

Learning from crises: Forecasting with time-varying parameter VARs with observable adaptation

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Introduction and Motivation

Why TVP-VARs promise more than they deliver

- **TVP-VARs** are extremely useful generalizations of VARs:
 - ▶ Any nonlinear model can be approximated by a TVP linear model (Granger, 2008).
 - ▶ Allow for capturing changing economic environments (Primiceri, 2005; Cogley & Sargent, 2005).
- But they are **not as successful at forecasting** as simpler alternatives: univariate UC-SV (Stock & Watson, 2007), constant-parameter VARs with SV, SVO, or Student- t errors.
- The reason is simple. A TVP-VAR is a state-space model:

$$y_t = \beta_t x_t + \varepsilon_t, \quad \beta_t = \beta_{t-1} + \eta_t$$

but the state vector can be very large because x_t (lags of all endogenous variables) is also large.

- Stacking over all T observations gives a regression with T observations and Tk parameters:
 - ▶ A three-variable VAR(2): $k = 21 \Rightarrow$ moderate, but already challenging.
 - ▶ A ten-variable VAR(12): $k = 1,210 \Rightarrow$ massively overparameterized.
- So TVP-VARs **rely heavily on prior hyperparameter choices**, which may go very wrong even when these choices are data-based and not fully subjective.

Tight priors flatten TVPs — subsample OLS detects more variation

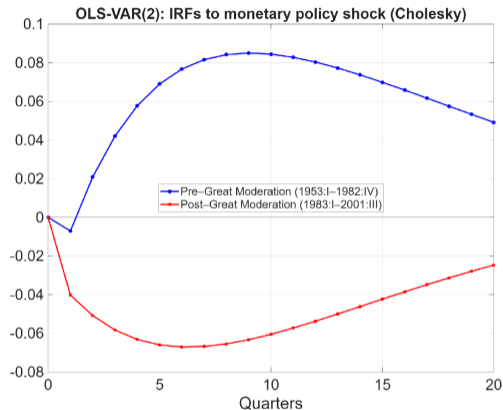
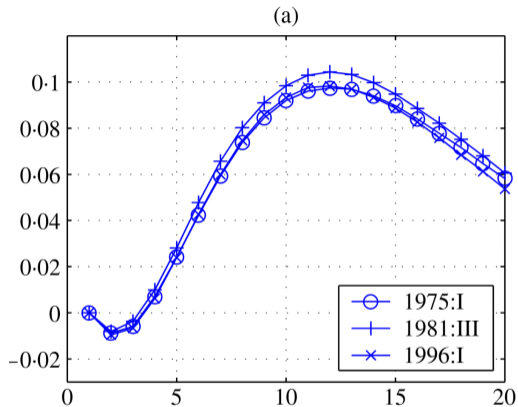


Figure: IRF of unemployment to a monetary policy shock. Left: TVP-VAR (Primiceri, 2005). Right: OLS-VAR(2) estimated on pre- and post-Great Moderation subsamples using the same data. Primiceri's "data-estimated" prior is way too tight killing any benefits from specifying TVPs!

Beyond the random walk: why we need external information

- TVPs may also forecast poorly not just because of prior choice, but because of the **assumed evolution**. The random walk is persistent and smooth — poorly suited to **abrupt shocks**.
- Consider COVID-19: at monthly frequency, the disruption lasts roughly **three observations**; at quarterly frequency, **a single observation**. Yet its depth is unprecedented.
 - ▶ How can a persistent, gradual RW evolution capture such a sharp, transient break?
- Our best bet: **bring external data information** into the parameter evolution.
 - ▶ Uncertainty indices, financial conditions, consumer expectations — these series move *with* abrupt breaks.
 - ▶ They have valuable information about crises such as COVID, the GFC, and various geopolitical episodes.
- **Key insight:** Rather than asking the random walk to discover breaks from the likelihood alone, we can *tell* the parameters where to look via observable conditioning variables Z_t .

