Commodity Price Forecasts, Futures Prices and Pricing Models

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Abstract

Even though commodity pricing models have been successful in fitting the term structure of futures prices and its dynamics, they do not generate accurate true distributions of spot prices. This paper develops a new approach to calibrate these models using not only observations of oil futures prices, but also analysts’ forecasts of oil spot prices.

We conclude that to obtain reasonable expected spot curves, analysts’ forecasts should be used, either alone, or jointly with futures data. The use of both futures and forecasts, instead of using only forecasts, generates expected spot curves that do not differ considerably in the short/medium term, but long term estimations are significantly different. The inclusion of analysts’ forecasts, in addition to futures, instead of only futures prices, does not alter significantly the short/medium part of the futures curve, but does have a significant effect on long-term futures estimations.
1. Introduction

Over the last decades, commodity pricing models have been very successful in fitting the term structure of futures prices and its dynamics. These models make a wide variety of assumptions about the number of underlying risk factors, and the drift and volatility of these factors. [Gibson, R. & Schwartz, E.S. (1990); Schwartz, E.S. (1997); Schwartz, E.S. & Smith, J. (2000); Cortazar, G. & Schwartz, E.S. (2003); Cortazar, G. & Naranjo, L. (2006); Casassus, J. & Collin-Dufresne, P. (2005); Cortazar, G., & Eterovic, F. (2010); Heston, S. L. (1993); Duffie, D., J. Pan, & K. Singleton (2000); Trolle, A. B. & Schwartz, E. S. (2009); Chiang, I., Ethan, H., Hughen, W. K., & Sagi, J. S. (2015).]

The performance of commodity pricing models is commonly assessed by how well these models fit derivative prices. It is well known that derivative prices are obtained from the risk neutral or risk adjusted probability distribution (e.g. futures prices are the expected spot prices under the risk neutral probability distribution). These models also provide the true or physical distribution of spot prices, but this has not been stressed in the literature because they have mainly been used to price derivatives. However, as Cortazar, Kovacevic & Schwartz, (2015) point out, the latter is also valuable and is used by practitioners for risk management, NPV valuations, and other purposes.

Despite the diversity of commodity pricing models found in the literature, they all share the characteristic of relying only on market prices (e.g. futures and options) to calibrate all parameters. In these models the risk premium parameters are measured with large errors and typically are not statistically significant, making estimations of expected prices (which differ from futures prices on the risk premiums) inaccurate.

To solve this problem Cortazar et al. (2015) propose using an Asset Pricing Model (e.g. CAPM) to estimate the expected returns on futures contracts from which the risk premium parameters can be obtained, which results in more accurate expected prices. However, these prices depend on the particular Asset Pricing Model chosen.

This paper develops an alternative way to estimate risk-adjusted and true distributions that does not rely on any particular asset pricing model. The idea is to use forecasts of future spot prices provided by analysts and institutions who periodically forecast these prices, such as those available from Bloomberg and other sources. Thus, by calibrating the commodity pricing model with both futures prices and analysts’ forecasts, two different data sets are jointly used to calibrate the model.

Analysts’ forecasts have been previously used in finance, but mostly for corporate earnings. For example, O’Brien (1987) studies forecasts of earnings per share as predictors of earnings in the U.S. stock market. O’Brien (1990) measures the predictive power of individual analysts comparing their

Analysts’ forecasts have also been used in other areas and markets. For example, Pesaran and Weale (2006) use survey information on short-term forecasts of macroeconomic variables to develop an analysis on how respondents shape their expectations on inflation, consumer sentiment or consumer spending. Bachetta et al. (2009) measure the predictability of returns in stock, foreign exchange, bond and money markets in different countries using surveys.

The use of analysts’ forecasts in commodity markets, which is of interest in this paper, has been scarce and, in general, neglected. However, Bloomberg’s Commodity Price Forecasts have been subject to some analysis (Atalla et al. (2016), Haugom et al. (2016)). Berber and Piana (2016) state that this data set is useful because price forecasts are a direct approximation to the market’s expectations since they are made by individual analysts that are experts in each specific commodity market. They use these price forecasts to test their predictive power for realized returns in the crude oil and copper markets.

Another valuable source of commodity forecasts is the EIA (U.S. Energy Information Administration). Baumeister and Kilian (2015) use these data to test the predictive power of short-term oil price forecasts by comparing them with a model that uses a combination of forecasts to estimate future spot prices. A similar study is made by Wong-Parodi et al. (2006), assessing if the short-term forecasts from EIA are good predictors of spot prices, in comparison to traded futures prices. Furthermore, Haugom et al. (2016) focus on forecasting long-term oil prices, and use the EIA forecasts as a reference for their own estimations provided by a model that is built on the fundamental relationships between demand and supply. Auffhammer (2007) analyzes the rationality of EIA short-term forecasts. Bolinger et al. (2006), using only EIA reports from 2000 to 2003 natural gas contracts, estimate empirical risk premiums.

