Expectations at the Short End of the Yield Curve: An Application of Macaulay's Test

The recent interest in the expectations hypothesis and the term structure of interest rates has been marked by an abandonment of the search for accurate forecasting\(^1\) that characterized early empirical work on the term structure. Economists have by and large followed David Meiselman's [15] lead in accepting the proposition that even if expectations prove to be inaccurate, they may still determine the yield structure. Thus, the literature's emphasis has shifted to attempting to explain the process by which expectations are formed.\(^2\)

This paper presents an inspection of the accuracy of the expectations implicit in the yield curve using essentially the same approach followed by Frederick Macaulay [13] in one of the earliest empirical studies of the term structure. Our return to this approach is motivated by several factors. First, existence of accurate forecasting provides a particularly convincing type of evidence confirming the expectations hypothesis. Second, as Kessel [12, p. 7] has noted, the reappearance of a seasonal in money market rates in the 1950's provides a new body of data with which to conduct tests along the lines of Macaulay's. Third, cross-spectral analysis provides a set of tools well suited to performing the required tests.

\textit{NOTE:} The author thanks Melvin Hinich, Phillip Cagan, Gregory Chow, Stanley Diller, and Jack Guttentag for helpful comments on an earlier draft of this paper.

\(^1\) Kessel [12] is the most notable exception.

\(^2\) For example, see DeLeeuw [4], Malkiel [14], Modigliani and Sutch [17], Wood [21], Van Horne [20], and Bierwag and Grove [1].
MACAULAY'S TEST

The cornerstone of the expectations theory is the proposition that long rates can be thought of as an average of current and anticipated short rates. For bills, which yield no coupons and sell at a discount, the following formula from Hicks [9] is appropriate:

\[ R_{nt} = n\sqrt{(1 + R_{1t})(1 + t+1r_{1t}) \ldots (1 + t+n+r_{1t})} - 1, \quad (1) \]

where \( R_{jt} \) is the yield to maturity on \( j \)-period bills at time \( t \) and \( t+jr_{1t} \) is the rate the market expects to prevail on one-period bills in period \( t + j \). For interest rates in the usual ranges, the arithmetic average approximation to equation (1),

\[ R_{nt} \approx (R_{1t} + t+1r_{1t} + \ldots + t+n+r_{1t})/n, \quad (1a) \]

can be used with small error. The formula implies that forecasts of short rates are embedded in long rates, and it was this proposition which Macaulay sought to verify. Macaulay compiled data on call and time rates for the years 1890 through 1913, a period characterized by a pronounced seasonal in money market rates. Since the seasonal was a fairly regular one that speculators could incorporate into their expectations, the longer-maturity time rates should have led call rates at least at the seasonal component of oscillation. This followed when it was noted that on the expectations hypothesis the time rate actually had a forecast of the shorter-maturity call rate impounded within it. Macaulay proceeded to estimate the seasonal component of each series over the period 1890–1913, and he found that the time rate seasonal did appear to lead the call rate seasonal. This he thought constituted "evidence of definite and relatively successful forecasting" [13, p. 36]. However, he could find no evidence of successful forecasting at the nonseasonal frequencies.

The nature of Macaulay's procedure, with its use of a decomposition of time series by frequency and the search for a lead of one series over another at particular frequencies, suggests that the tools of spectral

\[ \ln(1 + R_{nt}) = \ln(1 + R_{1t}) + \ldots + \ln(1 + t+n-1r_{1t})/n, \]

and noting that for small \( x \), \( \ln(1 + x) \approx x \).
Expectations at Short End of Yield Curve

and cross-spectral analysis would be useful in conducting such a study. By examining the estimated spectral density function for each series, it can easily be determined if an important seasonal component of oscillation, the key necessary condition in Macaulay’s experiment, exists in the data. Then by inspecting the coherence coefficient, a measure analogous to the $R^2$ statistic of correlation analysis, the strength of association between series at the relevant frequencies can be studied. Provided that the coherence coefficient is sufficiently large, the phase statistic, which gives an estimate of the average lead of one series over another over a given frequency band, can be inspected for leads at the relevant frequencies.

