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Investigating the effectiveness of hedging bunker price fluctuation

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WORLD MARITIME UNIVERSITY

Malmö, Sweden

INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF HEDGING BUNKER PRICE FLUCTUATION

By

BEN NGUYEN DANG

Vietnam

A dissertation submitted to the World Maritime University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

In

MARITIME AFFAIRS (SHIPPING MANAGEMENT)

2007

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DECLARATION $\mathcal{D}^*\mathbb{C}$ ସ

I certify that all the material in this dissertation that is not my own work has been identified, and that no material is included for which a degree has previously been conferred on me.

The contents of this dissertation reflect my own personal views, and are not necessarily endorsed by the University.

………………………………

(Ben Nguyen Dang)

August, 2007 ………………………………

Supervised by Professor Pierre Cariou World Maritime University

Assessor: Shuo Ma Professor

World Maritime University

Co-assessor: Orestis Schinas

Doctor Transmart Consulting, Greece

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$\mathcal{D}^*\mathbb{C}$

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Ben Nguyen Dang

ABSTRACT

$\mathcal{D}^*\mathbb{C}$

The dissertation investigates the effectiveness of hedging bunker price fluctuation in three main bunker markets: Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston.

To begin with, a deep literature review on the topic is carried out. A brief development of the bunker market from 1990 to 2007 is examined. The influential factors of bunker supply and demand are identified, from which the most determinant factors are discovered by correlation methods. Moreover, methodologies for estimating the hedging effectiveness and hedge ratio are taken into consideration.

The application of such financial derivatives into shipping as futures contract, forward contract, options and swaps agreements are carefully examined with some practical examples. Special attention is paid to futures and forward contracts.

Finally, the effectiveness of hedging bunker price fluctuation in Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston is investigated using (1): a direct-hedge with bunker forward contracts traded at the International Maritime Exchange (IMAREX) and (2): a crosshedge using different energy futures contracts traded at New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX). Using the OLS regression model, it is found that the hedging effectiveness is different in Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston. The most effective futures instruments for a direct-hedge in Rotterdam and Singapore is the 1-month bunker forward contracts. Meanwhile, for a cross-hedge, WTI futures contracts prove the highest effectiveness of performance in a hedging bunker spot price fluctuation at Rotterdam and Singapore.

KEY WORDS: Bunker, bunker price, spot market, futures market, fluctuation, hedging, hedging effectiveness, hedge ratio, OLS regression.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

"All life is the management of risk, not its elimination"

Walter Wriston Former Chairman of Citibank Group

Shipping markets carry high risks. The players operating in such markets such as shipowners, ship operators and other related parties have to manage these risks which emanate from the fluctuations in freight rates, bunker prices, interest rates, foreign exchange rates and vessel prices (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006, p. 233); such fluctuations then affect the cash flows of shipowners and ship operators.

Bunker costs, before 2003, were just a "*minor consideration*" but now they have turned into a "*major headache*" for shipowners (Corbett, 2006, p. 2). According to Stopford, bunker costs now become one of the major operating expenses of any shipowner and account for 47% (Stopford, 1997, p. 166) or even 50% (Corbett, 2006, p. 2) of voyage costs and this portion tends to become bigger and bigger. Thus, the fluctuation (increase or decrease) of bunker price could lead to a decrease or increase in the shipowners' cash flows and profit margins. For example, A.P. Moller-Maersk states that the change of $+/-$ US\$1/ton in bunker price could lead to change of -/+ US\$12 million in their revenue (Hansen, 2007, p. 15). Moreover, in May 2006, NYK (Japanese shipping company) reported that high fuel costs shaved \$242 million off their profit (Roberts, 2006).

There are many ways to reduce bunker costs^{[1](#page-12-0)} such as reducing risk arising from bunker price fluctuations, reducing speed, improving the efficiency of engines as

 \overline{a}

 1 Bunker costs = bunker amount $*$ bunker price

well as shortening the shipping routes. However, with the pre-fixed shipping routes at an agreed speed and for a certain kind of ship, thus the requirement of managing bunker costs is mainly to control and reduce the risk arising from the fluctuations of bunker prices which reflect the balance of supply and demand of bunker level. Such a job is especially important for the tramp shipping company which fixes a time charter party (short time or long term) and particularly a Contract of Affreightment^{[2](#page-13-0)}.

In liner shipping companies, it is now under debate that whether the increase in bunker price can be fully covered by the Bunker Surcharge (Bunker Adjustment Factor –BAF) or not. A recent study carried out by Cariou and Wolf found that BAF follows the main trend of the average bunker price (2006, p. 193). However, a study of Menachof and Dicer suggests that liner shipping companies should use hedging instruments in the future market to better reduce risk exposure rather than depend on the Bunker Surcharge (2001, p. 141).

As a result, managing the bunker cost fluctuation is one of the most important activities in any shipping company in order to make a profit. It attracts much more attention from shipowners and ship operators because the bunker price is becoming less predictable and fluctuates very much even in a very short period of time. In a statement to *Bunkerworld*, A.P. Moller-Maersk uttered that "The price rise in bunkers over the past 18 months is a serous concern as it has added significantly to our cost base both for ship bunker fuel and for all inter-modal costs" (Roberts, 2006).

The fluctuations of bunker price will then affect the cash flows, profit margins of shipowners and ship operators. For example, in 2005 from July 21 to September 22, the bunker price jumped from USD 275/ton to USD 358/ton (Hand, 2005, p. 3). For a vessel consuming about 8,000 tons bunker/voyage, the loss arising from bunker price fluctuation of one voyage is tremendous $(8000*(358-275) = \text{USD } 664,000 \text{ loses just})$ within only two months).

 \overline{a}

 $2²$ In a Contract of Affreightment, the freight rates and shipping route is pre-fixed by the owner and charterer

However, the question is that how can we effectively manage and reduce such a risk? Hedging against bunker price fluctuation is one way to solve this question and is the focus of this dissertation.

Hedging, the taking of a future position to reduce price risk or a risk-shifting activity, is said to be effective if the price risks are offsetting (Marshall, 1989, p. 195). However, "hedging is rarely perfectly effective because even after a hedge is established, some risks still remain" (Marshall, 1989, p. 195). Thus, hedging or finding a certain level of effectiveness of hedging in particular now becomes a fascinating topic for researchers.

1.1 Objectives

The overriding objective of this dissertation is to suggest an appropriate market place (where to hedge) and the suitable hedging instruments (tool to hedge) for shipowners and ship operators in hedging their bunker spot price fluctuation so that it could bring optimal hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness. In doing so, a number of hedging instruments are then carefully examined in order to find out which instrument is best suitable for bunker hedging.

Hedging bunker price requires a deep understanding of bunker price behavior, not only the spot price but also the futures price as well. As a result, the first aim of this dissertation is to provide a brief account of the development of bunker market to date as well as an economic analysis of the determinants of the supply and demand of bunker.

Using different hedging instruments deploying different investigating methods could result in different levels of hedging effectiveness. Thus, the dissertation also offers a review of the literature on applications of hedging methods to shipping and particularly in hedging bunker price.

Moreover, investigating the effectiveness of hedging requires large data sets of market variables such as world economy, international seaborne trade, oil price,

freight rates, world tonnage, speeds and fuel consumption of ships as well as bunker prices (spot and future). Thus, careful attention will be given to obtaining appropriate data for the purpose of this paper in order to offer an empirical analysis that will be carried out to investigate the hedging effectiveness of future hedging contracts based on the available data (1990-2007).

1.2 Methodology

Quantitative methods are extensively used in carrying out studies on hedging and can be found in two areas: secondary research and primary research.

Secondary research comprises the acquisition of knowledge of hedging in general and hedging in shipping industry in particular. In this area, Kavussanos & Visvikis' (2005) *Derivatives and Risk Management in Shipping*, Brooks' (2002) *Introductory Econometrics for Finance*, Marshall's (1989) *Futures and Option contracting: Theory and Practice*, Hull's (2006) *Options, Futures, and Other Derivatives* and Ederington' (1979) *The Hedging Performance of the New Futures markets* provided very deep knowledge as well as analyses of previous works on the topic.

Moreover, excellent articles from *Financial Review*, *Applied Economics*, *Journal of Future Market*, *Journal of Finance, Journal of Banking and Finance, International Journal of Logistics: Research and Application, Maritime Policy and Management, Journal of Applied Corporate Finance, Review of Economics and Statistics,* and *Review of Economics Studies* also provided an update on the current issue related to the topic as well as an insight into the subject matters.

Primary research includes data collecting and analyzing. Shipping related data (freight rates, bunker prices, seaborne trade, world GDP, world tonnage, fuel consumption, speed, oil prices) as well as the ideas of shipping professionals have been systematically collected from various issues of shipping newspapers, shipping magazines, and research institutes such as Fairplay, Drewry, Lloyd's list, U.S. Department for Energy. In addition, the dissertation also includes the professional points of view of the shipping industry including professors at WMU, shipowners,

shipping companies, shipping agents that author obtained during Field Studies in Germany, Greece, Denmark, Sweden and Norway.

1.3 Structure of the dissertation

The dissertation is organized as follows.

In the next Chapter –Chapter 2, after briefly triggering some basic understandings of the spot market, future markets and hedging such as hedge ratio, direct-hedge versus cross-hedge, hedging versus speculation; a deep literature review on hedging studies in general and more particularly in shipping industry such as hedging freight rates and hedging bunker price is provided.

Chapter 3 firstly presents the behavior of the bunker market from 1990 to 2007 by using the *mean* and *standard deviation* methods to investigate the fluctuation of such a market. Secondly, it analyzes the influential factors of the bunker market including supply and demand factors. Moreover, it also uses the *correlation* method to examine the relationship between these influential factors and the bunker prices.

In Chapter 4, concentrates on presenting the available hedging instruments for hedging bunker price such as the Energy Futures Contract, the Forward Bunker Contract, the Bunker Swaps Agreement and the Bunker Options Agreement. Moreover, some practical examples are also provided for an easier understanding of the hedging function of such instruments.

Chapter 5 firstly provides the reviews on the different methods used for estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness. Secondly, it carefully analyzes the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) *regression* model that the author uses for estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness in this dissertation. Thirdly, it then applies the OLS regression model into estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness of (1): a direct-hedge with bunker forward contracts traded at IMAREX (data available from December 2005 to May 2007, 399 observations) and (2): a crosshedge with crude oil and heating oil futures contracts traded at NYMEX (data available from January 1990 to July 2007, 909 observations). The evaluation of the results obtained from the estimations is also done to know which futures contracts, and which hedging instruments are good for hedging bunker.

Finally, Chapter 6, after concluding the work, identifies the main limitations and offers elements for further research on this topic.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEWS ON HEDGING IN THE SHIPPING INDUSTRY

2.1 Literature reviews

This chapter first provides some basic understandings of the spot market, futures market and hedging, and will then give a deep review of the application of hedging instruments both in general and in hedging in shipping industries in particular.

2.1.1 General notes on the spot market, futures market and hedging

2.1.1.1 Spot market, future market and hedging

The **spot market** for a commodity is a market where goods are sold for cash and delivered immediately (Woelfel & Garcia & Munn, 1994, p. 509). Consequently, contracts on spot markets are immediately effective. The spot market is also called the "*cash market*" or "*physical market*" because prices are settled in cash on the spot at current market price. As a result, **spot price** is the price of goods for immediate delivery (Kolb, 1991, p. 76).

The **future market** is a market that enables the participants (buyer/seller) to exchange contracts for the future delivery of commodities or financial instruments. The advent of the future market has come about because of the need to reduce price risk in commodity trading (Woelfel, Garcia and Munn, 1994, p. 506). Contracts on the futures market are standardized and effective at a specified future date. The **future price** is the price for delivery at a specified future date (Kolb, 1991, p. 76), for example, the future price for delivering bunker in two moths or three months.

In an early study, Johnson stated that the organized futures market facilitates two kinds of activities: hedging and speculation (1960, p. 139). Kavussanos and Nomikos (2000b, p. 776) also confirmed that one benefit of the future market is to provide the ability to control the risk associated with the price fluctuation in the spot market through hedging. **Hedging** can be defined as "the taking of a futures position to reduce price risk" –this futures position is opposite to the one that the hedger has had on the spot market, or "a risk-shifting activity". The hedge is effective only when the price risks are offset (Marshall, 1989, p.195).

2.1.1.2 Hedging versus speculation

As mentioned above, hedging mostly represents the commercial interests that the hedger will take a future position for the purpose of offsetting the losses associated with the price risk that he could face in the physical market. Whereas speculation is an activity in which the speculator, usually without any physical positions, takes a position in the future for the purpose of earning possible speculative profits (Marshall, 1989, p. 69). From this connection, it can be understood that a speculator is the one who does thing in his own expectation, if he expects that the price will increase in the future he will then buy the contract to earn the price difference. However, if his expectation is wrong, he will face the losses arising from such a price risk because he usually does not have any physical positions to offset his loses arising from the futures contract (Marshall, 1989, p. 69).

If we forget the transaction costs or the commission/premium (the price of a hedge), a future trading or an activity of speculating can be seen as a *Zero-Sum game* in the sense that the profits that the winner has will be exactly equal to the losses of the loser (Marshall, 1989, p. 70). The position of hedger and speculator is shown in *Figure 2.1* in which h is the hedge ratio, Vs represents the total variation in the hedged item and Vc represents the variation in the combined hedged position.

Figure 2.1 Comparison between a hedge position and a speculated position

Source: Charnes, J. & Koch, P. & Berkman, H. (2003). Measuring hedge effectiveness for FAS 133 compliance. *Journal of Applied Corporate Finance, 54* (4), 1-11.

2.1.1.3 Direct-hedge versus cross-hedge

A hedge can be a direct-hedge or a cross-hedge. A **direct-hedge** is a hedge in which the hedger uses the same commodity as the commodity that he has in a physical position to hedge against such commodity's spot price change (Marshall, 1989, p. 199). In other words, in a direct-hedge, the underlying commodities in the spot and futures markets are similar. For example, a shipowner uses the futures price of bunker to hedge against the fluctuation of the spot price of bunker on the spot market.

In contrast, a **cross-hedge** is a hedge in which the hedger uses the futures price of a different but typically related commodity to hedge against his physical position (Marshall, 1989, p 199). "Typically related commodity" is understood in the sense that the futures price of the typically related commodity must behave the same way as the commodity the hedger has in the physical market. For instance, using the future price of crude oil to hedge against the bunker spot price fluctuation, bunker price and crude oil price is said to be typically/closely related (this will be presented in *part 3.3*, chapter 3).

According to Marshall, a direct-hedge is usually more effective than a cross-hedge. However, a cross-hedge can prove high effectiveness if such a hedge uses the prices of several closely-related commodities (Marshall, 1989, p. 200).

2.1.1.4 Hedge ratio

To obtain the effectiveness of hedging, the hedger has to define a hedge ratio or an optimal hedge ratio that could minimize the price risk. **A hedge ratio** can be described as a ratio of the asset needed to hedge in the future to the asset the hedger has in physical position. In other words, hedge ratio is the number of future contracts that the hedger has to buy/sell (Kolb, 1991, p. 177).

A hedge ratio is calculated as
$$
h = \frac{Future \ position}{Physycal \ position}
$$

Naturally, "hedging is rarely perfectly effective because even after a hedge is established, some risks still remain" (Marshall, 1989, p. 195). As a result, estimating a hedge ratio and the hedging effectiveness of futures hedging has been the topics of much research in the literature.

2.1.2 Review on general hedging studies

A number of works have been published on hedging in general. For example, Johnson (1960) studied the theory of hedging in commodity futures while Holthausen (1979) investigates the possibility of hedging under price uncertainty. Ederington (1979) focuses on "the hedging performance of the new futures market", a paper that will be carefully reviewed in the later part of this chapter.

In 1988, Cecchetti, Cumby and Figlewski, in their study, used the Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (ARCH) model to estimate the optimal future hedge. Francis, Wolf and Castelino (1991) discussed the matter of cross-hedge and the choice of the optimal hedging vehicle, and focus on the cost-tradeoff between the hedging effectiveness and the costs of the alternative hedges.

In 1997, Broll and Wahl investigated the hedging problem of a firm which sells their products either on domestic or foreign markets. Pennings and Meulenberg (1997) studied the hedging effectiveness as a futures exchange management approach. In 1998, a study of Ferguson and Leistikow tested the regression technique in future hedging and stated that such a technique is stationary in future hedging. In the same year, Daigler and Copper examined the hedging effectiveness by deploying the duration-convexity hedging method. Satyanarayan (1998) gave a note on the return measure of hedging effectiveness. After that Roon, Nijman & Veld (2000) confirmed again the hedging pressure in the futures markets. Frechette (2000) found out the demand for hedging and the value of hedging opportunities.

In their study, Larcher and Leobacher (2003) searched for an optimal strategy of hedging with short-term futures contracts. Yang and Awokuse, in an effort to seek for the difference in the risk minimization hedging effectiveness between the nonstorable and the storable commodity futures markets, stress that hedging effectiveness is strong for all storable commodities and weak for all non-storable commodities (2003, p. 490).

Also in 2003, Charnes, Koch and Berkman contributed to the literature development of hedging studies by publishing their paper on measuring the effectiveness of hedging for FAS133 (Financial Accounting Standard). Applying different methods in estimating the hedging effectiveness, their main conclusion is that hedging effectiveness depends on the choice of the hedge instruments and the number of hedge instruments (2003, p. 8).