Other analysis on forecasting of commodity prices include Pierdziech et al. (2010) and (2013b) on oil price forecasts published by the European Central Bank, Pierdziech et al. (2013a) extending the anti-herding evidence to nine metals, Singleton (2014) on the disagreement among forecasters and the level of WTI oil price, and Atalla et al. (2016) on the fact that analysts’ disagreement on oil price forecasts reflects realized oil price volatility.
In this paper, by proposing to use both market data (futures prices) and analysts’ forecasts (expected prices) to calibrate a commodity pricing model, several related objectives are pursued. The first one is to formulate a joint-estimation model that considers both sets of data and show how to estimate it using the Kalman Filter.

Acknowledging that analysts’ price forecasts are very volatile, both because at any point in time there is great disagreement between them, and also because their opinions change greatly over time, our second objective is to build an analysts’ consensus curve that optimally aggregates and updates all their opinions.

Our third objective is to improve estimations for long-term futures prices. This is motivated by current practice which consists in calibrating commodity pricing models using futures with maturities only up to a few years and then is silent about whether the model will behave well for longer maturities. However, there is evidence that extrapolating a model calibrated only with short/medium term prices to estimate long term ones is unreliable [Cortazar, G, Milla, C. & Severino, F. (2008)]. In this paper, long term futures price estimations will be obtained by using also information from analysts’ forecasts.

Finally, the fourth objective is to estimate the term structure of the commodity risk premiums. This can be done by comparing the term structure of expected spot and futures prices.

The paper is organized as follows. To motivate the proposed approach, Section 2 provides empirical illustrations of some of the weaknesses of current approaches. Section 3 describes the model and parameter estimation technique used, while Section 4 describes the data set. The main results of the paper are presented in Section 5. Section 6 concludes.

2. The Issues

In what follows some of the issues that will be addressed in this paper are described. The first issue, already pointed out in Cortazar et al. (2015), is that expected prices under the true distribution are unreliable when calibrating a commodity pricing model using only futures contract prices. As an illustration, Figure 1 shows the futures and expected oil prices for 02-05-2014 using the Cortazar and Naranjo (2006) two-factor model\(^1\). It can be seen that while the 4.5 year maturity futures price is 77.9 US$/bbl., the model’s expected price, for the same maturity, is 365.8 US$/bbl. To justify that this

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\(^1\) As shown in Cortazar and Naranjo (2006) this two-factor specification is equivalent to the Schwartz and Smith (2000) model, but may easily be extended to N-factors.
expected price is unreasonable, the Bloomberg’s Analysts’ Median Composite Forecast for 2018, which amounts to only 96.5 US$/bbl., is also plotted.

Figure 2 shows the model expected spot prices, futures prices and analysts’ forecasts for a contract maturing around 07-01-2018 during the year 2014. It can be seen that the model expected spot prices are for the whole year around three times higher than the futures prices and analysts’ forecasts.

Given that we will make use of a diverse set of analysts’ forecasts, a second issue is how to optimally generate and update an analysts’ consensus curve, as new information arrives. Figure 2 illustrates how the mean price forecasts for 2018 changes every week as new analysts provide their forecasts during 2014. It also shows that these forecasts are close to the corresponding futures prices, but the expected prices from the two-factor commodity model, when estimated using only futures, are much higher. Some efforts to provide an analysts’ consensus curve have already been made (the Bloomberg Median Composite, also plotted in Figure 2), but in general they are computed using only simple moving averages of previous forecasts.

Fig. 1: Oil futures and expected spot curves under the two-factor model, oil futures prices and Bloomberg’s Median Composite for oil price forecasts, for 02-05-2014. The model is calibrated using weekly futures prices (01/2014 to 12/2014).
Fig. 2: Analysts’ 2018 Oil Price Forecasts, Bloomberg Median Composite Forecast for 2018, Oil futures prices of contracts maturing close to 07-01-2018, and a Two-Factor Model expected spot at a 07-01-2018 maturity. The model is calibrated using weekly futures prices (01/2014 to 12/2014).

Another and related issue is how to obtain credible estimations of commodity risk premiums. When expected spot prices are unreliable, risk premiums are also unreliable.

The final issue that will be addressed is how to obtain long-term futures price estimations that exceed the longest maturity contract traded in the market, using the information contained in long term analysts’ forecasts. Cortazar et al. (2008) already showed that extrapolations are unreliable: even if commodity pricing models fit well existing data, contracts with longer maturities are estimated with large errors.

To illustrate the point discussed above, a two factor model is calibrated using three alternative data panels of oil futures: all futures including maturities up to 9 years (100%), futures only up to 4.5 years (50%), and futures only up to 2.25 years (25%). For each data panel pricing errors for the longest observed futures price are computed. Table 1 shows that the longer the extrapolation, the higher the errors\(^2\).

