Chapter 4

Index arbitrage and the pricing relationship between Australian stock index futures and their underlying shares

4.1 Introduction

The second study for this dissertation examines the relationship between the prices of Australian stock index futures and the replicating portfolio of underlying shares. New evidence is provided about the efficiency of information transmission between the spot and futures markets since the underlying index became more narrowly defined from 2 May 2000. In addition to surprises in trading volume and the volatility in the futures market examined in previous research, the impact of surprise trading volume in the cash market is incorporated in the analysis to be able to infer the main sources of information arrival in both markets. Furthermore, this study takes account of specific risks and timevarying transaction costs that constrain the supply of arbitrage services, whereas previous studies have relied upon constant total transaction costs. These extensions enable a more comprehensive evaluation of the effectiveness of the arbitrage mechanism that transmits information between cash and futures markets.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. Section 4.2 describes the institutional setting and data used in empirical tests. The empirical results are reported in section 4.3 and the chapter is summarised in section 4.4.

4.2 Institutional setting and data

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Introduced in April 2000, the S&P/ASX 200 index measures the performance of the 200 largest stocks listed on the ASX. The index is float-adjusted and represents approximately 80 percent of the Australian equities market capitalisation.^{[46](#page-0-0)} The stocks comprising the index are traded on the ASX's computerised trading system, known as the Stock Exchange Automated Trading System (SEATS) until October 2006. The level of the S&P/ASX 200 is calculated by Standard & Poor's and is reported to the market every 30 seconds as constituent prices change.

⁴⁶ The index was converted from a market capitalisation weighted index to a free float based index on 1 October 2002.

SFE SPI 200™ Index Futures are written over the S&P/ASX 200 index with a contract unit of 25 Australian dollars per index point. The contracts follow a March-June-September-December quarterly maturity cycle and are cash settled at a price calculated using the first traded price of each component stock in the index on the last trading day (denoted day 0 in this chapter). From the June 2003 expiry onwards, the last trading day is the third Thursday of the settlement month. Earlier contracts expired on the last business day of the settlement month. 47

Trading of SFE SPI 200™ futures in the daytime session commences at 9:50 a.m. and finishes at 4:30 p.m. on the SFE. In contrast, the stocks from which the index is constructed are traded on the ASX from 10:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.. Stocks on the ASX do not open simultaneously. Rather, they are grouped according to the starting letter of their ASX code and each group is opened randomly up to fifteen seconds on either side of different times between 10.00 a.m. and 10.09 a.m..

4.2.1 Data and sample

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Reuters trade and quote data for SFE SPI 200^{TM} futures were provided by SIRCA. The data cover the period 1 January 2002 to 15 December 2005, which provides a structural break free data set of sixteen contract maturities for analysis.^{[48](#page-1-1)} Though up to six maturities are listed at any particular time, the analysis is confined to the nearest-tomaturity contract which has by far the most significant trading volume. Hence, each contract is followed from the expiry date of the previous contract until its expiration. Expiration day observations are not included.^{[49](#page-1-2)} The data describe the time (to the nearest second), price and volume of each trade and the prices of the best available bids and offers. End-of-day open interest figures were obtained from Bloomberg.

S&P/ASX 200 stock index values, time-stamped approximately 30 seconds apart, and Reuters trade and quote data for the index constituents were also provided by SIRCA. The index constituents were identified using a daily list from Bloomberg. The list contains the float-adjusted index weights, numbers of shares outstanding that are

⁴⁷ An exception is the December 2002 contract which expired on 9 December 2002.
⁴⁸ Observations for 11 January 2002 and 2 May 2003 with average intraday mispricing given by equation (4.3) of $+0.29$ percent indicating the futures contract was unusually expensive and -0.67 percent indicating the contract was unusually cheap respectively are excluded from the sample.

⁴⁹ Stoll and Whaley (1987) provide evidence of price effects associated with S&P 500 futures contract expirations. The cash settlement feature of index futures contracts requires arbitrageurs to unwind positions in the stock market. Abnormal stock price movements may arise if many arbitrage programs are being unwound in the same direction at the opening call auction on the expiration day.

included in the index calculation and closing prices for stocks in the index. The Reuters transaction file records all trades and quotes on the ASX. It contains the time to the nearest second, the price and volume for each trade and the time and bid/ask prices for each quotation.

Daily series for the overnight cash, 30, 90 and 180 day bank accepted bills rates were obtained from the Reserve Bank of Australia (www.rba.gov.au). The interest rate for loans maturing at the expiration date of the futures was estimated using linear interpolation between these four reference interest rates. A daily dividend series was obtained from Bloomberg. The dividend series contains the total actual cash dividends and gross dividends (cash dividends plus imputation credits) paid each ex-dividend day by stocks in the $S\&P/ASX$ 200.^{[50](#page-2-0)} Mispricing estimates are based on the assumption that the dividend amounts and franking percentages are known from the expiry date of the previous contract. The discrete and seasonal dividend payments of the S&P/ASX 200 index portfolio are taken into account by using the actual ex-post daily dividend inflows for the basket stocks, which Harvey and Whaley (1992) show reduces pricing errors that occur when constant dividend yields are assumed.

In calculating the differences between actual and theoretical index futures prices, futures price quotes and index values that are approximately five minutes apart and that are the latest available before the end of each five minute mark are used. The bid-ask midpoint price prevailing at the end of each five minute interval is taken to represent the actual futures price.^{[51](#page-2-1)} In the same way, the most recent index value reported to the market before the end of the five minute interval is taken to represent the actual spot market price.^{[52](#page-2-2)} While traders have access to the updated index level throughout the course of the day, the index calculation utilises non-synchronous or stale prices especially for thinly traded stocks, so that the truly tradeable price of the replicating portfolio can diverge temporarily from the instantaneously reported value.^{[53](#page-2-3)} These price series are

⁵⁰ Daily dividend payments of basket stocks are unavailable for other studies. For example, Brailsford and Hodgson (1997) rely upon published Australian All Ordinaries index dividend yields that were only available on a monthly basis in order to form ex-ante expectations about dividend yields.