In 2004, Yang and Allen, investigating the hedging effectiveness in Australian futures markets, deployed four alternative modeling frameworks: an OLS-based model, a VAR model, a VECM model and a multivariate GARCH model, and then compared the hedging effectiveness obtained. Their comparison suggested that the VECM hedge ratio performs better than the VAR hedge ratio in terms of risk reduction (2004, p. 320).

2.1.3 Review of hedging studies in the shipping industry

Considering the high volatility in shipping markets, especially for freight rates and bunker prices, many authors have applied the financial tools to shipping in order to reduce the risk associated with such volatility.

2.1.3.1 Review of hedging freight rates studies

In 2000, Kavussanos and Nomikos took the case of freight futures (BIFFEX) to investigate the hedging effectiveness of futures contracts. Using both the constant and time-varying hedge ratio to test eleven component shipping routes^{[3](#page-23-0)} of Baltic Freight Index (BFI), they found that the hedging effectiveness of BIFFEX futures contract has improved over recent years. This is, according to them, due to the increasing homogeneity of the index (2000b, pp. 776, 798).

Following this topic, Haigh & Holt also studied the hedging effectiveness of BIFFEX futures contract, by comparing the results obtained from an Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression model and a time-series technique, particularly the Multivariate Generalized Autoregressive Heteroscedasticity (MGARCH) model, they concluded that the hedging effectiveness of BIFFEX futures contract depends on the weighting of each shipping route: the higher the weighting of the route the higher the hedging effectiveness and vice versa (2000, p. 895).

Another study of Kavussanos and Nomikos investigated the hedging effectiveness of freight futures contract traded at BIFFEX but only tested route 1 and route 1A of BFI, also using the constant and time-varying hedge ratio, and they concluded that the hedging effectiveness of the BIFFEX contracts varies from 19.2% to 4.0% across different shipping routes of the BFI (2000b, p. 798).

 \overline{a} 3 It is noted that the numbers of shipping routes of BFI changed over time: 13 routes ($1/1/1985$ -

^{11/3/1988), 12} routes (11/4/1988-8/3/1990), 14 routes (8/6/1990-2/4/1991), 15 routes (2/5/1991-

^{11/2/1993), 11} routes (11/3/1993-5/5/1998), 11 routes (5/6/1998-10/29/1999), and 7 routes from 1/11/1999 to now, see more in **Appendix H***.*

In 2002, Haigh & Holt applied the portfolio theory in investigating the hedging effectiveness of freight rates, commodity prices and foreign exchange rates. Also using the OLS regression, the MGARCH model and the Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model to estimate the hedging effectiveness and compare their results. Their main conclusions are, *firstly*, the BIFFEX freight contract is not an effective hedging instrument as the risk reduction of such contracts could only reach up to 6.0%. This result explains the decision by London International Futures Freight Exchange (LIFFE) to cease trading BIFFEX contract in April 2002 due to the poor volume of trading (2002, p. 1207). *Secondly*, foreign exchange rates hedging plays an important role in reducing the price risk for traders (Haigh & Holt, 2002, p. 1205).

In 2004, using the VECM (Vector Error Correction Model) model in the ARCH family, Kavussanos and Visvikis examined the hedging performance of Over-the-Counter Forward shipping freight market. The authors concluded that hedging effectiveness (both in-sample and out-of-sample test) for time-charter rates varies from route to route (from 29.10% to 32.16%) and the level of effectiveness varies from one market to the other (2004a, pp. 932-933).

2.1.3.2 Review on hedging bunker price studies

Until today, only a limited number of authors have studied the hedging effectiveness of fuel prices fluctuation. Typically, Swan & Morrell (2006) studied the hedge effectiveness of airline jet fuel; Alizadeh & Nomikos (2004) investigated the efficiency of the Forward bunker market; Alizadeh *et al* (2004) investigated the hedging effectiveness of hedging bunker using cross-hedge with energy futures contract; and Menachof and Dicer (2001) studied the hedge effectiveness of bunker price at Rotterdam through cross-hedge with London Gas-oil futures contract. For the purpose of this dissertation, the latter two studies will be carefully reviewed.

In their study, Menachof and Dicer applied the time-varying moving average hedge ratios and used London Gas-oil futures contracts to hedge against the Rotterdam bunker price in the Trans-Atlantic liner trade. Their estimation from the data range 1986-1990 proved that while a direct-hedge is not available, a cross-hedge using Gas-oil futures contracts to reduce the risk of bunker price fluctuation was highly effective and they concluded that up to 28% of the risks associated with bunker price fluctuations could be eliminated through hedging (2001, pp.152-153).

Also using the time-varying hedge ratio to estimate the effectiveness of hedging bunker, Alizadeh *et al* (2004, p. 1340), however, employed the VECM model in ARCH family with a GARCH error structure. In their study, the effectiveness of hedging bunker price fluctuations in Rotterdam, Singapore and Houston is examined using cross-hedge with different crude oil and petroleum futures contracts traded at the New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX) and the International Petroleum Exchange (IPE) based in London. After using both constant and time-varying hedge ratios to test a rather large number of observations (642 observations, weekly based from 30/06/1988-9/11/2000), they found that the hedging effectiveness is different among the three bunker markets (2004, p.1337).

Their main conclusions are that: in Rotterdam, for out-of-sample results, the IPE crude oil (the best contract) offers a 43% risks reduction while the best contract of NYMEX (gas oil) only provides 27% reduction. In Houston, the IPE gas oil offers a 14% risk reduction while NYMEX gas oil gives 12% reduction of risks. In Singapore, gas oil contract traded at NYMEX provides the greatest out-of-sample risk reduction (15.9%) while gas oil contract traded at IPE could only have a 10.97% reduction of risk (2004, p.1351).

2.2 Chapter conclusion

To sum up from the above reviews, it is learned that, until today, there is no paper studying the problem of investigating the effectiveness of hedging bunker price using a bunker forwards contract traded at IMAREX and comparing the results obtained with a cross-hedge using different energy futures contracts traded at NYMEX. This is the reason why the topic for this dissertation was triggered.

CHAPTER 3 INFLUENTIAL FACTORS OF THE BUNKER MARKET

"*The price rise in bunkers over the past 18 months is a serious concern as it has added significantly to our cost base both for ship bunker fuel and for all inter-modal costs*"

A statement of **A.P. Moller-Maersk** to *Bunkerworld* (Roberts, 2006)

Bunker is the oil-based marine fuel. It is the final product in the refining process after taking out all the higher components such as Gasoline, Aviation spirit, Kerosene and Butane. There are three basic kinds of bunker: the Intermediate Fuel Oil (IFO), the Heavy Fuel Oil (HFO) and the Marine Diesel Oil (MDO). The IFO and HFO bunkers are used for the main engine and are more popular than the MDO bunker which is specially used for auxiliary engine.

For IFO bunker, there are two basic grades: IFO380cst (centistokes) and IFO180cst. The distinction between these two grades is the distillate content. The higher the distillate content, the higher energy the fuel has. For example, grade IFO180 has 7- 15% distillate content while IFO380 only has 2-5%. The shipping industry widely uses IFO380 (60% in demand), IFO180 (30% in demand) and the remaining 10% is for MDO (Alizadeh *et al*, 2004, p. 1338).

The bunker price is governed by the laws of supply and demand. However, as vessels only take bunker at a limited number of ports around the world (let's say Singapore, Rotterdam, Houston, Fujairah), the bunker price, as a result, reflects the certain situation of bunker supply and demand at a certain port or in a certain region. This sometimes leads to differences in bunker prices of up to 50% (Ma, 2006, p. 96).

The demand for bunker originates from the demand for shipping. Consequently, any factors affecting the demand for shipping such as the world's economy, international seaborne trade, seasonality factor, political disturbance, and transport costs will also affect the demand for bunker. Unlike demand factors, the supply of bunker is mainly comes from the supply of crude oil and is then affected by the crude oil market, local demand, refining capacity, oversea and local competition as well as bunkering methods.

This chapter, after analyzing the bunker market in general and the bunker price in particular from 1990 to 2007, concentrates on analyzing the determinant factors of the bunker market by examining the supply and demand factors to explore the reasons why bunker price behaves in such ways. Considering the word limitation and, for the demand factors, this chapter firstly focuses on factors that directly impact the bunker price such as the world's economy, international seaborne trade, freight rates, fuel consumption, world tonnage and vessel speed.

For supply factors, the factors directly affecting bunker price are examined such as the world oil price, the local demand, the refining capacity, the degree of competition among suppliers and the bunkering methods. Finally, the correlation between bunker price and some of the most determining factors are calculated.

3.1 The bunker market

Following the laws of supply and demand, a rise in the demand of bunker will cause an increase in bunker price. The extent of this rise is captured by the price elasticity of demand (Ma, 2006, pp. 98-99). According to Beenstock & Vergottis (1993), the demand of bunker is quite inelastic as bunker is an essential energy for ship propulsion.

This finding is confirmed by a high correlation coefficient $(0.98⁴)$ $(0.98⁴)$ $(0.98⁴)$ between bunker price and bunker demand from 2004 to 2007. *Table 3.1* stresses that from 2004 to

 4 Calculated from data in **Table 3.1**.

2005, the demand only increased by 11.76% while the price increased by 46.02% (four times).

Demand	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2015	2020
(Million tons)** 170		190 210		220	230	240	250	280	340
Price $(US\$/ton)*$ 186		217.6 321.3 338			350	363	3769	3899	402.9
% Demand change		11.76			10.53 4.76 4.54 4.35		4.2	(6.68)	
% Price change		46.02			18.28 5.22 3.55 3.72		3.45	(13.37)	

Table 3.1 Forecast of bunker demand and bunker price from 2004-2020

Source: ** **Bunker demand**: compiled from Meech, R. (April 17, 2006). Study on shortage of low Sulphur fuel oil. In *Proceeding of 27thInternational Bunker Conference*. Gothenburg: Marine and Energy Consulting Limited. * **Bunker prices**: price from 2004-2006 are compiled average monthly price in *Appendix A*, prices from 2007-2020 are forecasted by author using time-series moving average.

Moreover, in 2004–2010, the average % change of demand is about 6.68%/year while average bunker price changes as twice as demand at 13.37%/year. *Figure 3.1* shows the behavior of bunker price and bunker demand from 2004 to 2020.

On the supply side, bunkers depend on the supply of fuel oil, thus the world oil market. The correlation coefficient between bunker price and crude oil price is over 0.95 (discussed in *part 3.2.2*) and contradicts the findings from Beenstock &

Vergottis (1993) who estimate an elasticity of supply with respect to fuel price is around 0.23. This could be explained by the current situation in the bunker market affected by the cut-off in supply by OPEC, by the huge demand from China as well as a colder winter in the US. *Figure 3.2* shows the behavior of bunker price and fuel oil supply from 1990 to 2006. It can be seen from *Figure 3.2* that supply of fuel oil decreased from 2,201 million barrels/day in 1990 to only 1,694 million barrels/day in 2006 (see *Appendix F*). At the same time, bunker price jumped up from \$112/ton in 1990 to \$321/ton in 2006 (nearly tripling or 187% increase).

Figure 3.2 Behavior of fuel oil supply and bunker price from 1990 to 2006

Source: **Bunker price in Singapore**: compiled from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 1990 to 2007 (see *Appendix A*). **Fuel oil supply**: compiled from BP Plc. (2007b). *BP statistical review of world energy, June 2007: quantifying energy*. London: BP Plc.

3.1.1 Development of bunker market 1990-2007

From 1990 to 2007, the bunker market is dotted by two main trends: quite stable development with a low level from 1990 to 1999 and a boom in level with high fluctuation from 2000 to 2007.

3.1.1.1 1990-1999 period: low bunker price and stable development

The calculation of mean, standard deviation, Min and Max of bunker price on the weekly based data (see *Appendix B*) in *Table 3.2* suggests that, in the period 19901999, the average bunker price was quite low. The mean is in the range of \$84– \$89/ton at four main ports: Houston, Rotterdam, Los Angeles and Singapore.

Market	Rotterdam	Singapore	Houston	Los Angeles					
1990-1999 (US\$/ton)									
Mean	85	89	84	88					
Standard deviation	20.86	23.56	20.44	21.57					
Max	189	153	143	171					
Min	60	58	55	61					

Table 3.2 Behavior of bunker price from 1990 to 1999 (weekly base)

Source: Complied from various issues of Fairplay Weekly from 1990 to 1999 (see **Appendix B**)

In addition, the standard deviation of bunker price at four main ports in this period is in the range of \$20.44-\$23.56. Two notable exceptions exist from July 1990 to March 1991 and late 1998.

The sudden sky-high bunker price in late 1990 and early 1991 is explained by the fact that Iraq invaded Kuwait (the two leading oil producers in the world) in this period (Stopford, 1997, p. 58). This invasion tied up the crude oil supply and resulted in the shortage of bunker supply thus sending the bunker price up. Moreover, bunker price was at its bottom in late 1998 and early 1999 (only \$55-\$60/ton). The reason for such a decline was the impact of the Asian financial crisis that broke down the financial system in some Asian countries (BP Plc, 2007b, p. 16). These are also supported by the trend shown in *Figure 3.3*.

3.1.1.2 2000-2007 period: high bunker price and fluctuation

This period of high bunker price was triggered by the invasion of the USA of Iraq in early 2000. The invasion led to a shortage in supply of crude oil. Consequently, bunker price in early 2000 was nearly twice that of late 1998, 1999 as shown in *Table 3.3* in all four main ports (\$155-\$173 versus \$84-\$89).

Market	Rotterdam	Singapore	Houston	Los Angeles					
2000-2007 (US\$/ton)									
Mean	155	173	158.5	167					
Standard deviation	66.48	69.29	69.5	74.8					
Max	355	344	349	382					
108 Min		107	100	103					
2005-2007									
Mean	263.75	296.25	275	308					
Standard deviation 43.64		42.84	41.79	43.52					

Table 3.3 Behavior of bunker price from 2000 to 2007 (weekly base)

Source: Complied from various issues of Fairplay Weekly from 2000 to 2007 (see **Appendix B**)

The maximum bunker price in 2000-2007 is almost six times higher than the minimum price in 1990-1999. For instance, the maximum bunker price in 2000-2007 was \$384/ton (in May 2007 at Los Angeles) while the minimum price in 1990-1999 was only \$55/ton (in December 1998 at Houston). Such trends are clearly detected in *Figure 3.4* in which bunker price tends to continuously increase from 2000 to 2007.

Figure 3.4 Bunker prices (IFO) at four major markets (Jan 2000 –May 2007) Source: Compiled from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 2000 to 2007 (see **Appendix A**)

In addition, the standard deviation of bunker price nearly tripled in this period (from \$66.48 to \$74.8) compared with 1990-1999 (from \$20.86 to \$23.56). Such fluctuation was extremely high from early 2005 to early 2006. For example, in Singapore and in December 2004, the bunker price was at \$175/tons and jumped to \$269/tons in April-2005 (almost 60% increase) and reached \$332/ton in October-2005 (almost 90% increase) (*Appendix A*).

During this period, shipowners' revenue and profit margins were negatively affected by this rise. For instance, in May 2006, NYK (Japanese shipping company) reported that high fuel costs did shave \$242 million off its profit (Roberts, 2006). Moreover, during the first half of 2006, due to the increasing fuel costs, A.P. Moller-Maersk reported a \$607 million loss in its container arm alone (Roberts, 2006).

3.1.2 Singapore –Rotterdam –Houston: three major bunker markets

Normally, bunker is sold and bought at every port where ships call for cargo operation or other purposes, all over the world. However, as pointed out by Kavussanos & Visvikis, the world bunker market can be divided into three major regional markets: Singapore (Asia), Rotterdam (Europe) and Houston (U.S). For each individual market, differences in technical requirements (refining capacity,

infrastructure and storage capacity) and commercial requirement (sales volume, competitive bunker price) for physical bunkering activities exist (2006b, p. 288).

3.1.2.1 Singapore

With container traffic ranked at the third place $(23,192,200$ TEU, after China – 88,548,473TEU and the USA –38,519,037TEU) and being the world's biggest port in terms of throughput (23,192,200TEU) in 2005 (Jane, 2007, p. 8), Singapore is a leading hub port in Asia and meets the conditions for a highly developed bunker market. Supported by a highly developed fuel oil cargo and a most dense shipping traffic area, Singapore is considered as an Asian benchmark for bunker price (Lee, 2007). *Figure 3.5* shows the forecasted demand of bunker in Singapore and other areas from 2004 to 2020.

Source: Meech, R. (April 17, 2006). Study on shortage of low sulphur fuel oil. In *Proceeding of* 27thInternational Bunker Conference. Gothenburg: Marine and Energy Consulting Limited.

It can be seen from *Figure 3.5* that from 2005 to 2007, Singapore demands a volume of bunker of about 26-30 million tons/year. The figure will reach about 50 million tons in 2020. Bunker sales in Singapore is the highest in the world, reaching 28.5 million tons in 2006 (Lee, 2007).

In addition, bunker supply in Singapore is supported by a high and stable refining industry as well as by impressive storage capacity (*Table 3.4*).