\(^2\) Differences are significant at the 99% confidence level.
Table 1: Mean absolute error for the longest futures observation (9 years approx.) when the futures curve is calibrated using maturities up to 9 years (100%), futures only up to 4.5 years (50%), and futures only up to 2.25 years (25%), from January 2010 to December 2015. The futures curve is obtained using the two factor model calibrated with oil futures weekly data from January 2010 to December 2014. (All differences between data panels are statistically significant at the 99% level).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>100% (maturities from 0 to 9 yrs. Approx.)</th>
<th>50% (maturities from 0 to 4.5 yrs. Approx.)</th>
<th>25% (maturities from 0 to 2.25 yrs. Approx.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Absolute Error ($/bbl.)</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The Model

3.1. The N-Factor Gaussian Model

The Cortazar and Naranjo (2006) N-factor model is chosen to illustrate the benefits of using analysts’ forecasts, in addition to futures prices. This model nests several well-known commodity pricing models (e.g. Brennan and Schwartz (1985), Gibson and Schwartz (1990), Schwartz (1997), Schwartz and Smith (2000), Cortazar and Schwartz (2003)) and lends itself easily to be specified with any number of risk factors.

Following Cortazar and Naranjo (2006), the stochastic process of the (log) spot price ($S_t$) of a commodity is:

$$\log S_t = \mathbf{1}'x_t + \mu t$$

(1)

where $x_t$ is the ($1 \times n$) vector of state variables and $\mu$ is the log-term price growth rate, assumed constant. The vector of state variables follows the stochastic process:

$$dx_t = -Kx_t dt + \Sigma dw_t$$

(2)

where $K$ and $\Sigma$ are ($n \times n$) diagonal matrices containing positive constants (with the first element of $K$, $k_1 = 0$), and $dw_t$ is a set of correlated Brownian motions such that $(dw_t)'(dw_t) = \Omega dt$, with each element of $\Omega$ being $\rho_{ij} \in [-1,1]$. The risk adjusted process followed by the state variables is:

$$dx_t = -(\lambda + Kx_t) dt + \Sigma dw_t Q$$

(3)

where $\lambda$ is a ($1 \times n$) vector containing the risk premium parameters corresponding to each risk factor, all assumed to be constants.
Under the N-Factor model, the futures price at time $t$, of a contract maturing at $T$, can be obtained by computing the conditional expected value of the spot price, under the risk-adjusted measure:

$$F(\mathbf{x}_t, t, T) = E^Q_t(S(\mathbf{x}_t, T))$$

(4)

As shown in Cortazar and Naranjo (2006), this boils down to:

$$F(\mathbf{x}_t, t, T) = \exp(\mathbf{u}(t, T)' \mathbf{x}_t + \nu_T(t, T))$$

(5)

where,

$$u_t(t, T) = e^{-\kappa t (T-t)}$$

(6)

$$\nu_T(t, T) = \mu t + \left(\mu - \lambda_1 + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_1^2 \right) (T - t) - \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left( \frac{1 - e^{-\kappa_i (T-t)}}{\kappa_i} \lambda_i \right)$$

(7)

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \left( \sigma_i \sigma_j \rho_{ij} \frac{1 - e^{-\left(\kappa_i + \kappa_j\right)(T-t)}}{\kappa_i + \kappa_j} \right)$$

Similarly, it can be shown that the expected spot price for time $T$ at time $t$, is defined by:

$$E_t(S(\mathbf{x}_t, T)) = \exp(\mathbf{u}(t, T)' \mathbf{x}_t + \nu_E(t, T))$$

(8)

where,

$$\nu_E(t, T) = \mu T + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_1^2 (T - t) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \left( \sigma_i \sigma_j \rho_{ij} \frac{1 - e^{-\left(\kappa_i + \kappa_j\right)(T-t)}}{\kappa_i + \kappa_j} \right)$$

(9)

Note that the only differences between the futures and expected spot dynamics are the risk premium parameters. Also, if these parameters were zero, the futures and expected spot prices would be equal.

Define:

$$E_t(S(\mathbf{x}_t, T)) = F(\mathbf{x}_t, t, T) \cdot e^{\pi_F (T-t)}$$

(10)

where $\pi_F$ is the futures’ risk premium, given by:

$$\pi_F = \lambda_1 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left( \frac{1 - e^{-\kappa_i (T-t)}}{\kappa_i (T - t)} \lambda_i \right)$$

(11)

Finally, the model implied volatility (assumed to be constant in the time-series) is given by:
In this paper analysts’ forecasts are assumed to be noisy proxies for expected future spot prices.

3.2. Parameter Estimation

A Kalman filter that incorporates futures prices and analysts’ forecasts into the process of estimating all parameters is applied. The Kalman Filter has been successfully used with incomplete data panels in commodities (Cortazar and Naranjo (2006)) and bond yields (Cortazar et al. (2007)), among others. Let’s define $m_t$ as the time-variable number of observations available at time $t$.

