Cash Flows Discounted Using a Model Free SDF Extracted under a Yield Curve Prior *

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Abstract

We develop a model-free Bayesian extraction procedure for the stochastic discount factor under a yield curve prior. Previous methods in the literature directly or indirectly use some particular parametric asset pricing model such as long run risks or habit as the prior. Here, in contrast, we use no such model, but rather we adopt a prior that enforces external information about the historically very low levels of U.S. short- and long-term interest rates. For clarity and simplicity our data are annual time series. We use the extracted stochastic discount factor to determine the stripped cash flow risk premiums on a panel of industrial profits and consumption. Interestingly, the results align very closely with recent limited information (bounded rationality) models of the term structure of equity risk premiums, although nowhere did we use any theory of the discount factor other than its implied moment restrictions.

Keywords and Phrases: Stochastic discount factor, Discounting, Cash flows, Yield curve, Moment functions, Bounded Rationality, Bayesian

JEL Classification: C32, C36, E27
1 Introduction

Under very mild conditions there exists a scalar stochastic discount factor (SDF) process that generates moment restrictions on the returns (or cash flows) of traded securities. Knowledge of the SDF process allows one to check if a particular security is priced consistently with other traded assets, and it allows the valuation of uncertain future cash flows on non-traded assets as far as one is confident the pricing implications extend appropriately. In the literature there are a plethora of methods either to extract nonparametrically the SDF process from historical data or to evaluate particular theories of the SDF process such as long run risk models or habit models.

One issue associated with such approaches concerns the ex-post implied level of real interest rates. Extant procedures use moment conditions based on asset returns, and the return horizons typically range from monthly to annual. The returns series are like first differenced asset prices and thus nearly white noise processes; information on the level of asset prices, and bond prices in particular, is negligible leaving interest rates ill determined. Left to its own, an extracted SDF can give rise to somewhat implausible levels of real interest rates. As an example, in a recent long run risk application, Christensen (2017) reports the long interest rate as a rather high 7 percent per year; in additional computations using this author’s code we found that the entire yield curve from one year on out is essentially flat at just over 7 percent. Poorly determined real yield curves were encountered using the extraction procedure of this paper where, absent prior knowledge, implied yield curves shifted and bent in implausible configurations. As just noted, the moment conditions contain little, if any, level information, and external information from other sources needs to be imposed to discipline the SDF extraction.

An agreed upon fact is that U.S. real interest rates are very low. From Campbell (2003, p. 812) the average short-term U.S. real rate was 0.896 percent over the period 1947–1998, and few would argue for higher real short rates since then. As for longer term real rates, Figure 2 of Tesar and Obstfeld (2015, p. 8) indicates that the 10-year real rate of interest over the period 1930–2014 was often negative, generally fluctuated between 0 and 2.5 percent per year, and only briefly bumped 5 percent during the interwar era and again during dis-
inflation period of the early 1980s. Additional information from TIPS real yields is seen in Table 1, which are remarkably low.

(Table 1 about here)

In what follows we implement a Bayesian SDF extraction procedure subject to a prior that enforces these known low values for U.S. real interest rates. The method’s mathematical foundation requires a prior to ensure all random variables are actually defined on a proper probability space, and here we elect the yield curve prior in place of a specific model of the SDF. Specifically, the prior centers the one year yield at 0.896 percent with standard deviation 1.00 percent, and it centers the 30-year yield at 2.00 percent with standard deviation 1.00 percent. The prior generally accommodate both the levels and fluctuations in real rates suggested in the above discussion and by Table 1. This prior is maintained throughout the entire sample period, although it would be relatively easy to impose a time-varying prior with possibly higher yields in the earlier parts of the sample if reliable real rates were available to inform development of such a prior.

Post extraction, we use the dynamics of the SDF and related variables in a standard log-Gaussian pricing framework to value various cash flows, with a focus on the risk premiums on stripped cash flows, often termed dividend strips in the literature. The concept is simple: if, from the perspective of period 0, an investment pays off the uncertain stream \( \{CF_t\}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) into the indefinite future, then the stripped cash flow is the asset that pays just \( CF_t \) in period \( t > 0 \), and zero in all other periods. Recently, researchers have been investigating the term structure of the equity risk premiums on stripped cash flows to understand better the relationship between risk and reward at short- and long-term horizons. Asset pricing models (van Binsbergen et al., 2012; Maggiori et al., 2015) suggest that the term structure of risk premiums is upward sloping, with more distant cash flows earning higher risk premiums due to a long-run risk (Bansal and Yaron, 2004) mechanism that makes investors fearful of volatility in the distant future. This prediction seems at odds with common sense intuition, but theory alone is not powerful enough to make an unambiguous prediction on the slope of the equity risk premium term structure. Backus et al. (2016) show how a wide range of levels and shapes of the term structures of claims can be achieved by modifying the dynamics
of the pricing kernel, the cash flow growth, and their interaction. Empirically, discussions about the true average slope of the equity returns term structure have not yet been settled (Cochrane, 2017; Bansal et al., 2017; van Binsbergen and Koijen, 2017), and reconciling asset pricing models with possible slopes of term structure of equity returns has recently become a very active area of research. Of particular interest here is Croce et al. (2015), who develop a bounded rationality model with long run risk that appears to explain our findings below.