In order to determine the consistency of results produced by spectral methods with those obtained by Macaulay, spectral and cross-spectral calculations were made for the period 1890–1913 using the monthly data on call and time rates that Macaulay had studied. Forty-eight was the maximal lag used in obtaining the spectral and cross-spectral estimates from the covariograms. The results are reported in Charts 7-1 through 7-5. The estimated spectral densities, which are given in Charts 7-1 and 7-2, display sizable peaks at periodicities of twelve, six, and three months, which correspond to the seasonal component of oscillation and its first and third harmonics. This means that a good deal of the variance in the series is accounted for by oscillations in these frequency bands, and thus it confirms the existence of a seasonal pattern in each series.

The strength of association between the two series at various components of oscillation can be determined by inspecting the coherence diagram, which appears in Chart 7-3. The coherence coefficient provides a measure of the proportion of the variance occurring in one series over a given frequency band which is explained by the variations over the same frequency band in another series. The coherence is bounded by zero and one, like the $R^2$ statistic to which it is analogous. Chart 7-3 shows that the call and time rates are highly correlated at the seasonal component, the coherence attaining a value greater than .9

4 For previous applications of spectral techniques in studies of the term structure, see Fand [6], Granger and Rees [8], Dobell and Sargent [5], and Sargent [19].

5 A comprehensive treatment of spectral analysis can be found in [7].

6 The spectra and cross-spectra were calculated by using the standard covariance-cosine transformation procedures together with a Parzen window. The calculations were performed by using the ALGOL procedure SPECTRUM, which is available on the Carnegie Tech G-21 computer.
Essays on Interest Rates

CHART 7–1. Spectral Density of Call Rate, 1890–1913

CHART 7–2. Spectral Density of Time Rate, 1890–1913
CHART 7-3. Coherence Between Time and Call Rate

at the twelve-month periodicity. In addition, the coherence function displays peaks in the vicinity of the harmonics of the seasonal.

Chart 7-4 reports the phase of the time rate with respect to the call rate; when it is negative, it indicates that the time rate leads the call rate, while if it is positive, the call rate leads. The graph confirms Macaulay's finding that the time rate leads at the seasonal since the phase statistic is negative at the twelve-month frequency band and its first three harmonics. The results also confirm Macaulay's failure to find evidence of successful forecasting at other low frequency com-

CHART 7-4. Phase of Cross-Spectrum Between Call and Time Rates
ponents of oscillation, for at none of the nonseasonal frequencies is there a negative phase shift coupled with a large coherence.7

The spectral results are thus consistent with Macaulay's findings in every respect. However, we should note certain limitations inherent in following Macaulay's procedure of comparing call and time rates. In particular, a problem arises from the ambiguous nature of the maturity of a call loan. While it is clear that its maturity was less than that of time loans, it undoubtedly varied over time, and probably in a systematic fashion with the level of rates. Given the pronounced seasonality in rate levels, it is not unlikely that the maturity of call loans itself displayed a seasonal component. Since the magnitude of the lead that Macaulay's mechanism produces depends sensitively on the maturity difference between call and time loans, such variations in the maturity of call loans distort the time structure of the relationship between call and time rates. This is a particularly serious problem with the harmonics of the seasonal, since here the variations of the maturity of call loans are likely to be large relative to the period of the oscillation, and this produces quite serious distortions in any results we may obtain.8

Chart 7-5 reports the gain of the call rate with respect to the time rate over each frequency band. The gain statistic is essentially the regression coefficient $b(w_j)$ at each frequency for the model

$$y_t(w_j) = b(w_j)x_t(w_j),$$

where $y_t(w_j)$ is the call rate at frequency $w_j$ and $x_t(w_j)$ is the time rate at $w_j$. Notice the rise in the gain that occurs at the seasonal and its first several harmonics. This pattern is consistent with Macaulay's comments about the smaller amplitude of time rates at the seasonal frequency [13, p. 36].

8 For the period 1866–89, we performed a cross-spectral analysis on call rates and the longer-maturity commercial paper rate series compiled by Macaulay. The
Fortunately, this problem does not arise for the data on U.S. Treasury bill yields in the 1950's, which are the major concern of this study. However, before we turn to these data, we must investigate the implications of Macaulay's hypothesis for the behavior of timing with respect to the maturity difference between two bills.