The application of the Kalman Filter requires two equations to be defined:

1. The transition equation, which describes the true evolution of the $n \times 1$ vector of state variables ($x_t$) over each time step ($\Delta t$):

   $$ x_t = A_t x_{t-1} + c_t + \epsilon_t $$

   $\epsilon_t \sim N(0, Q_t)$

   where $A_t$ is a $n \times n$ matrix, $c_t$ is a $n \times 1$ vector and $\epsilon_t$ is an $n \times 1$ vector of disturbances with mean 0 and covariance matrix $Q_t$.

2. The measurement equation, which relates the state variables to the log of observed futures prices and analysts’ forecasts:

   $$ z_t = H_t x_t + d_t + v_t $$

   $v_t \sim N(0, R_t)$

   where $z_t$ is a $m_t \times 1$ vector, $H_t$ is a $m_t \times n$ matrix, $d_t$ is a $m_t \times 1$ vector and $v_t$ is a $m_t \times 1$ vector of disturbances with mean 0 and covariance matrix $R_t$.

Analysts provide their price forecasts as an annual average, instead of a price for every maturity, as is the case for futures. Thus, Equations (5) and (8) become

$$ \log F(x_t, t, T) = u(t, T)' x_t + v_F(t, T) $$

\[ (15) \]
\[
\log E_t(S(x_t, T)) = \log \left( \frac{1}{N_p} \sum_{t=1}^{N_p} \exp(u(t, T)'x_t + v_E(t, T)) \right)
\]  

(16)

Notice that in order to measure the analysts’ forecast observations we numerically approximate the mean annual price as the mean of \(N_p\) observations evenly spaced over the same year of the estimation. As can be observed, unlike futures prices, price forecasts are not a linear function of the state variables.

In order for expected spot prices to be normally distributed, under the N-Factor model, the log \(E(S)\) must be represented by a linear combination of the state variables. This can be achieved by linearizing the measured \(\log E_t(S(x_t, T))\) when computing each measurement step of the Kalman Filter\(^3\).

If \(m_t^E\) and \(m_t^F\) are defined as the number of observations of futures prices and analysts’ forecasts at time \(t\), the matrices corresponding to the measurement equation are:

\[
\mathbf{z}_t = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{z}_t^F \\ \mathbf{z}_t^E \end{pmatrix}
\]

(17)

where \(\mathbf{z}_t^F\) is a \(m_t^F \times 1\) vector containing the futures observations and \(\mathbf{z}_t^E\) is a \(m_t^E \times 1\) vector containing the price forecasts observations.

Let

\[
\mathbf{H}_t = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H}_t^F \\ \mathbf{H}_t^E \end{pmatrix}
\]

(18)

and

\[
\mathbf{d}_t = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{d}_t^F \\ \mathbf{d}_t^E \end{pmatrix}
\]

(19)

where \(\mathbf{H}_t^F\) is a \(m_t^F \times n\) matrix and \(\mathbf{d}_t^F\) is a \(m_t^F \times 1\) vector containing the measurement equations for the futures data and \(\mathbf{H}_t^E\) is a \(m_t^E \times n\) matrix and \(\mathbf{d}_t^E\) is a \(m_t^E \times 1\) vector containing the linearized measurement equations for the price forecasts data.

Finally,

\[
\mathbf{R}_t = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}_t^F & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{R}_t^E \end{pmatrix}
\]

(20)

\(^3\) More information on this methodology can be found in Cortazar, Schwartz, Naranjo (2007).
where $R_t^F = \text{diag} m_t^E(\xi^F)$ and $R_t^E = \text{diag} m_t^E(\xi^E)$ are the diagonal covariance matrices of measurement errors of futures and price forecasts observations.

4. The Data

4.1. Analysts’ Price Forecasts Data

Analysts’ price forecasts are obtained from four sources: Bloomberg, World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA).

The first source is the Bloomberg Commodity Price Forecasts. This data base provides information on the mean price of each following year, up to 5 years ahead, made by individual analysts from a wide range of private financial institutions. Even though the data has not been analyzed extensively in the literature, it has been recently recognized as a rich and unexplored source of information [Berber and Piana (2016), Bianchi and Piana (2016)].

The next three sources (WB, IMF, and EIA), provide periodic (monthly, quarterly or annually) reports with long-term, annual mean price estimations up to 28 years ahead. Most historical data is available since 2010. Among these three sources, the last one has received more attention in the literature. In particular, Berber and Piana (2016) and Bianchi and Piana (2016) use it for oil inventory forecasts, while Bolinger et al. (2006), Auffhammer (2007), Baumeister and Kilian (2015) and Haugom et al. (2016) focus on price forecasts. Finally, Auffhammer (2007) and Baumeister and Kilian (2015) claim this source is widely used by policymakers, industry and modelers.

Figure 3 shows the analysts’ price forecasts from all four sources, between 2010 and 2015. It can be seen that short-term forecasts are more frequent, in contrast to long-term forecasts which are issued in a less recurring, but periodical, basis.
Fig. 3: Oil analysts’ price forecasts from 2010 to 2015 provided by Bloomberg’s Commodity Price Forecasts, World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF) and U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA).

