 3-Month Interbank interest rate and the 10-Year Government bond rate. Further, we include the U.S. term spread as reverse crisis indicator, which, once decreasing, should cause commodity prices to rise, due to the inverse relationship of interest rates and commodity prices, see [Idilbi-Bayaa](#page-29-23) and Qadan [\(2021](#page-29-23)) for example. To account for the impact of both conventional and unconventional monetary policy actions, we additionally include the WuXia shadow rate, as well as further variables that we hypothesize to represent the unconventional monetary policy actions. These include and an inflation expectation index, the balance sheet size of the federal reserve, the monetary base and the broad monetary aggregate M4, which specifically represents the assets included in the asset purchases, see [Keating](#page-30-8) et al. [\(2019](#page-30-8)). As commodities are quoted in U.S. Dollar on exchanges, we include the U.S. Dollar index as exchange rate measure.

To represent the overall demand for commodities, we include the U.S. industrial production, as well as the equivalent worldwide measure and the corresponding Chinese variable.

Subsequently, to gauge the stance of economy, we include the U.S. Gross Domestic Product and the U.S. Consumer Price Index as an inflation measure, while we represent the worldwide economy via the economic activity indicator of [Kilian](#page-30-5) ([2009\)](#page-30-5), which is based on various shipping rates. As metal markets are globalized, with different locations of mining, manufacturing, trading and consumption, we include the Baltic Dry Index, which represents a measure of the current, global freight rates.

 $2$  In accordance to the calculations performed in the initial paper of [Asness](#page-28-0) et al. ([2013](#page-28-0)) we use regular first differences of the monthly metal price as return series in this case.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Due to limited data availability and the monthly frequency of our analysis, we neglect the storage costs and rely on the interest-adjusted basis, rather than the convenience yield. Moreover, as the time span of data availability of the second futures contract of platinum is very limited, we base the interest-adjusted basis calculations on the first running, one-month contract in this case, where we consider the 1-month LIBOR as interest rate.

Additionally, we include the WTI crude oil price as production input variable on the one hand side, see [Akram](#page-28-2) ([2009\)](#page-28-2) and [Baffes](#page-28-3) [\(2007\)](#page-28-3) for reference, and as an additional macroeconomic indicator on the other hand side, see [Kilian](#page-30-5) [\(2009\)](#page-30-5).

Moreover, as well as the Bloomberg commodity index and the metals' sub-index of the Rogers International Commodity Index, the total return RICI metals index. To account for the effects of financial markets on commodity prices, we further include the Morgan Stanley Capital International world index, as well as the Standard and Poor's 500, which represents the stock prices of the 500 largest U.S. companies.

All data is averaged to monthly frequency in the period from 01/1995 until 12/2019 and checked for stationarity via an ADF-test, see [Appendix](#page-15-1) [A](#page-15-1) for further details.

#### **4. Methodology**

<span id="page-4-0"></span>To forecast the returns for commodity  $i = 1, ..., N$  at time  $t + 1$ , we use a linear regression model, defined as:

<span id="page-4-1"></span>
$$
y_{i,t+1} = \beta_{i,0} + \beta_{i,1} x_{i,1,t} + \dots + \beta_{i,K_i} x_{i,K_i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t+1}
$$
\n
$$
(6)
$$

where  $\beta_{i,0}$  denotes the intercept,  $\beta_{i,1}, \ldots, \beta_{i,K_i}$  are the coefficients corresponding to the  $K_i$  commodity-specific covariates  $X_{i,1}, \ldots, X_{i,K_i}$ and  $\varepsilon_{i,t+1}$  is the error term.

Due to the wide range of possible input variables in conjunction with limited data availability, we first select the optimal set of covariates for each commodity, prior to forecasting their returns. Therefore, we perform a two-stage model selection. First, we focus on the factors with an absolute correlation higher than a predefined threshold, 0.1 in our case. Second, we choose the optimal covariates among the remaining attributes via the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Hereby, we estimate the linear model in Eq. ([6](#page-4-1)) on the in-sample set for each possible combination of input variables, which does not suffer from the issue of multicollinearity. Then, we choose the model which performs best by the BIC.

As in-sample predictability may occur spuriously and may not be able to hold for out-of-sample forecasts, we base our evaluation only on out-of-sample data. Therefore, we split the data set with observations  $t \in \{1, ..., T+1\}$  in the in-sample set with observations  $t \in \{1, \ldots, R\}$  and the out-of-sample set with observations  $t+1 \in \{R+1, \ldots, R+P\}$ , with  $R+P=T+1$ , where in the empirical section we apply  $R/(R+P) = 3/4$ . Knowing the best input variables for each commodity, we can forecast the returns 1-step ahead by an rolling window procedure. In particular, for each time in the out-of-sample set  $\tau \in \{1, \ldots, P\}$ , which corresponds to  $t+1 \in \{R+1, \ldots, R+P\}$ , we estimate the parameters of the linear regression model in Eq. [\(6\)](#page-4-1) via OLS, using the covariates specified by the model selection  $(X_{i,1},\ldots,X_{i,K_i})$  with observations in the set  $\{\tau,\ldots,t-1\}$ . Knowing the estimators of the parameters  $\hat{\beta}_{i,0,t},\hat{\beta}_{i,1,t},\ldots,\hat{\beta}_{K_i,0,t}$ , we predict the return of commodity  $i = 1, ..., N$  in period  $t + 1$  using the values of the covariates  $x_{i,1,t}, ..., x_{i,K_i,t}$  at time  $t$ .

