The Market Risk Premium: Expectational Estimates Using Analysts' Forecasts

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Using expectational data from financial analysts, we estimate a market risk premium for US stocks. Using the S&P 500 as a proxy for the market portfolio, the average market risk premium is found to be 7.14% above yields on long-term US government bonds over the period 1982-1998. This risk premium varies over time; much of this variation can be explained by either the level of interest rates or readily available forward-looking proxies for risk. The market risk premium appears to move inversely with government interest rates suggesting that required returns on stocks are more stable than interest rates themselves. [JEL: G31, G12]

The notion of a market risk premium (the spread between investor required returns on safe and average risk assets) has long played a central role in finance. It is a key factor in asset allocation decisions to determine the portfolio mix of debt and equity instruments. Moreover, the market risk premium plays a critical role in the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM), the most widely used means of estimating equity hurdle rates by practitioners. In recent years, the practical significance of estimating such a market premium has increased as firms, financial analysts, and investors employ financial frameworks to analyze corporate and investment performance. For instance, the increased use of Economic Value Added (EVA®) to assess corporate performance has provided a new impetus for estimating capital costs.

The most prevalent approach to estimating the market risk premium relies on some average of the historical spread between returns on stocks and bonds.[1] This choice has some appealing characteristics but is subject to many arbitrary assumptions such as the relevant period for taking an average. Compounding the difficulty of using historical returns is the well noted fact that standard models of consumer choice would predict much lower spreads between equity and debt returns than have occurred in US markets—the so called equity risk premium puzzle (see Welch, 2000 and Siegel and Thaler, 1997). In addition, theory calls for a forward-looking risk premium that could well change over time.

This paper takes an alternate approach by using expectational data to estimate the market risk premium. The approach has two major advantages for practitioners. First, it provides an independent estimate that can be compared to historical averages. At a minimum, this can help in understanding likely ranges for risk premia. Second, expectational data allow investigation of changes in risk premia over time. Such time variations in risk premia serve as important signals from investors that should affect a host of financial decisions. This paper provides new tests of whether changes in risk premia over time are linked to forward-looking measures of risk. Specifically, we look at the

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[1] Bruner, Eades, Harris, and Higgins (1998) provide survey evidence on both textbook advice and practitioner methods for estimating capital costs. As testament to the market for cost of capital estimates, Ibbotson Associates (1998) publishes a "Cost of Capital Quarterly."

relationship between the risk premium and four *ex-ante* measures of risk: the spread between yields on corporate and government bonds, consumer sentiment about future economic conditions, the average level of dispersion across analysts as they forecast corporate earnings, and the implied volatility on the S&P500 Index derived from options data.

Section I provides background on the estimation of equity required returns and a brief discussion of current practice in estimating the market risk premium. In Section II, models and data are discussed. Following a comparison of the results to historical returns in Section III, we examine the time-series characteristics of the estimated market premium in Section IV. Finally, conclusions are offered in Section V.

I. Background

The notion of a "market" required rate of return is a convenient and widely used construct. Such a rate (k) is the minimum level of expected return necessary to compensate investors for bearing the average risk of equity investments and receiving dollars in the future rather than in the present. In general, k will depend on returns available on alternative investments (e.g., bonds). To isolate the effects of risk, it is useful to work in terms of a market risk premium (rp), defined as

$$rp = k - i, \tag{1}$$

where i = required return for a zero risk investment.

Lacking a superior alternative, investigators often use averages of historical realizations to estimate a market risk premium. Bruner, Eades, Harris, and Higgins (1998) provide recent survey results on best practices by corporations and financial advisors. While almost all respondents used some average of past data in estimating a market risk premium, a wide range of approaches emerged. "While most of our 27 sample companies appear to use a 60+ year historical period to estimate returns, one cited a window of less than ten years, two cited windows of about ten years, one began averaging with 1960, and another with 1952 data" (p. 22). Some used arithmetic averages, and some used geometric. This historical approach requires the assumptions that past realizations are a good surrogate for future expectations and, as typically applied, that the risk premium is constant over time. Carleton and Lakonishok (1985) demonstrate empirically some of the problems with such historical premia when they are disaggregated for different time periods or groups of firms. Siegel (1999) cites additional problems of using historical returns and argues that equity premium estimates from past data are likely too high. As Bruner et al. (1998) point out, few respondents cited use of expectational data to supplement or replace historical returns in estimating the market premium.