Analysts’ price forecasts are made for the average of each year. Thus, for each forecast its maturity is computed as the difference (in years) between the issue date and the middle of the year of the estimation (01-July of each year). Price forecasts are grouped into weeks ending on the following Wednesday, and then averaged⁴. Forecasts for the same year, which include past information, are discarded as in Bianchi and Piana (2016). Table 2 summarizes the data.

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⁴ This is similar to what Berber and Piana (2016) or Bianchi and Piana (2016) do when averaging forecasts corresponding to the same period of estimation.
Table 2: Oil analysts’ price forecasts from 2010 to 2015 grouped by maturity bucket. Forecasts are aggregated by week ending in the next Wednesday and averaged to obtain the mean price estimate for each following year in the same week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Bucket (years)</th>
<th>Mean Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Price S.D.</th>
<th>Mean Maturity (years)</th>
<th>Min. Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Max. Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>117.5</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>135.0</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>189.0</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>154.0</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>93.0</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>140.0</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>153.0</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-28</td>
<td>165.9</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>265.2</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>29.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>47.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>265.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>1232</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. Oil Futures Data

Oil futures data is obtained from the New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX). Weekly futures (Wednesday closing), with maturities for every 6 months, are used. There are from 17 to 19 contracts per week. Futures data is much more frequent than analysts’ forecasts, as can be seen by comparing Figures 3 and 4. Table 3 summarizes the futures data by maturity buckets with similar number of observations.

![Oil futures prices from 2010 to 2015 provided by NYMEX](image)

**Fig. 4:** Oil futures prices from 2010 to 2015 provided by NYMEX
Table 3: Oil futures prices from 2010 to 2015 grouped by maturity bucket.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Bucket (years)</th>
<th>Mean Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Price S.D.</th>
<th>Mean Maturity (years)</th>
<th>Min. Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Max. Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>113.7</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>110.7</td>
<td>621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>107.9</td>
<td>625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>106.2</td>
<td>627</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
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<td>11.0</td>
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<td>5-6</td>
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<td>6-7</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
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<td>625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
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<td>11.1</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>106.3</td>
<td>626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>107.0</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>113.7</td>
<td>5624</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3. Risk Premiums Implied from the Data

As explained in Section 3.1, empirical risk premiums can be derived directly from the data by comparing analysts’ forecasts with futures prices of similar maturity\(^5\). Since oil futures contracts longest maturity does not exceed 9 years, it is not possible to calculate the data risk premiums exceeding this term. Then, if \(\hat{E}_t(S_T)\) is a price forecast at time \(t\), for maturity \(T\), and \(F_{t,T}\) is its closest futures (in maturity) for the same date, following Equation 10 the data risk premium corresponding to that time is computed as:

\[
\pi_{t,T} = \log \left( \frac{\hat{E}_t(S_T)}{F_{t,T}} \right)
\]

The mean data risk premiums for each maturity bucket is presented in Table 4. Notice that the annual data risk premium is decreasing with maturity.

\(^{5}\) Forecasts with more than one year of difference with the nearest future contract are not used to calculate data risk premiums.
Table 4: Mean Annual Data Risk Premium from 2010 to 2015 by maturity bucket.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Buckets (years)</th>
<th>Mean Data Risk Premium (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5 – 1.5</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 – 2.5</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 – 3.5</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 – 4.5</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 – 5.5</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 – 6.5</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5 – 7.5</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5 – 8.5</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5 – 9.5</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Results

This section presents the results from calibrating the Cortazar and Naranjo (2006) N-factor model, described in Section 3, using different specifications and calibration data. Model specifications include two and three risk factors. In terms of the calibration data, two sets are available: futures prices (F) and analysts’ forecasts (A). Results using jointly both data sets (FA-Model), only-analysts’ data (A-Model), and the traditional only-futures data (F-Model), are presented. The behavior of the futures curve, the expected spot price curve and the risk premiums are analyzed.

5.1. Joint Model Estimation (FA-Model)

The Joint Model estimation, FA-Model, uses both the analysts’ price forecasts and futures data to calibrate the N-Factor Model for two and three factors. To motivate the discussion, Figures 5 and 6 illustrate the results for the futures and expected spot curves, under different specifications and calibrations, for two specific dates, one, on 04-14-2010, in the in sample period and the other, on 07-22-2015, in the out of sample period. Notice that in all cases the curves fit reasonably well the futures prices and analysts’ forecasts observations when using the FA-Model. On the contrary, when using the traditional F-Model, the expected price curves are well below the analysts’ forecasts.
Fig. 5: Futures, expected spot curves and observations for 04-14-2010. Curves include two and three-factor, FA- and F- Models. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

Fig. 6: Futures, expected spot curves and observations for 07-22-2015. Curves include two and three-factor, FA- and F- Models. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.
Tables 5 and 6 present the parameter values obtained using the Kalman filter and using weekly data from 2010 to 2014, for the two- and three-factor FA-Models, respectively. It is worth noticing that by using this new FA approach most risk premium parameters $\lambda_i$ are now statistically significant.