⁵¹ Quote midpoint prices are used to minimise the effect on the mispricing series of bid-ask bounce in the futures market. Similarly, Bühler and Kempf (1995) use the mean of the current bid-ask quotes for futures contracts and interest rates to calculate the relative mispricing of German stock index futures.

 52 As the stock index values are clocked approximately thirty seconds apart, they will be updated on average fifteen seconds before the five minute mark. The deviations from theoretical pricing levels computed from these values may be slightly upward biased due to the momentary delay until the end of the each interval.

⁵³ The index is updated using transaction prices and does not use the bid and offer quotes for the component stocks. This problem may be exacerbated in the relatively thinly traded Australian stock

constructed for every five minute interval from 10:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. Sydney time, which is the segment of the trading day when both the futures and cash markets are open simultaneously in continuous auction mode. Observations for which there were zero futures trading volume are excluded to provide results comparable with those reported by Brailsford and Hodgson (1997) .^{[54](#page-3-0)} The final sample consists of 66,040 observations.

The levels of autocorrelation in the price changes for both SFE SPI 200TM futures and the S&P/ASX 200 spot price series are reported in table 4.1. The autocorrelations of the futures price changes are close to zero at all ten lags, although are slightly negative at the first and second lags consistent with traders picking off liquidity using market orders when it becomes available at improved quote prices. More noticeably, the index series is positively auto-correlated at the first lag with a first order autocorrelation coefficient of 0.19 similar to that reported by Brailsford and Hodgson (1997) for the Australian All Ordinaries index (0.20). This behaviour is consistent with the presence of stale prices in the available index values (described by Fisher, 1966).

	Log of price ratios					
	SFE SPI 200TM futures		S&P/ASX 200 index			
Autocorrelation coefficients						
ρ_1	-0.012	\ast	0.193	*		
ρ_2	-0.011	\ast	-0.012	\ast		
ρ_3	0.002		-0.001			
ρ_4	0.002		0.001			
ρ_5	0.000		0.005			
ρ_6	-0.001		-0.001			
ρ_7	0.004		-0.003			
ρ_8	-0.006		-0.006			
ρ_9	-0.001		-0.003			
ρ_{10}	-0.003		-0.003			

Table 4.1 Autocorrelations for changes of the logarithm of price in SFE SPI 200TM futures and the S&P/ASX 200 index

Autocorrelations are based on five minute observation intervals. *Denotes significance at the 1% level.

market because not all stocks in the index trade every five minutes. The problem of non-synchronous trading in the futures market is overcome by using the bid-ask midpoint price prevailing at the end of each interval.

 54 As a result, 730 observations were removed representing 1.1 percent of the original sample.

4.2.2 Variable measurement

Published empirical work on stock index futures pricing has implicitly assumed that investors face the same marginal tax rate on all forms of income and employ only the cash value of dividends. These assumptions can lead to significantly biased estimates of futures mispricing in a market like Australia, where interest and dividend income are taxed more harshly than capital gains on stocks and an imputation system provides investors with a tax credit on franked dividends (as shown in the preceding chapter). Assuming the following—investors do not default on any contract; no money changes hands through marking to market during the lifetime of the contract, only on the maturity date; all investors can borrow and lend at the same non-stochastic interest rate; the cash dividend yield and imputation credit yield of the index over the remaining life of the near futures contract are known in advance; no transaction costs; and no restrictions on short sales—the theoretical price of a futures contract under the taxadjusted cost-of-carry model developed in chapter 3 is:

$$
f_{t,T}(p) = S_t + (1 - \tau_1)S_t(e^{r(T-t)} - 1) - \gamma_1 \sum_{s=t+1}^T D_s e^{r(T-s)} - \gamma_2 \sum_{s=t+1}^T IC_s \tag{4.1}
$$

where

 $f_{TT}(p)$ = the fair value at time *t* of an index futures contract with partially valued carry components maturing at time *T*;

- S_t = the spot index value at time *t*;
- $r =$ the annualised risk-free interest rate at time *t* for repayment at time *T*;
- D_s = the aggregate dividend cash flows on the index associated with an exdividend date *s*;
- IC_s = the aggregate imputation credits for the basket stocks in the index associated with an ex-dividend date *s*;
	- τ_1 = the reduction in the financing cost achieved through the tax deductibility of one dollar of interest on loans;
	- γ_1 = the value of one dollar of accumulated cash dividends allowing for the harsher tax treatment of dividend income relative to capital gains on stocks: and
	- γ_2 = the value of one dollar of imputation credits.

The accumulated value of cash dividends on the underlying stocks over the remaining life of the contract is calculated on the assumption that the forward interest rate at time *t* for loans made at time *s* to be repaid at time *T* is identical to the spot interest rate at time *s* for loans maturing at time *T*. Substituting the values of the parameters $\tau_1 = 0.066$, $\gamma_1 =$ 0.804 and γ_2 = 0.521 reported in table 3.2 for SFE SPI 200TM futures over the same sample period, the theoretical fair price of a futures contract at time *t* with maturity date *T* is given by:

$$
f_{t,T}(p) = S_t + 0.934 \times S_t (e^{r(T-t)} - 1) - 0.804 \times \sum_{s=t+1}^{T} D_s e^{r(T-s)}
$$

- 0.521 × $\sum_{s=t+1}^{T} IC_s$ (4.2)

The tax-adjusted mispricing series is defined as:

$$
M_{t,T}(p) = \log F_{t,T} - \log f_{t,T}(p)
$$
\n(4.3)

where $F_{t,T}$ is the actual futures bid-ask midpoint price and $f_{t,T}(p)$ is the theoretical futures price at time *t* for a contract expiring at time *T* using the tax-adjusted cost-of-carry model.