2 Ex-post Stochastic Discount Factor

The ex-post realized values of SDF$_{t-1,t}$ are extracted annually 1930–2015 using the methodology developed in Gallant and Hong (2007). The differences are threefold: The data set is longer due to the passage of time; all of the Fama-French portfolios (Fama and French, 1992, 1993) can be used because a missing data problem has been resolved; and the prior tilts values toward a specified yield curve instead of toward long run risk dynamics (Bansal and Yaron, 2004). In brief, the ideas are as follows.

For time $t = 1, \ldots , n = 86$, where $t = 1$ corresponds to 1930 and $t = n$ to 2015, denote real gross returns on the 25 Fama-French 5x5 size and value portfolios by the vector $R_{sl}$, denote the real gross annual return on the thirty day T-bill by $R_{bt}$, denote real per capita consumption growth by $C_t / C_{t-1}$, and denote per capita labor income growth by $L_t / L_{t-1}$. Let $x_t$ let a vector of length 28 containing these variables. Let $x$ be an array with $x_t$ as columns; $x$ has dimension 28 by $n = 86$. Let $\theta_t$ denote the stochastic discount factor SDF$_{t-1,t}$ and set $\theta = (\theta_1, \ldots , \theta_{86})$.

The vector $\theta$ is random and endogenous so that determining a likelihood $p^*(x | \theta)$ for Bayesian analysis requires some care. Likelihood construction proceeds as follows.

We presume existence of but not knowledge of a general equilibrium model with a financial sector. The general equilibrium model determines a joint probability space on which all random variables that enter the model live and, hence, a marginal probability space on which the random variables $(x, \theta) \in \mathcal{X} \times \Theta$ live. The marginal probability space determines a conditional distribution of $x$ given $\theta$. We presume that this conditional distribution has density $p^\theta(x | \theta)$. Ours is a partial equilibrium analysis so that any general equilibrium
parameters that might be involved in an expression for \( p^o(x \mid \theta) \), were it known, do not affect our analysis and can be ignored. Or, to be pedantic, are fixed and calibrated by Nature.

Let \( p(\theta) \) denote the prior we intend to use for a partial equilibrium Bayesian analysis. The analysis will be with reference to the probability space \((\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, C^o, P^o)\) where \( P^o \) has density \( p^o(x \mid \theta) p(\theta) \).

Denote the vector of (conditional) moment-equation errors by
\[
e_{t,t-1}(\theta_t) = 1 - \theta_t \begin{pmatrix} R_{st} \\ R_{bt} \end{pmatrix},
\]
(1)
where \( 1 \) denotes a vector of 1’s of length twenty-six. Define the instruments
\[
V_t = \begin{pmatrix} R_{st} - 1 \\ R_{bt} - 1 \\ C_t/C_{t-1} - 1 \\ L_t/L_{t-1} - 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},
\]
where \( R_{st} - 1 \) denotes 1 subtracted from each element of \( R_{st} \). Consider the moment conditions
\[
m(x_t, x_{t-1}, \theta_t) = V_{t-1} \otimes e_{t,t-1}(\theta),
\]
(2)
where \( \otimes \) denotes Kronecker product, and their sample average
\[
\bar{m}(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=2}^{n} m(x_t, x_{t-1}, \theta_t).
\]
(3)
The length of the vector \( m(x_t, x_{t-1}, \theta_t) \) is \( K = 754 \) so that the number of overidentifying restrictions on \( \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_{86} \) is 669. Note that \( \theta_1 \) is not yet identified because \( \theta_1 \) does not appear in (3); it is identified by the prior as discussed later in this subsection.

Following Gallant and Hong (2007), we assume that \( e_{t,t-1}(\theta) \) has a factor structure. There is one error common to all elements of \( \theta_t R_{st} \) and twenty-six idiosyncratic errors, one for each element of \( (\theta_t R_{st}, \theta_t R_{bt}) \). Denote this matrix by \( \Sigma_e \) (or by \( \Sigma_{e,t} \) if one wants to allow for heterogeneity, which makes no difference in what follows). A set of orthogonal eigenvectors \( U_e \) for \( \Sigma_e \) are easy to construct (Gallant and Hong, 2007, p. 535), and can be used to diagonalize \( \Sigma_e \). Similarly \( U_v \) and \( \Sigma_v \) for \( V_t \). Let \( H_t(\theta) = (U_v \otimes U_e)' m(x_t, x_{t-1}) \) with
elements \( h_{t,i}(\theta) \). Diagonalization implies that we can estimate the variance of \( H_t(\theta) \) by a diagonal matrix \( S_n(\theta) \) with elements

\[
s_i(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=2}^{n} \left[ h_{t,i}(\theta) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=2}^{n} h_{t,i}(\theta) \right]^2.
\]

Let \( S_n^{-1/2}(\theta) \) denote this matrix with the diagonal elements replaced by their square roots.