Table 5: Two-factor F-Model and FA-Model parameters, standard deviation (S.D.) and t-Test estimated from oil futures prices and price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>F-Model</th>
<th>FA-Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\kappa_2$</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma_1$</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma_2$</td>
<td>0.411</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho_{12}$</td>
<td>-0.407</td>
<td>0.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu$</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td>0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda_1$</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td>0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda_2$</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\xi$</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measurement errors for both data sets are assumed to be the same, estimating a single $\xi$ parameter. However, this assumption can be relaxed to allow different measurement errors for futures and forecasts, consequently affecting the parameter estimation process. Furthermore, different measurement errors can be used for different maturity buckets in each data set, as shown in Cortazar et al. (2015) or in Cortazar et al. (2007).
Table 6: Three-factor F-Model and FA-Model parameters, standard deviation (S.D.) and t-Test estimated from oil futures prices and price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>F-Model</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>FA-Model</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>t-Test</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>t-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>κ2</td>
<td>1.015</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>92.490</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>40.877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>κ3</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>74.208</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>47.314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ1</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>52.173</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>102.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ2</td>
<td>0.531</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>91.077</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>56.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ3</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>58.302</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>58.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ12</td>
<td>-0.162</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>-59.458</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>48.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ13</td>
<td>-0.497</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>-66.317</td>
<td>-0.809</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>-52.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ23</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>58.151</td>
<td>-0.693</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>-55.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μ</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-1.818</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>44.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>λ1</td>
<td>-0.125</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-1.844</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>2.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>λ2</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>11.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>λ3</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>1.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ξ</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>102.346</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>108.762</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As discussed previously, the F- and FA-Models estimate both the true and the risk-adjusted distributions, from which futures prices and expected spot prices can be obtained. Futures price and analysts’ forecast errors for both models are computed and presented in Tables 7 to 10.

Tables 7 and 8 show the mean absolute errors between analysts’ forecasts and model expected spot prices generated by the FA-Model versus the F-Model. It is clear that the FA-Model has a significantly better fit for all time windows and buckets, for both the two and the three factor models.

Furthermore, Tables 9 and 10 show the mean absolute errors between observed futures prices and model futures prices. As expected, the benefit of obtaining a better fit in the expected spot prices, by including analysts’ forecasts, comes at the expense of increasing the mean absolute error on the futures prices. Nevertheless, the error increase is only 1%.
In summary the FA-Model has the advantage of generating a more reliable expected spot curve, with only a moderate effect for the goodness of fit for the futures. The three-factor model performs moderately better than the two-factor model.

Table 7: Price forecasts Mean Absolute Errors for the two and three factor F- and FA-Models for each time window, between 2010 and 2015. Errors are calculated as percentage of price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Window</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
<th>Two Factors</th>
<th>Three Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F-Model</td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Sample (2010–2014)</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of Sample (2015)</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (2010–2015)</td>
<td>1232</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Price forecasts Mean Absolute Errors for the two and three factor F- and FA-Models for each maturity bucket, between 2010 and 2015. Errors are calculated as percentage of price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Buckets (years)</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
<th>Two Factors</th>
<th>Three Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F-Model</td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-28</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1232</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, the tradeoff between both effects can be modified by setting different specifications for the measurement error variances for futures and forecasts when implementing the Kalman Filter. As explained in Section 3, our results use a single $\xi$ parameter for both futures and forecasts observations at all maturities. However, this assumption can be relaxed to allow different measurement error variances according to the nature of each observation included in the parameter estimation process.
Table 9: Futures Mean Absolute Errors for the two and three factor F- and FA-Models for each time window, between 2010 and 2015. Errors are calculated as percentage of futures prices. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Window</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
<th>Two Factors</th>
<th>Three Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F-Model</td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Sample (2010 – 2014)</td>
<td>4690</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of Sample (2015)</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (2010 – 2015)</td>
<td>5624</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Futures Mean Absolute Errors for the two and three factor F- and FA-Models for each maturity bucket, between 2010 and 2015. Errors are calculated as percentage of futures prices. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Buckets (years)</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
<th>Two Factors</th>
<th>Three Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F-Model</td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>621</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-7</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5624</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.8%</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.7%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2. Analysts’ Consensus Curve using only Analysts’ Forecasts (A-Model)

In the previous section, futures and expected spot curves for the FA-Model, calibrated using both futures and analysts’ forecasts, were presented. In that setting each curve is affected by both sets of data. In this section we calibrate the model using only analysts’ forecasts, modeling only the dynamics of the spot price. Thus, the expected spot curve represents an analysts’ consensus curve that optimally considers all previous forecasts. Given that futures data is not used, no futures curve or risk premium parameters are obtained. Table 11 shows the A-Model parameters values for the two and three factor models.
Table 11: Two and three-factor A-Model parameters, standard deviation (S.D.) and t-Test estimated from oil analysts’ price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Two-Factor A-Model</th>
<th>Three-Factor A-Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>κ2</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>κ3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ1</td>
<td>1.109</td>
<td>0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ2</td>
<td>1.122</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ12</td>
<td>-0.968</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ23</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μ</td>
<td>-0.576</td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ξ</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given that the model is only required to fit analysts’ price forecasts, and not futures prices, the expected spot curve fits better in the A-Model than in the FA-Model, and much better than in the F-Model. For example, Figures 7 and 8 show the expected spot curves for both models and compares them with those of the F-Model, for two specific dates, one, on 04-14-2010, in the in sample period and the other, on 07-22-2015, in the out of sample period.