4.3 Empirical results

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Section 4.3.1 reports on the behaviour of the mispricing series. In section 4.3.2 a time series and regression based approach is taken to explain the mispricing series.

4.3.1 Behaviour of the mispricing series

Table 4.2 provides descriptive statistics for the mispricing series. The overall mean pricing error is close to zero (-0.010 percent) with a standard deviation of 0.108 percent.[55](#page-5-0) The average mispricing is lowest for the June 2002 contract (-0.093 percent) and highest for the September 2003 contract (0.060 percent). These estimates are closer to zero than the estimate of -0.131 percent provided by Brailsford and Hodgson (1997) for average mispricing of the former Australian All Ordinaries Share Price Index futures contract employing only the cash value of the dividend. The results are consistent with

⁵⁵ When measured as the simple difference between the actual and theoretical index futures contract price, the average mispricing over the entire sample is -0.45 points and the standard deviation is 3.85 points, where each index point is valued at AUD 25.

the hypothesis that the adjusted cost-of-carry pricing model allowing for the different tax treatment of interest and dividends versus capital gains on stocks and the market value of imputation tax credits produces an unbiased estimate for the futures price.^{[56](#page-6-0)}

Table 4.2

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Summary statistics on the levels of mispricing in SFE SPI 200TM Index Futures contracts employing the tax-adjusted cost-of-carry model, by expiration (5-minute quote snapshot data, mispricing in percent of theoretical futures price)

Note: $M_{t,T}(p) = \log F_{t,T} - \log f_{t,T}(p)$ where $F_{t,T}$ is the futures bid-ask midpoint price and $f_t \tau(p)$ is the theoretical futures price employing the tax-adjusted cost-of-carry model.

Slightly more than half of the observations (51.8 percent) are negatively mispriced. This result could be due to the relatively higher costs of short selling when the arbitrage strategy calls for shorting rather than buying stocks (also noted by Modest and Sundaresan, 1983 in the United States; Draper and Fung, 1999; 2003 in Hong Kong; Brenner, Subrahmanyam and Uno, 1989a in Japan; Gay and Jung, 1999 in Korea; Vipul, 2005 in India; Kempf, 1998 in Germany; Puttonen and Martikainen, 1991; and Puttonen, 1993 in Finland; and Brailsford and Hodgson, 1997 in Australia). Mispricing is predominantly positive in some periods and negative in other periods, as shown in previous empirical work (for example, Figlewski, 1984b; Klemkosky and Lee, 1991 in the United States; Brenner, Subrahmanyam and Uno, 1989a; 1989b; 1990 in Japan;

⁵⁶ Similarly for the S&P 500 futures contract, Klemkosky and Lee (1991) find that the frequency of pricing violations notably decreases when taxes are considered in the analysis.

Yadav and Pope, 1994; Butterworth and Holmes, 2000 in the United Kingdom; and Bowers and Twite, 1985 in Australia).

4.3.2 Modelling mispricing

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In this section, a time series and regression based approach to explaining the mispricing series similar to Brailsford and Hodgson (1997) is extended to incorporate the impact of unexpected information arrival in both the cash and futures markets and risks and transaction costs faced by arbitrageurs. The modelling process is undertaken in two stages. First, dynamic and static time series components are filtered out by applying an autoregressive model augmented with dummy variables to capture day-of-the-week seasonality in the raw mispricing. Specifically, the time series model takes the form:

$$
M_{t,T} = \sum_{j=1}^{25} \beta_j M_{t-j} + \beta_{26} M_{t-d} + \beta_{27} M_{t-2d} + \beta_{28} D_{1t} + \beta_{29} D_{2t}
$$

+ $\beta_{30} D_{3t} + \beta_{31} D_{4t} + \beta_{32} D_{5t} + \varepsilon_t$ (4.4)

The dependent variable M_{tT} is defined as the difference in logarithms between the market futures price and its theoretical price, that is $M_{t,T} = \log F_{t,T} - \log f_{t,T}$, β_1 to β_{27} are dynamic autoregressive parameters where *t* is the five-minute sample interval and *d* is one trading day, $D_1, D_2, ..., D_5$ are zero-one dummy variables to test whether there are systematic and fixed mispricing patterns related to each day of the week where $D_1 =$ Monday, ..., D_5 = Friday.^{[57](#page-7-0)} This model allows a comparison to previous domestic and overseas studies which have identified strong first order autocorrelation and day of the week effects in the mispricing series.

Select results for the time series analysis using equation (4.4) on the tax-adjusted mispricing series are shown in table 4.3. For the autoregressive parameters, only the significant estimates are reported.

 57 Garbade and Silber (1983) specify a model which describes the interrelationship between cash market prices and futures prices of storable commodities as a first-order autoregressive process. The autoregressive parameter δ in their model measures the (inverse of) the elasticity of supply of arbitrage services. Furthermore, Wang and Yau (1994) show that the estimated first-order autoregressive coefficient of the mispricing series can measure the degree of market linkage if it is statistically different from one.

*Denotes significance at the 1% level. Coefficients are multiplied by 10^2 .

The results in table 4.3 confirm that the mispricing of SFE SPI 200™ futures is highly predictable; consecutive autoregressive coefficients are uniformly positive and significant out to twelve intervals as well as 144 intervals, equivalent to two trading days. The significance of the consecutive autoregressive coefficients indicates a high degree of persistence in the mispricing series, consistent with infrequent trading in the underlying stocks (Miller, Muthuswamy and Whaley, 1994).^{[58](#page-8-0)} In combination with the autoregressive effects, mispricing is significantly higher on Monday and significantly lower on Wednesday than on other days of the week.