1000 barrels/day	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	%/Total
USA	15452	15711	16261	16512	16595	16785	16757	16894	17125	17335	17455	20.0%
Canada	1807	1811	1844	1861	1861	1917	1923	1959	1915	1927	1968	2.3%
N.America	18703	18971	19554	19822	19937	20183	20143	20316	20503	20725	20886	23.9%
S&C. America	6026	6324	6265	6417	6523	6468	6547	6612	6625	6644	6680	7.7%
Germany	2098	2170	2206	2240	2262	2274	2286	2304	2320	2322	2390	2.7%
Netherlands	1239	1266	1266	1282	1282	1283	1287	1287	1289	1279	1282	1.5%
Russian	6098	5933	5577	5443	5395	5363	5451	5486	5491	5491	5491	6.3%
UK	1873	1823	1848	1777	1778	1769	1785	1813	1848	1819	1819	2.1%
Europe	25454	25468	25240	24886	24837	24808	24980	25036	25170	25154	25171	28.9%
Middle East	5820	5983	6143	6374	6307	6603	6747	6906	7101	7126	7221	8.3%
Africa	2987	2928	2881	2983	3034	3217	3294	3313	3311	3332	3336	3.8%
China	4226	4559	4592	5401	5407	5643	5479	5487	6289	6587	7029	8.1%
Japan	5006	5056	5144	5087	5010	4705	4721	4683	4567	4529	4542	5.2%
Singapore	1245	1246	1246	1246	1255	1255	1255	1255	1255	1255	1255	1.4%
Asia Pacific	18039	19265	19713	21445	21627	21828	21939	21774	22640	22948	23944	27.4%
WORLD	77029	78939	79796	81927	82265	83107	83650	83956	85349	85929	87238	100.0%

Table 3.4 Refining capacity of Singapore and other countries in the world

Source: Compiled by author from BP Plc. (2007a). *BP statistical review of world energy, June 2007*. Retrieved 10 July, 2007 from World Wide Web:

<http://www.bp.com/multipleimagesection.do?categoryId=9017892&contentId=7033503>.

Table 3.4 shows that refining capacity of Singapore is stable at about 1,255 thousand barrels/day and accounts for 1.4% of the world refining capacity in the last ten years. Refining activities in Singapore are dominated by major multinational oil companies such as ExxonMobil (capacity of 605,000 bpd), Shell (500,000 bpd) and SRC with capacity of 285,000 bpd (Lee, 2007).

Moreover, the onshore storage capacity of Singapore has been expanding in recent years with major terminals such as Horizon Terminal (1.2 million cbm capacity by mid-2008), Universal Terminal (2.28 million cbm to operate by end-2007) and the Helios Terminal (450,000 cbm capacity by end-2007) (Lee, 2007).

3.1.2.2 Rotterdam

If Singapore is considered as a benchmark in the Asian bunker market, Rotterdam is said to be the Europe's biggest refining hub in the heart of the ARA (Amsterdam -Rotterdam -Antwerp) region. With the refining capacity increasing from 1996 to 2006 and accounting for about 1.5% of the world's refining capacity (*Table 3.4*), Rotterdam is the home for two oil refining giants: the BP-owned Nerefco with a refining capacity of 400,000 bpd and the Shell-owned Pernis with a capacity of 416,000 bpd (Einemo, 2007).

Bunker supply in Rotterdam is supported by bunker fuel storage capacity with a spread between the gigantic Vopak Europoort Terminal (total capacity of 2,871,100 cbm, in which 240,000 cbm is for bunker), the Argos Terminal and the newest Vitol-owned Euro Tank Terminal (capacity of 278,000 cbm only for bunker) (Einemo, 2007).

Bunker sales in Rotterdam reached 13.4 million tons in 2006 and expected to break another record in 2007 with 14 million tons. Bunker price in Rotterdam is usually quoted on an FOB export base as "*barges Free on Board (FOB)* [5](#page-35-0) *Rotterdam*". Moreover, the port is equipped with the world's biggest and most modern bunker barges which are ideal for handling the bunker requirements of new-generation mega containerships which require large bunker stems (Einemo & Carroll, 2007).

Moreover, the positive development of the bunker market in Rotterdam is supported by the increasing throughput of the port. The total goods handled at Rotterdam in 2006 is about 392 million tons in which the strongest growth was for petroleum products (+42%), Ro/Ro cargos increased 38% and containers gained 8% increase.

3.1.2.3 Houston

Houston is the biggest bunkering market in the US Gulf Coast although smaller compared with Rotterdam and Singapore. In 2004, Singapore sold 16 million tons bunker, Rotterdam sold about 8 million tons while Houston only sold 5.5 million tons (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 288). It has five refineries with the capacity of 1,344,000 bpd (for general products and fuel oil) and accounts for 26% of the fuel refining capacity of the USA (Lindemer, 2007). The bunker market in Houston is

⁵ In a "*barges FOB*" quotation, the barging costs are usually included in the quoted bunker prices
fairly stable and is supported by a wide range of multinational oil companies such as Chemoil, BP Marine, ExxonMobil Marine Fuels (EMMF) and Shell (Fearnley Consultants, 2003, p. 66). It is said to be the most competitive bunker market and is consequently cheaper than other USA ports (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 288).

To sum up the above discussion, bunker price was quite stable from 1990 to 1999, except for (1) the jump at the beginning of 1990s explained by the invasion of Iraq into Kuwait and (2) the decline in late 1998 and early 1999 due to the impact of the Asian financial crisis. Bunker prices existed at rather low levels (from \$84 to \$89/ton) and fluctuation was low (standard deviation ranges from \$20.44 to \$23.56). This fluctuation is said to be normal compared with the other normal price behaviors.

In 2000-2007, the invasion of Iraq by the USA in early 2000 sent the bunker price to nearly double levels compared with the period 1990-1999 (from \$155 to \$173/ton) and fluctuations were abnormally high (standard deviation range from \$66.48 to \$74.80). Especially, only from 2005 to 2007, the bunker price rocketed to nearly double from a mean range of \$155-\$173/ton to a sky-high range of \$263.75-\$308/ton.

The following sections examine the reasons why the bunker price behaved in such ways by analyzing the factors affecting the demand and supply of bunker as well as the causal relationship between the main demand/supply factors and bunker price.

3.2 Influential factors of the bunker market

The price of bunkers is determined by the laws of supply and demand. Thus the factors directly or indirectly affecting the supply and demand of bunker will then play an important role on the bunker price.

3.2.1 Supply factors

3.2.1.1 Oil market

As bunker is the final product in the refining/distillation process of crude oil, factors affecting the crude oil market have a direct impact on the bunker market. For instance, when OPEC informed a tight-up-supply plan in mid-2006, crude oil prices reached a high record level of \$75.63/barrel. Although the oil price decreased below \$60/barrel early in 2007, it soared again and stayed at a high level of around \$70/barrel (*Appendix B*). Such high oil prices have resulted in extremely high bunker prices in the last few years as presented in *part 3.1.1*.

Sky-high oil prices are supported by the increasing demand of oil consumption from developing countries and by the effect of bad weather. At the same time, oil production (supply side) did not keep pace with the increasing pace of oil consumption demand. It is understood from *Figure 3.6* that world oil production and oil consumption almost behaved in the same ways and were almost at the same levels (*Appendix C*). This implies a potential danger of shortage of supply if an unanticipated event happens (*Figure 3.6*) when the spare production capacity is not enough.

Figure 3.6 World oil production and oil consumption (1996-2006) [million tons] Source: compiled from **Appendix C**

Historically, the oil price has engaged itself with much fluctuation. After the oil crisis in 1973 which put the bad impact on the oil market, there are other events that have badly influenced oil price, thus consequently the impact on bunker price. The invasion of Kuwait by Iraq in 1990 sent oil prices up to \$40/barrel, the Asian financial crisis in late 1998 pulled oil prices down to about \$10/barrel. The invasion of Iraq by the USA in 2000 brought oil price up again to \$35/barrel (*Appendix B*). Other events also had an impact on oil prices such as the 9/11 event in 2001 and political conflicts in the Middle East. The fluctuation of crude oil prices from 1990 to 2007 is shown in *Figure 3.7*.

Figure 3.7 WTI and Brent crude oil spot prices from 05/01/1990 to 25/05/2007

Source: compiled from **Appendix B**.

The correlation coefficient between crude oil price and bunker price is 0.96. However, it can be seen from *Figure 3.8* that oil price did not fluctuate as much as bunker price. This is mainly explained by the fact that crude oil is sold almost everywhere while bunker transactions only take place at certain ports and are mainly controlled by multinational oil companies.

Figure 3.8 Development of bunker price and crude oil price (1990 –2007)

Source: bunker prices are compiled from various issues of Fairplay Weekly (1990-2007); crude oil prices are retrieved 15 June, 2007 and compiled from http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/dnav/pet/pet_pri_spt_s1_d.htm. (**Appendix B**).

3.2.1.2 Changes in bunker level, refining capacities

Bunker supply levels at a certain port depend on the refining capacity of the port area and the bunker import policy of the country. *Table 3.4* and *Figure 3.9* show that refining capacities have developed quite slowly in the last ten years (1996-2006) and limit the oil products supply as well as bunker supply development.

Figure 3.9 Refining capacities of countries and the world (thousand barrels/day)

Source: Retrieved 18 June, 2007 and compiled from World Wide Web:

[http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_public](http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls) [ations/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statis](http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls) tical review full report workbook 2007.xls. (see **Table 3.4**)

Moreover, refining margins of three main regions in the world (*Table 3.5*) proves that refining marginal costs have increased. For example, in the USA Gulf Coast in 1996, to refine one more barrel of crude oil, the industry only had to pay \$1.76. In 2006, it became much more expensive with a marginal cost of \$12.00/barrel.

The refining marginal costs are different from the USA Gulf Coast to Rotterdam and Singapore. Refining marginal cost is the most expensive in the USA Gulf Coast, followed by Singapore and then Rotterdam. As a result, it is now more difficult for the USA Gulf Coast to improve refining capacity compared with Singapore or Rotterdam.

Year	USGC West Texas Sour Coking (*)		Singapore Dubai Hydro-cracking	
1996	1.76	2.11	3.85	
1997	2.88	2.10	2.40	
1998	2.40	2.11		
1999	1.28	1.20	0.50	
2000	3.89	3.35	2.11	
2001	4.86	2.24	0.90	
2002	2.37	1.04	0.57	
2003	4.72	2.63	1.78	
2004	7.15	4.28	4.93	
2005	11.36	5.45	5.56	
2006	12.00	3.92	4.23	

Table 3.5 Oil refining marginal costs of three main regions (US\$/barrel)

Notes: (*) USGC = US Gulf Coast; (**) North West Europe (NWE –Rotterdam)

Source: Retrieved 18 June, 2007 and compiled from World Wide Web:

[http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_public](http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls) [ations/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statis](http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls) tical review full report workbook 2007.xls.

3.2.1.3 Other supply factors: bunkering methods, changes in oversea competition, changes in local market

As mentioned in previous parts, bunkering charges are included in the quoted prices. As a result, the methods of bunkering have a direct impact on bunker supply in the sense that if modern technology is used, the supply price will be cheaper and the operation will be safer.

Generally, there are two methods of bunkering. The first method is bunkering directly from the storage tanks when the ship is at berth. The second method is offshore bunkering using barges. At present, 90% of bunkers all over the world are delivered by barges. The first bunkering method is said to be more expensive if the ship only comes to berth for bunkering as it has to pay port dues. In contrast, the offshore bunkering method can take place when the vessel is at anchor and gives the possibility to save agency fees as well as port dues (European Commission, 2003, p.26).

Other factors affecting the bunker supply are the supply conditions in oversea competition as well as in the local market. Naturally, shipowners look for the

cheapest option^{[6](#page-41-0)}. Consequently, if a port can attract bunkering business through low pricing, it has an impact on all bunkering ports. For instance, a fall in bunker price in Singapore influences the bunker price in Rotterdam and vice versa (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 290).

Besides the discussed factors, many other factors play on the bunker supply such as competition in the local market, seasonality factor, the effect of unpredictable economic and the natural and political factors.

3.2.2 Demand factors

 \overline{a}

3.2.2.1 Development of world economy

The world economy affects the shipping demand in two ways: the economic policy and economic development (Ma, 2006, p. 19). World economic development creates demand for transferring production inputs (materials, equipment) as well as finished products from one country to another. The development of trade among big countries and organizations like the US, Japan, China, WTO, EU and ASEAN is the main element to explain the change in international seaborne trade. In addition, the movement of goods is supported by various bilateral, multilateral trade agreements among economic organizations. For instance, the mutual trade agreements between Vietnam and China, China and the US, multilateral trade agreements among WTO members, APEC members and NAFTA members remove the barriers and facilitate the development of international trade and then the demand for bunker.

In world economy development, GDP growth is the key driver for the growth of shipping demand (Hansen, 2007, p. 17). However, quantifying the impact of GDP growth on maritime demand growth is not an easy task. Volk (2002, p. 7) states for instance that a small change in the economic development might have a considerable impact on the demand for sea transport. The development of world trade is naturally

 6 Of course, he will consider the trade-off between taking bunker at current port versus taking more cargo to gain freight. If the difference in bunker price between the current port and the next port is higher than the gain from freight, he will take bunker at current port and vice versa.

faster than GDP growth (Ma, 2006, p. 19); the ratio between growth in trade and growth in GDP is defined as the elasticity of world trade. The higher the elasticity of world trade, the faster the development of world trade compared with GDP growth. Moreover, a study of IMF stated that elasticity of trade for the last 30 years has been positive at average 1.58 or world trade grew 58% faster than the GDP growth. The calculation between 2006 and 1996 shows that trade elasticity is 2.89. In other words, trade developed much faster than GDP between 2006 and 1996 (189%).

Year	World GDP Growth $(\%)$	World Merchandise Export Growth (%)	Merchandise Export Value (million US\$)		
1990	2.6	5.5	3,245,000		
1991	1.8	6.2	3,444,624		
1992	2.7	4.2	3,588,150		
1993	2.7	5.3	3,777,000		
1994	4.0	14.5	4,326,000		
1995	3.7	19.3	5,162,000		
1996	4.3	4.4	5,391,000		
1997	4.2	3.5	5,577,000		
1998	2.5	-1.5	5,496,000		
1999	3.4	3.9	5,708,000		
2000	3.4	12.9	6,446,000		
2001	2.4	-3.9	6,197,000		
2002	3.0	4.6	6,481,000		
2003	4.0	15.8	7,503,000		
2004	5.1	22.0	8,907,000		
2005	4.9	13.0	10,159,000		
2006	5.4	16.0	11,786,600		
2007*	4.9	13.8	13,414,200		

Table 3.6 World GDP growth and Merchandise Export Growth (1990-2007)

Notes: * are estimated figures

Source: **World GDP**: compiled from various issues of IMF. *World Economic Outlook 1990-2007*. Retrieved 8 July, 2007 from World Wide Web:

<http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2007/01/data/download.aspx>. **World Merchandise Export:** compiled from various issues of WTO. *International Trade Statistics* 1990-2006. Author

Table 3.6 and *Figure 3.10* illustrate that world export always develops faster than world GDP except for in 1998 and 2001. In 1998, the whole world was affected by the impact of the Asian financial crisis, oil prices declined to their bottom line of about \$10/barrel, bunker prices declined to only \$55-\$60/ton (*Appendix B*), world export developed at minus 1.5% compared with +3.5% in 1997, and the world economy fell into deep recession after booming like a "*bubble economy*" from 1994 to 1997.

Figure 3.10 World GDP growth and world export growth (1990-2007) (%) Notes: * are estimated Source: compiled from **Table 3.6**

In 2001, the USA was straggled by the long uncertain war against terrorism after the 9/11 event, the price of oil jumped up to \$35/barrel. The whole world economy was stagnated and finally mirrored in the recession of world trade with a growth rate of minus 3.9% compared to +12.9% in 2000 (*Figure 3.10*).

Foreign exchange policy and the policy of economic structure changes are the most influential policies on maritime demand (Ma, 2006, p. 19). A policy aiming at a weaker domestic currency encourages exports and discourages imports. For example, from 2000 to 2003, China applied a rather fixed Yuan policy versus the US dollar while the Yuan was rather devalued versus the US dollar so boosting Chinese exports to the USA in this period. Furthermore, since almost all freight rates and bunker prices are quoted in US dollars, the appreciation of the dollar relative to other currencies may increase the freight rates or bunker prices; whereas, dollar depreciation will effectively lower the freight rates and bring the bunker price down.

The change in the economic structure of a country also affects maritime demand in creating opportunities for resources moving mutually between the industrialized

countries and the developing countries. For instance, the export-oriented policy of Vietnam encourages imports of machineries and equipment into Vietnam for exportprocessing.

The last element having an impact on the shipping industry and therefore on the bunker market is inflation. Low inflation rates prove the stability of the world's economic development and create more demand for shipping and bunker.

3.2.2.2 Development of international seaborne trade

Shipping is the final task in an international trade transaction to bring goods from the sellers to the buyers. Shipping does not create demand itself, its demand is derived from the development of trade in goods (Ma, 2006, p. 5). At the same time, the development of shipping can create new opportunities for international trade (Hansen, 2007). *Table 3.7* shows that world seaborne trades have developed dramatically from 1990 to 2006. Dry cargo accounts for about 65-70%, the rest being mainly tanker (liquid) cargo.