Tables 12 and 13 compares the mean absolute errors of the analysts’ consensus curve in both models, for two and three factors, respectively. As expected, the A-Model that only uses analysts’ forecast data fits better this data than the FA-Model which includes also futures prices. This holds for every time window and maturity bucket.

Table 14 reports the expected spot mean price and annual volatility of the two-Factor FA- and A-Models, for each maturity bucket between 2010 and 2015. The first two columns of Table 14 show that for the two-factor model the mean expected spot prices for the FA- and A- models are similar, especially for short term maturity buckets. The last two columns report the volatility of expected prices obtained for the two models. Since the analysts’ forecasts are very noisy, the A-Model generates an analysts’ consensus curve which is between 3 and 7 times more volatile than the one from the FA-Model. Table 15 reports the results for the three-factor model, which are similar to the ones in the two-factor model.

---

8 In fact, differences in mean prices are significant at the 99% level for maturity buckets over 10 years.
In summary, the analysts’ consensus curve can be obtained from the FA or the A-Models. The former has the advantage of generating a less volatile curve, while the latter generates a better fit. The difference between the means of both curves increases with maturity.

**Fig. 7:** Expected spot curves under the two and three-factor FA-, F- and A-Models, and forecasts observations, for 04-14-2010. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.
**Fig. 8:** Expected spot curves under the two and three-factor FA-, F- and A-Models, and forecasts observations, for 07-22-2015. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

**Table 12:** Expected Spot Mean Absolute Errors for the two and three factor FA- and A-Models for each time window, between 2010 and 2015. Errors are calculated as percentage of price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Window</th>
<th>N° of Observations</th>
<th>Two Factors</th>
<th>Three Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Sample (2010 – 2014)</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of Sample (2015)</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (2010 -2015)</td>
<td>1232</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13: Expected Spot Mean Absolute Errors for the two and three factor FA- and A-Models for each maturity bucket, between 2010 and 2015. Errors are calculated as percentage of price forecasts. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Buckets (years)</th>
<th>Nº of Observations</th>
<th>Two Factors</th>
<th>Three Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
<td>A-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-28</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1232</strong></td>
<td><strong>6.9%</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.6%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Expected Spot Mean Price and Annual Volatility of the two-Factor FA- and A-Models, for each equal size maturity bucket between 2010 and 2015. Volatility of the curve at maturities in the middle of each bucket are presented. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Buckets (years)</th>
<th>Mean Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Annual Volatility (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
<td>A-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>106.1</td>
<td>102.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>123.8</td>
<td>119.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>150.3</td>
<td>144.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>185.9</td>
<td>175.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>132.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>127.3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 15: Expected Spot Mean Price and Annual Volatility of the three-Factor FA- and A-Models, for each equal size maturity bucket between 2010 and 2015. Volatility of the curve at maturities in the middle of each bucket are presented. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Buckets (years)</th>
<th>Mean Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Annual Volatility (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
<td>A-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>95.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>103.2</td>
<td>104.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>118.9</td>
<td>115.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>144.9</td>
<td>133.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>182.2</td>
<td>158.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>129.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>121.5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3. Long-Term Futures Price Estimation using also Analysts’ Price Forecasts (FA-Model)

As has been argued earlier, estimation of long term futures prices done by extrapolation is subject to estimation errors. Also, oil futures’ longest maturity is around 9 years, while there are oil price forecasts for maturities of over 25 years. In this section, the impact on long-term futures prices of using analysts’ price forecasts, in addition to traded futures, is explored.

To motivate this section Figures 9 and 10 show futures curves from the two factor FA- and F-Models, for two specific dates, one, on 04-14-2010, in the in sample period and the other, on 07-22-2015, in the out of sample period, and compares them to the analysts’ forecasts for the same dates. It can be seen that both futures curves for long maturities are very different. On the other hand, both curves are very similar for short and medium term maturities, for which there is futures data. Figures 11 and 12 present a similar situation for the three-factor model. Given that there are no long term futures to validate any of the curves, we present the FA-Model futures curve as a valuable alternative to the traditional F-Model curve, which takes into consideration analysts’ opinions.

Table 16 and Table 17 show the mean price and annual volatility of the futures curves (FA- and F-Models) for every maturity, for the two and three factor models, respectively. As the tables show, the inclusion of expectations data, when using the FA-Model, significantly affects the mean futures curve in the long-term, without considerably changing it in the short-term. Again, as was the case for the expected spot curves in the previous section, the longer the maturity the greater the difference
between both curves. Given the fact that analysts’ forecasts are very volatile, the effect of using them almost doubles the volatility of the futures curves when using the FA-Model.