⁵⁸ The persistence in the mispricing series is consistent with Klemkosky and Lee (1991), who find that an arbitrage position is still profitable ten minutes after it is initially identified as profitable.

After pre-filtering using the model specified in equation (4.4), the absolute values of the residuals are obtained. The mean absolute residual is 0.031 percent with a standard deviation of 0.044 percent as shown in table 4.4 panel A. The relationship between time to maturity and the absolute residuals is illustrated in figure 4.1. The absolute residuals are greater in the first half of the expiry cycle. Since the residuals represent the unpredictable innovations in futures contract mispricing, this is consistent with index arbitrage being more risky further out from maturity.

The significance of explanatory variables in relation to the absolute residual mispricing is tested using the following model.

$$
\begin{aligned} \left| \varepsilon_{t} \right| &= \alpha + \beta_{1} Opening1_{t} \left| US_{t} \right| + \beta_{2} Opening2_{t} \left| US_{t} \right| + \beta_{3} Volatility_{SPI} \\ &+ \beta_{4} UVolume_{SPI} + \beta_{5} UVolume_{ASX200} + \beta_{6} Close_{t} + \beta_{7} TExpiry_{t} \\ &+ \beta_{8} UDividend_{t} + \beta_{9} IV Interest_{t} + \beta_{10} MICost_{t} + \beta_{11} BCost_{t} + \varepsilon_{t} \end{aligned} \tag{4.5}
$$

A number of possible explanatory variables are considered before constructing the above model. Descriptive statistics (panel A) and correlations between the variables representing the risks and transaction costs faced by arbitrageurs (panel B) are presented in table 4.4. The explanatory variables are measured as follows.

Opening I_t and *Opening 2_t* are zero-one dummy variables for the first two intervals at the opening of stock trading ending at 10.05 a.m. and 10.10 a.m. respectively, included to assess the possible impact of opening procedures in the stock market.^{[59](#page-10-0)}

 $|US_t|$ is the absolute value of the overnight United States return on the S&P 500 stock index which is only activated at 10.05 a.m. and 10.10 a.m.. This variable is included to test whether the volatility from the United States market, which acts as a proxy for overnight public information arrival, has an impact on the mispricing series in the smaller dependent Australian market.

Volatility_{SPI} is the price volatility of SFE SPI 200TM futures where volatility is measured similarly to Bessembinder and Seguin (1992) as: 60

$$
Volatility_{SPI} = \left| \log(F_{t,T}) - \log(F_{t-1,T}) \right| \times \sqrt{\pi/2}
$$
\n(4.6)

This variable is used to verify whether intraday price movements in the futures market have a significant impact on the mispricing series. Futures prices are more variable than for the index, consistent with previous research by Hill, Jain and Wood (1988), MacKinlay and Ramaswamy (1988) and Yadav and Pope (1990). This suggests that new information is incorporated with greater speed in the futures market. There does not appear to be any time to expiration pattern in the volatility of spot and futures prices, which are plotted in figure $4.2⁶¹$ $4.2⁶¹$ $4.2⁶¹$

⁵⁹ A number of factors may impair the pricing efficiency of an opening call auction. Madhavan and Panchapagesan (2000) find that system-clearing prices are not always defined and are highly sensitive to market-on-open order imbalances, especially in thinly traded stocks.

 60 Schwert and Seguin (1990) show that if the conditional distribution of returns is normal with timevarying standard deviation, the transformed variable given by equation (4.6) provides an unbiased estimate of the return standard deviation.

⁶¹ This is consistent with prior research by Grammatikos and Saunders (1986) based on five different foreign currency futures traded on the International Monetary Market, which finds that while maturity has a strong effect on volume of trading, no such relation could be found for price volatility. Likewise in the spot equity market, Bessembinder and Seguin (1992) find no evidence that S&P 500 volatility varies systematically with the time until maturity of equity index futures contracts. Figure 4.2 appears to confirm that information arrival in the spot and futures markets is random across contract maturity.

Figure 4.2 Time-to-expiry patterns in price volatility and bid-ask spreads

UVolume_{SPI} and *UVolume_{ASX200}* are unexpected trading volumes of SFE SPI 200TM futures and their underlying stocks respectively. The measure of trading volume for the futures market in a given interval is simply the number of near maturity contracts traded, which is employed by Frino and McKenzie (2002). The stock market turnover ratio is used to proxy for the trading volume of the underlying stocks. It is calculated as the value of total shares traded divided by the aggregate float-adjusted market capitalisation of the index constituents. Following Bessembinder and Seguin (1993), ARIMA models are used to decompose volume into its expected and unexpected components.[62](#page-11-0) Repeated tests on the sample do not give any firm evidence of improvement when moving beyond ARMA(1,2) for the futures maturities and ARMA(1,1) for the cash market volume series.^{[63](#page-11-1)} To the ARMA models dummy variables are added for the opening and close of stock trading.^{[64](#page-11-2)} Denoting the raw trading volume as V_t , unexpected volume is expressed as:

$$
UVolume_t = \log(V_t) - \log E(V_t) \tag{4.7}
$$

 62 The stationarity of each time series was assessed using augmented Dickey-Fuller tests. The existence of a unit root is rejected for all sixteen futures maturities and the cash market volume series.
⁶³ Schwarz's Bayesian criterion is used to determine the orders of the autoregressive and moving average

parts in the ARIMA models. Regressions are run using a number of different ARIMA specifications and these do not seem to influence the results.

⁶⁴ The cash market volume series is also augmented with a dummy variable corresponding to extraordinarily high stock market turnover of AUD 11.8 billion (1.48 percent of market capitalisation) between 11:05 and 11:10 a.m. on 5 July 2005.

