

Do inflation-linked bonds contain information about future inflation?

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Abstract

There is a widespread belief that inflation-linked bonds are a direct source of information about inflation expectations. In this paper we address this issue by analyzing the relationship between break-even inflation (the difference between nominal and real yields) and future inflation. The dataset is extracted from Brazilian Treasury bonds covering the period from April 2005 to July 2010. We find that break-even inflation is an unbiased forecast only of the 3-month and 6-month ahead inflation. For medium horizons (12 and 18 months) break-even inflation has weak explanatory power of future inflation. Over long horizons (24 and 30 months), we report a significant, but counterintuitive, negative relationship between the break-even and realized inflations.

Resumo

Há uma crença generalizada de que títulos indexados à inflação são uma fonte direta de informações sobre expectativas de inflação. Neste trabalho, abordamos esta questão, analisando a relação entre inflação implícita (a diferença entre rendimentos nominais e reais) e da inflação futura. O conjunto de dados é extraída de títulos do Tesouro Nacional referente ao período de abril de 2005 a julho de 2010. Descobrimos que a inflação implícita é um previsor não viesado apenas para a inflação de 3 meses e 6 meses à frente. Para horizontes médios (12 e 18 meses) a inflação implícita tem fraco poder explicativo da inflação futura. Em horizontes longos (24 e 30 meses) encontramos uma relação negativa significativa, não intuitiva, entre as inflações implícita e realizada.

Keywords: inflation-linked bonds; real and nominal yields; term premia; break-even inflation

Palavras chave: títulos indexados à inflação; rendimentos real e nominal; prêmio pela maturidade; inflação implícita

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1 Introduction

Market participants and policymakers interpret break-even inflation (the spread between nominal and real yields) as the main indicator of expected inflation. According to the Federal Reserve chairman, inflation-linked bonds appear to be the most important source of future inflation expectations (Bernanke, 2004). However, it is well known that the break-even inflation rate (BEIR) can be decomposed as an inflation expectation plus a risk premium term. This leads to the following questions: Does the BEIR efficiently predict future inflation? In other words, is the inflation risk premium negligible? A more general formulation of these issues can be stated as: Do inflation-linked bonds contain information about future prices? In this paper we shed light on these questions through a model free procedure using data on Brazilian Treasury yields.

Our analysis is based on a series of regressions between the realized inflation (dependent variable) and the BEIR (independent variable) for the horizons of 3, 6, 12, 18, 24 and 30 months. The significance of the parameters and R^2 provide a way to test the predictive ability and explanatory power of the BEIR. To avoid specification problems such as autocorrelations and endogeneity, we run these regressions using different approaches. First, we consider an OLS procedure. Next, we employ instrumental variables, estimating the model by TSLS and GMM techniques, with the covariance matrix computed according to Newey and West (1987)¹. The use of instrumental variables aims to keep consistency when the regressor is correlated with the error term, while the Newey-West method overcomes autocorrelation in the residuals.

Many other studies have investigated the inflation risk premium and consequently the relationship between break-even and realized inflations using real and nominal interest rates. Among others we can cite D'Amico et al. (2008), Hördahl (2008), Garcia and Werner (2010), Joyce et al. (2010), and Grishchenko and Huang (2010). The first four papers work in an affine arbitrage-free framework. D'Amico et al. (2008) show that although the U.S. inflation-linked bond yields contain a liquidity premium and time-varying inflation risk premium, the Treasury Inflation-Protected Security (TIPS) rates are a useful proxy for inflation expectations. Garcia and Werner (2010) apply a model similar to that used by D'Amico et al. (2008) in the euro area. They find that the term structure of inflation risk premia is upward sloping and varies from 7 to 25 basis points. Hördahl (2008) uses a structural

¹TSLS and GMM stand for Two-Step Least Squares and Generalized Method of Moments, respectively.

macroeconomic model to estimate inflation risk premia in the United States and the euro area. He shows that inflation risk premia have an increasing pattern with respect to maturity for the euro area and a flatter one for the United States. Joyce et al. (2010) estimate a joint model of UK nominal and real term structures. They find that the Bank of England's independence to set interest rates in May 1997 decreased the inflation risk premium and the inflation expectation embodied in the term structure. The article of Grishchenko and Huang (2010) computes the inflation risk premium as the difference between the TIPS break-even inflation and an estimation of future inflation. They show that the inflation risk premium is time-varying with negative values from 2000 to 2004 and positive from 2004 to 2008.