Survey evidence also shows substantial variation in empirical estimates. When respondents gave a precise estimate of the market premium, they cited figures from 4% to over 7% (Bruner et al., 1998). A quote from a survey respondent highlights the range in practice. "In 1993, we polled various investment banks and academic studies on the issue as to the appropriate rate and got anywhere between 2 and 8%, but most were between 6% and 7.4%." (Bruner et al., 1998). An informal sampling of current practice also reveals large differences in assumptions about an appropriate market premium. For instance, in a 1999 application of EVA analysis, Goldman Sachs Investment Research specifies a market risk premium of "3% from 1994-1997 and 3.5% from 1998-1999E for the S&P Industrials" (Goldman Sachs, 1999). At the same time, an April 1999 phone call to Stern Stewart revealed that their own application of EVA typically employed a market risk premium of 6%. In its application of the CAPM, Ibbotson Associates (1998) uses a market risk premium of 7.8%. Not surprisingly, academics do not agree on the risk premium either. Welch (2000) surveyed leading financial economists at major universities. For a 30-year horizon, he found a mean risk premium of 7.1% but a range from 1.5% to 15% with an *interquartile range* of 2.4% (based on 226 responses).

To provide additional insight on estimates of the market premium, we use publicly available expectational data. This expectational approach employs the dividend growth model (hereafter referred to as the discounted cash flow (DCF) model) in which a consensus measure of financial analysts' forecasts (FAF) of earnings is used as a proxy for investor expectations. Earlier work has used FAF in DCF models[2] but generally has covered a span of only a few years due to data availability.

II. Models and Data

The simplest and most commonly used version of the DCF model is employed to estimate shareholders' required rate of return, k, as shown in Equation (2):

[2]See Malkiel (1982), Brigham, Vinson, and Shome (1985), Harris (1986), and Harris and Marston (1992). The DCF approach with analysts' forecasts has been used frequently in regulatory settings. Ibbotson Associates (1998) use a variant of the DCF model with forward-looking growth rates; however, they do this as a separate technique and not as part of the CAPM. For their CAPM estimates, they use historical averages for the market risk premium.

$$k = \left(\frac{D_1}{P_0}\right) + g, \qquad (2)$$

where D_1 = dividend per share expected to be received at time one, P_0 = current price per share (time 0), and g = expected growth rate in dividends per share.[3] A primary difficulty in using the DCF model is obtaining an estimate of g, since it should reflect market expectations of future performance. This paper uses published FAF of long-run growth in earnings as a proxy for g. Equation (2) can be applied for an individual stock or any portfolio of companies. We focus primarily on its application to estimate a market premium as proxied by the S&P500.

FAF comes from IBES Inc. The mean value of individual analysts' forecasts of five-year growth rate in EPS is used as the estimate of g in the DCF model. The five-year horizon is the longest horizon over which such forecasts are available from IBES and often is the longest horizon used by analysts. IBES requests "normalized" five-year growth rates from analysts in order to remove short-term distortions that might stem from using an unusually high or low earnings year as a base. Growth rates are available on a monthly basis.

Dividend and other firm-specific information come from COMPUSTAT. D_1 is estimated as the current indicated annual dividend times ($1+g$). Interest rates (both government and corporate) are from Federal Reserve Bulletins and *Moody's Bond Record.* Exhibit 1 describes key variables used in the study. Data are used for all stocks in the *Standard and Poor's 500* stock (S&P500) index followed by IBES. Since five-year growth rates are first available from IBES beginning in 1982, the analysis covers the period from January 1982-December 1998.

The approach used is generally the same approach as used in Harris and Marston (1992). For each month, a market required rate of return is calculated using each dividend-paying stock in the S&P500 index for which data are available. As additional screens for reliability of data, in a given month we eliminate a firm if there are fewer than three analysts' forecasts or if the standard deviation around the mean forecast exceeds 20%. Combined, these two screens eliminate fewer than 20 stocks a month. Later we report on the sensitivity of the results to various screens. The DCF model in Equation (2) is applied to each stock and the results weighted by market value of equity to produce the market-required return. The risk premium is constructed by subtracting the interest rate on government bonds.

We weighted 1998 results by year-end 1997 market values since the monthly data on market value did not extend through this period. Since data on firm-specific dividend yields were not available for the last four months of 1998 at the time of this study, the market dividend yield for these months was estimated using the dividend yield reported in the *Wall Street Journal* scaled by the average ratio of this figure to the dividend yield for our sample as calculated in the first eight months of 1998. Adjustments were then made using growth rates from IBES to calculate the market required return. We also estimated results using an average dividend yield for the month that employed the average of the price at the end of the current and prior months. These average dividend yield measures led to similar regression coefficients as those reported later in the paper.