The level of trading activity in both the futures and stock markets varies cyclically, with the highest levels of activity occurring near contract expiration. Mean spot and futures trading volume for each of the sixty days to expiration are shown in figure 4.3. Futures trading volume is relatively stable, then increases rapidly and peaks on the third to last trading day as traders close out positions in the near contract. Spot trading volume is typically higher at the end of calendar months and on futures expiration days.^{[65](#page-12-0)}

Figure 4.3 Time-to-expiry patterns in trading activity

Close_t is a zero-one dummy variable for the close of stock trading at 4.00 p.m. to capture possible effects from traders exiting the market before closing in order to avoid the risk of holding positions overnight.

TExpiry_t is time-to-expiry expressed as a fraction of a year, included to test for the timedependent risks of index arbitrage that simultaneously improve the implicit option component in an arbitrage position.

 65 A weekly pattern evident in figure 4.3 suggests that spot trading volume is lowest on Mondays (usually day 3, 8, 13 and so forth before the third Thursday of the expiry month), possibly due to the lack of an immediate lead from the NYSE in resolving the implication of new information for equity prices.

UDividend_t represents the uncertainty about the magnitude of dividends paid out by underlying stocks. Analyst-by-analyst fiscal year 1 dividend forecasts for all covered stocks are extracted from the I/B/E/S Daily Detail Earnings Estimates History database.^{[66](#page-13-0)} All estimates that are current on a particular day (indicated by the estimate date and review date in the database) are used to calculate the standard deviation of dividend per share (DPS) forecasts for an individual stock. Two assumptions are made in proceeding to construct a measure of dividend uncertainty for the index as a whole from the standard deviations for individual stocks: (i) the spread of (equally weighted) analysts' forecasts represents the probability distribution of future dividends; and (ii) the DPS forecasts for individual stocks are uncorrelated. On the basis of these assumptions, dividend yield uncertainty for the index is measured by the weighted average standard deviation of analysts' forecasts for constituent stocks:

$$
UDividend_{t} = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{200} (Shares_{i,t} \times StdDev(FDPS_{i,t}))^{2}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{200} (Shares_{i,t} \times P_{i,t})}
$$
(4.8)

where $FDPS_{i,t}$ are analysts' fiscal year 1 dividend per share forecasts for stock *i*, *Shares_{it}* is the number of shares of stock *i* included in the index calculation and P_{it} is the closing price of stock *i* on day *t*. This variable is included to capture possible effects related to the dispersion of analysts' dividend forecasts. The mean dividend yield uncertainty as indicated by this measure is 0.07 to 0.08 percent throughout the contract life cycle as shown in figure 4.4.

⁶⁶ Each dividend forecast record contains broker and analyst codes, the forecast period end date, the estimated dividend in cents per share, the date the estimate was entered into the database (estimate date) and the most recent date that the estimate was confirmed as accurate (review date).

Figure 4.4 Time-to-expiry patterns in dividend yield uncertainty and interest rate

ADividend_t is an alternative measure of the time-to-expiry, defined as the proportion of total gross dividends paid by underlying stocks with ex-dividend dates falling within the current futures contract life cycle (from the expiry date of the previous contract until the expiry date of the current near contract) that are announced over the remaining life of the near contract: ^{[67](#page-14-0)}

*Abividend*_t =
$$
\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{200} \sum_{a=t+1}^{T_i} (Shares_{i,t} \times DPS_{i,a})}{\sum_{i=1}^{200} \sum_{w=T_0+1}^{T_i} (Shares_{i,t} \times DPS_{i,w})}
$$
(4.9)

where $DPS_{i,q}$ is the gross dividend announced for stock *i* on day *a* with the relevant exdividend date scheduled to occur before the near contract expires on day T_1 and DPS_{iw} is the gross dividend for stock *i* with an ex-dividend date *w* falling between the expiration of the previous futures contract on day T_0 and the expiration of the current near futures contract on day T_1 . The announcement of dividend amounts and exdividend dates resolves uncertainty relating to both the magnitude and timing of dividends.^{[68](#page-14-1)} The scheduling of ex-dividend dates that accompanies dividend announcements could substantially reduce uncertainty, if market participants are unable

 67 A daily dividend series for individual stocks obtained from Bloomberg identifies the announcement dates, ex-dividend dates and payment dates associated with net and gross dividends per share paid by stocks in the S&P/ASX 200.

⁶⁸ Peters (1985) shows that the increasing efficiency of index futures markets through time appears to be due to better estimation of the dividend stream for each index and its uneven characteristics.

to accurately predict whether some stocks will have ex-dividend dates before or after futures contract expiration relying upon the timing of corresponding dividends in previous years. Figure 4.5 shows the proportion of total gross dividends that remain unannounced against the time to maturity of the contract. The frequency of dividend announcements (reflected in the slope of the curve) increases around the middle of the futures contract life cycle, together with the periodic reporting of Australian company results. Almost all companies going ex-dividend before futures maturity have declared their dividends by three weeks out from maturity.