Year	Tanker Cargo	Dry Cargo	Total
1990	1,755	2,253	4,008
1991	1,790	2,330	4,120
1992	1,860	2,360	4,220
1993	1,945	2,385	4,330
1994	2,007	2,478	4,485
1995	2,049	2,602	4,651
1996	2,127	2,631	4,758
1997	2,172	2,781	4,953
1998	2,181	2,884	5,065
1999	2,159	2,970	5,129
2000	2,163	3,709	5,872
2001	2,174	3,717	5,891
2002	2,129	3,819	5,948
2003	2,226	4,274	6,500
2004	2,318	4,528	6,846
2005	2,422	4,687	7,109
2006*	2,526	4,846	7,372
2007*	2,630	5,005	7,635

Table 3.7 Development of international seaborne trade (1990 -2007) (mil. tons)

* are estimated figures

Source: Compiled from various issues of Review of Maritime Transport (1990-2006), UNCTAD

Figure 3.11 shows that seaborne trades grow at more than 4%/year. In which seaborne dry cargo grew at an average of more than 5%/year, faster than the tanker cargo (2.5%/year from 1990 to 2007).

Figure 3.11 Development of seaborne trade from 1990-2007 (Million tons)

Source: Compiled from various issues of Review of Maritime Transport (1990-2006), UNCTAD.

Seaborne trade presents annually nearly 220 million tons^{[7](#page-45-0)} of cargo. Such a huge volume is equivalent to 3.385 3.385 3.385 Panamax vessels δ with an average capacity of 65,000dwt. This implies a bunker consumption of 3,385 x 35 tons^{[9](#page-45-0)} = 118,475 tons per day or $350 \times 118,475$ tons = $41,466,250$ mil tons of bunker per year.

3.2.2.3 Development of world tonnage and freight rates

An increase in world tonnage can come from an increase in the number of vessels or their average size. Both include demand for additional bunker. The calculations of correlation coefficient of world tonnage (0.84), freight rates (0.65) with the bunker price stress a positive relationship (*Appendix D, F*). *Figure 3.12* stresses that world tonnage and bunker price have increased from 1990 to 2006, especially after 1998. However, bunker price grew faster than world tonnage: average 9.3%year versus 2.4%/year (compiled from *Appendix F*).

 \overline{a}

 7220 mil tons = average seaborne trade (1990: 2007) x 4%/year.

 $8\,3,385$ vessels = 220 mil tons / 65,000 dwt

⁹ Average consumption/day of a 65,000dwt Panamax at speed of 14-15 knots (see *Appendix E*)

Figure 3.12 Development of world tonnage and bunker price 1990-2006

Source: Compiled from various issues of Review of Maritime Transport (1990 – 2006), UNCTAD

Naturally, when freight rates are high, the shipping industry tends to bring more ships into operation to take advantage of high freight rates, thus creating more demand for bunker. However, the fact is that it takes from 1.5 to 2.5 years for owners to build a new ship. As a result, during this time, even if the freight rates are high, the bunker demand is not increasing at the same pace as the freight rates increase. This is also the reason why correlation between world tonnage and bunker price (0.84) is higher than that between bunker price and freight rates (0.65). *Figure 3.13* shows the development of representative time charter rates from 1998 to 2007.

Figure 3.13 Development of representative dry bulk time charter rates for Handymax, Panamax and Capesize vessels (US\$/day)

Source: Compiled from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 1998 to 2007 (see **Appendix D**)

Figure 3.13 shows that from 1998 to late 2002 charter rates were quite low and even decreased sometimes. However, after 2002, and particularly since late 2003, the charter rates have been booming. For instance, in September 2002 the time charter rate for a Capesize (150,000dwt) was only \$11,000/day and jumped up to \$24,000/day in September 2003 (an increased by 118%) and to \$47,000/day in October 2004 (an increased by 327%). These charter rates stayed quite stable at about \$25-28,000/day from mid-2005 to mid-2006 but rocketed again in late 2006 (\$54,000/day in September 2006) to \$64,000/day in May 2007 (*Appendix D*).

3.2.2.4 Fuel consumption and speed of vessels

Fuel consumption and vessel speed are two elements that have a direct impact on fuel costs. The fuel consumption of a ship depends on the efficiency of the ship engine. As a matter of fact, newly built ships generally consume less than aged ones (Ma, 2006, p. 96).

In the short term, owners can increase their shipping capacity by simply increasing the speed of a ship. However, the higher the speed of a ship, the higher the fuel consumption is (Germanischer Lloyd, 2006, p. 29). Therefore, when the bunker price increases, shipowners tend to reduce speed to save fuel costs. *Figure 3.15* shows the relationship of containership size, ship speed and its fuel consumption. (*Appendix E*).

Figure 3.15 Relationship of size, speed and fuel consumption of containerships Source: Compiled from World Shipping Encyclopaedia, WMU library software (Ship)

Since the proportion of bunker costs in the total costs increases, shipowners and ship operators always try to look for optimal speed (Ma, 2006, p. 96). For example, the study on "Speed & Bunker Costs" for 8,000TEU container ships fleet of Germanischer Lloyd found that for a bunker fuel price at \$175/ton, the optimal fleet size lies at 8 ships with a relatively high speed of 26 knots. With bunker fuel price at \$275/ton, the optimal fleet size lies at 9 ships with a speed of 22 knots. However, when bunker fuel prices increase to \$400/ton, the optimal fleet size is 10 ships but the speed will decrease to 18 knots (2006, pp. 28-29).

Consequently, with the trend of deploying bigger and bigger ships (of course with optimal speed) in operations to take advantage of economics of scale, the shipping industry will need more and more bunker in the future.

3.3 Analysis of correlation between bunker price and influential factors

3.3.1 Correlation between freight rates and bunker price

As mentioned previously, bunker cost accounts for almost 50% of voyage costs. Normally, shipowners will compensate an increase in bunker costs with a higher freight rate (by passing such increases on to the shippers). Consequently, the higher the bunker price the higher the freight rates. As a result, bunker price and freight rates are positively correlated. This is true in the key bunker price-setting centers like Houston, Singapore and Rotterdam where bunker prices are highly responsive to changes in the bulk spot freight market (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 297).

Calculations of correlation coefficient between bunker prices with different time charter rates also support the above argument. However, results stress some differences. The correlation coefficient (*Figure 3.16*) between Handymax charter rates and bunker prices in Singapore –Rotterdam –Houston are respectively $0.64 - 0.64$ – 0.68 while for Panamax charter rates are 0.50–0.50–0.53. The reason for a closer correlation between Handymax charter rates and bunker prices compared with Panamax's might be explained by the bigger size of Panamax vessels (60 -80,000 dwt) and by the long-term contract they are used for with the key commodities like Iron Ore, Coal and Grain. Panamax charter rates would therefore be rather inelastic to bunker price changes. In contrast, Handymax (35 -40,000 dwt) that are carrying a wider range of commodities (steel products, steam coal, scrap, and bauxite) with rather short-term contracts might be more affected by the day-to-day bunker price changes.

Source: Bunker price and representative charter rates of Capesize and Panamax: compiled from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 1990 to 2007. (**Appendix A, D**)

Focusing on containerships, a study of Cariou & Wolff shows that a causal relation exists between the bunker price and Bunker Adjustment Factor (BAF) on the Europe/Far East liner trade. BAF follows the main trend in bunker price (2006, p. 193). In other words, it can be understood that owners tend to cover an increase in bunker price rise by imposing BAF on the shippers.

3.3.2 Correlation between oil prices and bunker prices

Previous discussions (*part 3.2.1.1*) have shown how bunker price moves in close relationship with crude oil price. Many explanations for this phenomenon exist. Firstly, and from the demand side, crude oil and bunker are two primary commodities and essential energies with limited substitutes at least in the short and medium terms. Secondly, and from the supply side, bunker is the final product in the distillation process of crude oil, thus both have same the primary source.

As the bunker demand is limited at sea ports and bunker supply is limited by refining capacities, a slight difference still remains between bunker price and crude oil price at different ports (*Figure 3.17, 3.18*). The correlation coefficient between the WTI oil price and the bunker price in Singapore is 0.964 while between WTI oil price and bunker price in Houston is 0.968.

A similar calculation with the Brent spot oil price shows that the correlation coefficient with the bunker price in Singapore is 0.964 and in Rotterdam is 0.968.

Such slight differences in correlation coefficient between the oil prices and the bunker prices at different ports are later on stressed by Kavussanos & Visvikis who state that bunker prices usually follow the trends in the nearest oil cargo market centre (2006b, p. 290).

3.3.3 Correlation between international seaborne trade and bunker prices

Seaborne trade is related to bunker prices in the sense that seaborne trade generates the demand for bunker (Ma, 2006, p. 98). *Figure 3.19* shows that bunker price fluctuates almost in the same way with seaborne dry cargo.

Figure 3.19 Development of seaborne dry cargo, tanker cargo and bunker price (1990-2007) (see **Table 3.7**).

Notes: * are estimated figures

Source: Seaborne trade: compiled from various issues of Review of Maritime Transport (1990-2006), UNCTAD. Bunker price: compiled from various issues of Drewry Monthly (1990-2007).

The correlation coefficient for bunker price with total seaborne trades is close to 0.894, with tanker seaborne cargoes 0.841 and with dry seaborne cargoes 0.889. The reason for these slight differences might be the bigger share of dry seaborne cargo (65-70%) compared to only 30-35% of tanker seaborne cargo in the total seaborne trade (see *Table 3.7*). Moreover, for many reasons, shipowners usually fix rather long-term contracts (3 -5 years) in carrying tanker seaborne cargo compared to the shorter-term for dry seaborne contracts.

Source: **Bunker price**: compiled from various issues of Fairplay Weekly from 1990 to 2007. **Seaborne trade** from 1990-2007: compiled from various issues of Review of Maritime Transport (1990 -2006), UNCTAD.

3.3.4 Correlation between fuel consumption and bunker price

Fuel consumption is one factor affecting the bunker price. The fuel consumption rate of a ship depends on the efficiency of the ship engine, the commercial speed and the distance. The more efficient the ship engine the slower the speed, the shorter the shipping distance, the less the fuel the ship consumes.

The correlation coefficient between the fuel consumption of containerships and bunker price is 0.879 while that between bulk carriers and bunker price is only 0.234.

Source: Bunker price: compiled from various issues of Fairplay Weekly from November, 1995 to May, 2007. Fuel consumption of bulk carriers and container vessels: compiled from World Shipping Encyclopaedia, WMU library (Ship category).

From *Figure 3.21,* the fuel consumption of bulk carriers would be rather inelastic to changes in bunker price (23.4%). Meanwhile the fuel consumption of containerships is highly responsive to changes in bunker price (87.9%). The reason for this difference is that in liner shipping, to keep pace with published schedules and high service frequency, containerships have to sail at higher speed compared to ships used in the tramping market. Calculations made on 601 containerships and 601 bulk carriers in *Appendix E* also supports this argument where the average speed of containerships is 21.81 knots while the average speed of bulk carriers is only 13.96 knots.

3.4 Chapter conclusion

The bunker market is dotted by two main trends: from 1990 to 1999, bunker prices existed at rather low levels (mean ranges from \$84 to \$89/ton) and behaved quite stably (standard deviation ranges from \$20.44 to \$23.56). In contrast, from 2000 to 2007, the bunker price jumped to nearly double compared with the period 1990-1999 (mean ranges from \$155 to \$173/ton) and fluctuations have been abnormally high (standard deviation range from \$66.48 to \$74.80). Particularly, only from 2005 to

2007, the bunker price rocketed to nearly double from the mean range of \$155- \$173/ton to the sky-high range of \$263.75-\$308/ton.

Such unpredictable bunker price behavior is explained by the operation of the laws of supply and demand in which supply factors are addressed by the sky-high crude oil price, the high oil consumption level versus the low oil production capacity, the limit of refining capacity of the world and main ports, fierce competition at oversea and local ports as well as the bunkering methodologies. On the demand side, the increase in bunker price is derived from the increase in the world's economy, the boom in international seaborne trade, the fast development of world tonnage, the high freight rate levels as well as the growing size and higher fuel consumption level of world's ships.

Some factors prove to be very close correlations with bunker price like freight rates (0.5-0.68 correlation coefficient), oil price (0.964 -0.968 correlation coefficient), seaborne trade (0.841 -0.894 correlation coefficient) and the fuel consumption of ships (0.234 -0.879 correlation coefficient). Consequently, these factors have a big impact on regulating bunker price.

CHAPTER 4 INTRODUCTION TO BUNKER HEDGING INSTRUMENTS

Bunker price is governed by the laws of supply and demand. Influential factors affecting the supply and demand of bunker engage themselves in the risk, especially the factors of oil price (supply) and freight rate (demand). Because of the risky nature oil price and freight rate, it then results in the highly volatile nature of bunker price as presented in Chapter 3. The application of financial hedging instruments in reducing risk arising from the fluctuation of price is not new in the commodity and financial markets. However, applying such financial instruments for hedging against bunker price has only developed recently in the shipping industry.

Around the mid–1980s, shipowners and ship operators, who are always confronted with much risk in the industry, realized that such successfully applied instruments like Futures, Options, Forward and Swaps contracts in the commodity and financial market could also be applied to reduce risk in the shipping industry. As a result, in 1988, the first bunker futures contract was launched at Singapore Futures Exchange. Eleven years later, in 1999, a similar contract was introduced at the London-based International Petroleum Exchange (Alizadeh & Nomikos, 2004, p. 282). However, because of the limited trading volume, both contracts failed to attract players and were then eventually withdrawn from the market. Bunker future contracts in Singapore Future Exchange stopped at the beginning of 1990s while the one in London IPE finished only 6 months after coming into operation (Alizadeh & Nomikos, 2004, p.295).

The reasons for such failures, discovered later on, were that it was because of the nature of bunker market where physical bunkers are taking place in different ports around the world while bunker futures contracts are for the delivery of bunker in specific locations. Consequently, futures price of bunker do not behave the same way as the physical bunker prices at different ports around the world. This, as a result, reduces the effectiveness of hedging through futures contracts (Alizadeh & Nomikos, 2004, p.282). Moreover, empirical evidence proved in the study of Alizaheh *et al* (2004) also supports this argument.

In the absence of an exchange-based futures contract for hedging bunker price, many researchers have put effort to search for the alternative cross-hedge instruments. A remarkable study undertaken by Alizaheh *et al* (2004) proved that the most "typically related commodity" that could serve a cross-hedge purpose for bunker is the energy (crude oil, gas oil and heating oil). Consequently, energy futures contracts could be the best alternative for bunker futures contract in hedging against bunker price. However, as presented in Chapter 2, such energy futures contract do not provide significant benefits in terms of hedging and risk reduction (Alizaheh *et al*, 2004, pp.350-352).

This chapter will introduce the possible hedging instruments that could be used to hedge against bunker price fluctuations. Some practical examples are also provided for easier understanding of the hedging function of such instruments.

4.1 Bunker hedging instruments

Without an exchange-based future contract, in order to reduce losses arising from the fluctuation of bunker price, shipowners, ship operators and other related parties could use a cross-hedge with an energy futures contract, a bunker forward contract, a bunker swaps agreement or a bunker options agreement to hedge against the bunker price fluctuations.

4.1.1 Hedging bunker price using a cross-hedge with energy futures contract

A future contract can be defined as a highly standardized instrument agreed between a contract seller and a contract buyer to delivery a certain quantity of the underlying asset at an agreed price and at a certain time in the future (Marshall, 1989, p. 6). All futures contract must be traded on an exchange-based market place with strict rules and regulations under the management of a clearing-house.

The size of a future contract is standardized by a number of units such as lots and each lot is equal to, for example, 1,000 tons of certain commodities. In a futures contract, a range of delivery dates is usually specified and the settlement is exercised on a daily-basis and is usually closed out prior to the contract maturity (Hull, 2006, p. 40). More characteristics of a future contract can be found in *Table 4.1*.

The reason to hedge against bunker price fluctuation using a cross-hedge with energy futures contract is that there is no exchange-based market for bunker futures trading. Moreover, *part 3.3* in chapter 3 concludes that there is a close correlation (0.968) between bunker price and crude oil price. As a result, theoretically we can use energy futures contract for a cross-hedge for bunker price. The function of a cross-hedge through energy futures contract as a hedging instrument for bunker price is complicated. However, to see how hedging bunker functioning through a crosshedge with energy futures contract, we may consider the following simple example.

Suppose that on 15 June 2007, a shipowner fixes a contract to carry cargo from Houston to Rotterdam, the voyage will be carried out one month later (on 15 July 2007). The voyage will need about 6,000tons of IFO380 to be loaded at Houston on 15 July 2007. At present, there is energy futures contract (let's say Brent crude oil) traded at NYMEX with one $\text{lot} = 1,000$ barrels, standard contract is equal to one lot^{[1](#page-57-0)0}. On 15 June, IFO380 price is \$360.5/ton^{[11](#page-57-0)}, total bunker cost for 6,000tons is $6,000x360.5 = $2,163,000$. The shipowner is worried that the bunker price will increase on 15 July and he decides to hedge against such an increase by buying Brent crude futures contracts. Futures price of Brent crude on 15 June is \$70/barrel, thus the shipowner has to buy 2,163,000 / $(1,000 \times $70) = 31^{12}$ $(1,000 \times $70) = 31^{12}$ $(1,000 \times $70) = 31^{12}$ future contracts.

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¹⁰ Standard contract of crude oil futures traded at NYMEX, retrieved from its website: http://www.nymex.com/intro.aspx.

¹¹ Quoted by Bunkerworld on its website: http://www.bunkerworld.com/markets/prices/

¹² 2,163,000 / (1,000x\$70) = 30.9, thus take the round number of 31 contracts.