Extraction of the ex-post realization of the SDF is based on the random variable

\[
Z(x, \theta) = \sqrt{n} S_n^{-1/2}(\theta)(U_x \otimes U_e)' \tilde{m}_n(x, \theta)
\]

with range \( \mathcal{Z} \) defined on the aforementioned probability space \((\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, \mathcal{C}^o, P^o)\). \( Z(x, \theta) \) is the normalized sum of transformed draws \((x_t, \theta_t)\) and is asymptotically multivariate normal with mean zero and identity variance under plausible regularity conditions on \((\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, \mathcal{C}^o, P^o)\). Note specifically that \( \theta_t \) is random and jointly distributed with \( x_t \) so that issues of uniformity in \( \theta \) do not arise. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that \( Z \) follows the standard normal distribution \( \Phi(z) \) with density \( \phi(z) \).

The assumption that \( Z(x, \theta) \) has density \( \phi(z) \) induces a probability space \((\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, \mathcal{C}, P)\), where \( \mathcal{C} \) is the \( \sigma \)-algebra of preimages \( \mathcal{C} = \{ C = Z^{-1}(B), B \subset \mathcal{Z}, B \text{ Borel} \} \) and \( P[C = Z^{-1}(B)] = \int_B d\Phi(z) \). Define \( \mathcal{C}^* \) to be the smallest \( \sigma \)-algebra that contains all sets in \( \mathcal{C} \) plus all sets of the form \( R_B = (\mathcal{X} \times B) \), where \( B \) is a Borel subset of \( \Theta \). Under a semi-pivotal assumption\(^1\) on (4), which is that \( \{ x : Z(x, \theta) = z \} \) not be empty for any choice of \((z, \theta)\) in the parameter space \( \Theta \) and range space \( \mathcal{Z} \), there is an extension of \((\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, \mathcal{C}, P)\) to a space \((\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, \mathcal{C}^*, P^*)\) on which the conditional density of \( x \) given \( \theta \) is

\[
f(x \mid \theta) = \phi[Z(x, \theta)]
\]

(Gallant, 2016a). This density is termed the “method of moments representation” of the likelihood and may be used for Bayesian inference in connection with the prior \( p(\theta) \) (Gallant, 2016a, 2016b).\(^2\)

\(^1\)A sufficient condition for which is that each element of \( Z \) is continuous in \( \mu \) when some element \( x_{it} \) of \( x_t \) is replaced by \( x_{it} + \mu \) for all \( t \) and is unbounded from above and below in \( \mu \).

\(^2\)Missing in (5) is a multiplicative Jacobian term that experience indicates has a negligible impact on computations when omitted (Gallant, 2020).
In short, the Bayesian method used in Gallant and Hong (2007) and here uses moment conditions \( z = Z(x, \theta) \) given by (4), takes

\[
p(x \mid \theta) = \phi(z)
\]  

(6)

as the likelihood, and proceeds directly to Bayesian inference using a prior \( p(\theta) \).

Next we describe the prior.

Let \( w_t = \left( \log(\theta_t), \log\left(\frac{GDP_t}{GDP_{t-1}}\right) \right)' \) where is observed GDP growth for \( t = 1, 2, \ldots, n = 86 \). GDP is not involved in the SDF extraction to this point. It is included now as prior information regarding past business cycle conditions. Consider the recursion

\[
w_t = d_0 + Dw_{t-1} + u_t,
\]

(7)

where the \( u_t \) are independent, bivariate normal with mean zero and variance \( \Sigma_d \). Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) (Gamerman and Lopes, 2006) is used in the Gallant and Hong (2007) method which means that proposed \( \theta_t \) are available to compute \( w_t \) before the prior and likelihood need to be computed. From the \( w_t \) the parameters of (7) can be determined by least squares. With least squares values replacing parameters in (7), a yield curve for maturities one year through thirty years can be computed analytically from (7) conditional on a specified initial condition \( w_0 \); see equations (12) and (13) and (15) of Section 3. In particular, the one-year and 30-year yields, \( Y^*_{1,t} \) and \( Y^*_{30,t} \) can be computed successively for \( w_0 = w_t, t = 1, \ldots, n = 86 \). Our prior is

\[
p(\theta) = \prod_{t=1}^{n} \phi\left((Y^*_{1,t} - 0.00896)/0.01\right)\phi\left((Y^*_{30,t} - 0.02)/0.01\right)
\]

(8)

Note, in particular, that the prior identifies \( \theta_1 \).

With likelihood (5) and prior (8) in hand, Bayesian inference can be carried out using MCMC in the usual way; see, e.g., Gamerman and Lopes (2006). After transients died out, we ran a MCMC chain of length 8,000,000. That \( \theta \) in the chain with the highest value of the posterior was selected as the estimate \( \hat{\theta} \) of the ex-post SDFs for the years 1930 through 2015. The estimate is plotted as Figure 1. The shaded areas are NBER recessions.
3 Discounted Cash Flow Estimation

We now use the extracted SDF series to value cash flows on assets outside the span of returns used in the extraction step. For this part we use annual data on corporate profits from various large sectors of the U.S. economy. We assembled annual data for seven sectors but for the shorter period 1959–2015, as data limitations precluded going any farther back. We also treat consumption as a cash flow, making a total of eight under consideration. These data are concatenated with the extracted SDF data and various macro aggregates for this shorter time span.