Figure 4.5 Time-to-expiry patterns in dividend announcements and economic releases

IVInterest_t is the volatility implied in interest rate option prices, expressed as an annualised percentage. Interest rate option contracts based on 90 Day Bank Accepted Bills Futures are traded on the SFE and expire on the first Friday of the delivery month for the underlying futures contract. Up to six maturities corresponding to the bank bill futures quarterly maturity cycle and several exercise prices were available at any one time. The implied volatility estimates used in this study are those provided by market participants and used by the Sydney Futures Exchange to determine daily closing prices for nearest-to-expiry put and call options which are closest to being at-the-money. Exante volatility is relatively greater in interest rates (0.12 percent) than dividend yields (0.08 percent) and may play an important role in determining the mispricing series. From figure 4.4, the implied volatility of interest rate options further out from maturity

is higher than that close to maturity (taking into consideration that options on bank bill futures expire earlier in the delivery month than SFE SPI 200 TM futures).^{[69](#page-16-0)}

 $ERInterest_t$ is another alternative measure of the time-to-expiry, defined as the proportion of economic releases falling within the current futures contract life cycle that is scheduled to occur over the remaining life of the near contract:

$$
ERInterest_t = \frac{\sum_{r=t+1}^{T_1} ERIR_r}{\sum_{r=T_0+1}^{T_1} ERIR_r}
$$
\n(4.10)

where *ERIR_r* is the number of separate types of economic releases on day *r* between the expiration of the previous futures contract on day T_0 and the expiration of the current near futures contract on day *T*1. Data for macroeconomic news releases were obtained from Bloomberg's *Economic Calendar*. The releases selected were those found by Connolly and Kohler (2004) to have a significant effect on interest rate expectations for Australia: the consumer price index, employment, the unemployment rate, gross domestic product, building approvals, the trade balance, inventories, investment and retail sales.^{[70](#page-16-1)} These types of economic releases resolve interest rate uncertainty because they provide information which enables market participants to reassess the likely outcome of subsequent Reserve Bank decisions on interest rates.^{[71](#page-16-2)} Figure 4.5 shows they are relatively evenly spread over the futures contract life cycle, except increase in frequency in the third last trading week and are never scheduled in the last week before expiration.

 69 In comparison, Amin and Morton (1994) determine a daily time series of forward rate volatilities most consistent with Eurodollar futures options prices on the Chicago Mercantile Exchange (CME). They find that the volatility of longer-term forward rates is higher than that of short-term rates. Similarly, Neely (2005) observes that long-horizon implied volatilities tend to be larger than short-horizon implied volatilities of options on Eurodollar futures.

 70 Although the analysis is confined to domestic economic releases in this study, Connolly and Kohler (2004) find that foreign market movements modelled as changes in United States interest rate futures prices are also important in explaining changes in interest rate expectations for Australia.

 71 The Reserve Bank Board formulates monetary policy with regard to developments in the Australian and international economies.

MICost_t is the market impact cost involved in opening an index arbitrage position, measured as the sum of one-half the bid-ask spread in the stock market and one-half the bid-ask spread in the futures market.[72](#page-17-0) A percentage bid-ask spread (*BAS*) is computed for every quotation as: *BAS* = [(*ask* - *bid*)/(*ask* + *bid*)/2]. Following McInish and Wood (1992), time-weighted bid-ask spreads for both futures and individual stocks in each time interval are calculated as follows:

$$
BAS \text{pred}_t = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n BAS_j wt_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n wt_j} \tag{4.11}
$$

where

 \overline{a}

 BAS_i = the percentage quoted bid-ask spread;

 wt_i = the length of time that spread *j* is outstanding; and

 $n =$ the number of different bid-ask spreads that occur during interval *t*.

In the case of the constituent stocks in the index, the percentage bid-ask spreads for individual stocks are further weighted according to the float-adjusted weight of each stock in the index, such that the bid-ask spreads of stocks with the greatest weight in the index have the greatest weight in the composite measure of index percentage bid-ask spread. The mean bid-ask spreads are approximately 0.03 percent in the futures market and 0.18 percent in the stock market throughout the contract life cycle as shown in figure 4.2. The substantially wider bid-ask spread for the underlying stocks than for the futures suggests it has a greater influence on the width of the trading band for futures prices. Bid-ask spreads are also more variable in the stock market than in the futures market.

BCost_t is the minimum indicative fee for the use of borrowed securities reported by King (2005a) of 25 basis points per annum for ASX 200 index stocks and 5 basis points per annum for bank accepted bills. The stock borrowing fee for sell programs is applied when the mispricing is negative and the lower bank accepted bills borrowing fee for buy programs is applied when the mispricing is positive.

 72 The bid-ask spreads and price impact costs of closing out both the stock and futures positions can be avoided by holding the positions until the last trading day and employing market-on-open orders in the stock market.

Interest_{SPI} is the logarithm of the end-of-day open interest in SFE SPI 200TM futures measured in number of contracts. Open interest accumulates steadily across the contract life cycle and then dissipates rapidly from the third last trading day, as shown in figure 4.3. The correlation between the open interest and the time-to-expiry is -0.11 (see table 4.4, panel B).

Table 4.4

Summary statistics for entire dataset

Panel A: Descriptive statistics

The explanatory variables which act as proxies for the unexpected arrival of information in the futures and stock markets and the close of trading in the stock market, while controlling for specific risks and transaction costs faced by arbitrageurs, are considered using equation (4.5). White's procedure is used to obtain heteroskedasticity-corrected standard errors of the parameter estimates (White, 1980). All *t*-statistics are adjusted accordingly. The results are presented in table 4.5.

Table 4.5

 \overline{a}

*Denotes significance at the 1% level. Coefficients are multiplied by 10^2 .

The coefficients on the variables designed to capture the impact of volatility from the United States stock market (β_1 and β_2) are positive and significant. An overnight price movement of one percent in the United States stock market is associated with increases in the absolute residual mispricing of 0.07 percent at 10.05 a.m. and 0.06 percent at 10.10 a.m. immediately after the opening of the local stock market. The increased mispricing spread at 10.05 a.m. is consistent with the impact of opening procedures in the stock market lasting nine minutes. Beyond the first interval, the persistently higher mispricing spread at 10.10 a.m. supports the proposition that foreign market movements indicate increased trading risk, which dampens opening arbitrage activity. The impact of volatility in SFE SPI 200™ futures prices is positive and highly statistically significant.^{[73](#page-19-0)} A price movement of one percent in the futures market is associated with an increase in the mispricing spread of $0.32447/\sqrt{\pi}/2 = 0.26$ percent. This result is consistent with the hypothesis that market-wide information is incorporated with greater speed in the futures market relative to the underlying stock market. The impact of surprise trading volume in the futures is also positive and statistically significant. In contrast, surprise trading volume in the underlying stocks is negative and statistically