As the shipowner expected, on 15 July the bunker price increases by \$364/ton at Houston, thus on the spot market the shipowner has to load bunker to carry out the voyage and face a loss of $6,000 \times (\$364 - \$360.5) = \$21,000$. However, on the future market, Brent crude increases by \$74/barrel, thus the shipowner decides to sell 31 contracts and has a gain of $31x1,000 \times (574 - 70) = $124,000$. As a result, a portfolio of spot and futures market brings the shipowner a gain of $$124,000$ - $$21,000$ = \$103,000 instead of a loss of \$21,000 if he would have stayed unhedged.

However, if the bunker price decreases by \$357/ton on 15 July instead of an increase as the shipowner expects, then on the spot market he has a saving of 6,000 x (\$360.5 -\$355) = \$33,000. Meanwhile, on the futures market, Brent crude decreases by \$68/barrel, thus the shipowner sells 31 contracts and faces a loss of 31x1,000x(\$70- $$68$) = \$62,000. Consequently, a portfolio of spot and futures market results in a loss of only $$62,000 - $33,000 = $29,000$ instead of a saving of \$33,000 if he had not hedge with the futures contract.

There may be other scenarios derived from the changes of bunker price and the changes of energy futures contract price thus resulting in the loss or gain of the shipowner. Such an amount of loss or gain then depends firstly on the forecast of bunker price (increase or decrease) and secondly on the rate of change between the bunker price and energy futures contract price.

However, Alizaheh *et al* found out that, for a cross-hedge with energy futures prices, the highest hedging effectiveness for hedging bunker price in Rotterdam falls in the IPE crude oil future with 43% effectiveness, followed by the NYMEX crude oil futures for hedging bunker in Singapore with 15.9% and finally a hedging effectiveness of 14% for bunker hedging in Houston using IPE gas oil futures (2004, pp. 1351-1352). In Chapter 5, with rather large observations, the author will investigate the hedging effectiveness and hedge ratio of a cross-hedge for bunker price at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston using different energy futures prices including WTI crude oil futures and heating oil futures contracts.

4.1.2 Hedging with a bunker forward contract

In the absence of a future contract for hedging bunker and the low effectiveness of hedging bunker through a cross-hedge with energy futures contract as abovementioned above, bunker risk management could also be carried out with a *tailormade* over-the-counter (OTC) bunker agreement which was developed in the 1990s in an effort for the alternative of future contracts. Nowadays, many financial institutions and commodity trading houses such as Morgan Stanley Investment Bank, O.W. Bunker Malta bunker trader offer such OTC bunker derivative products. Forward Bunker contract is one of such OTC agreements (Alizadeh & Nomikos, 2004, p.282).

A Forward Bunker Agreement is defined as an OTC agreement between a bunker seller and a bunker buyer to exchange a specified quantity of bunker of certain quality, at an agreed price and at a certain place and time of delivery in the future (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 291).

Hedging under the Forward Bunker contract, the whole gain or loss of the shipowner or ship operators from bunker price fluctuation could be realized at the end of the life (duration) of the contract. As a result, it allows the participants to "forward" the price before contract maturity (Alizadeh & Nomikos, 2004, p.282). *Table 4.1* provides the comparison between a Forward and a Futures contract.

Forward contract	Futures contract		
Private contract between two parties	Traded on an exchange-base		
Contract is not standardized	Contract is standardized		
One delivery date is specified	Allows a range of delivery date		
Settled at the end of contract	Settled daily		
Physical delivery or final cash settlement	Contract is usually closed out		
Usually take place	Prior to maturity		
Parties accept some credit risks	Virtually no credit risk		

Table 4.1 Comparison of Forward and Futures contracts

Source: Complied from Hull (2006, p. 41) and Kavussanos & Visvikis (2006b, p.291)

The function of the Forward Bunker contract as a hedging instrument can be explained in the following example. Suppose that, on 15 June 2007, a shipowner fixed a voyage charter to carry cargo from Singapore to Rotterdam, such a voyage will need 8,000 tons of IFO380 (to be loaded at Singapore) and will be carried out on 15 July 2007. On 15 June 2007, spot price of IFO380 at Singapore is USD $360.5/\text{ton}^{13}$ $360.5/\text{ton}^{13}$ $360.5/\text{ton}^{13}$. So if this price does not change until 15 July 2007, the voyage will cost him USD $8,000*360.5 =$ USD $2,884,000$.

First scenario, the bunker price will increase and be higher than on 15 June 2007

When looking at the increasing bunker price trend provided by Bunkerworld on 15 June 2007 (see *Figure 4.1*), the owner expects that the bunker price will increase and will be higher than USD 360.5/ton on 15 July 2007.

Figure 4.1 Bunker price from 6th to 15th of June 2007 (USD per ton)

Source: Retrieved 16 June 2007 from Bunkerworld on its website: <http://www.bunkerworld.com/markets/prices/>

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In order to hedge himself against such a price increase, he decides to buy a Forward Bunker contract for such an amount of bunker to be delivered on 15 July 2007. The Forward bunker price is agreed at, for example, USD 365/ton at Singapore. By doing so, the owner has fixed the bunker cost for the voyage at USD $8.000*365 =$ USD 2,920,000.

¹³ Quoted by Bunkerworld on its website: http://www.bunkerworld.com/markets/prices/

On 15 July 2007, suppose the owner decides on a final cash settlement with the forward contract provider and the bunker price is now at USD 368/ton at Singapore (higher than owner's expectation). To close the forward contract, on 15 July 2007, the owner sells his forward contract to the forward contract provider and gains USD $8,000*(368-365) =$ USD 24,000 (he could also require a physical delivery).

However, on 15 July 2007, to fulfill his voyage charter to carry cargo from Singapore to Rotterdam, the owner has to pay for the bunker cost at USD 8,000*368 $=$ USD 2,944,000 instead of only USD 8,000 $*360.5 =$ USD 2,884,000 that he would have paid on 15 June 2007. So, on the spot market he lost USD 2,944,000 – USD $2,884,000 =$ USD 60,000. As a result, on both the spot and forward markets the owner only losses USD $60,000 -$ USD $24,000 =$ USD $36,000$ (if he had not hedged himself by buying the forward contract, he will lose USD 60,000).

Second scenario, the bunker price will decrease and be lower than on 15 June 2007

If on 15 July 2007, the bunker price is only at USD 357/ton, because the forward contract price was at USD 365/ton, so to close the forward contract, the owner then sells his forward contract to the forward contract provider at the price of USD 357/ton and losses USD 8,000*(365-357) = USD 64,000.

However, on 15 July 2007, to fulfill his voyage charter to carry cargo from Singapore to Rotterdam, the owner only has to pay for the bunker cost USD $8,000*357 =$ USD 2,856,000 instead of only USD $8,000*360.5 =$ USD 2,884,000 that he would have paid on 15 June 2007. So, on the spot market he gains USD 2,884,000 – USD 2,856,000 = USD 28,000. As a result, on both the spot and forward markets the owner only losses USD $64,000 -$ USD $28,000 =$ USD $36,000$ (if he had not bought the forward contract, he would have gained USD 28,000).

The conclusion from the two scenarios is that if the bunker price increase is higher than forward-agreed price, the gain in the forward contract (USD 24,000) will cover a part of the losses in the spot position (USD 60,000). If the bunker price decreases to a level lower than the spot price, the savings in the spot position will cover a part of the losses in the forward contract. Two possible outcomes of the owner in above example are summarized in *Table 4.2*.

Source: Summarized by author from the example

From this example, it is understood that hedging by buying a forward contract can partly reduce the losses (or gains) associated with the bunker price fluctuation. With the trend of increasing bunker price as presented in Chapter 3, a forward contract then could help shipowners, ship operators or other related parties a great deal. In Chapter 5, direct-hedge using bunker forward contracts will be examined to know the hedging effectiveness as well as the hedge ratio of different bunker forward contracts.

4.1.3 Hedging with a bunker swaps agreement

Bunker swap is an OTC agreement between two bunker suppliers or bunker purchasers to exchange their cash flows arising from the fluctuation of future bunker prices by locking in an agreed fixed bunker price (Hull, 2006, p. 149 and Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 297). In this agreement, the parties agree the dates when the cash flows are to be paid as well as the way they use to calculate such cash flows. The calculation thus considers the future value of an interest rate, an exchange rate, or other market variables (Hull, 2006, p. 149).

A simple bunker swap (or plain vanilla) is an agreement in which a floating price for bunker (usually the market price) is exchanged for a fixed price for bunker (usually the price that is agreed to fix by the swap participants) over one or various specified periods and for a certain volume of bunker per period (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 297). *Figure 4.2* gives a clearer explanation for a swap agreement.

Figure 4.2 Swap transactions between bunker supplier/bunker buyer A and bunker buyer/bunker supplier B

Source: Compiled from Hull (2006, p.150) and Kavussanos & Visvikis (2006b, p. 297)

According to Hull, a bunker swap contract can be considered as a portfolio of bunker forward contracts or a bunker forward contract can be viewed as a simple example of a bunker swap. In the bunker forward contract, the exchange of cash flows is taken place just only on one future date while a bunker swaps could lead to cash flows

exchange taking place on several future dates (2006, p. 149). *Table 4.3* gives a comparison between the characteristics of a forward contract and a swap contract.

Forward contract	Swap contract
Single forward contract	Portfolio of forward contracts
One future delivery date is specified	Several future delivery dates
Settled at the end of contract	Settled by period
Physical delivery or final cash settlement	No physical delivery, only final cash
Parties accept some credit risks	High credit risk

Table 4.3 Comparison of Forward and Swap contracts

Source: Complied from Hull (2006, p. 149) and Kavussanos & Visvikis (2006b, p. 297)

From the above explanation, it can be seen that the result of a swap bunker contract is the difference (in terms of cash) between the floating bunker price and the fixed (agreed) bunker price on the due dates. Consequently, the outcome of the hedging with such a swap bunker contract is the portfolio (combination) of the result of such a swap bunker contract and the result on the transactions of physical market.

To see how a bunker swap contract functions as a hedging instrument, consider the following example. Suppose in March 2007, an owner has fixed a $COA¹⁴$ $COA¹⁴$ $COA¹⁴$ (Contract of Affreightment) to carry iron ore from Newcastle (one of the biggest Australia ports operating iron ore) to Kobe port (one of the big ports in Japan dealing with iron ore) at a fixed freight rate per ton agreed in COA. The contract is for 12 months, each shipment per month, from April 2007 to March 2008. To carry out one voyage from Newcastle to Kobe, the owner estimates that he needs approximately $1,000$ $1,000$ tons¹⁵ of bunker fuel/voyage to be loaded at Newcastle. Suppose that the spot bunker price in

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 14 It is good to note that in a COA, as the freight rate is fixed at the time of signing contract, then the revenue of owner will be fixed. However, to carry out the contract, owner has to buy bunker at the floating (spot) price of the market at the time of the each voyage. Consequently, controlling bunker costs become very important for the owner to gain a profit in a COA.

¹⁵ From my experience, on the Newcastle to Kobe iron ore trade, owners usually use small size like 70-80,000 tons ships. One voyage will take about 16-18 days and the ship consumes about 50-60 tons bunker/day. As a result, approximately the ship consumes about 1,000 tons bunker/voyage.

April 2007 at Newcastle is $$350/MT^{16}$ $$350/MT^{16}$ $$350/MT^{16}$. Worried that the bunker price will increase in the next 12 months, he decides to hedge himself against such a price increase by entering into a swap contract with a Financial Institution or other Bunker Suppliers who provide such an OTC swap contract.

Because he estimates that each voyage will need about 1,000 MT of bunker, he decides to buy a swap contract with 12 lots (for 12 voyages) and each lot is 1,000 MT of bunker at the end of each month. The swap price is agreed at $$360/MT^{17}$ $$360/MT^{17}$ $$360/MT^{17}$ against the floating bunker prices prevailing at the last business day of each month in Newcastle between the owner and the swap provider.

At the end of March 2008, it appears that from April 2007 to March 2008, the spot bunker price behaved like in column (3) of *Table 4.4* and *Figure 4.3*.

Figure 4.3 Floating bunker prices versus swap fixed bunker prices

Source: Data is supposed by author for the purpose of explaining the function of swap contract

As a result, the settlement of the swap contract is like that: for such floating (spot) bunker prices which are higher than \$360/MT (swap fixed bunker price), the swap provider has to pay the difference between floating price and the swap price to the owner. Contrarily, for such floating (spot) bunker prices which are lower than \$360/MT, the owner has to pay the difference to the swap provider.

 \overline{a}

¹⁶ This is the real bunker price in April, 2007. See *Appendix* ¹⁷ This is supposed by the author for the purpose of explaining the increasing of bunker price.

The calculation in *Table 4.4* clearly explains the settlement of the owner in this example. In *Table 4.4*, column (1) is the real amount of bunker needed for each voyage, column (2) is the swap contract size (lot). Column (7) is the final result of swap settlement for each lot. The total of column (7) is the gain (loss) of the owner after settling the swap contract (\$4,000). However, on the physical market, the owner has to pay an amount of \$4,350,140 for total bunker cost (total of column (1) x column (3) in *Table 4.4*).

Shipment	Bunker needed	Swapsize Contract	Spot price	Bunker costs	Swap price	Swap costs	Settlement
	(MT)	(MT)	(\$/MT)	(US\$)	(\$/MT)	(US\$)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	$(4)=(2)^*(3)$	(5)	$(6)=(2)^*(5)$	$(7)=(4)-(6)$
Apr-07	980	1,000	350	350,000	360	360,000	-10.000
May-07	1,100	1,000	367	367,000	360	360,000	$+7,000$
$Jun-07$	950	1,000	372	372,000	360	360,000	$+12,000$
Jul-07	960	1,000	355	355,000	360	360,000	$-5,000$
Aug-07	1,000	1,000	345	345,000	360	360,000	$-15,000$
Sep-07	980	1,000	344	344,000	360	360,000	$-16,000$
$Oct-07$	985	1,000	352	352,000	360	360,000	$-8,000$
Nov-07	1,050	1,000	364	364,000	360	360,000	$+4,000$
Dec-07	1,020	1,000	378	378,000	360	360,000	$+18,000$
Jan-08	965	1,000	380	380,000	360	360,000	$+20,000$
Feb-08	1,060	1,000	365	365,000	360	360,000	$+5,000$
Mar-08	1,020	1,000	352	352,000	360	360,000	$-8,000$
Total	12,070	12,000		4,324,000		4,320,000	$+4,000$

Table 4.4 Bunker swap transactions for a 12-month COA from owner's side

Source: Data is supposed and calculated by the author for the purpose of explaining the swap contract.

As a result, with a portfolio of spot and swap positions, the owner only has to pay \$4,346,140 instead of \$4,350,140, the amount that he would had to pay for his total bunker cost for 12 voyages if he had not bought the swap contract. However, if the spot bunker behaved in another ways (not same in *Figure 4.3*), the owner may make a loss from the swap contract.

4.1.4 Hedging with a bunker options agreement

Basically, there are two kinds of option. A *call option* gives the holder the right to buy (or not to buy) an asset by a specific date at an agreed price. A *put option* gives the holder the right to sell (or not to sell) an asset by a specific date at an agreed price. The specific date in an option is the *expiration date* or *maturity date*. The agreed price is the *exercise price* or a *strike price* (Hull, 2006, p. 181). Consequently, a bunker option contract gives the holder the right to buy (or not to buy) or the right to sell (or not to sell) a certain amount of bunker, by a specific date and at a strike price (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 299).

An option can be traded either on an exchange-based market or on over-the-counter market. However, according to Kavussanos & Visvikis, there is still no exchangebased market for trading bunker except over-the-counter market. As a result, for those who want to hedge their bunker with an option contract on the exchange-based market, have to search for an alternative through a cross-hedging with the energy options (2006b, p. 300).

Options have two styles: the *American option* –the option that can be exercised at any time up to the maturity date and the *European option* –the option that can only be exercised on the maturity date (Hull, 2006, p. 181). Option contracts are usually settled in cash terms and the contract holder has to pay an amount of money (or premium) to buy the option (Kavussanos & Visvikis, 2006b, p. 300).

The function of hedging against the bunker price fluctuation with an option contract can be explained as: when the shipowners or ship operators expect that the bunker price will increase in the coming time, they then go for a *call option* contract to buy a certain amount of bunker, by a certain maturity date in future and at a certain price (and he pays a certain amount of money as premium, usually 3-4% of the contract value). When the maturity date comes, if the spot bunker price is higher than the strike price, he then exercises the call option (the right to buy) and gains the

difference between spot price and strike price. In contrast, if the spot price appears to be lower than the strike price, he can ignore the option and loses the premium.

To see how an option functions as a hedging instrument, consider the following example. Suppose that, on 15 September, 2007, an owner fixes a voyage charter with a charterer to carry cargo from the US Gulf (Houston) to Rotterdam, such voyage needs 4,000 tons of bunker fuel and will be carried out on 15 November, 2007. Suppose that, on 15 Sep, 2007, the spot bunker price is \$344/ton. Expecting that such a bunker price will increase on 15 Nov, 2007, to hedge for such an increase, the owner then buys an option contract for 4,000 tons of bunker, at the strike price of \$350/ton and will expire on 15 Nov, 2007. The option contract costs him \$2/ton $(total premium = $2*4,000 = $8,000).$

On 15 Nov, 2007, suppose that the spot bunker price increases to \$354/ton. So this spot price is higher than the strike price. The owner then exercises the option contract to buy 4,000 tons of bunker at the strike price (\$350/ton) and gets the payoff of $$4,000*(354-350) - $8,000$ (premium) = \$8,000 from the option contract provider. However, on the spot market, he has to buy 4,000 tons of bunker to exercise the intended voyage at the spot price of \$354/ton and faces a loss of $$4,000*(354-344) =$ \$40,000. A portfolio of spot and option only results in a loss of \$40,000 –\$8,000 =\$32,000 instead of the whole \$40,000 if he had not used the option.

