

Fixed Income Analysis

Estimation of the Term Structure Part II

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Statistical techniques — introduction

- Data consist of N bonds, with payments b_{ij} for $i = 1, \dots, N$ and $j = 1, \dots, m_i$, and the respective payment dates are t_{ij} .
- Pricing equation, allowing for measurement (pricing) error ε_i

$$P_i + A_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} b_{ij} \cdot d(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (1)$$

- If $d(t)$ in (1) is parameterized using some functional form with K parameters, and $K < N$, these parameters can be estimated by non-linear regression analysis.
- Various approaches differ as to whether they parameterize $d(t)$ directly, or indirectly via spot rates $R(t)$ or forward rates $f(t)$, and which parameterization is used (often cubic spline functions).

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Statistical techniques — Basic idea

- Suppose the discount factor is parameterized in terms of zero-coupon rates, that is $d(t) = \exp[-t \cdot R(t)]$, and $R(t) = R(t, \beta)$.
- There are two basic requirements for any parameterization of the yield curve function $R(t, \beta)$:
 - The function should be **sufficiently flexible**, so that (almost) any shape of the yield curve can be accommodated. Examples include monotonically increasing or decreasing, humped and inverse humped. Different values of the parameter vector β should translate into different shapes.
 - The function should be **parsimonious**, that is the number of parameters (in the vector β) should be “small”. This avoids convergence problems in the estimation, and reduces the risk of overfitting “noise” in the data.
- Note that there is a (mutual) conflict between the two goals.
- Polynomials and especially (cubic) **spline functions** are often used to parameterize $R(t)$, and sometimes $d(t)$ directly.

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Spline functions – 1

- A K 'th order polynomial in t is defined as

$$f_K(t) = a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \dots + a_{K-1}t^{K-1} + a_Kt^K \quad (2)$$

- Weierstrass' theorem: by choosing a sufficiently large K , any continuous function on a closed interval — like $[0, 30]$ — can be approximated arbitrarily well (for some constants $a_0 \dots a_K$).
- The theory is nice, but there are some practical problems:
 - A (very) high order K of the polynomial may be required in order to approximate the yield curve (function). Remember that we prefer parsimonious functions . . .
 - The yield curve $R(t)$ is only observed indirectly through a limited number of bond prices. A high-order polynomial may fit these maturities quite well, but display erratic behavior between these maturities.
 - In summary: best results are obtained with a low-order polynomial on a small interval (local approximation to the function).

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Spline functions – 2

- The basic idea of **spline functions** is to combine low-order polynomials (typically cubic) on different subintervals.
- The subintervals are determined by the so-called **knots** of the spline function.
- Smoothness restriction for a cubic spline: the function itself, and the first and second derivative must be continuous at the knots.
- Example: spline function on $[0, x_2]$ with two segments

$$f_1(t) = a_{10} + a_{11}t + a_{12}t^2 + a_{13}t^3, \quad t \in [0, \tau_1] \quad (3)$$

$$f_2(t) = a_{20} + a_{21}t + a_{22}t^2 + a_{23}t^3, \quad t \in [\tau_1, \tau_2] \quad (4)$$

- Restriction: $f_1(\tau_1) = f_2(\tau_1)$, $f_1'(\tau_1) = f_2'(\tau_1)$ and $f_1''(\tau_1) = f_2''(\tau_1)$.

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Spline functions – 3

- The smoothness restriction reduces the number of free parameters in (3) and (4) from 8 to 5.
- In general, with s segments, there are $K = s + 3$ free parameters.
- A simple representation of the spline function on $[0, \tau_s]$ is the truncated power basis:

$$f(t) = a_1 + b_1t + c_1t^2 + d_1t^3 + \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} d_{i+1}(t - \tau_i)^3 D_i, \quad (5)$$

where $D_i = 1$ if $t \geq \tau_i$ and $D_i = 0$ otherwise.

- The truncated power basis can be numerically unstable because the terms in (5) are highly correlated. Most people use **B-splines**, which represent a stable basis, but the basis functions are much more complex. See section 2.4.4 in Anderson et al. (1996).