For short-term horizons (quarterly and annual), past research (Brown, 1993) finds that on average analysts' forecasts are overly optimistic compared to realizations. However, recent research on quarterly horizons (Brown, 1997) suggests that analysts' forecasts for S&P500 firms do not have an optimistic bias for the period 1993-1996. There is very little research on the properties of five-year growth forecasts, as opposed to shorter horizon predictions. Boebel (1991) and Boebel, Harris, and Gultekin (1993) examine possible bias in analysts' five-year growth rates. These studies find evidence of optimism in IBES growth forecasts. In the most thorough study to date, Boebel (1991) reports that this bias seems to be getting smaller over time. His forecast data do not extend into the 1990s.

Analysts' optimism, if any, is not necessarily a problem for the analysis in this paper. If investors share analysts' views, our procedures will still yield unbiased estimates of required returns and risk premia. In light of the possible bias, however, we interpret the estimates as "upper bounds" for the market premium.

This study also uses four very different sources to create *ex ante* measures of equity risk at the market

[3]Our methods follow Harris (1986) and Harris and Marston (1992) who discuss earlier research and the approach employed here, including comparisons of single versus multistage growth models. Since analysts' forecast growth in earnings per share, their projections should incorporate the anticipated effects of share repurchase programs. Dividends per share would grow at the same rate as EPS as long as companies manage a constant ratio of dividends to earnings on a per share basis. Based on S&P500 figures (see the Standard and Poor's website for their procedures), the ratio of DPS to EPS was .51 during the period 1982-89 and .52 for the period 1990-98. Lamdin (2001) discusses some issues if share repurchases destroy the equivalence of EPS and DPS growth rates. Theoretically, i is a risk-free rate, though its empirical proxy is only a "least risk" alternative that is itself subject to risk. For instance, Asness (2000) shows that over the 1946-1998 period, bond volatility (in monthly realized returns) has increased relative to stock volatility, which would be consistent with a drop in the equity market premium.

Exhibit 1. Variable Definitions

k	=	Equity required rate return.
P_0	=	Price per share.
D_1	=	Expected dividend per share measured as current indicated annual dividend from COMPUSTAT multiplied by $(1 + g)$.
g	=	Average financial analysts' forecast of five-year growth rate in earnings per share (from IBES).
i	=	Yield to maturity on long-term US government obligations (source: Federal Reserve, 30-year constant maturity series).
rp	=	Equity risk premium calculated as $rp = k - i$.
BSPREAD	=	spread between yields on corporate and government bonds, BSPREAD = yield to maturity on long-term corporate bonds (Moody's average across bond rating categories) minus i.
CON	=	Monthly consumer confidence index reported by the Conference Board (divided by 100).
DISP	=	Dispersion of analysts' forecasts at the market level.
VOL	=	Volatility for the S+P500 index as implied by options data.

level. The first proxy comes from the bond market and is calculated as the spread between corporate and government bond yields (BSPREAD). The rationale is that increases in this spread signal investors' perceptions of increased riskiness of corporate activity that would be translated to both debt and equity owners. The second measure, *CON, is the consumer* confidence index reported by the Conference Board at the end of the month. While the reported index tends to be around 100, we rescale CON as the actual index divided by 100. We also examined use of CON as of the end of the prior month; however, in regression analysis, this lagged measure generally was not statistically significant in explaining the level of the market risk premium.[4] The third measure, DISP, measures the dispersion of analysts' forecasts. Such analyst disagreement should be positively related to perceived risk since higher levels of uncertainty would likely generate a wider distribution of earnings forecasts for a given firm. DISP is calculated as the average of firm-specific standard deviations for each stock in the S&P500 covered by IBES. The firm-specific standard deviation is calculated based on the dispersion of individual analysts' growth forecasts around the mean of individual forecasts for that company in that month. DISP also was estimated using a value-weighted measure of analyst dispersion for the firms in our sample. The results reported use the equally weighted version but similar patterns were obtained with both constructions.[5] Our final measure, *VOL, is the implied volatility on the S&P500 index.* As of the beginning of the month, a dividend-adjusted Black Scholes Formula is used to estimate the implied volatility in the S&P500 index option contract, which expires on the third Friday of the month. The call premium, exercise price, and the level of the S&P500 index are taken from the *Wall Street Journal,* and treasury yields come from the Federal Reserve. Dividend yield comes from DRI. The option contract that is closest to being at the money is used.