For the valuation step, consider the trivariate series

$$y_t = \begin{pmatrix} \log(SDF_{t-1,t}) \\ \log(GDP_t) - \log(CF_t) \\ \log(CF_t) - \log(CF_{t-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} sdf_{t-1,t} \\ gdp_t - cf_t \\ \Delta cf_{t-1,t} \end{pmatrix}$$

where $CF_t$ denotes a cash flow payoff at time $t$, such as annual corporate profits in year $t$, $GDP_t$ denotes gross domestic product, and $SDF_{t-1,t}$ denotes the extracted stochastic discount factor $\hat{\theta}_t$ of Section 2. Note that the second variable in the autoregression, $\log(GDP_t) - \log(CF_t)$, plays no direct effect in subsequent pricing, but it is included because it conveys information on future cash flows. The specification presumes co-integration between GDP and CF, which is discussed more fully in Section 4 below.

The time zero present value of the cash flow $CF_t$ is.

$$PV_{0,t}(CF) = \mathcal{E}(SDF_{0,t} CF_t | \mathcal{F}_0) = \mathcal{E}\left[\exp\left(\sum_{s=1}^{t} \Delta cf_{s-1,s} + \sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s}\right) \bigg| \mathcal{F}_0\right]$$

where $\mathcal{F}_0$ denotes the time 0 information set.\(^3\)\(^4\) For a risk free payoff of one real dollar at time $t$, the time zero present value is $PV_{0,t}(1) = \mathcal{E}(SDF_{0,t} | \mathcal{F}_0)$, where $SDF_{0,t} = \exp(\sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s})$. The corresponding yield is $Y_t^* = -\log[PV_{0,t}(1)]/t$.

Let

$$y_t = b_0 + By_{t-1} + \epsilon_t,$$

\(^3\)Note that in (10) the time zero value of the $SDF$ must be unity; the time zero value of $CF$ is irrelevant because we work in terms of ratios, see (19) below, and therefore we will normalize it to be unity.

\(^4\)In (10), expectation $\mathcal{E}$ refers to the probability space $(\mathcal{X} \times \Theta, \mathcal{C}^o, P^o)$ defined in Section 2. In (14), (15), (16) and thereafter, $\mathcal{E}$ refers to the VAR (11).
where the $e_t$ are independent, trivariate normal with mean zero and variance $\Sigma_b$. The sum
\[
\sum_{s=1}^{t} y_s = \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} (t+1-s)B^{s-1} \right) b_0 + \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} B^s \right) y_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t} \left( \sum_{u=1}^{s} B^{u-1} \right) e_{t+1-s}
\]
where $B^0 = I$, $B^1 = B$, $B^2 = BB$, etc., has moments
\[
\mathcal{E} \sum_{s=1}^{t} y_s = \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} (t+1-s)B^{s-1} \right) b_0 + \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} B^s \right) y_0 \quad (12)
\]
\[
\text{Var} \sum_{s=1}^{t} y_s = \sum_{s=1}^{t} \left( \sum_{u=1}^{s} B^{u-1} \right) \Sigma_b \left( \sum_{u=1}^{s} B^{u-1} \right) \quad (13)
\]
One can use (12) and (13) to evaluate
\[
P V_{0,t}(CF) = \exp \left[ \mathcal{E} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} \Delta f_{s-1,s} \right) + \mathcal{E} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s} \right) \right] 
\]
\[
+ \exp \left[ \frac{1}{2} \text{Var} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} \Delta f_{s-1,s} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \text{Var} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s} \right) \right] 
\]
\[
+ \exp \left[ \text{Cov} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} \Delta f_{t-1,t}, \sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s} \right) \right] \quad (14)
\]
\[
P V_{0,t}(1) = \exp \left[ \mathcal{E} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \text{Var} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} sdf_{s-1,s} \right) \right] \quad (15)
\]
\[
E V_{0,t}(CF) = \exp \left[ \mathcal{E} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} \Delta f_{s-1,s} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \text{Var} \left( \sum_{s=1}^{t} \Delta f_{s-1,s} \right) \right] \quad (16)
\]
where $\mathcal{E}$ refers to expectation with respect to the VAR (11). Note that in the above the time zero value of the SDF must be unity; the time zero value of $CF$ is irrelevant because we work in terms of ratios, see e.g., (19), therefore we normalize it to be unity.

We now describe imposition of a yield curve prior on the estimation of $b_0$, $B$, and $\Sigma_b$ that appear in the VAR (11). Consider a state-space representation of VAR (11)
\[
v_t = \begin{pmatrix} sdf_{t-2,t-1} \\ gdp_{t-1} - cf_{t-1} \\ \Delta cf_{t-2,t-1} \\ sdf_{t-1,t} \\ gdp_{t} - cf_{t} \\ \Delta cf_{t-1,t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ b_0 \\ 0 \\ I \\ B \end{pmatrix} v_{t-1} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ e_t \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)
\]
Estimation of (17) subject to the indicated parameter restrictions gives the same estimates \( \hat{b}_0, \hat{B}, \hat{\Sigma}_b \) as does unconstrained estimation of (11). Let

\[
A = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 
\end{pmatrix}
\]

and note that the fourth and fifth elements of \( Ax_t \) are \( sdt_{t-1,t} \) and \( \Delta gdp_{t-1,t} = \log(\text{GDP}_t) - \log(\text{GDP}_{t-1}) \). An implication is that we can insert the parameters \( b_0^*, B^*, \) and \( \Sigma_b^* \) of

\[
Av_t = b_0^* + B^* Av_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^* = A \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ b_0 \end{pmatrix} + A \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I \\ 0 & B \end{pmatrix} A^{-1} Av_{t-1} + A \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \varepsilon_t \end{pmatrix}
\]

(18)

into equations (12), (13), and (15) to compute one-year yield \( Y_{1,t}^* \) and 30-year yield \( Y_{30,t}^* \), \( y_0 \) set to \( v_t \) successively for \( t = 1, ..., n = 86 \) and impose the prior (8).