We assess the predictive power of our model in comparison to two benchmark models: First, the random walk (rw) without drift, corresponding to the following model:

$$
y_{i,t+1} = \varepsilon_{i,t+1},\tag{7}
$$

with  $E[y_{i,i+1}] = E[\varepsilon_{i,i+1}] = 0$ . Second, the random walk with drift (rwd):

<span id="page-4-3"></span><span id="page-4-2"></span>
$$
y_{i,t+1} = \beta_{i,0} + \varepsilon_{i,t+1}.\tag{8}
$$

Hereby,  $E[y_{i,t+1}] = E[\beta_{i,0} + \varepsilon_{i,t+1}] = \beta_{i,0}$  holds. Similar to our model, we estimate the benchmark models given in Eqs. [\(7\)](#page-4-2) and ([8](#page-4-3)) by OLS using the observations  $\{y_{\tau},..., y_{t}\}$  for  $t \in \{R,...,T\}$  to get the predictions  $\hat{y}_{t+1}$ .

The comparison of our models with the benchmark models is based on the measures Mean Squared Prediction Error (MSPE) and Mean Absolute Prediction Error (MAPE), defined as:

$$
MSPE = P^{-1} \sum_{t=R}^{T} (y_{t+1} - \hat{y}_{t+1})^2, \, MAPE = P^{-1} \sum_{t=R}^{T} |y_{t+1} - \hat{y}_{t+1}| \tag{9}
$$

where  $\hat{y}_{t+1}$  denotes the predicted return. In addition, following [Issler](#page-30-4) et al. [\(2014](#page-30-4)) we apply the [Clark](#page-29-24) and West ([2007\)](#page-29-24)'s tests for equal predictive accuracy. This test corrects for additional noise caused by estimating parameters whose population values are zero.

The null assumes that our unrestricted model, denoted by model 2, includes excess parameters, whereas in the alternative hypothesis the restricted model 1, the benchmark, underperforms in terms of MSPE. Due to the excess noise in the MSPE of model 2, caused by the additional parameters, whose population values are zero, the MSPE of model 1 is expected to be smaller. Therefore, [Clark](#page-29-24) and West [\(2007\)](#page-29-24) propose to adjust the MSPE of model 2 as follows:

$$
MSPE_{2,adj} = MSPE_2 - adj_2 = P^{-1} \sum_{t=R}^{T} (y_{t+1} - \hat{y}_{2,t+1})^2 - P^{-1} \sum_{t=R}^{T} (\hat{y}_{1,t+1} - \hat{y}_{2,t+1})^2.
$$
\n(10)

Then, under the null,  $MSPE_1 - MSPE_{2,adj}$  equals zero, which can be tested by a t-test using 1.645 as critical value, proposed by [Clark](#page-29-24) and West [\(2007\)](#page-29-24) as 95% quantile.

In addition, we also compare our forecasts against a third, AR(1) benchmark, which represents the metals' last month's return as a predictor for the current return. Hereby, the forecast performance in comparison to the AR benchmark is not checked for statistical significance, as the Clark–West test requires the benchmark model to be a nested version of the analyzed model, which is not the case for this benchmark.

# **5. Empirical results**

<span id="page-5-0"></span>To analyze how the changes in commodity markets affect the individual price predictors of metals, we perform an analysis for sub-sample one with data from 1995 until 2008, as well as the second sub-sample spanning from 2009 to 2019, where the variable ordering within Section [5.1](#page-5-1) is based on the relevance of the predictors. However, as both sub-samples are too short to generate enough out-of sample points for a valid statistical analysis of the forecast performance, we rely on the interpretation of the in-sample estimated  $\beta$ -coefficients in this case.<sup>[4](#page-5-2)</sup> Additionally, within Section [5.2](#page-7-1) we perform an out-of sample forecast for the total-sample, covering the period 1995 to 2019 and compare these results to the benchmark forecasts.

#### <span id="page-5-2"></span>*5.1. Predictor analysis*

<span id="page-5-3"></span><span id="page-5-1"></span>First and foremost, we reveal the value factor and lagged price series as the most influential predictors, across all samples and in line with the findings of [Asness](#page-28-0) et al. [\(2013\)](#page-28-0) and Gargano and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) ([2014\)](#page-29-3), see [Table](#page-6-0) [1,](#page-6-0) [Table](#page-17-0) [3](#page-17-0) and [Table](#page-20-0) [6.](#page-20-0) [5](#page-5-3)

When comparing the influence across the samples, we observe the value factor partly looses its predictive abilities in the second sub-sample, with the inclusion in only four models, in comparison to the eight models in the sub-sample one, see [Table](#page-6-0) [1](#page-6-0) and [Table](#page-17-0) [3.](#page-17-0) We attribute this change to the development and data quality of the minor metal markets, which now relates them closer to macroeconomic and financial market conditions, while simultaneously reducing the idiosyncratic component included within each series. However, the value factor still remains an important predictor, while the historic price-series' impact remains unchanged, where it also marks the most important price determinant in both sub-samples.

The four monetary policy variables U.S. monetary base, the federal funds rate, the WuXia shadow rate, and the M4 are included in several prediction models in the first sample, where the federal funds rate, and partly the WuXia rate show a positive sign, while the monetary base and the M4 show a negative one. This is mostly against the hypothesized direction of relation by [Frankel](#page-29-7) and [Rose](#page-29-7) [\(2010](#page-29-7)), but in line with the empirical findings of [Anzuini](#page-28-4) et al. [\(2013](#page-28-4)) and [Hammoudeh](#page-29-2) et al. ([2015\)](#page-29-2). In the second sample, the 3-Month U.S. interest rate is a significant predictor for four of the six industrial metals, with the negative sign that is imposed by the theory. Moreover, the shadow rate of Wu [and](#page-31-4) Xia [\(2016\)](#page-31-4) is now included in three models, with the hypothesized negative sign, which is in line with theory, as the rate represents conventional and unconventional measures of monetary policy simultaneously.