**Fig. 9:** Futures under the two-factor FA-, and F-Models, Expected spot curve under the two-factor FA-Model, forecasts and futures observations, for 04-14-2010. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

---

\(^9\) Differences in mean curves are significant at the 99% level for maturity buckets from 10 to 25 years, for the two and three factor models.
Fig. 10: Futures under the two-factor FA-, and F-Models, Expected spot curve under the two-factor FA-Model, forecasts and futures observations, for 07-22-2015. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

Fig. 11: Futures under the three-factor FA-, and F-Models, Expected spot curve under the three-factor FA-Model, forecasts and futures observations, for 04-14-2010. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.
Fig. 12: Futures under the three-factor FA-, and F-Models, Expected spot curve under the three-factor FA-Model, forecasts and futures observations, for 07-22-2015. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.
Table 16: Futures Mean Price and Annual Volatility of the two-factor FA- and F-Models, for each maturity bucket between 2010 and 2015. Volatility of the curve at maturities in the middle of each bucket are presented. Estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Buckets (years)</th>
<th>Mean Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Annual Volatility (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F-Model</td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>84.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>84.3</td>
<td>84.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>88.2</td>
<td>96.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>93.4</td>
<td>116.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>146.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>105.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Futures Mean Price and Annual Volatility of the three-factor FA- and F-Models, for each maturity bucket between 2010 and 2015. Volatility of the curve at maturities in the middle of each bucket are presented. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maturity Buckets (years)</th>
<th>Mean Price ($/bbl.)</th>
<th>Annual Volatility (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F-Model</td>
<td>FA-Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>84.3</td>
<td>84.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>84.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>92.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>108.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>103.0</td>
<td>131.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>100.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4. Data Risk Premium Curves

Having reliable expected spot and the futures curves allows for the estimation of the term structure of risk premiums implied by their difference. As stated earlier the calibration of the F-Model provides statistically insignificant risk premium parameters, thus expected spot curves are unreliable. On the contrary, adding analysts’ forecast data addresses this issue.

Figure 13 shows the model term structure of risk premiums implicit in the difference of the expected spot and futures curves for the two and three factor FA- and F- Models. In these models the risk
premium depends only on maturity and not on the state variables, so there is a constant risk premium curve for each model over the whole sample period. The figure also shows the data risk premiums, obtained directly from the difference between price forecasts and their closest future price observation, averaged for each maturity over the whole sample period 2010 and 2015, along with the 99% confidence interval.

Several insights can be gained from Figure 13. First, the FA-model risk premiums are very close to the mean data risk premiums. Second the three-factor model fits better the risk premiums than the two factor model, especially for short term maturities. Third, the term structure seems to be downward sloping, with annual risk premiums in the range of 2 to 10%. Finally, as expected, the F-Model is not able to obtain a credible estimation of risk premiums.

Fig. 13: Annual model risk premium term-structure for the two and three-factor FA- and F-Models, and annual mean data risk premiums. The data risk premiums are implicit from the difference between price forecasts and their closest future price observation, for every date between 2010 and 2015, and are displayed along their 99% confidence intervals. Parameter estimation from 2010 to 2014.
6. Conclusion

Even though commodity pricing models have been successful in fitting futures prices, they do not generate accurate true distributions of spot prices. This paper proposes to calibrate these models using not only observations of futures prices, but also analysts’ forecasts of spot prices.

The Cortazar and Naranjo (2006) N-factor model is implemented for two and three factors, and estimated using the Kalman Filter. Each implementation is calibrated using the traditional only-futures data (F-Model), an alternative only-analysts’ data (A-Model), and a joint calibration using both sets of data (FA-Model). Futures data is from NYMEX contracts, and analysts’ forecasts from Bloomberg, IMF, World Bank, and EIA. Weekly oil data from 2010 to 2015 is used.

There are several interesting conclusions that can be derived from the results presented. The first is that in order to obtain reasonable expected spot curves, analysts’ forecasts should be used, either alone (A-Model), or jointly with futures data (FA-Model). Second, using both futures and forecasts (FA-Model), instead of using only forecasts (A-Model), generates expected spot curves that do not differ considerably in the short/medium term, but long term estimations are significantly different and the volatility of the curve is substantially reduced. Third, the inclusion of analysts’ forecasts, in addition to futures, in the FA-Model, instead of only futures prices (F-Model) does not alter significantly the short/medium part of the futures curve, but does have a significant effect on long-term futures estimations, and increases the volatility of the curve. Finally, that in order to obtain a statistically significant risk premium term structure, both data sets must be used jointly, preferably using a three factor model.

The information provided by experts in commodity markets, reflected in analysts’ and institutional forecasts, is a valuable source that should be taken into account in the estimation of commodity pricing models. This paper is a first attempt in this direction.
7. References