Observable adaptation: an old idea with a new implementation

“An obvious question that will arise is ‘why not consider TVPs with nonlinear models?’ In fact the up-dating situation just considered would generate such models. These models would be particularly difficult to use, for forecasting for example, and to interpret.”

— Clive Granger (2008), *Studies in Nonlinear Dynamics & Econometrics*

- The idea is old: define $\beta_t = f(z_t)$ where f is a nonlinear function and z_t is external conditioning information. These are **functional coefficient** time series models (Cai, Fan & Yao, 2000, *JASA*).
- An emerging literature approximates complex $f(\cdot)$ using ML methods: regression trees (Hauzenberger et al., 2022; Goulet Coulombe, 2024), neural networks (Gu et al., 2021), and Gaussian processes (Fox & Dunson, 2015).
- In this paper we argue that a **linear, deterministic** $f(\cdot)$ is the best choice, **conditional on purging the random walk variation**:

$$\beta_t = \beta_{t-1} + \gamma Z_{t-1}$$

- Equivalently: $\beta_t = \beta + \gamma C_t$, $C_t = \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} Z_s$, inherits RW persistence while being fully driven by observables.

What are the benefits of this approach?

Over the next slides we will try to convince you that this scheme:

1. **Combines the best of both worlds.** Retains slow RW evolution that adapts well to most periods, *plus* a component that can signal crises via Z_t .
2. **Enables linear estimation.** No expensive state-space methods needed — estimation reduces to standard linear regression \Rightarrow computational tractability and numerical stability.
3. **Offers a parsimonious replacement for the state error.** In a Bayesian setting, γZ_t is a random term: γ (random) provides the stochasticity, while Z_t (deterministic, observed) provides all time-varying patterns not captured by β_{t-1} . This is more parsimonious than estimating a full state covariance Q .
4. **Reduces sensitivity to priors.** TVPs require estimation of a large Q . E.g., turning the Bańbura, Giannone & Reichlin (2010) large VAR into a TVP-VAR $\Rightarrow Q$ of dimension $250,000 \times 250,000!$ No information in the likelihood to estimate such a matrix, so the prior dominates everything.
5. **Provides a factor decomposition of TVPs with observed factors.** The term γZ_t decomposes the state innovation into a low-dimensional observable basis — related to the factor decompositions in Canova & Ciccarelli (2004, *JoE*; 2009, *IER*), but with observed rather than latent factors.

The AVP-VAR: Model and Estimation

Our starting point: TVP-VAR Framework

Start from the p -lag TVP-VAR (Primiceri, 2005):

$$y_t = B_{0t} + \sum_{i=1}^p B_{it} y_{t-i} + A_t H_t \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_n)$$

- $\Omega_t = A_t H_t H_t A_t'$: VAR covariance matrix of reduced-form errors.
- A_t : lower triangular $n \times n$ matrix of contemporaneous relations.
- H_t : diagonal $n \times n$ matrix of time-varying standard deviations.

⇒ **Ordering dependence:** The lower-triangular structure of A_t makes the decomposition sensitive to the ordering of variables in y_t (Bognanni (2018); Arias et al. (2023, 2024); Chan (2024)).

Factor Stochastic Volatility

We adopt a factor stochastic volatility (FSV) decomposition of the reduced-form innovations, extending Korobilis (2022), Stock & Watson (2005).

$$y_t = B_{0t} + \sum_{i=1}^p B_{it} y_{t-i} + \Lambda_t f_t + \Sigma_t^{1/2} \varepsilon_t$$

- $f_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_r)$: vector of latent common factors.
- Λ_t : $n \times r$ matrix of time-varying loadings.
- $\Sigma_t^{1/2}$: $n \times n$ diagonal matrix of time-varying idiosyncratic standard deviations.
- $\Lambda_t f_t$ captures the common time-varying covariance structure across equations.
- $\Omega_t = \Lambda_t \Lambda_t' + \Sigma_t$ (common + idiosyncratic)

⇒ **Order invariant**: the estimated covariance structure $\Lambda_t \Lambda_t'$ remains the same regardless of how we permute the elements of y_t .