THE TIME PATTERN UNDER ACCURATE FORECASTING

In this section we consider the implications of the extreme hypothesis that the forward short rates impounded in the yield curve accurately forecast the corresponding future spot rates. In our notation this hypothesis is written

$$t + s_{1+i} = R_{1+t+i}.$$  \hfill (2)

In the appendix we explore the consequences of invoking the weaker but still very severe hypothesis that the forward rates are unbiased estimators of future spot rates, that is,

$$t + s_{1+i} = R_{1+t+i} + t + s_{1+i} \varepsilon_i, \; j = 1, \ldots, n \hfill (2a)$$

where the $t + s_{1+i}$'s are independent, identically distributed random variables with mean zero and finite variance, which are distributed independently of $R_{1+i}$. Suffice it to say that our proposition about the timing of the relationship between $R_{nt}$ and $R_{1+i}$ holds also when (2a) is assumed.

To simplify the exposition, we use the arithmetic approximation to Hicks' formula,

$$R_{nt} = \left( R_{1+i} + s_{1+i} + \cdots + t + n + s_{1+i} \right)/n.$$ \hfill (3)

Substituting (2) into (3), we have

$$R_{nt} = \left( R_{1+i} + R_{1+i+1} + \cdots + R_{1+i+n-1} \right)/n,$$ \hfill (4)

which says that on the accurate forecasting hypothesis, long rates are arithmetic averages of current and subsequently observed short rates.

Inspection of (4) makes it clear that movements in $R_{nt}$ will display a lead over movements in $R_{1+i}$. It is our objective to derive the actual length of this lag. Before doing this, it may be helpful to set forth the spectral densities confirmed that seasonals existed in both series and the coherence coefficient was fairly high at the seasonal frequencies. However, while the commercial paper rate led at the twelve-month frequency, it failed to lead at the important harmonics of the seasonal.
following heuristic argument which leads to the correct conclusion. Let us rewrite expression (4) as

$$R_{nt} = \frac{1}{n} R_{1t} + \frac{1}{n} R_{1t+1} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} R_{1t+n-1}. \quad (4a)$$

By how much will $R_{nt}$ lead $R_{1t}$? We know by how many periods each of the terms on the right hand side of (4a) leads $R_{1t}$: $R_{1t}$ leads $R_{1t}$ by zero periods, $R_{1t+1}$ leads $R_{1t}$ by one period, and $R_{1t+j}$ leads $R_{1t}$ by $j$ periods. Then, since $R_{nt}$ is simply the average of $R_{1t+j}$, $j = 0, \ldots, n-1$, the lead of $R_{nt}$ over $R_{1t}$ is simply the average of the leads of $R_{1t+j}$, $j = 0, \ldots, n-1$, over $R_{1t}$. Hence, we have

lead of $R_{nt}$ over $R_{1t} = \frac{1}{n} \text{(lead of } R_{1t} \text{ over } R_{1t} + \text{lead of } R_{1t+1} \text{ over } R_{1t} + \cdots + \text{lead of } R_{1t+n-1} \text{ over } R_{1t}).$

or we have

$$\text{lead of } R_{nt} \text{ over } R_{1t} = \frac{1}{n} \left[ 0 + 1 + \cdots + (n-1) \right] \text{periods}. \quad (5)$$

This is the key result of this section. It holds for both assumptions (2) and (2a). In the remainder of this section, and in the appendix, we shall set out a more rigorous development of this relationship. The continuity of the argument will not be badly interrupted if the reader proceeds to the next section at this point.

In order to derive (5), our strategy is to evaluate the phase of the cross-spectrum between long and short rates implied by equation (2). Let us first rewrite (4) as the linear relationship

$$R_{nt} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} h_i R_{1t+i}, \quad (6)$$

where $h_i = 1/n$ for all $i$. Next we introduce the Fourier transforms of $R_{1t}$, $R_{nt}$, and $h_i$,

$$A(w) = \sum_t R_{1t} e^{iwt},$$

$$B(w) = \sum_t R_{nt} e^{iwt},$$

$$H(w) = \sum_t h_i e^{iwt}.$$

By the convolution theorem, (6) implies

$$B(w) = H(w) A(w), \quad (7)$$
where \( H(w) \) is the transfer function. The spectral densities of \( R_{1t} \) and \( R_{nt} \) are given by the mathematical expectations of the squared amplitude of their Fourier transforms. Letting \( S_j(w) \) be the spectrum of \( j \)-period bills, we have

\[
S_j(w) = E |A(w)|^2, \\
S_n(w) = E |B(w)|^2,
\]

where \( E \) is the expectation operator. The cross-spectrum between \( R_{1t} \) and \( R_{nt} \), \( S_{in}(w) \), is given by

\[
S_{in}(w) = E \overline{A(w)} B(w), \tag{8}
\]

where \( \overline{A(w)} \) is the complex conjugate of \( A(w) \). Substituting (7) into (8) we have

\[
S_{in}(w) = E H(w) |A(w)|^2 \\
= H(w) S_j(w).
\]