However, none of the above studies use the methodology proposed in this work. Our procedure to assess the information content in the BEIR has previously been applied in other contexts. For example, Campbell and Shiller (1991) test whether the slope of the term structure predicts changes in interest rates. To this end, they run regressions of future yields on forward yields. Christensen and Prabhala (1998) regress the realized volatility on the implied volatility of S&P 500 to evaluate the relationship between these two volatilities. Our strategy is close in spirit to Campbell and Shiller (1989) and Christensen and Prabhala (1998), except we replace yields and volatility by inflation. That is an innovation of this paper: a model free approach to measure the explanatory power of the BEIR. To the best of our knowledge, there is no study using this procedure to addresses this question.

Some countries have issued real return government securities. For example, the United Kingdom has issued index-linked bonds since 1981. On the other hand, the United States made its first issue in 1997, so the trading history is more recent. Although we could carry out this study based on data from these countries, we opt to use a Brazilian database for two reasons. First, Brazil is one of the most important emerging economies. Together with Russia, India and China, Brazil forms the so-called BRICs, a group of the most promising emerging markets. However, there are no studies about BEIR applied to an important emerging country. Second, unlike other markets, the indexation lag of Brazilian real bonds is very small (only a half month). Moreover, Brazilian real bonds do not have protection against deflation².

Our main findings can be summarized as follows. First, the BEIR is an unbiased estimate only of the 3-month and 6-month ahead inflation. Second, for the horizons of 12 and 18 months, the BEIR has weak explanatory power

²The TIPS indexation lag is three months. Grishchenko and Huang (2010) point out that ignoring the indexation lag results in an underestimate of the inflation risk premium.

for future inflation. On the other hand, the 24-month and 30-month break-even inflations explain future inflation. However, for these two long horizons, we obtain a surprising result: the relationship between the break-even and realized inflations is negative. Of course these findings are not a puzzle. They can be easily explained by a time-varying inflation risk premium, which is not captured by our linear model. In other words, this suggests that the expectations hypothesis fails for medium and long-term bonds. Finally, our results are robust to a number of alternative econometric methods to estimate the model.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the data and stylized facts, while Section 3 discusses the methodology used in this work. Section 4 presents the results and Section 5 concludes.

2 Model

Let $y_t^n(\tau)$ and $y_t^r(\tau)$ be the continuously compounded yields for nominal and real yields at t with time to maturity τ . The BEIR is defined as:

$$i_t(\tau) = y_t^n(\tau) - y_t^r(\tau),$$

where $i_t(\tau)$ is the BEIR for period t and horizon τ .

Denote by $h_t(1)$ the continuously compounded annual rate of change between two observations of a price index (from t to $t + 1$). Then, the accumulated inflation rate between t and $t + \tau$ is given by

$$h_t(\tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} \sum_{j=t}^{t+\tau-1} h_j(1).$$

The information content of the BEIR can be assessed by estimating a regression of the form³

$$h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t. \quad (1)$$

Using Eq. (1), we can test if the BEIR contains some information about future inflation. If c_1 is nonzero, the answer to this question is positive. Moreover, we can verify if the BEIR is an unbiased forecast of realized inflation. In this case, we should find that $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$.