In the opposite scenario, instead of increasing to \$354/ton the spot bunker price decreases to \$340/ton. Thus, on the spot market, the owner gains (savings) an amount of $$4,000*(344-340) = $16,000$. On the option market, because the spot price is lower than the strike price, the owner then does not exercise the option contract and losses the premium of \$8,000. As a result, a portfolio of spot and option brings a saving of $$16,000 - $8,000 = $8,000$ in total bunker cost for the owner.

To sum up, it is understood from the above explanations that hedging bunker price fluctuations with an option contract could result in a saving in the total bunker cost for shipowners. The amount of saving then depends on the negotiation of strike price and on the situation of the bunker market, of course. There are some other kinds of hybrid options such as Collars (zero-cost Collars, Range Forward or Tunnels, Participating Collars) or Swaptions. However, due to their complicated nature and the word limit of this dissertation, they are not mentioned in this dissertation.

4.2 Chapter conclusion

To conclude this chapter, it is understood that different hedging instruments result in different hedging effectiveness. The gain or loss of the shipowner relative to bunker costs then depends firstly on the situation of demand and supply of bunker market reflected in bunker price fluctuation, secondly on the accuracy of the shipowner's forecast on bunker price, then results in the importance of the bunker price forecast problem.

To test the effectiveness of hedging instruments, based on the available data range obtained from IMAREX and NYMEX, chapter 5 will investigate the hedging effectiveness of a *direct-hedge* using different forward bunker contracts traded at IMAREX and a *cross-hedge* using different energy futures contracts of WTI crude oil and heating oil traded at NYMEX.

CHAPTER 5 INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF HEDGING AGAINST BUNKER PRICE FLUCTUATION

5.1 Analysis of methodologies for estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness

Theoretically, there are many methods to estimate the hedge ratio. Typically, Johnson (1960, p. 140) states that if we denote S_I and F_I the spot price and future price at time t_1 , and S_2 and F_2 the spot and future price at time t_2 , then when price changes from time t_1 to t_2 the gain (loss) of hedger will be $[(S_2 - S_1) - (F_2 - F_1)]$. The hedge is perfectly effective only if $[(S_2 - S_1) - (F_2 - F_1)]$ is equal to zero.

Ederington (1979) and Ferguson & Leistikow (1998) use an OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) linear regression to regress the futures price changes on the spot price changes to obtain the hedging effectiveness. The linear regression equation is:

$$
S_{t+1} - S_t = \alpha + \beta^*(F_{t+1} - F_t) + \varepsilon \tag{5.1}
$$

where S_t and F_t denote spot and future price at time t ; S_{t+1} and F_{t+1} denote spot and futures price at time $_{t+1}$, α denotes a constant term (a residual or the intercept), β</sub> denotes the slope of coefficient or the minimum hedge ratio and *ε* is an allowance for error. Yang & Allen (2004) estimate the hedge ratio of the Australian futures markets by using a bivariate Vector Autoregression (VAR) model where the spot and futures prices are modeled under the bivariate VAR equations:

$$
\Delta S_t = \alpha_s + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{si} \Delta F_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_{si} \Delta F_{t-i} + \varepsilon_{st}
$$
 (5.2)

$$
\Delta F_t = \alpha_f + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{fi} \Delta S_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_{fi} \Delta F_{t-i} + \varepsilon_{ft}
$$
\n(5.3)

In equations (5.3) and (5.4), ΔS_t and ΔF_t represent the changes in the logarithm of spot and futures prices. α_s and α_f denote the constant term (a residual or intercept); β_s *,* $β_f$, $θ_s$ and $θ_f$ are the parameters; $ε_{st}$ and $ε_f$ are the independently distributed random vectors. If ∂_{ss} and ∂_{ff} denote vector autoregression of spot and futures prices, then $\partial_{ss} = \text{Var}(\varepsilon_{st})$, $\partial_{ff} = \text{Var}(\varepsilon_{ft})$ and $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_{st}, \varepsilon_{ft}) = \partial_{sf}$, the minimum variance hedge ratio h^* (risk minimizing hedge ratio) can be obtained by the equation h^* = ff sf ∂ ∂ (5.4)

Kavussanos & Nomikos (2000b) use a VECM model in the ARCH family introduced by Engle (1982) to investigate the hedge effectiveness of the BIFFEX contracts where the spot and future price are presented by the vector $X_t = (S_t F_t)'$.

$$
\Delta X_t = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \Gamma_i \Delta X_{t-i} + \Pi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t; \ \varepsilon_t = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{S,t} \\ \varepsilon_{F,t} \end{pmatrix} \Omega_{t-1} \sim IN(0, H_t)
$$
\n(5.5)

$$
H_{t} = \begin{pmatrix} h_{SS,t} & h_{SF,t} \\ h_{SF,t} & h_{FF,t} \end{pmatrix} = C'C + A'\epsilon_{t-1}\epsilon_{t-1}'A + B'H_{t-1}B
$$
\n(5.6)

In equations (5.5) and (5.6), Γ*i* and Π are 2 x 2 coefficient matrices measuring the short run and long-run adjustment of the system to changes in X_t and ε_t is the vector of the residuals $(\varepsilon_{S,t} \varepsilon_{F,t})$, Ht is the time-varying covariance matrix, C is a 2 x 2 lower triangular matrix and A and B are 2 x 2 diagonal coefficient matrices.

However, the models of the ARCH family especially the VAR and VECM model are complicated and require a deep knowledge of not only the mathematics but also the time-series structure of data. As a result, in this dissertation the author only deploys the OLS regression model to estimate the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness of hedging against bunker price fluctuations by testing (1): a **direct-hedge** with bunker forward prices traded at IMAREX and (2): a **cross-hedge** with WTI crude oil futures prices (contract 1, 2, 3 and 4) and Heating oil futures prices (contract 1, 2, 3 and 4) traded at NYMEX.
5.2 Analyzing the using of the OLS regression model

The linear regression equation (5.1) estimates the constant term α (a residual or an intercept) and the slope of coefficient β (hedge ratio). It also generates certain statistics associated with the regression including *t-statistics* and the *R*-squared.

Equation (5.1) can be reduced as
$$
\Delta S_t = \alpha + \beta * \Delta F_t + \varepsilon
$$
; $\varepsilon \sim (0, \sigma^2)$ (5.7)

Where $\Delta S_t = (S_{t+1} - S_t)$ $\Delta S_t = (S_{t+1} - S_t)$ $\Delta S_t = (S_{t+1} - S_t)$ and $\Delta F_t = (F_{t+1} - F_t)$ represent the changes in the logarithms¹⁸ of spot and futures prices respectively. *T-statistics* measures the significance of the estimated parameters including the constant term α and the slope β , in other words, it measures the degree of confidence in the accuracy of α and β . The slope β is expected to be equal to or as close to 1 as possible and *t-statistics* of β is expected to be statistically significant (*t-statistics* > 2) while the of the constant term α is expected not to be significant (or *t-statistics* < 2).

R-squared (often written R^2) is the coefficient of determination between ΔS_t and ΔF_t and the R^2 value measures the effectiveness of the hedge performance. The higher the $R²$ the greater the hedge effectiveness is.

5.3 Investigating hedging bunker effectiveness using the OLS regression model

5.3.1 Using a direct-hedge with bunker forward contracts traded at IMAREX

Established in 2000 with the objective of becoming the largest international marketplace for shipping derivatives, IMAREX (International Maritime Exchange) has become the first authorized and regulated marketplace for trading and clearing such derivatives in the world (IMAREX, 2007c). IMAREX went public on April 4, 2005 when it was listed on the Oslo Stock Exchange. Launching the bunker fuel oil derivatives since December 5, 2005, IMAREX is now the only global market place offering electronic trading of bunker fuel oil derivatives with straight-through clearing (IMAREX, 2007a).

 \overline{a}

 18 The reason to transform the data series into logarithms is to have the exponential trend in timeseries become linear after transformation and, to some extent, stabilise the non-stationary variables.

IMAREX provides the bunker fuel contracts for all of its trading and clearing members. The main bunker futures contracts are Rotterdam 3.5% sulphur barges FOB; Northwestern Europe (NWE) 1.0% sulphur barges FOB; Singapore IFO180cst FOB; Singapore IFO380cst FOB; and Fujairah IFO380cst FOB. The prices are quoted for at USD per metric ton and for contract durations of 1 month, 6 months, 12 months, 6 quarters and 2 calendar years. The standardized contract is decided by 'lot', one lot $= 1,000MT$, the minimum contract is 0.1 lot, maximum contract is 999 lots (990,000MT) (IMAREX, 2007a). After nearly 1.5 years of trading, bunker futures trading including the bunker forward and bunker swap at IMAREX has developed very fast both in volume and value (*Appendix G*).

5.3.1.1 Data collection

Bunker spot prices at the three main markets Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston are obtained on a daily basis from IMAREX, Singapore office. Bunker at Singapore and Houston is IFO380cst, bunker at Rotterdam is FO3.5% sulphur and reported in US dollar per metric ton. The data range of Singapore and Houston is from 5 December 2005[19](#page-73-0) to 16 July 2007 (399 observations); for Rotterdam is from 24 January 2006 to 16 July 2007 (374 observations).

For the forward prices, bunker 1-month forward and 12-month forward prices for Singapore are IFO380cst and are obtained on a daily basis and also at the same period of spot prices (399 observations). Forward prices at Rotterdam are for FO3.5% sulphur and also reported on for the same period as spot prices (374 observations).

It can be seen from *Table 5.1* that bunker spot prices have stronger correlation with the forward price at the same market and the shorter the forward period the closer the correlation is. For example, the spot price at Singapore has a stronger correlation with forward prices (1-month $\&$ 12-month) at Singapore than with forward prices at Rotterdam (0.98842 & 0.84664 versus 0.73587 & 0.75292).

 \overline{a} 19 IMAREX started to provide the fuel derivatives contracts on 05 December, 2005

	SinSpot	SinFwd1	SinFwd12	RotSpot		RotFwd1 RotFwd12 HouSpot	
SinSpot	1.00000						
SinFwd1	0.98842	1.00000					
SinFwd12	0.84664	0.87730	1.00000				
RotSpot	0.72231	0.67955	0.48820	1.00000			
RotFwd1	0.73587	0.69373	0.50906	0.99459	1.00000		
RotFwd12	0.75292	0.70678	0.55005	0.92129	0.91767	1.00000	
HouSpot	0.88917	0.91461	0.85407	0.56672	0.58689	0.59798	1.00000

Table 5.1 Correlations on Logarithms of bunker spot and forward prices in different markets

Notes: - Sample for Singapore & Houston market is from 05/12/2005 to 16/07/2007 (399 observations); for Rotterdam is from 24/01/2006 to 16/07/2007 (374 observations).

 - SinSpot, RotSpot and HouSpot present Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston spot price respectively. SinFwd1 and RotFwd1 represent Singapore and Rotterdam 1-month forward price. SinFwd12 and RotFwd12 represent Singapore and Rotterdam 12-month forward price.

At Singapore, the spot price has a stronger correlation with the 1-month forward price (0.98842) than with the 12-month forward price (0.84664). The reason for such a phenomenon is that when forward contracts approach delivery time, the forward prices converge toward the spot prices (Marshall, 1989, p. 194). This phenomenon also suggests that the shorter forward-period is better for hedging against the spot price than the longer forward-period contract. Moreover, spot prices at Houston tend to correlate closely to Singapore forward prices compared to Rotterdam forward prices (0.91461 & 0.85407 versus 0.58689 & 0.59798). In other words, market participants at Houston, in some extent, should use forward contracts at Singapore to hedge against their spot price rather than forward contracts at Rotterdam.

5.3.1.2 Estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness

For proper application of OLS regression model, Jarque and Bera (1980) tests for normal distribution of spot and forward prices and Philips & Perron (1988) tests for the stationarity of the spot and forward bunker prices series are deployed to test the fitness of the data ranges with OLS regression operations. Moreover, mean and standard deviation methods are also applied to know the fluctuation of the bunker spot and forward prices.

5.3.1.2.1. Test of stationarity (Unit root test)

The results of Jarque and Bera (J-B) tests and Philips & Perron (PP) tests are presented in *Table 5.2* from which J-B tests in *column 4* indicate that spot and forward prices of bunker at three markets are normally distributed.

	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	J-B	PP(4) levels	PP(4) 1 st Diffs
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Singapore						
Spot price	399	5.730120	0.099985	22.46205	-0.968789	-19.69838
1-month forward	399	5.730378	0.098054	22.64121	-1.154445	-19.86503
12-month forward	399	5.803744	0.086199	30.68033	-1.590480	-20.52512
1-month basis 20	398	0.000258	0.015193	65.12392	-5.593383	
12-month basis	398	0.073624	0.053231	5.117985	-1.850358	-23.42175
Rotterdam						
Spot price	374	5.654124	0.111577	16.70201	-0.979190	-20.38821
1-month forward	374	5.657683	0.106373	16.43918	-0.804041	-21.00818
12-month forward	374	5.748377	0.083992	78.29686	-1.610518	-18.02928
1-month basis	373	0.003559	0.012468	258.1117	-7.022324	
12-month basis	373	0.094253	0.047288	25.46025	-1.696076	-32.13108
Houston						
spot price	399	5.705191	0.103961	22.60862	-1.552546	-18.35393

Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics of Logarithmic returns of spot and forward bunker prices

Notes: - Sample for Singapore and Houston markets are from 5/12/2005 to 16/07/2007; for Rotterdam is from 24/01/2006 to 16/07/2007.

- J-B is the Jarque -Bera (1980) test for normality, the statistic is $X^2(2)$ distributed.

- N is the number of observation. N for 1-month and 12-month basis is after adjusted.

- PP is the Phillips & Perron (1988) unit root test; **test critical value** of 1% level is -3.43734, 5% level is -2.86451 and 10% level is -2.56841; the truncation lag for the test is set to 4; $1st$ Diffs is the PP test of first difference.

Moreover, standard deviations in *column 3* imply that spot prices seem to be more volatile than forward prices and the nearer the forward period, the more it fluctuates. For instance, the 1-month forward price is more volatile than the 12-month forward (0.099985 versus 0.098054 at Singapore and 0.106373 versus 0.083992 at Rotterdam market). Results of Philips & Perron tests indicate that both spot and forward bunker prices are non-stationary I*(1)* in levels (1%, 5% and 10% levels -*column 5*).

 \overline{a}

 20 Basis = forward price – spot price

However, their 1st difference tests in *column 6* indicate that both spot and forward bunker prices are stationary $I(0)$ in the 1st difference. This result suggests that OLS regression estimation should then be carried out on the 1st difference.

5.3.1.2.2. Estimate the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness

The author tries to estimate the hedge ratio (β), the hedging effectiveness (\mathbb{R}^2) as well as the constant term α and standard error ε by using the OLS regression model to regress the changes on the logarithm of spot bunker prices at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston and the changes on the logarithm of different bunker forward prices.

If we define the 1st difference of logarithms of Singapore spot price as Δ_{Sinsnet} Rotterdam spot price as Δ_{RotSpot} , and Houston spot price as Δ_{HouSpot} , we have:

 $\Delta_{\text{SinSpot}} = \text{LogSinSpot}(+1) - \text{LogSinSpot}(0)$

 $\Delta_{\text{RotSpot}} = \text{LogRotSpot}(+1) - \text{LogRotSpot}(0)$

 $\Delta_{\text{HouSnot}} = \text{LogHouSpot}(+1) - \text{LogHouSpot}(0)$

And the 1st difference of logarithms of Singapore 1-month and 12-month forward prices as Δ SinFwd1 and Δ SinFwd12, Rotterdam 1-month forward and 12-month forward prices as ∆_{RotFwd1} and ∆_{RotFwd12}, we have:

 $\Delta_{\text{SinFwd1}} = \text{LogSinFwd1}(+1) - \text{LogSinFwd1}(0)$

 $\Delta_{\text{SinFwd12}} = \text{LogSinFwd12}(+1) - \text{LogSinFwd12}(0)$

 $\Delta_{RotFwd1} = LogRotFwd1(+1) - LogRotFwd1(0)$

 $\Delta_{RotFwd12}$ = LogRotFwd12(+1) – LogRotFwd12(0)

Consequently, at Singapore market, we try to estimate if the change in bunker spot price can be explained by the change in forward prices by regressing the equation:

$$
\Delta_{\text{Sinspot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{SinFwd1}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.8}
$$

$$
\Delta_{\text{SinSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{SinFwd12}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.9}
$$

At Rotterdam, the equations are:

$$
\Delta_{\text{RotSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{RotFwd1}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.10}
$$

$$
\Delta_{\text{RotSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{RotFwd12}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.11}
$$

At Houston, because the forward prices are not available, we try to estimate if change in spot price can be explained by changes in forward price at Singapore and Rotterdam. Consequently, regression equations at Houston are:

$$
\Delta_{\text{HouSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{SinFwd1}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.12}
$$

$$
\Delta_{\text{HouSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{SinFwd12}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.13}
$$

 $\Delta_{\text{HouSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{RotFwd1}} + \varepsilon$ (5.14)

$$
\Delta_{\text{HouSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{RotFwd12}} + \varepsilon \tag{5.15}
$$

Moreover, as mentioned above, we expect that the *t*-statistics of constant term α is not significant (*t-statistics* < 2) and *t-statistics* of the slope β is significant (*t-statistics* $>$ 2). Furthermore, the selection of the best hedge is when β equals or is close to 1. The results of regressing equations from (5.8) to (5.15) are presented in *Table 5.3*.