The computational procedure is, within an MCMC loop, for proposed \( b_0, B, \) and \( \Sigma_b \), evaluate the likelihood implied by VAR (11), compute \( b_0^*, B^*, \) and \( \Sigma_b^* \) as indicated by expression (18) from the proposed \( b_0, B, \) and \( \Sigma_b, \) evaluate prior (8), and use the likelihood and prior so computed to make the accept/reject decision of the MCMC loop.

Serendipitously, the state-space complications can be avoided because it turns out that the yields \( Y_{1,t}^* \) and \( Y_{30,t}^* \) obtained by applying equations (12), (13), and (15) directly to \( b_0, B, \) and \( \Sigma_b \) of VAR (11) are identical to those computed from \( b_0^*, B^*, \) and \( \Sigma_b^* \) of VAR (18).

Apparently, the reason is that the only difference between the distributions of \( Av_t \) and \( v_t \) is the location parameter of their fifth element and the location parameter of the fifth element is not involved in equations (12), (13), or (15). For ourselves, we are more comfortable relying on having performed the computations using both (18) and (11) and obtaining identical results than relying on the distributional argument.
4 Empirical Implementation

4.1 Valuation, Expectation, and Risk Premiums

Display (14) shows the valuation operator $PV_{0,t}(CF)$ as the economic value in period 0 of the cash flow $CF_t$ received in $t$; evidently $PV_{0,t}(\bullet)$ is a linear operation on random variables realized at time $t$. Likewise (16) shows the conventional statistical expected value operator $EV_{0,t}(CF)$, also a linear operator on the same space of time $t$ random variables as $PV_{0,t}(\bullet)$ operates. As usual, two linear operators on a space are connected via a Randon-Nikodym style change of measure/density, which is the usual risk-neutral change of measure, noted, but not used here.

For the risk-free asset,

$$\text{bond price}_{0,t} = PV_{0,t}(1).$$

The (geometric) risk-free yield to maturity $r^f_{0,t}$ at time 0 of the $t$-maturity zero-coupon bond is defined via the relationship

$$e^{t r^f_{0,t}} \times PV_{0,t}(1) = 1,$$

because the investing the amount $PV_{0,t}(1)$ grows at the continuously compounded rate $r^f_{0,t}$ up to the $\$1$ at time $t$. Equivalently, the rate is defined by

$$r^f_{0,t} = -\frac{\log(PV_{0,t}(1))}{t}.$$

Just as a coupon bearing bond can be thought of as a portfolio of stripped payments valued as immediately above, finance economists have become interested in “dividend strips,” where the dividend asset that pays the owner the infinite stream $\{CF_s\}_{s=1}^\infty$ is viewed as portfolio of stripped payments. The value of each stripped payment is given by the pricing operation worked out above as $PV_{0,t}(CF)$. Only if agents are neutral to risk would it be the case that $PV_{0,t}(\bullet) = e^{-r^f_{0,t} t} EV_{0,t}(\bullet)$.

By analogy with the pure discount bond, we can define the geometric rate $r_{0,t}$ at which the amount $PV_{0,t}(CF)$ invested at time 0 grows continuously compounded to its statistical expected value at time $t$ by way of

$$e^{t r_{0,t}} \times PV_{0,t}(CF) = EV_{0,t}(CF) \Rightarrow$$

$$r_{0,t} = \frac{1}{t} \log \left( \frac{EV_{0,t}(CF)}{PV_{0,t}(CF)} \right) \quad (19)$$
Note that \( r_{0,t} \) is a number known at time 0 that pertains to a cash flow received at time \( t \).
The quantity
\[
\text{risk premium: } r_{0,t} - r^f_{0,t}
\]  
(20)
is the excess (geometric) return over cash of the investment (stripped cash flow) that pays \( CF_t \). The amount (20) represents the required rate of return above cash necessary to compensate for the economic risk embedded in the investment. To aid interpretation below, we recall from elementary asset pricing that in the iid log-Gaussian case the one-period relationship
\[
EV_{0,1}(r_{0,1}) = r^f_{0,1} - \text{Cov}(\Delta cf_{0,1}, sdf_{0,1}),
\]
(21)
using notation defined in (9). The risk premium in (21) is \(-\text{Cov}(\Delta cf_{0,1}, sdf_{0,1})\), the fundamental notion in finance of reward for bearing covariance risk. Expression (21) extends to cover (20) in the obvious way for the \( t \) horizon case.

4.2 Cash Flow Data

We now apply the preceding to valuation of eight cash flows. There are seven industrial profit series, real per capita, and real per capita consumption of nondurables and services, annual, 1959–2015.\(^5\) The eighth cash flow is obtained by treating measured consumption as a cash flow; i.e., we compute the risk premium on the (endowment) asset that pays out annual consumption. Basic statistics for the cash flows, labeled 1–8 are available in Table 2.