The BEIR can be decomposed as the sum of the expected inflation rate plus a risk premium (see Grishchenko and Huang, 2010):

$$i_t(\tau) = E_t(h_t(\tau)) + IRP_t(\tau), \quad (2)$$

³In fact, we should write c_1^τ and c_2^τ . However, we omit the superscript τ for brevity.

where $E_t(\cdot)$ denotes the mathematical expectation conditional on information available at time t . The expectation hypothesis states that the term premium is constant over time but possibly maturity-dependent, that is, $IRP_t(\tau)$ does not depend on t . Under this hypothesis and using a further assumption of rational expectations, the econometric specification of (2) is given by (1). Therefore, Eq. (1) can also be used to test a BEIR version of the expectation hypothesis.

3 Data and stylized facts

Our sample consists of a monthly series of real and nominal yields from April 2005 to July 2010. This dataset is provided by the National Association of Financial Market Institutions (ANDIMA)⁴. The term structure of nominal rates is extracted from plain vanilla (NTN-F) and zero-coupon (LTN) Brazilian Treasury bonds using the Svensson interpolation model (see Svensson, 1994). The face value of the NTN-F is R\$ 1,000.00 (one thousand Brazilian Reals) and it pays a bi-annual interest coupon of R\$ 48.81⁵. LTN is a zero coupon bond with face value of R\$ 1,000.00. The term structure of real rates are also constructed by the Svensson model, however the curve is fitted using NTN-B bonds, the leading Brazilian Treasury inflation-protected security. The yield of the NTN-B is linked to the IPCA, a consumer price index adopted in the inflation targeting regime of the Central Bank of Brazil. NTN-B does not have the indexation lag problem present in the TIPS market, since interest is paid based on the current level of the IPCA (available with a maximum delay of 15 days). Although the NTN-B bonds have been issued since 2001, we start our sample in April 2005 to avoid liquidity problems in the NTN-B market between 2001 and 2005.

The Brazilian inflation-linked securities market is one of the largest in the world with over US\$ 200 billion of NTN-B bonds outstanding⁶. The average term to maturity of NTN-B bonds is nearly six years. The Brazilian fixed-rate market is also significant. The LTN and NTN-F bonds have around US\$ 155 billion and US\$ 126 billion in bonds outstanding, with average terms to maturity of 12 and 30 months, respectively⁷.

⁴ANDIMA is an association of Brazilian financial service providers. For more information about ANDIMA, see the website <http://www.andima.com.br/english/index.asp>.

⁵The Brazilian Real/US Dollar exchange rate was around 1.75 in July 2010.

⁶For comparison purposes the TIPS market has US\$ 500 billion outstanding.

⁷These data are for April 2010. For more information about the Brazilian Treasury bonds market, see the website of the Central Bank of Brazil, <http://www.bcb.gov.br/?english>.

	$i(3)$	$i(6)$	$i(12)$	$i(18)$	$i(24)$	$i(30)$	IPCA
Mean	4.82%	4.63%	4.52%	4.55%	4.63%	4.73%	4.68%
Median	4.69%	4.46%	4.33%	4.38%	4.49%	4.64%	4.53%
Maximum	8.13%	6.79%	6.94%	7.31%	7.42%	7.40%	10.95%
Minimum	2.09%	2.61%	3.19%	3.19%	3.24%	3.31%	-2.49%
Std. dev.	0.012	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.027
Skewness	0.70	0.36	0.88	1.16	1.17	1.04	0.07
Kurtosis	3.99	3.08	4.29	5.41	5.68	5.22	3.18
Jarque-Bera	7.75	1.37	12.67	29.86	33.67	24.64	0.14
Correlation	30.8%	35.1%	7.0%	-25.3%	-32.9%	-62.9%	-

Table 1: Descriptive statistics - BEIR and IPCA.