The AVP-VAR in a nutshell

The standard assumption: $\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} + \eta_t$, where η_t is the unobserved state innovation.

Core idea: Replace state innovation with observable exogenous drivers Z_t

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} + \overbrace{\eta_t}^{\text{unobserved}} \implies \theta_t = \theta_{t-1} + \underbrace{\gamma Z_{t-1}}_{\text{observable}} \implies \theta_t = \theta + \underbrace{\gamma \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} Z_s}_{C_t}$$

- $Z_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$: observable drivers (uncertainty, financial conditions, expectations, ...).
- $C_t = \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} Z_s$: cumulative drivers — inherits the persistence of a RW without stochastic innovations.
- $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^{n(k+r) \times m}$: maps drivers to coefficient drift.
- θ : baseline (time-invariant) coefficients.

Key insight: All time variation is now driven by γZ_t . The state equation collapses into the measurement equation — estimation reduces to a single linear regression. **No need for filtering.**

- Compact notation: $x_t = [1, y'_{t-1}, \dots, y'_{t-p}]'$, $X_t = I_n \otimes [x'_t, f'_t]'$, and $\theta_t = [\beta'_t, \lambda'_t]'$. Then:
 $y_t = X_t \theta_t + v_t$.

From TVP-VAR to static regression

Substituting $\theta_t = \theta + \gamma C_t$ into the measurement equation $y_t = X_t \theta_t + v_t$:

$$y_t = \underbrace{X_t \theta}_{\text{baseline}} + \underbrace{X_t \gamma C_t}_{\text{observable time-variation}} + v_t$$

Using the vec rule $X_t \gamma C_t = (C_t' \otimes X_t) \text{vec}(\gamma)$ and stacking over $t = 1, \dots, T$:

Static linear regression

$$Y = \tilde{X}(1_T \otimes \theta) + \tilde{W} \text{vec}(\gamma) + V$$

- $\tilde{W} = [C_1' \otimes X_1, \dots, C_T' \otimes X_T]'$: **precomputed** from data.
- Define augmented regressors and coefficients:
 $\tilde{x}_t = [x_t', (x_t \otimes C_t)']'$, $\tilde{\beta}_i = [\beta_i', \text{vec}(\gamma_{\beta,i})']'$, $\tilde{f}_t = [f_t', (f_t \otimes C_t)']'$, $\tilde{\lambda}_i = [\lambda_i', \text{vec}(\gamma_{\lambda,i})']'$
- Each equation ($i = 1, \dots, n$): $y_{i,t} = \tilde{x}_t' \tilde{\beta}_i + \tilde{f}_t' \tilde{\lambda}_i + v_{i,t}$
- **Horseshoe prior** on $\tilde{\beta}_i$ and $\tilde{\lambda}_i$: automatically selects *which* drivers matter and *for which* coefficients — with minimal tuning (Carvalho et al., 2010).

Estimation: Gibbs Sampler

The model is estimated equation by equation ($i = 1, \dots, n$), iterating over:

1. **VAR coefficients** $\tilde{\beta}_i$: conjugate Normal posterior under horseshoe prior. Recover time-varying paths via $\beta_{i,t} = \beta_i + \gamma_{\beta,i} C_t$.
2. **Factor loadings** $\tilde{\lambda}_i$: analogous conjugate Normal step. Recover $\lambda_{i,t} = \lambda_i + \gamma_{\lambda,i} C_t$.
3. **Factors** f_t : draw from $\mathcal{N}(\bar{G}_t \Lambda'_t \Sigma_t^{-1} \tilde{y}_t, \bar{G}_t)$ with $\bar{G}_t^{-1} = I_r + \Lambda'_t \Sigma_t^{-1} \Lambda_t$.
4. **Stochastic volatilities** $\log \sigma_{i,t}$: KSC mixture approximation + precision-based sampler (Kim et al., 1998; Chan, 2012).
5. **Horseshoe hyperparameters**: local $\psi_{i\ell}$ and global τ_i via slice sampling (Makalic & Schmidt, 2015).