Moreover, the Bloomberg commodity index, as well as the S&P 500 are included in four and two models respectively within the first sample, always with a positive sign. This is attributable to the co-movement in commodity prices, where a rise in one commodity price leads to an increase in another commodity as well, as well as the integration of metals with financial markets, which is in line with the findings of Basak and [Pavlova](#page-29-25) ([2016\)](#page-29-25). For the second sample, the predictive component of the Bloomberg commodity index seems to have shifted to the RICI metals index, which is now included in six models. The MSCI world index shows strong price determining capabilities, especially in the second sub-sample.

The U.S. GDP is a predictor for platinum, as well as the industrial metals aluminum and copper in the first sample, which is in line with the hypothesized direction of relation, while the variable looses the predictive abilities in the second sample. The high, corresponding beta coefficients of this variable relate to variables' very small changes, as can also be seen in [Table](#page-25-0) [13.](#page-25-0) Additionally, the interest-adjusted basis, as well as the futures prices, are each included within three and two models respectively, with both variables showing less inclusions in the second sample.

The Baltic dry index, which was excluded in the first sub-sample, due to a shortened data availability, is among the most important predictors in the second sub-sample, but included as a determinant only in one model, highlighting the forward looking characteristics of the index, which is in line with the findings of [Bakshi](#page-29-13) et al. ([2011\)](#page-29-13) and [Guzmán](#page-29-9) and Silva ([2018\)](#page-29-9). Moreover, the metal-specific demand variable is a more important predictor in the second sub-sample, where in all cases the sign is negative, which is in contrast to the theoretical relation, where demand increases should cause rising prices.

While the U.S. Dollar exchange rate has little to no predictive content, it acts as a price determinant for numerous commodities, across all samples and always with a negative sign, see [Table](#page-16-0) [2](#page-16-0) , [Table](#page-18-0) [4](#page-18-0) and [Table](#page-21-0) [7.](#page-21-0) This is in contrast to previous findings within the literature, where exchange rates are hypothesized to be strong predictors of commodity prices, see [Chen](#page-29-4) et al. ([2010\)](#page-29-4) and partly (Gargano & [Timmermann](#page-29-3), [2014](#page-29-3)). However, the differences most likely originate from the scope our exchange rate variable covers, where the U.S. Dollar index is a rather general, broad measure, while studies like [Chen](#page-29-4) et al. ([2010\)](#page-29-4), [Ciner](#page-29-5) ([2017\)](#page-29-5), [Gargano](#page-29-3) and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) [\(2014](#page-29-3)) and [Pincheira-Brown](#page-30-0) and Hardy ([2019\)](#page-30-0) focus on the Dollar exchange rates of small, commodity exporting economies, like Chile and South Africa, for example.

While the CPI has comparably poor predictive content, a rising inflation leads to contemporaneously rising commodity prices, which is in line with the theory, see [Frankel](#page-29-7) and Rose ([2010\)](#page-29-7) for example.

The interest-adjusted basis also looses some of its descriptive characteristics in the second sample, as does the monetary base, while for the latter the effect probably loads onto the inflation expectation index and the balance sheet size of the FED, which both have been excluded from the sub-sample one, due to shortened data availability. The interest-adjusted basis effect possibly vanishes with modern markets being more often in Contango, caused by the pressure of long-term investors.

<sup>4</sup> Our regressions are generally based on Newey–West estimators to obtain robust standard errors.

<sup>5</sup> Hereby, we exclude the variables of the shaded columns from this analysis, due to the shortened data availability and hence potential biases in the parameter estimation. Due to the short time-series for the second futures contract of platinum, we exclude the corresponding basis-momentum factor from all models and sub-periods.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

This take due to a memory from the confidents and corresponding p-values of the metal price predictors in the 2008-sample, as well as the respective adjusted R'. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*\*), 1% (\*)

 $\overline{a}$ 

The remaining covariates are included in one or no model, which is why we neglect them from further analysis and interpretation. However, when generally analyzing the results within [Table](#page-6-0) [1,](#page-6-0) we see the sign of the  $\beta$ -coefficients is mostly equal across all metals, indicating the stability of the relations modeled within this prediction analysis.

Although the  $Adj$ . $R^2$  is not the appropriate measure to evaluate true forecast performance, we rely on it in the comparison between the sub-samples, as the only ten years of data in the sub-sample two make an evaluation of the out-of-sample predictions infeasible. Hereby, we detect, on average and especially in the minor metals sector, a lower  $Adj.R^2$  in sub-sample two, underlining the further state of development within metal markets.

In general, the  $Adj$ . $R^2$  values are, obviously, substantially larger in the price determination models for all industrial and precious metals, in comparison to the prediction models. For the minor metal markets, the relation is the other way round, where changes in the covariates are priced with a lag, which we attribute to the market efficiency and speed of markets. For minor metals, the spot markets are most likely less developed, in comparison to the LME and precious metal markets. Hence, changes in economic conditions are priced with a lag, which enables the prediction of these prices based on current economic and financial covariates. Additionally, the minor metals seem to bear a larger idiosyncratic component within each price series, which makes the value factor and the lagged price so influential in the price prediction.

#### *5.2. Forecast comparison*

<span id="page-7-1"></span>Finally, we model all available data in our total model, where we split the data in an in-sample and out-of-sample part by a 3:1 ratio, to evaluate the oos-forecast improvements our models generate, in comparison to the benchmark models. Hereby, we are able to outperform the random-walk and random-walk with drift benchmark models in all of the six cases for the three precious metals, while only the forecast improvement for platinum is statistically significant, based on the ten percent level and compared against the RWD benchmark, see [Table](#page-19-0) [5](#page-19-0). In general, while the RW and the RWD benchmark models perform comparable, the AR benchmark performs substantially worse on average.