 73 The contemporaneous relationship documented here portends the intraday temporal relationship characterised by Chan and Chung (1993) in the United States: higher intraday volatility is *followed* by a significant decrease in the arbitrage spread, probably because higher market volatility invites more arbitrage services or enables faster price adjustments which, in turn, narrow the spread.

significant.^{[74](#page-20-0)} This suggests that trading activity in executing the cash leg of arbitrage transactions dominates trading activity based on firm specific information in moving spot prices. Surprise volume in the underlying stocks more often signifies the presence of arbitrageurs acting to narrow price discrepancies relative to the futures market.^{[75](#page-20-1)}

Although the coefficient which accounts for the close of trading (β_6) is statistically significant, the increase in the mispricing spread at the close of the stock market is not of an economically significant magnitude.

The coefficients on the volatility implied in interest rate option prices (β_9) and the timeto-expiry (β_7) are positive and significant, implying that the higher the ex-ante interest rate volatility and the longer the time-to-expiry, the higher is the mispricing spread. The finding with respect to time-to-expiry is robust to the three different time measures $(TExpiry_t, ADividend_t$ and $ERInterest_t$). The variable which proxies for dividend yield uncertainty is statistically insignificant. These results indicate that ex-ante interest rate volatility is the primary source of risk faced by arbitrageurs when they act upon deviations from theoretical pricing levels for longer times to maturity. As the absolute residual mispricing measures the volatility of the irregular component of the mispricing series, these results also imply that ex-ante interest rate volatility in combination with the time until contract expiration are the source of the implicit option value in arbitrage positions. Through its influence on interest rate volatility, public information arrival has a more lasting effect on the mispricing spread than from the faster speed of adjustment of intraday futures prices relative to stock prices.

The coefficient on the market impact cost involved in opening up index arbitrage positions (β_{10}) is positive and significant. An increase of one percent in the market impact cost is associated with an increase in the absolute residual mispricing of 0.10 percent. This result with respect to implicit transaction costs demonstrates that fluctuations in the cost of immediacy in the stock and futures markets have the most important influence on the width of the arbitrage bounds for index futures. In contrast,

 74 Regarding the relationship between explanatory variables, Merrick (1987) provides strong evidence that cash index return volatility causes aggregate cash market volume. Therefore, in attempting to discern the relationship between the intraday mispricing spread and surprise trading volume in the underlying stocks, it is appropriate to have employed a measure of intraday price volatility to help control for volume surprises unrelated to arbitrage motives or firm specific information.
⁷⁵ This finding is consistent with the evidence provided by Furbush (1989) that index arbitrage responds

to basis error and has the effect of eliminating it, thus aligning cash and futures prices. It also complements the evidence of a significant unidirectional relationship running from the futures contract mispricing spread to cash market volume found by Merrick (1987), using daily data for the NYSE Composite index market.

the securities borrowing cost coefficient (β_{11}) is positive and insignificant. While the positive coefficient on the borrowing cost implies that short arbitrage positions are more expensive to maintain over longer holding periods, there is only weak evidence that the pricing of the near contract deviates from its theoretical level more frequently as a consequence of the cost of borrowing index stocks.

4.3.3 Robustness tests

 \overline{a}

Additional regression analysis is reported in this section to provide results that are directly comparable with Brailsford and Hodgson's (1997) examination of stock index futures pricing using the former Australian All Ordinaries Share Price Index futures contract. In particular, Brailsford and Hodgson implicitly assume that investors face the same marginal tax rate on all forms of income; they do not obtain any reduction in the cost of financing the set of shares of the underlying index through the tax deductibility of interest on loans ($\tau_1 = 0$), the full cash value of the dividend is employed ($\gamma_1 = 1$) and the imputation tax credits are not priced in index futures ($\gamma_2 = 0$). Based on those assumptions, equation (4.1) for the theoretical price of a futures contract can be reduced as follows:

$$
f_{t,T}(c) = S_t e^{r(T-t)} - \sum_{s=t+1}^{T} D_s e^{r(T-s)}
$$
\n(4.12)

where $f_{t,T}(c)$ is the fair value at time *t* of an index futures contract with cash dividends. The unadjusted mispricing series is defined as:

$$
M_{t,T}(c) = \log F_{t,T} - \log f_{t,T}(c) \tag{4.13}
$$

where F_{tT} is the actual futures bid-ask midpoint price and $f_tT(c)$ is the theoretical futures price at time *t* for a contract expiring at time *T* using the unadjusted cost-of-carry model.

For the unadjusted series, the overall mean pricing error is negative (-0.047 percent) with a standard deviation of 0.112 percent as shown in table 4.6 panel A. This result is consistent with the hypothesis that the unadjusted forward pricing model gives an upward biased estimate for the futures price.^{[76](#page-21-0)} Select results for the time series analysis

 76 Several overseas studies find evidence of substantial and sustained mispricing using the cost-of-carry pricing model without adjustment for the taxation treatment of interest and dividends relative to capital gains on stocks. In the United States, Cornell and French (1983), Figlewski (1984a) and Arditti, Ayaydin, Mattu and Rigsbee (1986) report that stock index futures were priced at a discount to the levels predicted

using equation (4.4) on the unadjusted mispricing series are shown in table 4.6 panel B. The estimated coefficients are similar to those obtained using the tax-adjusted cost-ofcarry model and also confirm Brailsford and Hodgson's (1997) finding that the mispricing series in Australia is highly predictable.^{[77](#page-22-0)} The intraday mispricing series evolves more gradually; higher autoregressive coefficients at subsequent lags compensate for a lower coefficient at the first lag of 0.390 than reported by Brailsford and Hodgson for All Ordinaries Share Price Index futures (0.689). Negative mispricing of All Ordinaries Share Price Index futures on Friday documented by Brailsford and Hodgson is prevalent throughout the latter part of the week (from Wednesday to Friday) in the present study of SFE SPI 200™ futures.[78](#page-22-1) Except for Wednesday, the day of the week effects are sensitive to whether the unadjusted or tax-adjusted model is used. The $R²$ statistic of 0.81 is higher than for the time series components of the tax-adjusted mispricing series. This implies that the excess variation in the unadjusted mispricing series is explained by time series effects; any misspecification of the financing charge and dividend flow is serially correlated at consecutive points across the contract life cycle.