Remarks: Steps 1–2 are simple linear regressions (no Kalman filter). Steps 3–5 are standard. The **order-invariant** factor stochastic volatility structure avoids the Cholesky ordering dependence in Primiceri (2005).

► Technical Details

Competitors and Alternatives

Competitors I: How else can we use observables Z_t ?

- **TVP-SS-VAR**: Retain stochastic innovations *alongside* the observable drivers:
 $\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} + \gamma Z_{t-1} + \eta_t$, with σ_η^2 fixed at 0.01 to prevent explosive VAR behaviour.
 - ▶ **TVP-SS-VAR-FLEX**: same, but with $\sigma_\eta^2 = 0.1$ (more flexible, riskier).
- **FAVAR / FAVAR-SV**: Augment y_t with a factor extracted from Z_t as an additional endogenous variable (with or without stochastic volatility).
- **INT-VAR**: Interaction VAR — include $x_t \times Z_t$ terms on the right-hand side. Equivalent to AVP-VAR *without* the cumulative-sum structure — no persistence in coefficient variation.
- **Nonlinear basis functions of Z_t** : Apply our AVP-VAR framework but with enriched transformations:
 - ▶ **TVP-SS-VAR-P / P3**: Polynomials (Z, Z^2) or (Z, Z^2, Z^3) .
 - ▶ **TVP-SS-VAR-INT / P+INT**: Pairwise interactions among elements of Z_t .

Competitors II: Baseline VARs and ML approaches

- **Baseline VARs** (no external information in TVPs):
 - ▶ **CP-VAR / CP-VAR-SV**: Constant parameters, with or without SV.
 - ▶ **VAR-SVO / VAR-SVO-t**: Stochastic volatility with outlier states and/or Student- t innovations (Carriero et al., 2023).
 - ▶ **TVP-VAR-EB**: Empirical Bayes prior calibrated on training sample (Primiceri, 2005). Ordering dependent.
 - ▶ **TVP-VAR-FB**: Full Bayes with horseshoe prior on state innovations.
- **Full ML approach** (Fischer et al., 2023): **FHHP-TVP-VAR** combines three “effect modifiers” — observed drivers Z_t , Markov-switching indicators, and latent RW factors.
 - ▶ **FHHP-TVP-VAR-R**: Reverse variable ordering.
 - ▶ **FHHP-TVP-VAR-d3**: $d = 3$ latent RW factors.
 - ▶ **FHHP-TVP-VAR-Z**: Only observed drivers Z_t (no MS, no RW factors).
- **Key issue for all flexible approaches**: No guarantees of stationary parameter draws! More flexible mappings from Z_t to θ_t risk explosive VAR dynamics.

Empirical Results: Euro Area

Data: Euro Area

Euro Area quarterly (1975:Q1–2024:Q3):

- y_t : real GDP growth, HICP inflation, short-term interest rate (Δ).
- Z_t ($m = 10$): commodity prices (oil, non-oil), unemployment, productivity growth, global activity measures, exchange rates.

Forecast evaluation: Expanding window, iterated forecasts at horizons $h = 1, \dots, 8$ quarters. Performance measured by MAE ratios relative to an OLS-VAR benchmark (values < 1 indicate improvement).

Additional results for U.S. monthly data (1985:M1–2023:M11, $m = 12$ drivers) and FRED-QD quarterly data (1963:Q1–2025:Q2, $m = 9$ drivers) available in the paper and online supplement.