<span id="page-7-2"></span>Further, we outperform the two above mentioned benchmark models in ten of the twelve cases for the six industrial metals, while the forecast improvements are statistically significant in six cases, for both benchmarks and the metals nickel, tin and zinc, based on the five percent level, while the three metals are among the smaller markets of the industrial metals, see [London](#page-30-9) Metal [Exchange](#page-30-9) [\(2019](#page-30-9)).<sup>[6](#page-7-2)</sup> Turning our attention to the fifteen minor metals, we are able to significantly outperform the benchmarks in 18 of the 30 cases, which correspond to the metals bismuth, cadmium, chromium, gallium, indium, lithium, antimony, vanadium, and tungsten. However, for germanium our model is identical to the benchmark model, as none of the potential predictors is selected by our model selection approach.

Overall, the analysis performed within this study reveals the significant forecast improvements through a metal-specific variable selection. Hereby, especially metals of the minor and industrial metal group show predictability. However, over time the predictability of prices seems to be decreasing, as indicated by the lower  $Adj.R^2$  values in the second sub-sample, while the autoregressive component within each price series still seems to be the most important predictor. Moreover, we do find numerous changes in the predictors and determinants of prices over time. That is, the commodity indices show stronger predictive abilities in the second sample, whereas their effect in the price determination mostly shifted towards the MSCI world index, indicating the financialization of modern commodity markets. Additionally, the monetary policy variables of predictive power, especially for the industrial metals, also changed, from the federal funds rate in the first sub-sample to the WuXia shadow rate and the U.S. long term interest rate in the second sample.

## **6. Robustness**

<span id="page-7-0"></span>To validate the robustness of our results, we start by using a lasso regression model as variable selection, in contrast to our regular, complete enumeration procedure. Moreover, we analyze the importance of each predictor via shuffle analysis, while we additionally evaluate the changes in forecast performance over time via the fluctuation test of [Giacomini](#page-29-26) and Rossi [\(2010](#page-29-26)).

#### *6.1. Lasso model selection*

As a robustness test, we compare our base variable selection against the selection through a Lasso regression, while this test is performed for the price predictors in the total sample. Hereby, we notice a significantly larger amount of selected variables overall, compared to the sparse selection via the complete enumeration procedure we apply in the main section of our study. However, the relatively large p-values of those additionally selected variables, as displayed in [Table](#page-22-0) [8,](#page-22-0) indicate the importance of those predictors in the initial in-sample set does not hold for the out-of-sample period. This is further underlined by the prediction error ratios, as displayed in [Table](#page-23-1) [9](#page-23-1), where we see only eleven significant forecast improvements, compared to the twelve via the complete enumeration variable selection. Hereby, the models for tin and chrome are no longer able to significantly outperform the benchmark models, while the gold forecast is now additionally beating the benchmark forecast.

Turning our attention to the individual variables, we see, consistent to our main results, the value factor and the historical price remain the most important predictors. However, the U.S. monetary base, the M4 and the GDP variable are also selected numerous

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The significance of the forecast improvement is hereby evaluated in comparison to the RW and RWD benchmark models, as the test of [Clark](#page-29-24) and West [\(2007\)](#page-29-24) requires the benchmark to be a nested version of the tested model, which is not the case for our AR benchmark.



**Fig. 1.** Results of the Fluctuation Test by [Giacomini](#page-29-26) and Rossi [\(2010\)](#page-29-26).

<span id="page-8-2"></span>times via this procedure, as are the commodity price- and financial market indices, In contrast the futures prices, the interest-adjusted basis, the interest rates as well as the industrial production variables show little to no influence at all. Overall, the results of this robustness analysis testify the importance of the truly important predictors, which are selected via either variable selection, the historical price data and the monetary policy variables.

#### *6.2. Shuffle analysis*

In this subsection, we aim to verify the importance of the individual metal price predictors via a shuffle analysis, which we base on our total-sample. Therefore, we lag each predictor variable randomly between three and eight months, and perform the metal price predictions.<sup>[7](#page-8-1)</sup> Subsequently, we measure the average drop in the adjusted  $R^2$  values, compared to the regular price prediction with only one month lag, across all variables and metals, as can be seen in [Fig.](#page-13-0) [2.](#page-13-0)

<span id="page-8-1"></span>We identify the value factor, as well as the historical price series as the most important predictors, which is in line with our previous findings. Hereby, we see a drop of over 20 percent in the adjusted  $R^2$  values for both variables. The two stand out, as the drops in the out-of-sample adjusted  $R^2$  for remaining variables are in the single-digit percentage range.

Within those, we see the U.S. monetary base and the M4 proof some predictability, as well as the U.S. Dollar exchange rate. Moreover, the financial market and commodity price indices are of importance as well, while the industrial production measures and the interest rates show no deviation from the default results. Overall, this is in line with our main results, as well as the results of the lasso model selection.

#### *6.3. Fluctuation test*

As price predictability may vary over time, we additionally analyze our forecasts using the Fluctuation test of [Giacomini](#page-29-26) and Rossi [\(2010\)](#page-29-26). Hereby, we subset our out-of-sample data into a rolling window of length 30-month. Subsequently, we iteratively calculate the test statistic as the standardized difference of our models' MSPE and the MSPE of the benchmark models, which we compare to the critical values proposed by [Giacomini](#page-29-26) and Rossi [\(2010](#page-29-26)). Moreover, the test statistic and the critical values are displayed in [Fig.](#page-8-2) [1](#page-8-2), which allows for an analysis of the changes in predictability over time.