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The discount function as a cubic spline

- Introduced by McCulloch (1971, 1975) who use a stable spline representation (denoted by $\theta(t)$ here)

$$d(t) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^K a_k \theta_k(t) \quad (6)$$

- If we substitute this into (1), we get

$$P_i + A_i - \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} b_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^K a_k \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m_i} \theta(t_{ij}) b_{ij} \right) + \varepsilon_i \quad (7)$$

- The unknown parameters a_1, \dots, a_K can be estimated by ordinary (linear) least squares.
- The method is simple to implement (does not require numerical optimization techniques), but there are some serious limitations.

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The spot curve $R(t)$ as a cubic spline – 1

- Main disadvantages of the McCulloch technique:
 - Lack of stability for spot rates $R(t)$, and especially forward rates $f(t)$, in the long end of the curve.
 - The discount function $d(t)$ is really exponential, rather than polynomial.
 - Impossible to extrapolate beyond the largest maturity of the N bonds used for estimation.
- A better approach: parameterize the spot curve $R(t)$ in terms of a cubic spline with basis $\phi_k(t)$, e.g. a B-spline basis,

$$R(t) = \sum_{k=1}^K a_k \phi_k(t) \quad (8)$$

- Assuming continuous compounding (convenient here), the discount function is given by $d(t) = \exp\{-t R(t)\}$.

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The spot curve $R(t)$ as a cubic spline – 2

- In this case, we get the following regression model for bond prices:

$$P_i + A_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} b_{ij} \exp \left\{ - \sum_{k=1}^K a_k \cdot [t_{ij} \phi_k(t_{ij})] \right\} + \varepsilon_i \quad (9)$$

- Estimating this model requires non-linear least squares (NLS), and hence numerical optimization. With state-of-the-art computers, this is no longer a problem . . .
- If the last segment of the cubic spline is constrained to be flat, we can even use the technique for **extrapolation**, that is estimate $R(t)$ for t beyond the largest maturity of the N coupon bonds.
- Main limitation: the number of segments and position of the knots is somewhat arbitrary.
- The non-parametric **smoothing splines** avoid these problems.

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Other parameterizations of $R(t)$

- Polynomial method of Chambers et al. (1984)

$$R(t) = \sum_{k=0}^K a_k t^k \quad (10)$$

- This is simpler than splines, but (10) tends to lack stability for large K , and the method cannot be used for extrapolation.
- Nelson and Siegel (1987) propose the following four-parameter $(\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \tau_1)$ model for the spot curve

$$R(t) = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_2) \left[1 - \exp \left(-\frac{t}{\tau_1} \right) \right] \frac{\tau_1}{t} - \beta_2 \exp \left(-\frac{t}{\tau_1} \right) \quad (11)$$

- The Nelson-Siegel model is very parsimonious, but may lack the necessary flexibility in some cases.

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Estimation (fitting) techniques – 1

- General setup: non-linear regression model for $P^* = P + A$,

$$\begin{aligned} P_i^* &= \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} b_{ij} \exp(-t \cdot R(t, \beta)) + \varepsilon_i \\ &\equiv Z_i(\beta) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

- The most common estimation technique is the (weighted) non-linear least squares (NLS) method, where β is estimated by

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i [P_i^* - Z_i(\beta)]^2 \quad (13)$$

- If $w_i = 1$ for all i , we get unweighted NLS.
- This assumes that the error term ε_i in (12) is homoskedastic (constant variance for all bonds).

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Estimation (fitting) techniques – 2

- The homoskedasticity assumption is often violated by the data, and pricing errors are more dispersed for long-term bonds.
- This may be accommodated by specifications like

$$w_i = 1/T_i^\delta \quad \text{or} \quad w_i = 1/D_i^\delta,$$

where T_i and D_i are the bond maturity and duration, and $\delta > 0$.

- Least-squares estimates can be sensitive to large residuals (outliers). A way to avoid this potential is using least absolute deviations (LAD) instead

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^N |P_i^* - Z_i(\beta)| \quad (14)$$

- LAD estimates are more robust, but much harder to compute than NLS.

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