This table presents some descriptive statistics of the break-even inflation ($i(\tau)$, $\tau = 3, 6, 12, 18, 24, 30$) and the rate of change of the consumer price index (IPCA). The skewness of a symmetric distribution is zero. Positive skewness means that the distribution has a long right tail and negative skewness implies that the distribution has a long left tail. The kurtosis of the normal distribution is 3. If the kurtosis exceeds 3, the distribution is peaked (leptokurtic) relative to the normal; if the kurtosis is less than 3, the distribution is flat (platykurtic) relative to the normal. Under the null hypothesis of a normal distribution, the Jarque-Bera statistic is distributed as chi-squared with 2 degrees of freedom. Boldface values mean significance at a 95% confidence level. The bottom row shows the correlation coefficients between the break-even inflation and the realized inflation.

Table 1 presents some descriptive statistics of the BEIR and IPCA. The averages of the IPCA and BEIR for all horizons are around 4.5%. Both the BEIR and the realized inflation are leptokurtic with a positive skewness (long right tail). The Jarque-Bera statistic indicates that the 3-month and 6-month BEIR and the IPCA appear to be normally distributed. This is a sign that the BEIR can better explain realized inflation over a short horizon than a long horizon. This sign will be confirmed in the empirical exercise presented in Section 4. The correlation coefficients between the BEIR and realized inflation (the bottom row of Table 1) are positive for the horizons of 3, 6 and 12 months and negative for the horizons of 18, 24, and 36 months. Figure 1 depicts the time evolution of the BEIR and the rate of change of the IPCA from April 2005 to July 2010. Note that the BEIR term structure is almost everywhere upward sloping. Moreover, the BEIR and IPCA

exhibit no trend.

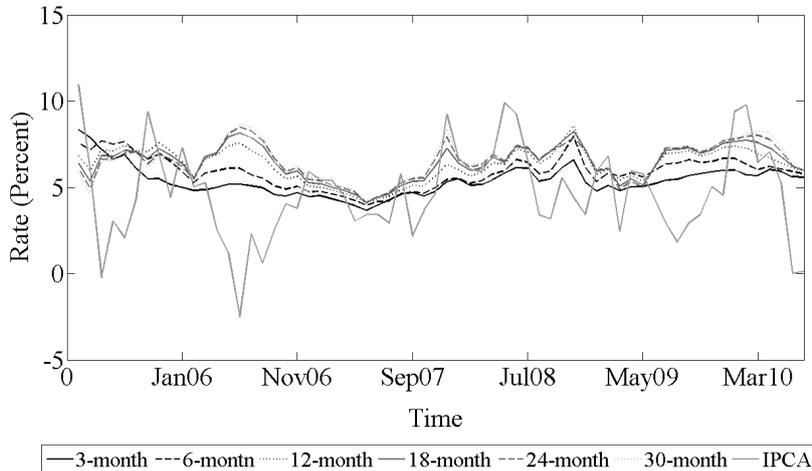


Figure 1: BEIR and IPCA.

This figure contains time series of the 3-, 6-, 12-, 18-, 24-, 30- month BEIR and the rate of change of the IPCA from April 2005 to July 2010. The BEIR is the difference between the nominal and real yields. The IPCA is the main Brazilian consumer price index.

4 Empirical results

In order to provide robust results, we estimate Eq. (1) using three different methods. First we adopt an OLS procedure. Next, we introduce instrumental variables to control for endogeneity. In this case, the model is estimated using TSLS and GMM with the variance-covariance matrix computed as suggested by Newey and West (1987). The instrument specification is $i_{t-1}(\tau)$ for TSLS and $i_{t-1}(\tau)$, $i_{t-2}(\tau)$ and $i_{t-3}(\tau)$ for GMM ($\tau = 3, 6, 12, 18, 24, 30$). Tables 2, 3 and 4 report the estimates of c_1 and c_2 , the standard deviations, the corrected R^2 , and the F -statistic of the joint hypothesis $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$ for the OLS, TSLS and GMM methods, respectively⁸.