For gold and silver, we see a stronger predictability in the second half of the out-of-sample period, while the same holds for the industrial metals copper, nickel and lead. The forecasts of the remaining precious- and industrial metals are more or less equally accurate over time. For the minor metals sector the results are mixed, where bismuth, cadmium, magnesium, and antimony show stronger predictability at the beginning of the sample, lithium, manganese, vanadium and tungsten towards the end, whereas the remaining metals show no trend of predictability over time. Overall, when we put those findings in context to the differences in the selected predictor variables of our sub-sample analysis, we see the metals with predictions containing an interest rate variable in the second sub-sample seem to be the ones that perform better towards the end of the overall out-of-sample period.

## **7. Discussion**

<span id="page-8-0"></span>Overall, our study differs from previous literature by a metal-specific variable selection, combined with a broad set of potential predictor variables, as well as the identification of changes within the price predictors and determinants over time. Hereby, we observe changes in the development state of markets, as well as changes in the market characteristics over time.

Within previous studies on the predictability of metal prices, they are partly either grouped, see [Lutzenberger](#page-30-10) [\(2014](#page-30-10)) for a portfolio on commodities for example, or a commodity-price index is predicted, see [Bakshi](#page-29-13) et al. ([2011\)](#page-29-13), Gargano and [Timmermann](#page-29-3) [\(2014\)](#page-29-3) and [Wang](#page-31-0) et al. ([2020](#page-31-0)), among others. While we observe a clustering in the predictor variables, such as the importance

We thank an anonymous referee for the idea of this robustness check.







**Fig. 1.** (*continued*).



**Fig. 1.** (*continued*).



**Fig. 1.** (*continued*).



These graphics show the results of the fluctuation test, as developed by Giacomini and Rossi (2010), for the individual metal price predictions in comparison to the random-walk and random-walk with drift benchmark. Results are obtained using a rolling window of length  $m = 30$ , where the blue line represents the one-sided critical value, based on the ten percent significance level.



The figure displays the average percentage drop in the out-of-sample adjusted  $R^2$  values, when the predictors are lagged between 3 to 8 months.

**Fig. 2.** Average Percentage Drop in Out-of-Sample Adjusted  $R^2$  by Variable.

<span id="page-13-0"></span>of the M4 for the industrial metals of the historical price for the minor metals sector, our analysis benefits from a commodityspecific variable selection. However, further studies could either combine the two perspectives and predict commodity indices via a combination of individual forecasts or compare panel models to time-series models for metal price predictions.

That is, our prediction results weaken over time, where historically there seem to be larger idiosyncratic price components, paired with a higher degree of autocorrelation in prices, which we capture via the value factor and a lagged price, especially in the minor metals sector, raising the predictive abilities of our models. Through the financialization of commodity markets the index investments into commodities raised significantly, see Tang and [Xiong](#page-30-11) [\(2012](#page-30-11)) and [Adams](#page-28-5) and Glück [\(2015](#page-28-5)), among others. Hereby, commodity prices are hypothesized to move in a more synchronous way, see Basak and [Pavlova](#page-29-25) ([2016](#page-29-25)), for example. We are able to support this hypothesis, where the commodity indices show a smaller impact in our first sub-sample, compared to the second subsample and the total sample, especially in the prediction dimension. In contrast, we see a smaller impact of the commodity indices as price determinants in the second sub-sample, while the price effect of the Bloomberg commodity index seems to have shifted onto the MSCI World, which is in line with the financialization hypothesis, as commodity markets are supposed to be connected closer to financial markets as well, see also Tang and [Xiong](#page-30-11) ([2012\)](#page-30-11).

The shift of monetary policy, from a conventional, interest rate based policy prior the financial crisis, to asset purchases and forward guidance afterwards, should be represented in the effects of monetary policy variables on the individual metal prices. Hereby, we detect a larger impact of interest rates in the prediction and determination of prices in the first sub-sample, compared to the overall sample, which is in line with theory, while the interest rates remain a valid predictor in our second sub-sample as well. Further, we see an impact of the unconventional policy measures, the balance sheet size and the inflation expectation index, in the price determination in the second sub-sample, which is in line with the findings of [Hammoudeh](#page-29-2) et al. ([2015](#page-29-2)) and the idea of [Frankel](#page-29-7) and Rose [\(2010](#page-29-7)), who regard the long-term expected inflation as monetary policy proxy as well. Additionally, we detect substantial predictive abilities of monetary aggregates, the M4 as well as the monetary base, especially in the first sub-sample, where the sign of relation for the two variables is against the theory, as an increase in either variable represents an easier monetary policy, which should theoretically lead to increasing commodity prices, see [Keating](#page-30-8) et al. [\(2019](#page-30-8)).

While the study of [Fernandez](#page-29-20) [\(2020](#page-29-20)) identifies the convenience yield as an important predictor for industrial metals, and is able to outperform the benchmark forecast in the one-month ahead dimension for aluminum, copper, lead, nickel, and zinc, independent of the calculation method of the convenience yield and other potential predictor variables that are included, we are only able to outperform the benchmarks for nickel, tin, and zinc, while only the zinc model includes the interest-adjusted basis as predictor variable. Hereby, her study is based on an earlier data, where a large share of the set is in the pre-financialization period, potentially explaining the differences. However, our findings are, except for the zinc model, in line with Chinn and [Coibion](#page-29-17) ([2014\)](#page-29-17), who detect no predictive ability of futures prices for the future spot prices.

The value factor shows, when included in the prediction models, a negative sign, which is against the theory of mean reverting prices and the empirical findings of [Asness](#page-28-0) et al. ([2013\)](#page-28-0). As the value factor is the ratio of historical, *true* prices, divided by the most recent price, a large value factor represents a currently cheap metal. However, we attribute these differences to the time-series character of our analysis. To obtain stationary time-series, we calculate returns for this variable as well, which basically inverts the factor and leads to the negative sign, see [Appendix](#page-15-2) [C](#page-15-2) for further details.