Table 5.3 OLS estimations for spot bunker prices against different forward bunker prices at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston

	N	α (<i>t</i> -statistics)	β (<i>t</i> -statistics)	R^2	ε
Singapore spot price					
SinFwd1	398	0.000171(0.335)	0.786798 (23.219)	0.576546	0.033885
SinFwd12	398	0.000323(0.509)	0.689305 (14.548)	0.348324	0.047379
Rotterdam spot price					
RotFwd1	373	8.300000 (0.156)	0.913615 (28.821)	0.691260	0.031699
RotFwd12	373	0.000198(0.267)	0.899641 (15.419)	0.390553	0.058346
Houston spot price					
SinFwd1	398	0.000781(1.093)	0.0494370(1.042)	0.002736	0.047428
SinFwd12	398	0.000736(1.041)	0.1612100(3.046)	0.022903	0.052914
RotFwd1	373	0.000768 (1.020)	0.0079430(0.176)	0.000084	0.045088
RotFwd12	373	0.000785(1.043)	-0.038579 (-0.653)	0.001150	0.059036

Notes: - Sample for Singapore & Houston market is from 12/01/2005 to 16/07/2007; for Rotterdam is from 24/01/2006 to 16/07/2007.

 - SinSpot, RotSpot and HouSpot present Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston spot price respectively. SinFwd1 and RotFwd1 represent Singapore and Rotterdam 1-month forward price. SinFwd12 and RotFwd12 represent Singapore and Rotterdam 12-month forward price. - N is the adjusted number of observations.

It can be seen from *Table 5.3* that the *t-statistics* satisfies both conditions: the insignificance of constant term α and the significance of the hedge ratio β for the Singapore and Rotterdam markets. For the Houston market, *t-statistics* results are not significant for hedge ratio β except for the hedge with the 12-month forward contract traded at Singapore (*t-statistics* = 3.046). With the acceptable standard errors, the results once again confirm that the shorter the forward period, the higher the hedging effectiveness is. *Table 5.3* suggests that bunker 1-month forward contracts at Rotterdam provide the highest hedge ratio (0.913615) and the highest hedging effectiveness ($R^2 = 0.691260$ or 83.14%) for Rotterdam spot price compared with a hedge ratio of 0.899641 and a hedging effectiveness of 62.49% (0.390553) given by the 12-month forward contracts.

On the Singapore market, 1-month forward contracts result in a hedge ratio of 0.786798 and a hedging effectiveness of 75.93% (0.576546) for the Singapore spot price while 12-month forward contracts only provide a hedge ratio of 0.689305 and a hedging effectiveness of 59.01% (0.348324). On the Houston market, without the data of forward contracts, we try to use forward contracts at Singapore and Rotterdam to hedge against spot price at Houston. However, the results coming out in *Table 5.3* are not so good. Only 12-month forward contracts at Singapore could satisfy the significance of *t-statistics* (3.046) but the hedge ratio of 0.1612100 and hedging effectiveness of 15.13% (0.022903) are said to be not sufficient for a directhedge.

The implication for shipowners and ship operators is that they can use bunker forward contracts to hedge against bunker spot price fluctuations. The hedging effectiveness is different from market to market and for different forward-periods. In Singapore, 1-month forward contracts provide 75.93% hedging effectiveness while 12-month contracts result in 59.01%. The results are somewhat better in Rotterdam with 83.14% effectiveness of 1-month forward contracts and 62.49% for 12-month contracts. Moreover, it is not suggested to use forward contracts on one market to hedge against the spot price on the other market.

5.3.2 Using a cross-hedge with WTI crude oil and heating oil futures contracts traded at NYMEX

The New York Mercantile Exchange is the world's largest physical commodity futures exchange and was established for more than 130 years ago. Trading is conducted through two divisions: the NYMEX Division and the COMEX Division. Energy futures are traded on the NYMEX Division. The standard contract is of 1,000 barrels. Crude oil spot and futures are quoted in US dollars per barrel while heating is quoted in US dollar per gallon. Trading is open for every member from Monday to Friday.

Futures contracts for WTI crude and heating oil include four kinds: Contract 1, Contract 2, Contract 3 and Contract 4. For heating oil, Contract 1 expires on the last business day of the month preceding the delivery month. Thus, the delivery month for Contract 1 is the calendar month following the trade date. For crude oil, Contract 1 expires on the third business day prior to the $25th$ calendar day of the month preceding the delivery month. If the $25th$ calendar day of the month is a non-business day, trading ceases on the third business day prior to the business day preceding the $25th$ calendar day. Contracts 2, 3 and 4 represent the successive delivery months following Contract 1 (EIA, 2007b).

5.3.2.1 Data collection

Weekly bunker spot prices for Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston are collected from various issues of Fairplay Weekly published on Monday from 01/01/1990 to $28/05/2007$ $28/05/2007$ (909 observations)²¹. Spot and futures energy prices traded at NYMEX including WTI crude oil and heating oil (Contracts 1, 2, 3 and 4) are obtained on a weekly-base from the website of the Energy Information Administration of the US Government. Futures prices are the closing prices on Friday of each week. The data range of WTI crude price is from 05/01/1990 to 01/06/2007 (909 observations). The data range of heating oil Contracts 1 and 3 are for the same period while futures Contract 2 are from 04/02/1994 to 01/06/2007 (696 observations) and futures Contract 4 are from 14/01/1994 to 01/06/2007 (699 observations) (EIA, 2007a).

 \overline{a} 21 See **Appendix B**

Table 5.4 Correlation matrix of Logarithmic changes in spot bunker prices in three markets and crude and heating futures prices

Notes: Notes: - Sample for spot bunker price at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston market is from 01/01/1990 to 28/05/2007 (909 observations); for WTI crude oil spot and futures prices are from 05/01/1990 to 01/06/2007 (909 observations); for Heating oil spot and futures contract 1 and 3 are from 05/01/1990 to 01/06/2007 (909 observations); for Heating oil futures contract 2 are from 04/02/1994 to 01/06/2007 (696 observations) and futures contract 4 are from 14/01/1994 to 01/06/2007 (699 observations).

 - SinSpot, RotSpot and HouSpot present Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston spot bunker price respectively. WTISpot and HeatSpot represent WTI crude oil and Heating oil spot price respectively. WTIF1, WTIF2, WTIF3 and WTIF4 represent WTI crude oil futures contract 1, 2, 3 and 4. HeatF1, HeatF2, HeatF3 and HeatF4 represent the Heating oil futures contract 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

It is understood from *Table 5.4* that all energy futures prices are strongly correlated with bunker spot prices on three markets. Typically, returns on bunker spot prices are more correlated to WTI crude Contracts than heating oil contracts. Correlations are especially high between Rotterdam and Singapore bunker spot prices and WTI crude contracts. As a result, this may suggest that WTI crude contracts are better for hedging against bunker spot prices fluctuation than heating oil contracts.

5.3.2.2 Estimate the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness

Jarque & Bera (1980) test for normal distribution of bunker spot and energy futures prices and Philips & Perron (1988) test for the stationarity of the bunker spot and futures energy prices series are deployed to test the fitness of the data ranges with OLS regression operation. Moreover, mean and standard deviation methods are also applied to know the fluctuation of the bunker spot and energy futures prices.

5.3.2.2.1. Test of stationariry (Unit root test)

Results of different tests presented in *Table 5.5* suggest that bunker spot prices and all other energy futures prices are significant with the Jarque & Bera tests, thus they are normally distributed. Moreover, *mean* of futures price implies that there is not so much difference in price level among Contracts 1, 2, 3 and 4 (*mean* is of 3.2495, 3.2467, 3.2426 and 3.2379 for WTI futures Contracts 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively and 4.2643, 4.3221, 4.2669 and 4.3179 for heating oil futures Contracts 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively). However, *standard deviations* suggest that bunker spot prices and all energy futures prices behave almost in the same way (standard deviation of around 0.44) except for WTI futures Contracts 2, 3, 4 and heating oil futures Contracts 2, 4 which prove a little higher fluctuation. This is because, in the short-run bunker spot price and energy prices subject to the change in local supply and demand. However, in the long-run both bunker and energy prices are driven by the same underlying factor, that is the world oil market (Alizadeh *et al*, 2004, p. 1342).

For the Philips & Perron stationarity tests, the results suggest that all prices are nonstationary $I(1)$ variables in levels while their 1st difference are significant in the 1st difference tests. OLS estimations should then be on the $1st$ difference.

	SinSpot	RotSpot	HouSpot	WTISpot	WTIF1	WTIF2	WTIF3	WTIF4	HeatSpot	HeatF1	Heat _{F2}	HeatF3	Heat _{F4}
Mean	4.8176	4.7372	4.7447	3.2501	3.2495	3.2467	3.2426	3.2379	4.2656	4.2643	4.3221	4.2669	4.3179
Maximum	5.8889	5.9094	5.8450	4.3259	4.3255	4.3442	4.3543	4.3605	5.3310	5.3433	5.3713	5.3968	5.4161
Minimum	3.9703	3.9120	3.9120	2.3979	2.4060	2.4301	2.4544	2.4774	3.3662	3.4068	3.4269	3.4468	3.4667
Std. Dev.	0.4675	0.4455	0.4637	0.4394	0.4398	0.4409	0.4412	0.4409	0.4464	0.4476	0.4902	0.4448	0.4878
J-B	51.471	61.121	61.805	98.574	100.437	122.598	144.732	166.894	102.327	118.593	58.665	164.130	77.275
Probability	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PP(4) Levels*	-1.82	-1.68	-1.48	-1.02	-1.00	-0.84	-66.00	-0.49	-0.99	-0.83	-0.54	-0.69	-0.42
$PP(4) 1st Diff*$	-31.10	-32.57	-32.27	-27.44	-27.06	-25.88	-25.82	-25.85	-25.37	-26.49	-21.97	-25.94	-21.15
Observations	909	909	909	909	909	909	909	909	909	909	696	909	699

Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics of Logarithmic returns of spot bunker price and futures energy prices

Notes: - Sample for spot bunker price at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston market is from 01/01/1990 to 28/05/2007; for WTI crude oil spot and futures prices are from $05/01/1990$ to $01/06/2007$; for Heating oil spot and futures contract 1 and 3 are from $05/01/1990$ to $01/06/2007$; for Heating oil futures contract 2 are from 04/02/1994 to 01/06/2007 and futures contract 4 are from 14/01/1994 to 01/06/2007.

- SinSpot, RotSpot and HouSpot present Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston spot bunker price respectively. WTISpot and HeatSpot represent WTI crude oil and Heating oil spot price respectively. WTIF1, WTIF2, WTIF3 and WTIF4 represent WTI crude oil futures contract 1, 2, 3 and 4. HeatF1, HeatF2, HeatF3 and HeatF4 represent the Heating oil futures contract 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

- J-B is the Jarque -Bera (1980) test for normality, the statistic is $X^2(2)$ distributed.

- * PP is the Phillips & Perron (1988) unit root test; test critical value of 1% level is -3.43, 5% level is -2.86 and 10% level is -2.56; the truncation lag for the test is set to 4; $1st$ Diffs is the first difference of PP test.

5.3.2.2.2. Estimate the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness

The author estimates the hedge ratio (β), the hedging effectiveness (\mathbb{R}^2) as well as the constant term α and standard error *ε* by using OLS regression model to regress the changes on the logarithm of spot bunker prices at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston and the changes in the logarithms of different energy futures prices.

If we define the 1st difference of logarithm of Singapore spot price as Δ_{SinSnot} , Rotterdam spot price as Δ_{RotSpot} , and Houston spot price as Δ_{HouSpot} , we have:

 $\Delta_{\text{Sinspot}} = \text{LogSinSpot}(+1) - \text{LogSinSpot}(0)$

$$
\Delta_{RotSpot} = LogRotSpot(+1) - LogRotSpot(0)
$$

$$
\Delta_{HouSpot} = LogHouSpot(+1) - LogHouSpot(0)
$$

And the 1st difference of logarithm of WTI futures prices as $\Delta_{\text{WTIFi} (i=1 \div 4)}$, of heating oil futures prices as $\Delta_{\text{HeatFi (i = 1 ÷ 4)}$, we have:

$$
\Delta_{WTIFi} = LogWTIF_i(+1) - LogWTIF_i(0) \qquad (i=1 \div 4)^{22}
$$

$$
\Delta_{\text{HeatFi}} = \text{LogHeatF}_{i}(+1) - \text{LogHeatF}_{i}(0) \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$

Consequently, we try to estimate if the changes in bunker spot prices in Singapore can be explained by the changes in energy futures prices by regressing the equations:

$$
\Delta_{\text{SinSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{WTIFi}} + \varepsilon \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$
\n
$$
(5.16)
$$

$$
\Delta_{\text{SinSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{HeatFi}} + \varepsilon \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$
\n(5.17)

In the same sense, in Rotterdam and Houston we have following equations:

$$
\Delta_{\text{RotSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{WTIFi}} + \varepsilon \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$
\n(5.18)

$$
\Delta_{\text{RotSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{HeatFi}} + \varepsilon \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$
\n(5.19)

$$
\Delta_{\text{HouSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{WTIFi}} + \varepsilon \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$
\n
$$
(5.20)
$$

$$
\Delta_{\text{HouSpot}} = \alpha + \beta^* \Delta_{\text{HeatFi}} + \varepsilon \qquad (i = 1 \div 4)
$$
\n(5.21)

Estimations of equations (5.16) and (5.17) for Singapore are presented in *Table 5.6*.

 \overline{a}

²² i = 1 \div 4 present futures contracts 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

Table 5.6 OLS estimations for Singapore spot bunker price against different energy futures contracts

Independent variable	N	α (<i>t</i> -statistics)	β (<i>t</i> -statistics)	R^2	ε
WTI future1	908	0.00106 (0.526)	0.29286(5.877)	0.036732	0.049826
WTI future2	908	0.00097(0.485)	0.35231(6.387)	0.043098	0.055153
WTI future3	908	0.00093(0.463)	0.37792(6.334)	0.042409	0.059663
WTI future4	908	0.00089(0.441)	0.40206(6.271)	0.041605	0.064110
Heating Oil future1	908	0.00113(0.559)	0.24752(4.990)	0.026752	0.049600
Heating Oil future2	695	0.00177(0.795)	0.21917(3.576)	0.018120	0.061287
Heating Oil future3	908	0.00093(0.464)	0.35968(6.133)	0.039863	0.058645
Heating Oil future4	698	0.00163(0.737)	0.32012(4.563)	0.029048	0.070155

Notes: - Sample for spot bunker price at Singapore, Rotterdam and Houston market is from 01/01/1990 to 28/05/2007; for WTI crude oil spot and futures prices are from 05/01/1990 to 01/06/2007; for Heating oil spot and futures contract 1 and 3 are from 05/01/1990 to 01/06/2007; for Heating oil futures contract 2 are from 04/02/1994 to 01/06/2007 and futures contract 4 are from 14/01/1994 to 01/06/2007.

 - N is the number of observation after adjusted.

These results once again confirm that WTI contracts with higher hedge ratio (β) and hedging effectiveness (R^2) are better for hedging than heating contracts. For instance, WTI Contract 4 provides the highest hedge ratio (0.40206) and quite high hedging effectiveness (R^2 = 0.041605 or 20.39%), followed by WTI Contract 3 with hedge ratio of 0.37792 and hedging effectiveness of 20.59%. While the highest performance of heating contracts falls in contract 3 with a hedge ratio of 0.35968 and hedging effectiveness of 19.96%.

Moreover, the estimated results from equations (5.18) and (5.19) for Rotterdam in *Table 5.7* suggest that a hedge ratio of WTI contracts is increasing from contract 1 to contract 4, and contract 4 also provides the highest hedge ratio (0.51386) with a hedging effectiveness of 26.42% ($R^2 = 0.069808$). Contracts 1, 2 and 3 also result in a better hedge ratio (0.35605, 0.44126 and 0.47961, respectively) and hedging effectiveness (23.61%, 26.35% and 26.48%, respectively) compared with the heating oil contracts where only contract 3 proves a quite good hedge ratio of 0.41596 with a hedging effectiveness of 23.40%. Other contracts of heating oil contracts give poor results.

Table 5.7 OLS estimations for Rotterdam spot bunker price against different energy futures contracts

Independent variable	N	α (<i>t</i> -statistics)	β (<i>t</i> -statistics)	R^2	ε
WTI future1	908	0.00108 (0.550)	0.35605(7.314)	0.055767	0.048675
WTI future2	908	0.00096(0.493)	0.44126(8.222)	0.069446	0.053664
WTI future3	908	0.00090 (0.460)	0.47961(8.267)	0.070157	0.058009
WTI future4	908	0.00084(0.430)	0.51386(8.245)	0.069808	0.062319
Heating Oil future1	908	0.00117(0.591)	0.29671(6.102)	0.039485	0.048619
Heating Oil future2	695	0.00159(0.714)	0.27431(4.477)	0.028115	0.061267
Heating Oil future3	908	0.00095(0.485)	0.41596 (7.244)	0.054763	0.057414
Heating Oil future4	698	0.00173(0.777)	0.38233(5.408)	0.040333	0.070692

Notes: the same notes as in **Table 5.6**.