⁸To check the consistency of OLS estimators, we perform the Durbin-Wu-Hausman test (see, Ruud, 1984). We found no significant difference among OLS, TSLS and GMM. Nevertheless, we opt to report the TSLS and GMM estimations in order to provide robust results.

Horizon	3	6	12	18	24	30
c_1	0.49 (0.20)	0.58 (0.21)	0.08 (0.17)	-0.25 (0.15)	-0.25 (0.12)	-0.36 (0.08)
c_2	0.02 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	0.04 (0.007)	0.06 (0.006)	0.06 (0.005)	0.06 (0.004)
R^2	9.50%	12.33%	0.49%	6.39%	10.81%	39.52%
$c_1 = 1$ $c_2 = 0$	0.02	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 2: OLS results of $h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t$.

This table presents the OLS estimates of $h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t$ (Eq. (1) in the paper) for the horizons of 3, 6, 12, 18, 24 and 30 months. Here, $i_t(\tau)$ denotes the BEIR at time t and horizon τ , and $h_t(\tau)$ denotes the consumer price index (IPCA) accumulated between t and $t + \tau$. The bottom row shows the F -statistic of the joint hypothesis $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$. Numbers in parentheses denote standard errors. Boldface values mean significance at a 95% confidence level.

Note first that the estimates are very similar across the different estimation strategies, which indicates that our results are robust. The slope c_1 is significant for the horizons of 3, 6, 24 and 30 months⁹. Hence, in the short and long term, the BEIR contains some information about future inflation. However, moving from the short to the long horizon, we can easily observe a distinct link between the BEIR and future inflation. For the horizons of 3 and 6 months, the F -statistic of the joint hypothesis $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$ shows that the BEIR is an unbiased estimator of future inflation. In other words, we cannot reject the BEIR version of the expectation hypothesis¹⁰. On the other hand, for the horizons of 24 and 30 months the relationship between the BEIR and future inflation is negative¹¹. Though peculiar, this finding simply suggests that the expectation hypothesis fails over long horizons. Therefore, the linear relation of Eq. (1) probably cannot accommodate the link between

⁹Apart from the estimate of c_1 for the 24-month horizon calculated by GMM.

¹⁰The BEIR version of the expectation hypothesis states that the inflation risk premium is constant over time.

¹¹These results are consistent with correlation coefficients shown in Table 1.

Horizon	3	6	12	18	24	30
c_1	0.77 (0.30)	0.63 (0.29)	-0.18 (0.25)	-0.42 (0.22)	-0.43 (0.15)	-0.49 (0.08)
c_2	0.008 (0.014)	0.017 (0.014)	0.05 (0.01)	0.06 (0.01)	0.065 (0.007)	0.068 (0.004)
R^2	6.35%	13.45%	-2.59%	2.80%	6.31%	35.23%
$c_1 = 1$ $c_2 = 0$	0.60	0.43	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 3: TSLS results of $h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t$.

This table presents the TSLS estimates of $h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t$ (Eq. (1) in the paper) for the horizons of 3, 6, 12, 18, 24 and 30 months. Here, $i_t(\tau)$ denotes the BEIR at time t and horizon τ , and $h_t(\tau)$ denotes the consumer price index (IPCA) accumulated between t and $t + \tau$. The instrument specification is $i_{t-1}(\tau)$ ($\tau = 3, 6, 12, 18, 24, 30$) and standard errors are computed by the Newey-West estimator. The bottom row shows the F -statistic of the joint hypothesis $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$. Numbers in parentheses denote standard errors. Boldface values mean significance at a 95% confidence level.

the BEIR and future inflation. A more general specification is necessary in this case. The assumption of constant risk premium can be relaxed, implying a time-varying inflation risk premium for long horizons. This result is consistent with previous empirical evidence. For example, Grishchenko and Huang (2010) document that although the U.S. 10-year inflation risk premium is around zero on average, it is time-varying.