When comparing our findings to [Wang](#page-31-0) et al. [\(2020](#page-31-0)), they detect superior predictive abilities of technical indicator, e.g. components of the individual price series, which is in line with our results for the value factor and the historic price series. However, we do not find significant predictive abilities of the momentum factor, which is in contrast to their findings, as well as the findings of [Lutzenberger](#page-30-6) et al. ([2017\)](#page-30-6). We attribute these differences to the different time span of the data sets, as well as the construction of the momentum factor, where [Lutzenberger](#page-30-6) et al. ([2017\)](#page-30-6) find predictive abilities for the two to six months momentum, and, in line with our results, no predictive ability for the two to twelve months' factor, which we consider in this study.

However, the application of the linear regression model represents only linear relationships between the variables, where other, more advanced models could be used, based on the consolidated data set generated within this study, to further enhance the predictions of the commodities. Additionally, as the sub-sample analyses revealed the predictors and price determining factors change over time, the model selection procedure could be performed iteratively for each out-of-sample forecast data point and on longer samples.

#### **8. Conclusion**

<span id="page-14-0"></span>Our individual one-month ahead forecasts of 24 metal commodity prices in the period from 1995 to 2019, as well as in two sub-samples which cover the periods prior and posterior the financial crisis, reveal the idiosyncratic price components, the value factor and the lagged price series, as most important predictors. However, while the historic price-series' impact remains unchanged across both samples, the impact of the value factor is decreasing over time. Further, commodity indices show stronger predictive abilities in the first sample, while in the second sample the financial market indices gained more importance. Further, the exchange rate bears little predictive abilities across both samples, whereas it acts as a important price determinant, especially in the second sub-sample.

Overall, the commodity and financial market variables represent the most important price determinants, especially for the precious and industrial metals. However, our results are especially noteworthy for the minor metals sector, which receive comparably little attention within the commodity market literature, but will gain more and more importance in the future, e.g. through their application within renewable energy technologies. While each metal market was found to be individual to a certain degree, we observed a clustering in the price determinants for the metal groups, such as the MSCI world index and the U.S. Dollar index acting as price determinants for most industrial metals. Moreover, in our forecasts within the total sample, we outperform the predefined benchmark models, a random-walk and random-walk with drift, in 12 cases significantly. Hereby, the results show the highest predictive power for industrial and minor metals, while none of the precious metal forecasts outperforms the benchmarks.

Overall, this study aims to be a foundation for further forecasting models of commodity markets by providing a commodityspecific pre-selection of influential variables.

#### **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Patric Papenfuß:** Writing – original draft, Project administration, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Amelie Schischke:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Data curation. **Andreas Rathgeber:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition.

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## **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### **Appendix A. Data preparation**

<span id="page-15-1"></span>The data used in this study is consolidated from various data sources and providers, while it differs in its properties and frequencies. To ensure the validity of our empirical analyses, we consider only stationary time-series in our models, and therefore check and adjust our initial data series in the following ways. First, we apply the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test, based on the ten percent significance level, to each variable. In case non-stationarity is found, we calculate one of following three returns, while we proceed with the original, unadjusted variable names (see [Tables](#page-16-0) [2](#page-16-0), [4,](#page-18-0) [6](#page-20-0) and [7\)](#page-21-0).

Log differences:

<span id="page-15-4"></span>
$$
v_t = \ln (v_t) - \ln (v_{t-1}), \tag{11}
$$

first differences:

<span id="page-15-5"></span><span id="page-15-3"></span>
$$
v_t = \frac{v_t}{v_{t-1}} - 1,\tag{12}
$$

or differences:

$$
\mathsf{v}_t = \mathsf{v}_t - \mathsf{v}_{t-1}.\tag{13}
$$

The supply, HHI and demand series are only available at annual frequency. To consider those microeconomic determinants within models which require higher frequency data, we apply the following forward-filling procedure: First, the annual return of each variable is taken, according to Eq. ([12\)](#page-15-3). We then shift these returns forward by one year and decompose them into monthly values by filling each point in time forward by one-twelfth of the annual change.

For the commodity prices, we obtained the initial series as described in [Table](#page-23-0) [10](#page-23-0). Hereby, except for germanium (Ge) and molybdenum (Mo), all series are at daily frequency, which we aggregated to monthly frequency by taking the monthly average price. Subsequently, the individual series are checked for stationarity using the ADF-test and log differences, according to Eq. [\(11](#page-15-4)), are calculated in case the initial series were non-stationary, while for the value and momentum factor we calculate differences, according to Eq. ([13\)](#page-15-5), in case of non-stationarity. Subsequently, we repeat the procedure until stationarity is ensured across all variables.

All futures prices are available at daily frequency, see [Table](#page-24-0) [11](#page-24-0), while we convert them to monthly frequency again by taking the monthly average prices and calculate log-differences according to Eq. ([11\)](#page-15-4), in case the monthly series are found to be non-stationary. Since the basis momentum and interest-adjusted basis are rates already, we calculate differences according to Eq. ([12\)](#page-15-3) in case of non-stationarity. Again, we recursively apply the procedure until stationarity is ensured for all variables. Descriptive statistics of the adjusted, commodity-specific variables are displayed in .

We proceed in the same way for the macroeconomic attributes. Daily figures are aggregated to monthly data by taking the monthly average, while for the financial- and commodity-indices, shipping indices, industrial production measures, the GDP, as well as the monetary aggregates, we calculate log-returns according to Eq. ([11\)](#page-15-4) in case of non-stationarity of the aggregated variables. In contrast, for all interest rate variables, the term spread, as well as the inflation expectation index and the consumer price index, we compute regular returns, according to Eq. ([12\)](#page-15-3).