 \overline{a} by the carrying cost relationship, while Bhatt and Cakici (1990) and Chung (1991) report they are priced at a premium. In Canada, Hong Kong, Korea, India, the United Kingdom, Germany and Finland respectively, Chamberlain, Cheung and Kwan (1989), Draper and Fung (2003), Gay and Jung (1999), Vipul (2005), Yadav and Pope (1990), Bühler and Kempf (1995) and Kempf (1998), Puttonen and Martikainen (1991) and Puttonen (1993) provide evidence that futures tend to be priced at discounts to theoretical values.

 77 In comparison, MacKinlay and Ramaswamy (1988), Lim (1992) and Bühler and Kempf (1995) find that mispricing levels are highly positively autocorrelated for S&P 500 futures across fifteen-minute time intervals, Nikkei 225 futures across five-minute intervals and DAX futures across one-minute intervals respectively.

 78 This result contradicts the divergence between cash and futures market behaviour on Friday reported by Yadav and Pope (1992) in the United Kingdom.

Table 4.6 Dynamic and fixed time series components of the unadjusted mispricing series

*Denotes significance at the 1% level. Coefficients are multiplied by 10^2 .

Results of estimating equation (4.5) with the absolute residuals after pre-filtering the unadjusted mispricing series are reported in table 4.7. The results are not materially different from those based on the tax-adjusted series. Brailsford and Hodgson's (1997) findings for All Ordinaries Share Price Index futures are verified for SFE SPI 200™ futures. In particular, the important role of both exogenous and endogenous futures price volatility in increasing the mispricing spread is confirmed for SFE SPI 200™ futures: the impact of volatility from the overnight United States stock market and the volatility of Australian futures prices are both positive and statistically significant. Moreover, unexpected futures trading volume is significant. The positive coefficient on the time-to-expiry documented by Brailsford and Hodgson is smaller and statistically insignificant in the current sample. This result suggests that the inherent option value in the mispricing series has decreased as the pricing efficiency of the Australian market has improved in recent years. With the inclusion in the model of risks and transaction costs faced by arbitrageurs, the intercept of 0.002 percent is smaller than observed by Brailsford and Hodgson (0.030 percent). The results of the earlier study are consistent with the larger transaction costs and difficulties associated with trading the illiquid constituents of the All Ordinaries index which comprises more than three hundred companies.

	Estimate	t	Variable
Coefficient			
α	0.002	1.40	Intercept
β_1	6.843	$977*$	Impact of overnight US return at 10.05 a.m.
β_2	5.747	13.64*	Impact of overnight US return at 10.10 a.m.
β_3	32.483	$28.70*$	Volatility of SFE SPI 200™ futures
β_4	0.001	$2.63*$	SFE SPI 200™ futures unexpected volume
β_5	-0.002	$5.71*$	Underlying stocks unexpected volume
β_6	0.005	$5.96*$	S&P/ASX 200 close at 4.00 p.m.
β_7	0.005	2.42	Time-to-expiry
β_8	0.033	0.10	Dividend yield uncertainty
β_9	0.946	$3.10*$	Interest rate options implied volatility
β_{10}	9.858	$7.56*$	Market impact cost
β_{11}	0.907	1.10	Borrowing cost
adj R^2	0.62		
N	63,871		

Table 4.7 Estimation of the explanatory coefficients for the absolute value of the pre-filtered mispricing series employing the unadjusted cost-of-carry model

*Denotes significance at the 1% level. Coefficients are multiplied by 10^2 .

4.4 Summary

This chapter examines the price linkage between Australian stock index futures and the replicating portfolio of underlying shares. Benchmarked against theoretical futures prices under the tax-adjusted cost-of-carry model developed in the previous chapter, the average pricing error is close to zero and noticeably less volatile than in other studies. The results are consistent with the hypothesis that the adjusted cost-of-carry pricing model allowing for the different tax treatment of interest and dividends versus capital gains on stocks and the market value of imputation tax credits produces an unbiased estimate for the futures price. In contrast, previous research has consistently shown that the forward pricing model tends to provide an upward biased estimate of the actual futures price when taxes are excluded from the analysis (for example Yadav and Pope, 1990; and Bühler and Kempf, 1995).

A detailed analysis of mispricing demonstrated that several factors were significant in explaining the mispricing series. The raw mispricing series exhibits a high degree of autocorrelation and predictability with the mispricing significantly higher on Monday and significantly lower on Wednesday. After pre-filtering using a dynamic and static time series model, the variables which proxy for the unexpected arrival of information in the futures market—surprises in trading volume and the volatility of futures prices are positively and significantly related to the mispricing spread. In contrast, the variable which proxies for the unexpected arrival of information in the cash market—surprise trading volume in the underlying stocks—is found to have a significantly negative impact. Although dividend yield uncertainty is statistically insignificant, ex-ante interest rate volatility and the time-to-expiry are positively and significantly related to the absolute residual mispricing. The unpredictable component of futures contract mispricing is positively associated with the market impact cost involved in opening up index arbitrage positions.