Hence, we have \( \arg S_{in}(w) = \arg H(w) \). Next we will express \( H(w) \) as

\[
H(w) = |H(w)| e^{ig(w)}, \tag{9}
\]

where \( G(w) \) is the phase of the transfer function. \( G(w) \) is the expression we are interested in. From (6) we have

\[
H(w) = \sum_{t=0}^{(n-1)/2} \frac{1}{n} e^{i\omega t} \\
= (1 - e^{in\omega})/(1 - e^{i\omega}).
\]

Assuming for convenience that \( n \) is odd and defining \( m = (n-1)/2 \), we can write

\[
H(w) = e^{im\omega} \sum_{k=-m}^{m} e^{i\omega k} \\
= 2e^{im\omega} (\frac{1}{2} + \cos \omega \cdots + \cos mw),
\]

which corresponds to expression (9) since the term in parentheses is real. Thus, we have \( \arg H(w) = G(w) = mw \) or

\[
\arg H(w) = \frac{n - 1}{2} \omega, \tag{10}
\]

which is the phase of the cross-spectrum. This is the expression we are after. The amplitude of the transfer function is given by
\[ |H(w)| = 2 \left( \frac{1}{2} + \cos w + \cdots + \cos nw \right) \]
\[ = \frac{\sin \left( \frac{nw}{2} \right)}{\sin \left( \frac{w}{2} \right)}. \]

Since angular frequency \( w \) equals \( 2 \pi / p \) where \( p \) is the length of the period,
\[ |H(w)| = \frac{\sin \left( \frac{n \pi}{p} \right)}{\sin \left( \frac{\pi}{p} \right)}. \]

Clearly \( |H(w)| = 0 \) for \( n = jp, \ j = 1, 2, \ldots \). That is, the amplitude of the transfer function equals zero for \( n \)'s that are integer multiples of the periodicity being studied. At these frequencies, relation (10) has no meaning. For, since the coherence is zero here, the phase statistic is uniformly distributed on the interval
\[ \left[ \frac{-\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2} \right]. \]

Relation (10) is a precise statement of Macaulay's proposition that on the hypothesis of accurate forecasting, long rates lead spot short rates. The lead relationship is of a simple "fixed-time" form, the phase diagram increasing linearly in angular frequency \( w \) with slope \( (n - 1)/2 \). Such a phase diagram implies that in time the length of the lead is constant across all frequencies. To determine the length of the fixed-time lag, we simply multiply (10), which gives the phase in radians, by time periods per radian or \( 1/w \). Then the time lag equals
\[ \left( n - 1 \right)/2 \cdot \frac{1}{w} = (n - 1)/2 \text{ periods}. \]

Thus, the long rate leads the short by \( (n - 1)/2 \) periods across all frequencies. This is the same result given by the heuristic argument advanced at the beginning of this section. This is seen when it is noted that it can be shown by induction that \( \frac{0 + 1 + 2 + \ldots + (n - 1)}{n} = (n - 1)/2 \).

Thus, we have established that the time lead of longs over shorts is an arithmetic average of the indexes that show the number of periods forward to which the forward rates in (3) apply. In the next section, relation (10) is used to study the pattern of leads of long bill rates over shorts in the U.S. Treasury bill market in the 1950's.
MACAULAY'S TEST APPLIED TO U.S. TREASURY BILL RATES

It has been demonstrated that the accurate forecasting version of the expectations hypothesis implies that \( n \)-period rates lead one-period rates by \( [0 + 1 + \ldots + (n - 1)]/n \) periods. As a function of angular frequency \( w \) the hypothesized lead could be expressed as

\[
\phi_n(w) = b_n w,
\]

where \( b_n = [0 + 1 + \ldots + (n - 1)]/n \) periods; where \( w \) is expressed in radians per time period; and where \( \phi_n(w) \) is the phase of the cross-spectrum between \( R_{nt} \) and \( R_{tt} \). In this section, our procedure will be to estimate the phase diagram of the cross-spectrum between \( n \)-period and one-period bills and then to use it to estimate \( b_n \). It can then be determined how closely the estimated \( b_n \)'s approximate the values implied by the accurate forecasting hypothesis.