MAE ratios for GDP growth — Baseline VARs

Model	$h = 1$	$h = 2$	$h = 3$	$h = 4$	$h = 5$	$h = 6$	$h = 7$	$h = 8$	Avg
AVP-VAR	† 0.69	0.75	† 0.77	† 0.75	0.73	† 0.76	† 0.82	0.79	† 0.76
CP-VAR	0.81	0.87	0.87	0.84	0.80	0.82	0.88	0.82	0.84
CP-VAR-SV	0.70	0.78	0.79	0.77	0.76	0.82	0.87	0.81	0.79
VAR-SVO	0.70	0.79	0.79	0.78	0.76	0.81	0.87	0.83	0.79
VAR-SVO-t	0.70	0.78	0.78	0.78	0.76	0.81	0.88	0.82	0.79
TVP-VAR-EB	0.74	0.81	0.82	0.81	0.79	0.82	0.88	0.83	0.81
TVP-VAR-FB	0.71	† 0.75	0.77	0.76	† 0.72	0.77	0.84	† 0.78	0.76
FHHP-TVP-VAR-L	0.94	1.11	1.18	1.18	1.16	1.24	1.34	1.25	1.17

Table: MAE ratios relative to OLS-VAR. Bold = below one. † = best at each horizon.

MAE ratios for GDP growth — Predictor-Driven VARs

Model	$h = 1$	$h = 2$	$h = 3$	$h = 4$	$h = 5$	$h = 6$	$h = 7$	$h = 8$	Avg
AVP-VAR	† 0.69	0.75	† 0.77	† 0.75	† 0.73	† 0.76	† 0.82	† 0.79	† 0.76
FAVAR	1.00	1.06	1.01	1.01	1.03	1.01	1.04	1.05	1.03
FAVAR-SV	0.69	0.75	0.78	0.76	0.73	0.78	0.86	0.80	0.77
INT-VAR	0.69	† 0.75	0.80	0.79	0.75	0.78	0.85	0.79	0.78
TVP-SS-VAR	0.92	1.03	1.08	1.08	1.11	1.21	1.32	1.29	1.13
TVP-SS-VAR-FLEX	0.93	1.04	1.17	1.17	1.27	1.43	1.77	1.88	1.33
TVP-SS-VAR-P	1.46	1.50	1.72	1.79	1.89	1.80	2.38	2.25	1.85
TVP-SS-VAR-INT	1.11	1.15	1.24	1.24	1.26	1.35	1.52	1.49	1.29
TVP-SS-VAR-P3	3.32	3.63	4.28	4.02	4.43	4.35	5.58	4.79	4.30
TVP-SS-VAR-P+INT	0.98	1.04	1.09	1.10	1.08	1.21	1.35	1.33	1.15
FHHP-TVP-VAR	0.86	0.97	1.09	1.10	1.11	1.18	1.30	1.23	1.11
FHHP-TVP-VAR-R	0.98	1.08	1.17	1.20	1.18	1.24	1.38	1.28	1.19
FHHP-TVP-VAR-d3	0.88	1.01	1.11	1.13	1.13	1.20	1.35	1.26	1.13
FHHP-TVP-VAR-Z	0.97	1.08	1.19	1.21	1.20	1.25	1.38	1.27	1.19

Table: MAE ratios relative to OLS-VAR. Bold = below one. † = best at each horizon.

MAE ratios for Inflation — Baseline VARs

Model	$h = 1$	$h = 2$	$h = 3$	$h = 4$	$h = 5$	$h = 6$	$h = 7$	$h = 8$	Avg
AVP-VAR	1.15	1.02	0.93	† 0.90	0.95	0.92	0.89	† 0.88	0.95
CP-VAR	0.97	0.95	0.93	0.96	0.95	0.92	0.91	0.92	0.94
CP-VAR-SV	1.01	† 0.94	0.91	0.91	0.93	† 0.87	† 0.87	0.88	† 0.91
VAR-SVO	1.18	1.03	1.03	0.98	1.03	0.92	0.95	0.92	1.00
VAR-SVO-t	1.19	1.03	1.02	0.98	1.03	0.91	0.95	0.91	1.00
TVP-VAR-EB	1.02	0.95	† 0.90	0.93	0.94	0.90	0.89	0.92	0.93
TVP-VAR-FB	1.63	1.55	1.39	1.37	1.14	1.09	1.08	1.10	1.29
FHHP-TVP-VAR-L	† 0.91	1.79	1.18	1.64	† 0.90	1.34	0.99	1.32	1.26

Table: MAE ratios relative to OLS-VAR. Bold = below one. † = best at each horizon.