For medium horizons the coefficient c_1 is not significant and R^2 is very low. Moreover, the F -statistic rejects the joint hypothesis $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$. This means that the BEIR does not have information about the 12- and 18-month ahead inflation. We have difficulties to interpret the constant c_2 as an inflation risk premium when c_1 is statistically different from 1. Nevertheless, since c_2 is significant ranging between 400 to 700 basis points for medium and long horizons we can conjecture that investors require a high reward to hold inflation-linked bonds with maturities greater than one year.

In a nutshell, apart from the short horizon, we present evidence that the

Horizon	3	6	12	18	24	30
c_1	0.93 (0.29)	0.69 (0.26)	0.02 (0.25)	-0.08 (0.22)	-0.18 (0.25)	-0.54 (0.15)
c_2	0.003 (0.014)	0.014 (0.012)	0.04 (0.01)	0.05 (0.01)	0.05 (0.01)	0.070 (0.006)
J -statistic	0.11	0.20	0.20	0.31	0.14	0.15
$c_1 = 1$ $c_2 = 0$	0.94	0.51	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 4: GMM results of $h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t$.

This table presents the GMM estimates of $h_t(\tau) = c_1 i_t(\tau) + c_2 + \epsilon_t$ (Eq. (1) in the paper) for the horizons of 3, 6, 12, 18, 24 and 30 months. Here, $i_t(\tau)$ denotes the BEIR at time t and horizon τ , and $h_t(\tau)$ denotes the consumer price index (IPCA) accumulated between t and $t + \tau$. The instrument specification is $i_{t-1}(\tau)$, $i_{t-2}(\tau)$ and $i_{t-3}(\tau)$ ($\tau = 3, 6, 12, 18, 24, 30$) and standard errors are computed by the Newey-West estimator. The J -statistic is the p-value of the test for over-identifying restrictions. The bottom row shows the F -statistic of the joint hypothesis $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 0$. Numbers in parentheses denote standard errors. Boldface values mean significance at a 95% confidence level.

BEIR fails to correctly predict subsequent movements in inflation. Although the aim of this work is not to examine the causes of this failure, we can imagine some reasons. First, we have only five years of data. Despite the fact our sample size is compatible with that found in other empirical finance studies of emerging economies (see, for instance, Pan and Singleton, 2008, and Almeida and Vicente, 2009), we believe that a larger dataset would provide more accurate results. Second, the Brazilian market can actually be risky, which would imply a high risk premium, explaining the weak relationship between the BEIR and future inflation. Third, the BEIR can be affected by a “clientele effect”, which means that the NTN-B may attract investors with preferences for specific maturities and strong aversion to inflation uncertainty¹². The clientele effect would thus cause a distortion on

¹²The clientele effect is modeled within the preferred-habitat theory. Although this theory was proposed more than a half century ago, there are few academic works dealing

the inflation expectation extracted from inflation-index bonds. In Brazil, the typical clientele for inflation-index bonds are pension funds who aim to hedge their inflation-linked liabilities. In July 2010, pension funds held 33% of NTN-B outstanding and only 5% of LTN and NTN-F outstanding.

5 Conclusion

We proposed a model free procedure to assess the relationship between the break-even and future inflations. We showed that the break-even inflation is informative about future inflation over horizons of 3, 6, 24 and 30 months. For the 3- and 6-month horizons, besides being informative, break-even inflation is an unbiased estimator as well. However, over the horizons of 24 and 30 months, the relationship between the break-even and future inflations is negative. On the other hand, for the horizons of 12 and 18 months, break-even inflation has almost no power to explain future inflation. These results indicate that policymakers and market participants should be very careful in using break-even inflation as a proxy for future movements in price indexes.

with it. Nevertheless, Vayanos and Vila (2009) have recently revisited the preferred-habitat theory through the lens of no-arbitrage models. Moreover Garbade and Rutherford (2007) and Greenwood and Vayanos (2009) discuss episodes supporting the preferred-habitat view.

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