We will use relation (1) to explore the adequacy of the accurate forecasting hypothesis in explaining the term structure of U.S. Treasury bill rates in the 1950's. The data are 417 weekly observations on one-, two-, \ldots, thirteen-week bill rates for the period January 1953 through December 1960. With a few exceptions, the yield quotations were made on Tuesdays. The lag between sale and delivery is two working days, and consequently the rates correspond to bills delivered on Thursdays. Since Treasury bills always mature on Thursdays, the quotations are for bills with an integer number of weeks to maturity.

We propose to test the accurate forecasting hypothesis by using the phase of the estimated cross-spectrum between one-week and \( n \)-week bills, \( n = 2, \ldots, 13 \), to estimate the parameter of (11) for \( n = 2, \ldots, 13 \). For the purposes of empirical implementation, a stochastic term must be added to the right side of equation (11). This term is present for several reasons. First, it incorporates the possibility of an error in the specification of (11). For example, accurate forecasting may be possible, if at all, only with respect to certain frequencies of oscillation, so that it is incorrect to specify that (11) holds across all frequencies. The use of the estimated phase, which is itself a random variable, provides another reason for including a stochastic term in

\*See Roll [18] for a further description of the data used here. Professor Roll generously supplied the data for use in this study. We have used averages of bid and ask yields.
(11). This is the standard errors-in-variables cause for the presence of a stochastic term. Of course, there is no reason to expect the variance of the estimated phase to be constant across frequencies. This will only occur if the true coherence is constant across all frequencies. This suggests that we should incorporate the assumption of heteroscedastic disturbances in our specification of (11). Accordingly, we assume

$$\hat{\phi}_n(w_i) = b_n w_i + u_i,$$  \hfill (11a)

$$\text{var}(u_i) = k \text{var} \hat{\phi}_n(w_i),$$  \hfill (11a2)

where $u_i$ is a random term with mean zero and finite variance and where $\hat{\phi}_n(w_i)$ denotes the estimated phase of the cross-spectrum between $n$-week and one-week rates at frequency $w_i$. Equation (11a2) states the assumption that the disturbance variance is proportional to the variance of the estimated phase, $k$ being the factor of proportionality.

Where the disturbances are heteroscedastic, least squares is an inefficient estimator. However, an estimator that is equivalent to Aitken's efficient generalized least squares estimator is least squares applied to the following equation:

$$\hat{\phi}_n(w_i)/\sqrt{\text{var} \hat{\phi}_n(w_i)} = b_n [w_i/\sqrt{\text{var} \hat{\phi}_n(w_i)}] + u_i/\sqrt{\text{var} \hat{\phi}_n(w_i)}. \hfill (12)$$

On our assumptions, the variance of the transformed disturbances $u_i/\sqrt{\text{var} \hat{\phi}_n(w_i)}$ is a constant, which means that the inefficiency due to the heteroscedasticity of the $u_i$'s can be eliminated by applying least squares to the transformed equation (12). In the empirical work below, we use an estimate of the asymptotic variance of each estimated phase statistic to transform the variables as indicated in (12).

Spectral densities were estimated for each of the thirteen bill rate series over the period January 1953 through December 1960. One hundred and four was the maximal lag used in the calculations. A typical spectral density for these series is the spectrum for the three-week bill rate which is reported in Chart 7-6. The graph contains peaks at the seventeen-and-one-third- and thirteen-week periodicities and at several harmonics of these periodicities. Not surprisingly, similar spectral shapes were estimated for the other twelve bill rates. The spectral results thus tend to confirm the existence of the seasonal in

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It should be noted that the error is in the dependent variable while the independent variable is measured exactly. Errors in the dependent variable induce no bias in the least squares estimator of $b_i$. See Johnston [11, Chapter 6].
bill rates which Kessel [12] and Conard [3, Chapter 5] found to be present in the 1950's.