(Table 2 about here)

Some of the industrial cash flows are aggregates but none is a complete aggregate of any of the others. For example, cash flow 1, Total Corporate profits, includes items such as transportation and utilities, which are not among the other categories because of lack of consistent data over the entire sample period. The bottom section of Table 2 also shows the basic statistics for the extracted log-SDF and GDP growth processes. These cash flows do not correspond to the payoffs of traded securities, but using the above methods we can compute the risk premiums on the stripped cash flows using (19) and (20). Among other things, we can then examine issues such as the reasonableness of the risk

\(^5\)For cash flow sources and construction, see Subsection 7.2 of the data appendix, Section 7.
premiums relative to characteristics of the industries and their term structure at short- and long-term horizons.

The specification of (9) as a VAR presumes that log-cash flow and log-GDP processes are co-integrated with \( gdp_t - cf_t \) as the stationary error correction process. As a check, the first seven panels (excluding cash flow 8) of Figure 2 show time series plots of the \( gdp_t - cf_t \) process for the seven industrial profit series, each of which appears to be reasonably treated as realizations of a stationary process.

Figure 2 about here

We estimated autoregressions of the form

\[
gdp_t - cf_t = a + \rho (gdp_{t-1} - cf_{t-1}) + e_t, \tag{22}
\]

and for the seven industrial profit series the estimates of \( \rho \) ranged between 0.71 and 0.93, median 0.86, and generally we rejected quite strongly \( H_0: \rho = 1 \) in favor of \( H_1: \rho < 1 \). For the consumption cash flow series the results are different, as consumption of nondurables and services grew steadily relative to GDP during the transition from a production to a service economy over our particular sample period. Thus, for the consumption cash flow we cannot invoke cointegration, and we simply use \( gdp_t - gdp_{t-1} \) in place of \( gdp_t - cf_t \) as the predictor variable in the vector autoregression (11). The log consumption growth series is displayed in in the lower right corner of Figure 2.

To verify predictability, we estimated forecasting regressions of the form

\[
\Delta cf_{t,t+1} = a + b_1 \Delta cf_{t-1,t} + b_2 (gdp_t - cf_t) + u_t, \tag{23}
\]

for each of the seven industrial cash flows, and we found very strong evidence for additional predictability coming from the error correction variable \( gdp_t - cf_t \). For consumption (the eighth cash flow) we did the regression as

\[
\Delta cf_{t,t+1} = a + b_1 \Delta cf_{t-1,t} + b_2 (gdp_t - gdp_{t-1}) + u_t, \tag{24}
\]

and found only mild evidence for additional predictability coming from the second right-hand variable.
4.3 Risk Premiums

Using the methods described in Section 3 and Subsection 4.1 above we computed for each of the eight cash flows the implied risk premiums \((20)\) at horizons \(t = 1, 2, \ldots, 50\) for each available year (1960–2015) after lags. Since the risk premiums show negligible temporal variation, we just report and discuss the full sample averages. Table 3 shows the one-period computations, where average \(\text{Cov}(\Delta cf_{t-1, t}, sdf_{t-1, t})\) is the logarithmic SDF exposure of the cash flow. To ease interpretation, the table shows the average correlations as well. The negative of the covariance is the one-period risk premium by way of \((21)\) in this log-Gaussian framework. As seen from the table, all cash flows carry positive risk premiums except for Retail Trade, which is plausibly seen to be a hedging cash flow. For easier interpretation, we convert the covariance exposure to beta exposure,

\[
\beta = -\frac{\text{Cov}(\Delta cf_{t-1, t}, sdf_{t-1, t})}{\text{Var}(sdf_{t-1, t})}
\]  

and plot the relationship between the risk premiums and the (negative) log-SDF beta exposure in Figure 3. The essentially exact linear relationship seen in the figure is a mechanical consequence of the computations, but nonetheless it is interesting to note that the price of risk is very close to 0.05, meaning an increase in average return of 5 percent per year per unit exposure of the cash flow to moves in \(-sdf_{t-1, t}\).

Far more interesting are the paths of the risk premiums in \((20)\) for \(t\) forward into the future, which are shown in Figure 4 for \(t = 1, 2, \ldots, 50\). For the industrial cash flows 1–6, i.e. those other than the hedging cash flow, the risk premiums show some increase at short horizons but then decrease with horizon, and they decrease by a factor of one half from 1 to 50 years out; in contrast, for the consumption cash flow, the risk premium increases from about 1 percent per year to 4 percent per year moving from 1 to 50 years out.

These results are exactly in line with what one would expect from Croce et al. (2015, p. 723). In their limited information (bounded rationality) model, there is long run risk
embedded in consumption, which under usual parameterizations thereby carries an increasing
risk premium at longer horizons, just as seen in Table 2. There is also long run risk embedded
in individual cash flows but it is obscured by a high level of cash flow noise that can be
correlated with short-term consumption risk. Agents following optimal filtering rules thereby
view the assets as much more covariance-riskier in the short run than in the long run, and
so we expect to observe higher risk premiums for the short run than the long run. It bears
noting these findings are model free in that no *a priori* economic theory of the discount
factor was imposed in the estimation.