Table 5.8 presents results from equations (5.20) and (5.21) for the Houston market where the performance is not so good except for heating oil contract 4 and WTI contract 4.

Table 5.8 OLS estimations for Houston spot bunker price against different energy futures contracts

Independent variable	N	α (<i>t</i> -statistics)	β (<i>t</i> -statistics)	R^2	ε
WTI future1	908	0.00120(0.539)	0.23956(4.367)	0.020624	0.054846
WTI future2	908	0.00114(0.512)	0.27912(4.587)	0.022700	0.060846
WTI future3	908	0.00110(0.497)	0.29694(4.511)	0.021969	0.065823
WTI future4	908	0.00108 (0.485)	0.31096(4.395)	0.020884	0.070739
Heating Oil future1	908	0.00126(0.565)	0.19786(3.631)	0.014344	0.054491
Heating Oil future2	695	0.00179(0.711)	0.26621(3.846)	0.020899	0.069217
Heating Oil future3	908	0.00109(0.490)	0.29751(4.606)	0.022887	0.064584
Heating Oil future4	698	0.00164 (0.657)	0.37210(4.694)	0.030694	0.079262

Notes: same notes in **Table 5.6**.

Contract 4 of heating oil provides the best hedging performance for Houston bunker spot with a hedge ratio of 0.37210 and hedging effectiveness of 17.52% ($R^2 = 0.030694$) while the result for contract 4 of WTI crude oil is 0.31096 and 14.45% respectively. However, estimated results of Houston also prove that the hedging effectiveness and hedge ratio increase when moving from contract 1 to contract 4.

To sum up this part, it is understood that different energy futures contracts result in different levels of risk reduction when using them for a cross-hedge for bunker prices fluctuation. The highest hedging performance falls in WTI crude futures contract 3, 4, 2 and 1 with 26.48%, 26.42%, 26.35% and 23.61% hedging effectiveness (risk reduction) respectively when hedging bunker spot price fluctuation in Rotterdam. Whereas, the lowest performance results in heating oil future contract 1, WTI future contract 1, 4 and heating oil future contract 2 with hedging effectiveness of 11.98%, 14.36%, 14.45% and 14.46% respectively when hedging bunker price in Houston.

Moreover, the best hedging for Singapore bunker spot price falls in WTI contract 2, 3, 4 and heating oil contract 3 with hedging effectiveness of 20.76%, 20.59%, 20.40% and 19.97% respectively. While the best performance for Houston is with heating future contracts 4 and 3 with hedging effectiveness of 17.52% and 15.13% respectively. The reason for poor hedging effectiveness obtained by a cross-hedge is that, unlike a directhedge where the underlying commodities in spot and futures markets are similar, in a cross-hedge underlying commodities in spot and futures market are different thus fluctuations in both markets are not the same which may lead to poor hedging performance (Alizadeh *et all*, 2004, p.1351).

5.4 Chapter conclusion

Results obtained from OLS estimations for a direct-hedge with bunker forward contracts and a cross-hedge with different energy futures contracts once again confirm Marshall's statement in chapter 2 that "a direct-hedge is usually more effective than a cross-hedge" (1989, p. 200). Compared with a direct-hedge, the best hedging effectiveness of a crosshedge falls in WTI crude futures Contracts 3, 4, 2 and 1 with a risk reduction of 26.48%, 26.42%, 26.35% and 23.61% respectively when hedging against bunker spot price fluctuation in Rotterdam.

In contrast, a direct-hedge with 1-month and 12-month bunker forward contracts could result in the risk reduction of 83.14% (hedge ratio = 0.913615) and 62.49% (hedge ratio = 0.899641) respectively when hedging Rotterdam bunker spot price and 75.93% (hedge ratio = 0.786798) and 59.01% (hedge ratio = 0.689305) respectively when hedging against the bunker spot prices fluctuation in Singapore.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION

This dissertation has contributed to the literature on shipping studies in many aspects.

First of all, some basic concepts of the spot market, futures markets and hedging have been identified for easier understanding and their application in hedging practice. A healthy review of hedging in general and more particularly in the shipping industry, such as hedging freight rates and hedging bunker prices, is provided to address the matter of shipping risks as well as the way the industry minimizes such risks.

Secondly, a systematic series of data from 1990 to 2007 about world economy, world tonnage, world merchandise export value, world oil production and consumption, world oil refining capacity and refining marginal costs, world bunker supply and demand, international seaborne trade, time charter rates, bunker prices (daily, weekly, monthly base), oil prices, speed and fuel consumption of vessels have been carefully collected from leading Shipping Magazines such as Fairplay Weekly, Drewry Monthly, Review of Maritime Transport for quantifying works in this dissertation. Such data are a valuable source of reference for further research.

Thirdly, statistical methods of *mean* and *standard deviation* are applied to explain the behavior of bunker prices from 1990 to 2007 where the period 1990-1999 is characterized by low levels and stable prices while the period 2000-2007 is dotted with unpredictable behavior with sky high prices and abnormal fluctuations. Moreover, an economic analysis of the determinant factors of the bunker market are provided, the laws of supply and demand are also applied to explain the unpredictable behavior of bunker prices in which supply factors are addressed by the

sky-high crude oil price, the high oil consumption levels versus the low oil production capacities, the limits of refining capacity of the world and main ports, fierce competition overseas and in local ports as well as the bunkering methodologies. On the demand side, the increase in bunker price is derived from the increase in the world's economy, the boom in international seaborne trade, the fast development of world tonnage, the high freight rate levels as well as the bigger size and higher fuel consumption level of world ships.

Fourthly, the *correlation* method is deployed to investigate the most influential factors of the bunker market. Consequently, the results prove that crude oil prices, international seaborne trade, time charter rates and fuel consumption have a strong correlation with bunker prices. As a result, such factors contribute in driving the bunker market over the last 17 years (1990 -2007).

Fifthly, the four hedging instruments, including energy futures contracts, bunker forward contracts, bunker options agreement as well as bunker swaps agreement are identified for the wide choices of shipowners and ship operators in hedging their bunker price fluctuations. Besides, some practical examples taken from the author's experience are also provided to prove the hedging functions of the four instruments.

Finally, some methodologies for estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness are reviewed and analyzed. Special attention is paid to the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression model. Practical work has been done to investigate the hedging effectiveness of a direct-hedge with bunker forward contracts and a cross-hedge with different energy futures contracts. Compared with a direct-hedge, the best hedging effectiveness of a cross-hedge falls in WTI crude futures Contracts 3, 4, 2 and 1 with a risk reduction of 26.48%, 26.42%, 26.35% and 23.61% respectively when hedging against bunker spot price fluctuation in Rotterdam.

In contrast, a direct-hedge with 1-month and 12-month bunker forward contracts could result in the risk reduction of 83.14% (hedge ratio = 0.913615) and 62.49% $($ hedge ratio = 0.899641) respectively when hedging the Rotterdam bunker spot price and 75.93% (hedge ratio = 0.786798) and 59.01% (hedge ratio = 0.689305) respectively when hedging against bunker spot price fluctuations in Singapore.

Findings from this dissertation bring some main implication for shipowners, ship operators and any related parties who wish to reduce bunker price risks by hedging. If a direct-hedge is available, they can use bunker 1-month and 12-month forward contracts to hedge against bunker price fluctuation when loading bunker in Rotterdam and Singapore with rather high rate of risk reduction from 59.01% to 83.14%. In contrast, without a direct-hedge, a cross-hedge with different energy futures contracts can also help with significant rate of risk reduction from 23.61% to 26.48% respectively with WTI crude futures contracts when loading bunker in Rotterdam.

Limitation of analysis

The purpose to go deeply inside to study the WTI crude and heating oil futures contracts traded at NYMEX has limited the paper from choosing other energies traded on other markets such as Brent crude, Gas oil (traded at IPE London) for a wider choice of market participants. Moreover, it seems that the OLS regression model is suitable for estimating the hedge ratio and hedging effectiveness with such big observations. However, there are still many other methods, especially from the ARCH family that should be taken into consideration.

Further research

One source for further research on this topic should start from diversifying the energy futures contracts in the cross-hedge test which could bring better hedging effectiveness, not only on two (WTI and heating oil). Moreover, if the data are available, researchers pursuing this topic should also consider testing the hedging effectiveness of the bunker swaps and options agreement.

To support good decision making in hedging bunker, one problem arising is the forecast of bunker price. With the available data set and regression model, another source for further research should then be done on the forecasting of bunker price.

Furthermore, while an OLS regression model seems to result in good performance with big observations, there are still many other methods worth taking into account. For instance, the models of the ARCH family such as Vector Autogression model (VAR) and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) which prove a high performance in many studies of Angle (1982) and Kavussanos & Nomikos (2000, 2004). However, such models require not only a deep knowledge of mathematics and statistics but also sophisticated computer software.

Finally, hedging bunker is only one factor in managing risk in the shipping industry. Further research should also investigate the hedging effectiveness of freight rate hedging, new building price hedging as well as foreign exchange hedging. Once such research is done, it might be more meaningful for the shipping industry.

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Source: Compiled by author from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 1990 to 2007.

(Drewry Shipping Consultants. (1990-2007). *Drewry Monthly* 1990-2007. Author).
Appendix B - Weekly Average Bunker Price (IF0380) and Weekly Average Crude Oil Price

Unit: Bunker Price in US\$/ton; Crude Oil Prices in US\$/barrel

Notes: ** WTI Spot Price FOB; * Europe Brent Spot Price FOB (Dollars per Barrel)

Source: Bunker price: Compiled by author from various issues of Fairplay Weekly from 1990 to 2007. **Oil prices:** Retrieved and compiled from World Wide Web: [http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/dnav/pet/pet_pri_spt_s1_w.htm.](http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/dnav/pet/pet_pri_spt_s1_w.htm)

Appendix C - World Oil Production and Oil Consumption (1996-2006)

Source: Retrieved 18 June, 2007 and compiled by author from World Wide Web:

[http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_](http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls) [assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls](http://www.bp.com/liveassets/bp_internet/globalbp/globalbp_uk_english/reports_and_publications/statistical_energy_review_2007/STAGING/local_assets/downloads/spreadsheets/statistical_review_full_report_workbook_2007.xls).

Appendix D - Representative Monthly Dry Bulk Time Charter Rates (1998 - 2007)

Source: Compiled by author from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 1998 to 2007. (Drewry Shipping Consultants. (1998-2007). *Drewry Monthly* 1990-2007. Author).

Appendix E - Fuel Consumption of Containerships and Bulk Carriers (built after 1990)

564 CSCL Los Angeles	26.10	5,762	228.00	Anangel Pride		13.50 161,643	55.00
565 APL Sweden	26.10	5,762	228.00	Anangel Solidarity	13.50	161,643	55.00
566 E. R. London	25.80	5,762		237.60 Anangel Splendour	13.50	161,643	55.00
567 E. R. Amsterdam	26.10	5,762	237.60	Iron Beauty	14.00	164,218	53.20
568 E. R. Felixstowe	26.10	5,762	237.60	Kirmar	14.00	164,218	53.20
569 NYK Sirius	23.00	6,148	183.00	Thalassini Kyra	14.20	164,218	53.20
570 NYK Castor	23.00	6,208	183.00	Cape Flora		14.30 164,361	53.30
571 NYK Canopus	23.00	6,208	210.00	Thalassini Axia	14.50	164,796	55.00
572 NYK Antares	23.00	6,214	190.60	B Duckling	14.10	165,133	54.00
573 Hatsu Excel	24.50	6,332	219.00	A Duckling	14.10	165,239	53.00
574 Hatsu Ethic	24.50	6,332	219.00	C. Oasis	13.50	165,693	56.00
575 Hatsu Elite	24.50	6,332	219.90	Irfon		13.50 165,729	56.00
576 Hatsu Eagle	25.00	6,332	219.90	Heythrop	13.50	165,729	58.00
577 MSC Barbara	24.80	6,402	240.00	Rubin Grace	14.50	166,939	67.50
578 Hyundai Kingdom	26.40	6,479		248.00 Pantelis Sp	14.00	169,883	60.00
579 Hyundai Republic	26.40	6,479	248.00	Saraji Trader		14.30 169,907	59.50
580 Hyundai National	26.40	6,479		248.00 Iron Yandi		14.00 169,963	53.90
581 Hyundai Dominion	26.40	6,479		248.00 Iron Baron	14.00	169,981	60.00
582 Hyundai Patriot	26.40	6,479	248.00	Cape Ocean	14.50	170,631	56.00
583 CMA CGM Balzac	26.30	6,627	280.00	NSS Bonanza	14.50	170,907	53.00
584 CMACGM Baudelair	26.30	6,627	280.00	Anangel Dynasty	14.50	171,101	63.10
585 Los Angeles Express	25.60	6,732	213.00	Anangel Eternity	14.50	171,176	63.10
586 Bangkok Express	25.60	6,732	213.00	Cape Azalea	14.50	171,846	50.30
587 SanFrancisco Expre	25.60	6,732	213.00	Cape Wakaba	14.50	171,978	55.80
588 MSC Flaminia	25.50	6,732	235.00	Cape Jupiter	14.30	172,480	49.70
589 MSC Alessia	25.60	6,732	235.00	Giuseppe Lembo	13.20	172,639	58.00
590 MSC Ilona	25.60	6,732	235.00	Cape Breeze	13.10	172,972	52.50
591 Maersk Kiel	24.50	6,930	240.00	NSS Advance		14.50 173,246	54.30
592 Maersk Kingston	24.50	6,978	200.00	Castillo De San Jua		13.80 173,329	46.50
593 Maersk Kampala	24.50	6,978	270.00	Mineral Belgium	14.00	173,806	60.00
594 Hamburg Express	25.30	7,506	231.00	Mineral Shanghai	14.00	173,880	60.00
595 Shanghai Express	25.30	7,506	231.00	Quorn	14.50	179,869	53.10
596 Hong Kong Express	25.30	7,506	231.00	Buccleuch	13.50	182,675	52.80
597 Berlin Express	25.30	7,506	231.00	Ocean Castle	13.80	182,711	51.50
598 MSC Maeva	25.40	8,034	256.00	Yamato	13.60	184,349	48.00
599 MSC Lucy	25.40	8,034	256.00	Ocean Vanguard	13.00	206,258	53.00
600 MSC Rita	25.40	8,034	256.00	Sg Prosperity	14.50	211,201	69.00
601 Kyoto Express	24.50	8,749	248.80	Bergeland	14.50	322,941	93.00

Source: Lloyd's Register: Fairplay. (2006). *World Shipping Encyclopaedia*. WMU library software (Ships).

Fuel Oil Supply ('000 barrels daily)	World Tonnage (million dwt)	Bunker Price (US\$/ton)
2,201	658.4	112
2,175	642.1	95
2,119	665.3	88
2,070	688.5	78
2,020	711.7	88
1,983	734.9	100
1,952	758.1	112
1,895	775.8	104
1,967	788.7	72
1,856	799.0	113
1,720	808.4	161
1,724	825.7	135
1,740	825.6	153
1,700	844.2	176
	857.0	186
1,670	895.8	272
1,694	960.0	321
	1,668	

Appendix F - Development of Fuel Oil Supply, World Tonnage and Bunker Price (1990 - 2006)

Sources: bunker price in Singapore: compiled by author from various issues of Drewry Monthly from 1990 to 2007 (see Appendix A). **Fuel oil supply**: compiled from BP Plc. (2007). BP statistical review of world energy, June 2007: quantifying energy. London: BP Plc. **World Tonnage**: compiled from various issues of Review of Maritime Transport from 1990 to 2006, UNCTAD.

Appendix G - Bunker forwards and swaps contracts traded at IMAREX (2005-2007)

Source: Retrieved and compiled by author June 19, 2007 from World Wide Web: [http://www.imarex.com/about_imarex/volume_statistics/fuel_oil_swaps.](http://www.imarex.com/about_imarex/volume_statistics/fuel_oil_swaps)

Appendix H – Composition of shipping routes of Baltic Freight Index from 1985 to 2007

Notes: ARA-Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Antwerp area. HSS is heavy grain, soya, and sorghum. T/C is time chater routes. Skaw Passero is the range that extends from Cape Skaw in Denmark to Cape Passero in Sicily (Italy). The countries of the remaining ports are in parentheses. The following minor amendments of the Index are not presented: as of May 6, 1998, routes 2 and 3 refer to a 54,000dwt Panamax vessel; routes 1A, 2A, 3A and 9 were based on a 64,000 dwt Panamax vessel for the period up to February 2, 1996; route 5 was 20,000 dwt vessel Barley from Antwerp to Red Sea for the period January 4, 1985 to February 4, 1986; route 7 was based on a 100,000 dwt vessel for the period February 5, 1991 to February 4, 1993; route 8 was based on a 110,000 dwt vessel for the period January 4, 1985 to February 5, 1992; route 10 was based on a 135,000 dwt vessel for the period February 5, 1991 to August 2, 1995; route 11 was 20,000 dwt sugar from Recife (Brazil) to US East Coast for the period January 4, 1985 to May 8, 1986.

Source: Compiled by the author from Kavussanos & Nomikos (2000b, pp. 783-784).