Cross-spectra were calculated for each of the longer rates against the one-week bill rate. For periodicities greater than thirteen weeks, the coherence and phase of these cross-spectra are reported in Table 7-1. The estimated phase statistics recorded in this table are the basic data to be used in the regressions described above. The estimated coherence, which is shown in parentheses beneath the estimated phase, is also important for it permits us to estimate an asymptotic variance for the phase statistic at each frequency. The asymptotic variance of phase is approximately given by

\[ \frac{r}{2s} \left( \frac{1}{\text{coh}(w_i)} - 1 \right), \]

where \( r \) is the maximal lag, \( s \) is the number of observations, and \( \text{coh}(w_i) \) is the coherence at frequency \( w_i \).\textsuperscript{11} By substituting the esti-

\textsuperscript{11} See Hinich and Clay [10].
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<td>(.0824)</td>
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**NOTE:** Estimated coherences are in parentheses.
mated coherence into (13), an estimate of the asymptotic variance of the phase is derived. This is the procedure we have used to estimate the variances which appear in equation (11a2).

For the frequency bands listed in Table 7-1, least squares estimates of the parameter \( b_n \) in (11a) are reported in Table 7-2. For all cross-spectra, \( n = 2, 3, \ldots, 13, \hat{b}_n > 0 \), so that the phase statistics indicate that the longer rate leads the one-week bill in each instance, as predicted by the accurate forecasting version of the expectations hypothesis. In addition, \( \hat{b}_n > \hat{b}_{n-1} \) for \( n = 3, \ldots, 8 \), which is also

**TABLE 7-2. Regression of Phase Statistics on Angular Frequency, All Frequencies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( b_n )</th>
<th>( R^2_A )</th>
<th>DW</th>
</tr>
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<td>(.2019)</td>
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</table>

**NOTE:** Estimated standard errors are in parentheses. All frequency bands from periods of 108 to 13 weeks are included in the regressions. DW is the Durbin-Watson statistic.
predicted by the accurate forecasting hypothesis. However, this relation-
ship breaks down for $n = 9, \ldots, 13$. In addition, even for $n \leq 8$, the estimated $b_n$ are much smaller than those predicted by the accurate forecasting hypothesis. The estimated $b_n$ are never much more than one-third of the number $(n - 1)/2$, which they should equal by hypothesis. Thus, while the time leads are generally in the proper
direction, they are much smaller than those predicted by the accurate forecasting hypothesis.

Of course, the foregoing evidence is based on an examination of the phase statistics for all frequency bands with periods greater than or equal to thirteen weeks. We have therefore posed the accurate forecasting test in a harsher form than did Macaulay, who expected evidence of accurate forecasting only at periodicities that occurred with some regularity, primarily the seasonal and business cycle components of oscillation. An examination of the residuals in the regressions summarized in Table 7-2 indicates that expectations tend to be more accurate at the seasonal components of oscillation. In most cases, the residuals at periodicities of fifty-two, seventeen and one-third, and thirteen weeks are positive, indicating that the leads of the long rate over the one-week rates are longer at the seasonal frequencies. To pursue this a bit farther, regression (12) was run only using data for the fifty-two, twenty-six, seventeen and one-third, and thirteen-week periodicities. The results, which are reported in Table 7-3, indicate that for each $n$, the estimated $b_n$ is larger than the corresponding element in Table 7-2. This indicates that forecasts tended to be more accurate at the seasonal frequencies. However, the magnitude of the increment in accuracy is quite small, so that even these estimates of the $b_n$'s are very much smaller than those predicted by the accurate forecasting hypothesis. This result is in contrast to Macaulay's finding that the quality of forecasts was very much better at the seasonal frequencies than at the other frequencies.

In summary, the accurate forecasting hypothesis generally, though not always, correctly predicts the direction of the lead-lag relation-
ship between bills of different maturities. Yet it rather decisively fails to predict the magnitudes of those leads, under-predicting them by a factor of at least two-thirds. Our comparison of the patterns at the seasonal and nonseasonal frequencies provides support for Kessel's earlier conclusions, although the differences among those frequencies are not as sharp as those discovered by Macaulay in the data on time and call rates.
TABLE 7-3. Regression of Phase Statistics on Angular Frequency, Selected Frequencies

<table>
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<th>$R^2_A$</th>
<th>DW</th>
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NOTE: Estimated standard errors are in parentheses. Only fifty-two, twenty-six, seventeen-and-one-third, and thirteen-week frequencies are included in the regressions. DW is the Durbin-Watson statistic.

$$\frac{\hat{\Phi}_n(w)}{\sqrt{\text{var} \hat{\Phi}_n(w)}} = b_n \frac{w}{\sqrt{\text{var} \hat{\Phi}_n(w)}}$$

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has attempted to illustrate how the tools of spectral and cross-spectral analysis might be used to implement tests of the expectations theory of the term structure along the lines suggested by Macaulay. Like Macaulay's original work and a subsequent study by
Kessel, we have detected some elements of accuracy in the forecasts impounded in the yield curve for Treasury bill rates in the 1950's. But the empirical results of the last section cast rather serious doubt on the utility of the very restrictive version of the expectations hypothesis used in this study. As Kessel found, the qualitative implications of the hypothesis are generally borne out: longer bill rates do lead one-week bill rates, and the lead tends to increase with term to maturity. Yet the data suggest that the lengths of the lags are much shorter than predicted.