MAE ratios for Inflation — Predictor-Driven VARs

Model	<i>h</i> = 1	<i>h</i> = 2	<i>h</i> = 3	<i>h</i> = 4	<i>h</i> = 5	<i>h</i> = 6	<i>h</i> = 7	<i>h</i> = 8	Avg
AVP-VAR	1.15	1.02	0.93	† 0.90	0.95	0.92	0.89	0.88	0.95
FAVAR	1.01	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	1.00	0.99
FAVAR-SV	1.02	† 0.94	† 0.89	0.92	0.93	0.87	† 0.86	0.88	† 0.91
INT-VAR	1.36	1.44	1.42	1.14	0.95	† 0.85	0.88	† 0.85	1.11
TVP-SS-VAR	1.23	1.14	1.03	1.03	1.01	0.98	0.95	0.94	1.04
TVP-SS-VAR-FLEX	1.20	1.22	1.04	1.13	1.15	1.17	1.15	1.24	1.16
TVP-SS-VAR-P	1.40	1.22	1.13	1.08	1.14	1.05	1.01	1.06	1.13
TVP-SS-VAR-INT	1.27	1.14	1.07	1.09	1.00	0.96	0.91	1.00	1.05
TVP-SS-VAR-P3	1.39	1.54	1.64	1.51	1.28	1.44	1.45	1.51	1.47
TVP-SS-VAR-P+INT	1.27	1.11	0.99	1.02	0.96	0.93	0.88	0.91	1.01
FHHP-TVP-VAR	0.94	1.82	1.21	1.69	0.90	1.37	1.00	1.37	1.29
FHHP-TVP-VAR-R	0.98	1.88	1.23	1.72	0.91	1.36	0.98	1.36	1.30
FHHP-TVP-VAR-d3	† 0.93	1.81	1.18	1.69	† 0.90	1.35	0.99	1.35	1.28
FHHP-TVP-VAR-Z	0.95	1.82	1.20	1.68	0.90	1.35	1.00	1.35	1.28

Table: MAE ratios relative to OLS-VAR. Bold = below one. † = best at each horizon.

Cumulative forecast gains over time (U.S. Industrial Production)

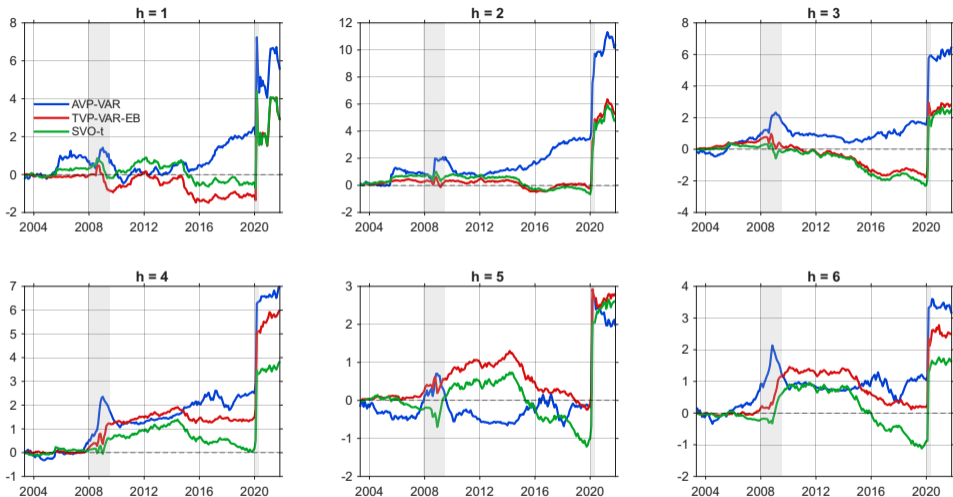
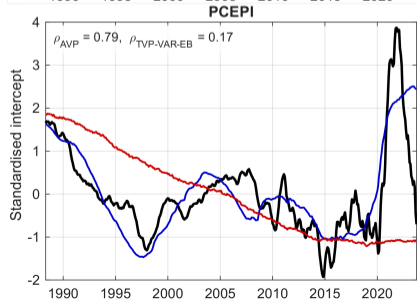
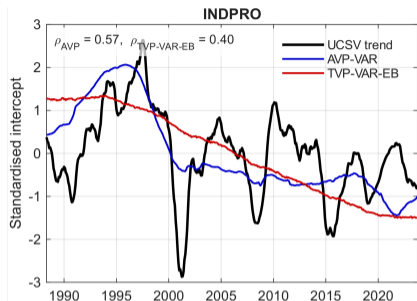