## **Appendix B. Data sources**

<span id="page-15-0"></span>See [Tables](#page-23-0) [10–](#page-23-0)[12.](#page-24-1)

# **Appendix C. Value factor adjustment**

<span id="page-15-2"></span>Generally, we check each co-variate for stationarity prior to the model estimation. In case of the value factor, we calculate first differences in case non stationarity is found, as outlined in [Appendix](#page-15-1) [A](#page-15-1). Within our models, the value factor is included only for metals where the initial variable was found non-stationary and hence adjusted $8$ :

<span id="page-15-6"></span><sup>8</sup> With the exception of gallium for the total-sample and the sub-sample two, as well as cadmium and magnesium in sub-sample one.

<span id="page-16-0"></span>

This table displays the averaged  $\rho$ -coefficients and corresponding  $\rho$ -values of the metal price determinants in<br>calculation due to limited data availability. n the 2008-sample, as well as the respective adjusted R<sup>2</sup>. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*) and 10% (.). Blank fields indicate the covariate has been excluded by the model selection pr

17



in the 20092019-sample, as well as the respective adjusted R<sup>3</sup>. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*) and 10% (). Blank fields indicate has been excluded by the model selection process, whil

# <span id="page-17-0"></span>**Table <sup>3</sup>**

d  $\beta$ -coefficients and corresponding  $\rho$ -values of the metal price predictors in

Lin

18

This table

displays the average<sup>d</sup>



<span id="page-18-0"></span>**Table <sup>4</sup>**

19

This table displays the averaged  $\beta$ -coefficients and corresponding  $\mu$ -values of the metal price determinants in<br>limited data availability. n the 20092019-sample, as well as the respective adjusted R<sup>2</sup>. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*) and 10% (.). Blank fields indicate the co-variate has been excluded by the model selecti



<span id="page-19-0"></span>

This table displays the metal-specific out-of-sample forecast error ratios, which are the models' forecast error divided by the benchmark forecast error, for the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAPE) measures and the three benchmark models: random walk  $(rw)$ , random walk with drift ( $rwd$ ), and  $AR(1)$ . For the  $rw$  and the  $rwd$  benchmark, the significance of the forecast improvements is tested via the test of [Clark](#page-29-24) and West ([2007](#page-29-24)), which is not applicable for the  $AR(1)$  benchmark model.

$$
\Delta VAL_{i,t} = \ln \left( \frac{\frac{1}{12} \sum_{r=55}^{66} Price_{i,t-r}}{Price_{i,t}} \right) - \ln \left( \frac{\frac{1}{12} \sum_{r=56}^{67} Price_{i,t-r}}{Price_{i,t-1}} \right)
$$

$$
= \ln \left( \frac{\sum_{r=55}^{66} Price_{i,t-r}}{\sum_{r=56}^{67} Price_{i,t-r}} \cdot \frac{Price_{i,t-1}}{Price_{i,t}} \right).
$$

<span id="page-19-2"></span><span id="page-19-1"></span> $(14)$ 

As can be seen in Eq. ([14\)](#page-19-1), the stationary value factor consists of two components, where the first one represents the coefficient between two annual averages, where the respective time periods overall for eleven of the twelve months.<sup>[9](#page-19-2)</sup> Hence, this coefficient should be comparably small, while the second coefficient represents the AR component of the series. The inverse characteristic of this return, in conjunction with the negative sign for the  $\beta$ -coefficients within the regression results, showcase the trend following pattern of metal prices, at least at the one month horizon we analyze within this study.

# **Appendix D. Data description**

See [Tables](#page-25-0) [13](#page-25-0) and [14](#page-26-0).

#### **Data availability**

Data will be made available on request.

<sup>9</sup> Please note we refer to all variables with their initial variable names in our analysis, disregarding whether they were adjusted or not.

<span id="page-20-0"></span>

This table displays the averaged  $\beta$ -coefficients and corresponding  $\rho$ -values of the metal price predictors in<br>models' calculation due to limited data availability. in the total-sample, as well as the respective adjusted R<sup>2</sup>. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*) and 10% (.). Blank fields indicate the co-variate has been excluded by the model selection



This table display the merged foresthein and occupacing pyakes of the metal price determinants in the total-sample, as well as the respective adjusted R. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*)

<span id="page-21-0"></span>**Table <sup>7</sup>**



<span id="page-22-0"></span>**Table <sup>8</sup>**

This table displays the averaged #-coefficients and corresponding <sub>P</sub>-values of the metal price predictors in<br>models' calculation due to limited data availability. in the total-sample, where the variables are selected via a lasso regression, as well as the respective adjusted R<sup>2</sup>. The corresponding significance levels are 0.1% (\*\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*) and 10% (.). Blank fields indicat

# <span id="page-23-1"></span>**Table 9**





This table displays the metal-specific out-of-sample forecast error ratios, generated via the model using Lasso regressions as variable selection. These are the models' forecast error divided by the benchmark forecast error, for the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAPE) measures and the three benchmark models: random walk ( $rw$ ), random walk with drift ( $rwd$ ), and  $AR(1)$ . For the  $rw$  and the  $rwd$ benchmark, the significance of the forecast improvements is tested via the test of [Clark](#page-29-24) and West ([2007](#page-29-24)), which is not applicable for the  $AR(1)$  benchmark model.

<span id="page-23-0"></span>Data sources — metal spot prices.