Figure 4 about here

A final matter is summability of the stripped cash flows, which relates to the issue of
whether the asset that pays the entire stream \( \{ CF_s \}_{s=1}^{\infty} \) is even sensible. Using basic com-
putations like those of Burnside (1998) for log-Gaussian models, in the iid case convergence
of \( \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} PV_{0,t}(CF) \) is assured if

\[
\mathcal{E}(\Delta cf_{t-1,t}) - r_f + \text{Cov}(\Delta cf_{t-1,t}, sdf_{t-1,t}) < 0. \tag{26}
\]

In the general case such as that considered by De Groot (2015), the summability conditions
are more involved as they involved interactions between conditional means and variances,
but the basic intuition of (26) remains: the covariance between the cash flow growth has
to be sufficiently negative to overcome any excess of the expected cash flows over the risk
free rate. In our case, the cash flows grow at implied rates around 2 percent per year while
the long term interest rate prior centers on 2 percent, but the covariances in Table 3 are
negative so the sums converge numerically, albeit very slowly. An exception is Retail Trade,
the hedging cash flow where the average covariance is positive. Some numerical instability
of the partial sums for this cash flow was seen if the range is extended to 100+ years, which
is not surprising for an extrapolation so far beyond the range of the data.
5 Robustness

The objective of the paper is to adapt a Bayesian methodology (Gallant and Hong, 2007) to a completely model-free, data-only setting and then value important non-traded cash flows for economic analysis of risk premiums. It only considers this specific objective and reaches interesting economic conclusions, but it is not exhaustive.

There are two issues regarding robustness that should be remarked upon: Is the methodology sensitive to the choice of assets? Is the methodology sensitive to the choice of prior?

As regards the assets, the methodology extracts the ex-post SDF from the asset pricing errors on 754 dynamic portfolio returns induced by instrumenting a smaller core set of asset returns. The core set, described in the Appendix, is representative of those used for evaluating asset pricing models; see, e.g., the review by Bryzgalova, Huang, and Julliard (2020, p. 3). Methods for extraction of an SDF can be dependent on the assets used for the extraction, e.g. Nieto and Rubio (2014). However, our surmise is confidence that the large set of portfolio returns spans the factors that on which all assets load, especially on taking into account that the portfolios are dynamic and include instrumental variables such as consumption and labor income growth. Rather than the assets, it is the prior to which the Gallant and Hong (2007) methodology is sensitive. This issue we have examined, as reported above.

A referee suggests other references that a reader might consider. Lewellen, Nagel and Shanken (2010) and Ghosh, Julliard, and Taylor (2017) concern other methods for extraction of the SDF, rather than the valuation of non-traded cash flows, though it would be interesting to extend these works to our application. That step is beyond the scope of this paper. Also, Gormsen (2020), Bansal, Miller, Song and Yaron (2019), and Giglio, Kelly and Kozak (2020) further examine evidence on slope of the term structure of equity returns without consensus. Our main finding regards the contrast between the term structure of the risk premiums on consumption versus those on the industrial cash flows we considered.
6 Conclusion

We develop a model free Bayesian procedure to extract the SDF process using a yield curve prior that enforces the historically very low U.S. short and long term interest rates. The prior thereby enforces known information but no particular theory of the SDF process itself. Using annual data 1959–2015 we use the extracted SDF to compute the implied stripped cash flow risk premiums on a panel corporate profits for eight major industrial sectors and consumption. The magnitudes of the the risk premiums on the stripped cash flows are plausible, and, with one exception, the risk premiums show a decreasing term structure for 1–50 year horizons. The exception is Retail Trade which is found to be a hedging asset in the short run but not the long run. In contrast, the risk premiums on the stripped consumption cash flow are found to be positive and rather low in the short term but increase with horizon to about 4 percent per year 50 years out. The observed term structures of equity risk premiums generally confirm the limited information (bounded rationality) model of Croce et al (2015).
7 Appendix: Data

7.1 SDF Extraction

In the extraction step, all data are annual for the years 1930 through 2015. Raw data are converted from nominal to real using the annual consumer price index obtained from Table 2.3.4 at the Bureau of Economic Analysis web site. Conversions to per capita are by means of the mid-year population data from Table 7.1 at the Bureau of Economic Analysis web site.

The raw data for stock returns are value weighted returns including dividends for NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ from the Center for Research in Security Prices data at the Wharton Research Data Services web site (http://wrds.wharton.upenn.edu). Likewise, the raw data for returns on U.S. Treasury 30 day debt are from the Center for Research in Security Prices data at the Wharton Research Data Services web site.

Raw annual returns including dividends on the twenty-five Fama-French (1993) portfolios were obtained from Kenneth French’s web site, http://mba.tuck.dartmouth.edu/pages/faculty/ken.french. The portfolios are the intersections of five portfolios formed on market equity and five portfolios formed on the ratio of book equity to market equity. The portfolios are for all NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ stocks for which equity data are not missing and book equity data are positive. The portfolios are constructed at the end of each June with breakpoints determined by the NYSE quintiles at the end of June. Complete details are at Kenneth French’s web site. The advantage of the Fama-French portfolios here is that they appear to isolate and exhaust the risk factors for holding equities (Fama and French, 1992, 1993).

Raw labor income data is “compensation of employees received” from Table 2.2 at the Bureau of Economic Analysis web site.