Figure: Cumulative difference in absolute forecast errors relative to a constant-parameter VAR. Values above zero indicate the model outperforms the benchmark.

Understanding the Mechanism

Why does AVP-VAR forecast well? In-sample dynamics



Time-varying intercepts from a VAR(1) on U.S. monthly data (1985–2023).

Three key observations:

1. **Timeliness:** AVP-VAR intercepts adjust *rapidly* during crises (GFC, COVID), closely tracking UC-SV. TVP-VAR adjusts too slowly.
2. **Discipline:** Outside crises, AVP-VAR stays stable (no signal in Z_t). TVP-VAR sometimes produces erratic local movements.
3. **Heterogeneity:** Different equations display different amounts of variation — AVP-VAR accommodates this naturally via sparse driver selection.

Monte Carlo Evidence

Monte Carlo: Do observable drivers help recover true TVPs?

- We design two DGPs to stress-test the AVP-VAR:
 - ▶ **DGP 1:** Near-unit-root parameters with transitory jumps (mimicking COVID-type breaks).
 - ▶ **DGP 2:** Regime switching + threshold effects + volatility co-movement (complex non-linear dynamics).
- Compare AVP with *targeted* drivers (informative about break timing, not magnitude) vs. *agnostic* drivers (Gaussian noise) vs. canonical RW TVP.
- **Key findings:**
 1. Under DGP 1, even *agnostic* AVP matches or beats TVP when predictors are persistent ($\rho = 0.95$). Targeted AVP dominates strongly.
 2. Under DGP 2, agnostic AVP underperforms TVP (needs informative signals for complex dynamics). But targeted AVP with $m \geq 40$ drivers dominates TVP across all configurations, with MSPE reductions up to 79%.
 3. The number of drivers m matters more under DGP 2: richer information sets dramatically improve performance.
- **Bottom line:** When the RW evolution is contaminated with jumps, regime shifts, or threshold effects, observable adaptation yields more accurate parameter estimates — provided the drivers carry at least some relevant information.

Conclusions

Takeaways

1. **The AVP-VAR** replaces unobserved state innovations with observable drivers:
 - ▶ No Kalman filter needed — estimation is a standard linear regression.
 - ▶ Interpretable: practitioners know *why* parameters change.
2. **Monte Carlo evidence:** AVP-VAR accurately recovers the true time-varying DGP, especially when the true dynamics contain abrupt breaks or regime shifts.
3. **Empirical results** across three macroeconomic datasets:
 - ▶ Competitive with or superior to most benchmarks for output growth.
 - ▶ Strong performance for inflation, particularly at medium-to-long horizons.
 - ▶ Robust across lag orders — parsimony advantage over richer specifications.
4. **In-sample analysis** reveals the mechanism: conventional TVP-VARs over-regularize, leaving parameters flat. AVP-VAR tracks crisis dynamics while staying disciplined in tranquil periods.
5. **More flexible alternatives** (polynomials, interactions, ML methods) tend to produce explosive VAR dynamics — the linear, deterministic specification is not a limitation but a *feature*.