This table displays per metal the name of the price series (Name), as well as the corresponding unit of notation (Unit), the database ticker (Ticker), the source of the data (Source), as well as the<br>start date (Start) and

<span id="page-24-0"></span>



This table displays per metal and futures contract the corresponding name (Name), the unit of price notation (Unit), the quantity specification per contract (Contract Spec.), the database ticker<br>(Ticker), the source of the

# **Table 12**

<span id="page-24-1"></span>



This table displays the name of the co-variate (Covariate), the description of the series (Description), as well as the corresponding data source (Source), the start date of the series (Start) and the<br>frequency (Freq) for

<span id="page-25-0"></span>**Table 13** Descriptive statistics of the adjusted, general metal price determinants.

	Min	Q <sub>5</sub>	Q25	Med	Mean	Q75	Q95	Max	SD	Skew	Kurt	Obs	ADE	JB
$SIR_{U.S.}$	0.11	0.13	0.44	2.04	2.69	5.31	6.05	6.73	2.24	0.33	$-1.51$	300	$-1.92*$	$33.95***$
$SIR_{China}$	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.13	0.03	1.70	2.48	288	$-2.39*$	212.52 ***
$LIR_{U.S.}$	1.50	1.76	2.54	3.97	3.96	5.11	6.53	7.78	1.56	0.24	$-1.04$	300	$-2.25*$	$16.40***$
$LIR$ China	$-0.17$	$-0.06$	$-0.03$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.03	0.08	0.18	0.05	0.29	1.92	211	$-13.45**$	$35.37***$
T10Y3M	$-4.29$	$-0.66$	$-0.13$	$-0.02$	0.03	0.11	0.70	8.00	0.98	3.72	33.93	300	$-18.80**$	15082.48***
<b>FFR</b>	0.07	0.09	0.18	1.75	2.50	5.20	5.85	6.54	2.25	0.37	$-1.50$	300	$-1.94*$	34.97 ***
WuXia	$-2.99$	$-1.97$	$-0.19$	1.65	2.05	5.02	5.85	6.65	2.69	0.00	$-1.27$	300	$-2.08*$	$20.16***$
$\overline{M}$ $\overline{B}$	$-0.09$	$-0.02$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.24	0.03	4.09	31.12	300	$-8.74**$	12942.09 ***
WALCL	$-0.09$	$-0.01$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.54	0.04	9.28	106.55	205	$-8.05**$	99915.09 ***
M4	$-0.01$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.00	$-0.15$	3.65	300	$-9.39**$	$167.66***$
T5YIFR	$-0.73$	$-0.07$	$-0.03$	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.09	0.64	0.09	$-0.47$	34.44	204	$-17.70**$	10089.48 ***
FX	$-0.05$	$-0.03$	$-0.01$	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.02	$-0.12$	0.25	300	$-12.61$ **	1.50
IPU.S.	$-0.05$	$-0.03$	$-0.01$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.12	0.51	300	$-28.18**$	3.97
$IP_{World}$	$-0.10$	$-0.07$	$-0.03$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.03	0.09	0.12	0.05	0.23	$-0.22$	300	$-25.52**$	3.25
$IP_{China}$	$-0.14$	$-0.03$	$-0.01$	$-0.00$	$-0.00$	0.01	0.03	0.15	0.03	$-0.19$	12.96	272	$-27.76**$	1905.20 ***
<b>GDP</b>	$-0.00$	$-0.00$	$-0.00$	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	$-1.81$	5.74	300	$-2.16*$	575.65 ***
EAKilian	$-162.97$	$-84.08$	$-43.54$	$-8.34$	4.07	40.38	127.66	188.20	66.62	0.66	0.09	300	$-2.42*$	$21.88***$
BDI	$-1.33$	$-0.34$	$-0.11$	0.01	0.00	0.12	0.33	0.67	0.23	$-1.13$	5.46	246	$-13.39**$	357.92 ***
CPI	$-1.92$	$-0.34$	0.00	0.19	0.18	0.40	0.68	1.22	0.34	$-0.90$	4.81	300	$-8.79**$	329.70 ***
OIL	$-0.34$	$-0.14$	$-0.05$	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.12	0.22	0.08	$-0.75$	1.51	300	$-13.16**$	$56.63***$
<b>BCOM</b>	$-0.22$	$-0.06$	$-0.01$	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.11	0.04	$-1.38$	5.85	300	$-13.31**$	523.00 ***
<b>RICIM</b>	$-0.22$	$-0.06$	$-0.02$	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.06	0.13	0.04	$-0.69$	3.63	300	$-12.26$ **	188.52 ***
<b>MSCIW</b>	$-0.25$	$-0.06$	$-0.01$	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.12	0.04	$-1.49$	7.54	300	$-12.95**$	$821.65***$
SPX	$-0.19$	$-0.07$	$-0.02$	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.07	0.10	0.04	$-0.89$	1.74	300	$-16.02**$	$77.45***$

This table displays the descriptive statistics minimum (Min), the five-percent quantile (Q5), the twenty-five percent quantile (Q25), the median (Med), the mean (Mean), the seventy-five quantile (Q75), the minety-five per

<span id="page-26-0"></span>



(*continued on next page*)

# **Table 14** (*continued*).



(*continued on next page*)

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#### **Table 14** (*continued*).



This table displays the descriptive statistics minimum (Min), five-percent quantile (Q5), twenty-five percent quantile (Q25), median (Med), mean (Mean), seventy-five quantile (Q75), ninety-five percent quantile (Q95), maximum (Max), the standard deviation (SD), skewness (Skew), and excess kurtosis (Kurt), as well as the number of observations available for each adjusted series and the results of the test statistics of the Augmented Dickey–Fuller test (ADF) and the Jarque–Bera test (JB), with the corresponding significance levels (0.1% (\*\*\*), 1% (\*\*), 5% (\*) and 10% (.)).

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