Perhaps these somewhat negative results are not surprising in view of the severely strict nature of the requirement that we have imposed on the yield curve in our statement of Macaulay's accurate forecasting hypothesis. Thus, consider the following quite general equation that we might posit to be governing the one-period spot rate,

\[ R_{t+1} = d_t + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k u_{t-k}, \]

where \( d_t \) can be thought of as "deterministic" and where \( u_t \) is a random variable characterized by

\[ E(u_t) = 0 \]
\[ E(u_t u_s) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2, & t = s \\ \sigma, & t \neq s \end{cases} \]

We can appropriately assume that investors can predict the deterministic component \( d_t \) perfectly but that predictions of the component \( \sum c_k u_{t-k} \) are subject to error. For such an \( R \) process, the minimum mean squared error forecast of \( R_{t+j} \) is given by

\[ \hat{R}_{t+j} = d_{t+j} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k+j} u_{t-k}. \]

The difference between \( R_{t+j} \) and \( \hat{R}_{t+j} \) is given by

\[ R_{t+j} - \hat{R}_{t+j} = \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} c_k u_{t+j-k} \]

rather than zero as posited throughout this paper. Our procedure in this paper, which is admittedly very extreme, amounts to assuming that the variance of the \( u \)'s is so small that the above expression can be neglected. Since making that assumption seems to be a questionable way of characterizing the evolution of the spot rate, it is not altogether surprising that the implications of the extreme version of Macaulay's hypothesis are not all borne out by the data.
APPENDIX

In the second part of this paper, we suggested that it might be more realistic to replace equation (2) with the assumption that forecasts are unbiased, that is,

\[ t + f + 1 = R_{1t + f} + t + f E_t, \]  

(2a)

where the \( t + f E_t \)'s are independent, identically distributed stochastic terms with mean zero and

\[ E(t + f E_t + t + f E_s) = \begin{cases} \sigma_f^2 & \text{if } i = j \text{ and } t = s, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ or } t \neq s. \end{cases} \]

We also specify that the \( t + f E_t \)'s are independent of \( R_{1t + f} \)'s. Then corresponding to (4) we have

\[ R_{nt} = (R_{1t} + R_{1t+1} + \cdots + R_{1t+n-1})/n + (i+1E_t + i+2E_{1t} + \cdots + i+n-1E_{1t})/n. \]

We define

\[ U_t = (i+1E_t + i+2E_{1t} + \cdots + i+n-1E_{1t})/n. \]

Then we have

\[ R_{nt} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} h_i R_{1t+i} + U_t, \]

where \( h_t = 1/n \) for all \( i \) and where \( U_t \) is distributed independently of the \( R_{1t} \)'s. We will show that relation (10) continues to hold when (2) is replaced by (2a).

Defining \( V(w) \) as the Fourier transform of \( U_t \),

\[ V(w) = \sum_i U_i e^{iw}, \]

and defining \( A(w) \), \( B(w) \), and \( H(w) \) as in the text, we have

\[ B(w) = H(w) A(w) + V(w). \]

The cross-spectrum between \( R_{1t} \) and \( R_{nt} \) is then given by

\[ S_{1n}(w) = E \overline{A(w)} B(w), \]

where \( \overline{A(w)} \) is the complex conjugate of \( A(w) \). Then we have

\[ S_{1n}(w) = E \overline{A(w)} [H(w) A(w) + V(w)] \]

\[ = E H(w) \overline{A(w)} V(w) \]

\[ = E H(w) |A(w)|^2, \]
since \( E \frac{A(w)}{V(w)} = 0 \) because \( R_t \) and \( U_t \) are distributed independently. Hence,

\[
S_{1n}(w) = H(w) S_1(w),
\]

which is the same relation given in the text. It follows that

\[
\arg S_{1n}(w) = \frac{n - 1}{2} \omega,
\]

as shown in the text.

**REFERENCES**