Thank you!

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AVP-VAR: Gibbs Sampler (I)

Define augmented regressors and coefficient vectors: $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_t = [\mathbf{x}'_t, (\mathbf{x}_t \otimes \mathbf{C}_t)']' \in \mathbb{R}^{k+km}$, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i = [\boldsymbol{\beta}'_i, \text{vec}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\beta,i})']' \in \mathbb{R}^{k+km}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{f}}_t = [\mathbf{f}'_t, (\mathbf{f}_t \otimes \mathbf{C}_t)']' \in \mathbb{R}^{r+rm}$, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_i = [\boldsymbol{\lambda}'_i, \text{vec}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\lambda,i})']' \in \mathbb{R}^{r+rm}$. Working equation by equation ($i = 1, \dots, n$)

$$y_{i,t} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}'_t \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i + \tilde{\mathbf{f}}'_t \tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_i + v_{i,t}, \quad v_{i,t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{i,t}^2)$$

Step 1: Augmented VAR coefficients $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Define $\tilde{y}_{i,t} = y_{i,t} - \mathbf{f}'_t \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}$. Place a horseshoe prior: $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i,\ell} \mid \psi_\ell, \tau_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \psi_\ell^2 \tau_i^2)$.

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i \mid \cdot \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\beta,i}, \bar{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta,i}); \quad \bar{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta,i}^{-1} = \mathbf{D}_{\beta,i}^{-1} + \sum_{t=1}^T \sigma_{i,t}^{-2} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{x}}'_t, \quad \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\beta,i} = \bar{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta,i} \sum_{t=1}^T \sigma_{i,t}^{-2} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_t \tilde{y}_{i,t}$$

where $\mathbf{D}_{\beta,i} = \text{diag}(\psi_{i,1}^2 \tau_i^2, \dots, \psi_{i,k+km}^2 \tau_i^2)$. Recover $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i,t} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_i + \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\beta,i} \mathbf{C}_t$.

Step 2: Augmented factor loadings $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Define $\hat{y}_{i,t} = y_{i,t} - \mathbf{x}'_t \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i,t}$. Analogous horseshoe posterior:

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_i \mid \cdot \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\lambda,i}, \bar{\mathbf{V}}_{\lambda,i})$$

Recover $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t} = \boldsymbol{\lambda}_i + \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\lambda,i} \mathbf{C}_t$.

AVP-VAR: Gibbs Sampler (II)

Step 3: Factors f_t , $t = 1, \dots, T$.

Define $\tilde{y}_t = y_t - (I_n \otimes x_t')\beta_t$. The conditional posterior is:

$$f_t \mid \cdot \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\bar{G}_t \Lambda_t' \Sigma_t^{-1} \tilde{y}_t, \bar{G}_t\right), \quad \bar{G}_t^{-1} = I_r + \Lambda_t' \Sigma_t^{-1} \Lambda_t$$

Step 4: Stochastic volatilities $\log \sigma_{i,t}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Let $v_{i,t} = y_{i,t} - x_t' \beta_{i,t} - f_t' \lambda_{i,t}$. Define $y_{i,t}^* = \log(v_{i,t}^2)$.

- Approximate $\log \chi_1^2$ by a 7-component Gaussian mixture (Kim, Shephard & Chib, 1998).
- Draw $(\log \sigma_{i,1}, \dots, \log \sigma_{i,T})'$ via precision-based sampler.
- Update $\omega_i^2 \mid \cdot \sim \text{Inv-Gamma}\left(\frac{a_0+T-1}{2}, \frac{b_0+\sum_{t=2}^T (\Delta \log \sigma_{i,t})^2}{2}\right)$ with $a_0 = 1$, $b_0 = 0.01$.

Step 5: Horseshoe hyperparameters.

Local scales $\{\psi_{i\ell}\}$ and global scales $\tau_i, \tau_{\lambda,i}$ updated via slice sampling.

Model Nesting and Special Cases