Real Treasury Inflation Protected Securities (TIPS yields displayed in Table 1 are annual averages of daily values from https://www.treasury.gov/resource-center/data-chart-center/interest-rates/Pages/TextView.aspx?data=realyieldAll. According to Treasury, “These rates are commonly referred to as ”Real Constant Maturity Treasury” rates, or R-CMTs. Real yields on Treasury Inflation Protected Securities (TIPS) at ”constant maturity” are
interpolated by the U.S. Treasury from Treasury’s daily real yield curve. These real market yields are calculated from composites of secondary market quotations obtained by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York. This method provides a real yield for a 10 year maturity, for example, even if no outstanding security has exactly 10 years remaining to maturity.”

7.2 Valuation

Raw data for the cash flow valuation step are annual 1959–2015, for 56 observations net after the provision for the initial lag.

The industrial cash flow data are annual corporate profits with inventory valuation adjustment and without capital consumption allowance for major sectors. Data were spliced together for consistency from Table B-6 of the 2017 Economic Report of the President and Table B-91 of the 2004 Economic Report of the President. GDP data are from NIPA Table 1.1.5; consumption of nondurable goods services data are from NIPA Table 2.3.5; nominal data are converted to real using the implicit GDP deflator (Price Index for Gross Domestic Product) from NIPA Table 1.1.4. All data series converted to per capita using total U.S. resident population plus armed forces overseas (annual average of monthly estimates) obtained from FRED https://fred.stlouisfed.org/series/B230RCOA052NBEA.
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### Table 1. TIPS (real) Yields

| Year | 5-year | 7-year | 10-year | 20-year |
|------|--------|--------|---------|---------|
| 2004 | 1.02   | 1.39   | 1.76    | 2.13    |
| 2005 | 1.50   | 1.63   | 1.81    | 1.97    |
| 2006 | 2.28   | 2.30   | 2.31    | 2.31    |
| 2007 | 2.15   | 2.25   | 2.29    | 2.36    |
| 2008 | 1.30   | 1.63   | 1.77    | 2.18    |
| 2009 | 1.06   | 1.32   | 1.66    | 2.21    |
| 2010 | 0.26   | 0.68   | 1.15    | 1.73    |
| 2011 | -0.41  | 0.10   | 0.55    | 1.20    |
| 2012 | -1.20  | -0.88  | -0.48   | 0.21    |
| 2013 | -0.76  | -0.30  | 0.07    | 0.75    |
| 2014 | -0.09  | 0.32   | 0.44    | 0.86    |
| 2015 | 0.15   | 0.36   | 0.45    | 0.78    |

Displayed are annual average of daily fixed term Treasury Inflation Protected Securities (TIPS) yields. See Section 7 for details.
Table 2. Summary Statistics

| Industry               | gdp\_t – cf\_t | \(\Delta cf_{t-1,t}\) |
|------------------------|----------------|------------------------|
|                        | Mean  | Std Dev | Mean  | Std Dev |
| 1 Total Corporate      | 2.572 | 0.227   | 0.019 | 0.131   |
| 2 Federal Reserve Banks| 5.834 | 0.343   | 0.045 | 0.131   |
| 3 Other Financial      | 4.366 | 0.468   | 0.028 | 0.360   |
| 4 Total NonFinancial   | 2.828 | 0.272   | 0.016 | 0.146   |
| 5 Manufacturing        | 3.626 | 0.473   | 0.004 | 0.239   |
| 6 Wholesale Trade      | 5.194 | 0.260   | 0.027 | 0.137   |
| 7 Retail Trade         | 5.141 | 0.332   | 0.028 | 0.252   |
| 8 Consumption (NDS)    | 0.597 | 0.063   | 0.022 | 0.013   |

Displayed are sample means and standard deviations. See display (9) of the text for notation and the Appendix sources. Note that Fed Reserve Banks means commercial banks in the Federal Reserve System.

Table 3. Cash Flow Exposures

| Industry               | Exposure |
|------------------------|----------|
|                        | Cov   | Corr  |
| 1 Total Corporate      | -0.083 | -0.37 |
| 2 Federal Reserve Banks| -0.042 | -0.21 |
| 3 Other Financial      | -0.138 | -0.23 |
| 4 Total NonFinancial   | -0.087 | -0.36 |
| 5 Manufacturing        | -0.161 | -0.41 |
| 6 Wholesale Trade      | -0.082 | -0.34 |
| 7 Retail Trade         | 0.044  | 0.11  |
| 8 Consumption (NDS)    | -0.010 | -0.35 |

Displayed are the implied average Cov(\(\Delta cf_{t-1,t}\), sdf\_t-1,t) and similarly for the correlation.
Figure 1. Posterior Valuation  Plot is the posterior mode of $\theta_1 = SDF_{1930,1931}$ through $\theta_{86} = SDF_{2014,2015}$.

Figure 2.  Plotted are $gdp_t - cf_t$ for the seven industrial cash flows 1–7 and $\Delta cf_{t-1,t}$ for cash flow 8 (consumption), where the variables are defined via display (9) of the text.
Figure 3. Plotted are the average 1-year risk premiums versus the cash flow beta exposures to SDF risk. Points for cash flows 6 and 8 nearly overlap creating the illusion of seven points, while there are actually eight.
Figure 4. Plotted are the annualized risk premiums on cash flow strips for years 1-50 ahead.