III. Estimates of the Market Premium

Exhibit 2 reports both required returns and risk premia by year (averages of monthly data). The estimated risk premia are positive, consistent with equity owners demanding additional rewards over and above returns on debt securities. The average expectational risk premium (1982 to 1998) over

[4] We examined two other proxies for Consumer Confidence. The Conference Board's Consumer Expectations Index yielded essentially the same results as those reported. The University of Michigan's Consumer Sentiment Indices tended to be less significantly linked to the market risk premium, though coefficients were still negative.

[5] For the regressions reported in Exhibit 6, the value-weighted dispersion measure actually exhibited more explanatory power. For regressions using the Prais-Winsten method (see footnote 7), the coefficient on DISP was not significant in 2 of the 4 cases.

Exhibit 2. Bond Market Yields, Equity Required Return, and Equity Risk Premium, 1982-1998

Values are averages of monthly figures in percent. i is the yield to maturity on long-term government bonds, k is the required return on the S&P500 estimated as a value weighted average using a discounted cash flow model with analysts' growth forecasts. The risk premium $rp = k - i$. The average of analysts' growth forecasts is g. *Div yield* is expected dividend per share divided by price per share.

Year	Div. Yield	g	k	i	$rp = k - i$
1982	6.89	12.73	19.62	12.76	6.86
1983	5.24	12.60	17.86	11.18	6.67
1984	5.55	12.02	17.57	12.39	5.18
1985	4.97	11.45	16.42	10.79	5.63
1986	4.08	11.05	15.13	7.80	7.34
1987	3.64	11.01	14.65	8.58	6.07
1988	4.27	11.00	15.27	8.96	6.31
1989	3.95	11.08	15.03	8.45	6.58
1990	4.03	11.69	15.72	8.61	7.11
1991	3.64	11.99	15.63	8.14	7.50
1992	3.35	12.13	15.47	7.67	7.81
1993	3.15	11.63	14.78	6.60	8.18
1994	3.19	11.47	14.66	7.37	7.29
1995	3.04	11.51	14.55	6.88	7.67
1996	2.60	11.89	14.49	6.70	7.79
1997	2.18	12.60	14.78	6.60	8.17
1998	1.80	12.95	14.75	5.58	9.17
Average	3.86	11.81	15.67	8.53	7.14

government bonds is 7.14%, slightly higher than the 6.47% average for 1982 to 1991 reported by Harris and Marston (1992). For comparison purposes, Exhibit 3 contains historical returns and risk premia. The average expectational risk premium reported in Exhibit 2 is approximately equal to the arithmetic (7.5%) long-term differential between returns on stocks and long-term government bonds.[6]

[6]Interestingly, for the 1982-1996 period the arithmetic spread between large company stocks and long-term government bonds was only 3.3% per year. The downward trend in interest rates resulted in average annual returns of 14.1% on long-term government bonds over this horizon. Some (e.g., Ibbotson, 1997) argue that only the income (not total) return on bonds should be subtracted in calculating risk premia.

Exhibit 2 shows the estimated risk premium changes over time, suggesting changes in the market's perception of the incremental risk of investing in equity rather than debt securities. Scanning the last column of Exhibit 2, the risk premium is higher in the 1990s than earlier and especially so in late 1997 and 1998. Our DCF results provide no evidence to support the notion of a declining risk premium in the 1990s as a driver of the strong run up in equity prices.

A striking feature in Exhibit 2 is the relative stability of the estimates of k. After dropping (along with interest rates) in the early and mid-1980s, the average annual value of k has remained within a 75 basis point range around 15% for over a decade. Moreover, this stability arises despite some variability in the

Exhibit 3. Average Historical Returns on Bonds, Stocks, Bills, and Inflation in the US, 1926-1998

Historical Return Realizations	Geometric Mean	Arithmetic Mean
Common Stock (Large Company)	11.2%	13.2%
Long-term Government Bonds	5.3	5.7
Treasury Bills	3.8	3.8
Inflation Rate	3.1	3.2

Source: Ibbotson Associates, Inc., *1999 Stocks, Bonds, Bills and Inflation*, 1999 Yearbook.

underlying dividend yield and growth components of k as Exhibit 2 illustrates. The results suggest that k is more stable than government interest rates. Such relative stability of k translates into parallel changes in the market risk premium. In a subsequent section, we examine whether changes in our market risk premium estimates appear linked to interest rate conditions and a number of proxies for risk.

We explored the sensitivity of the results to our screening procedures in selecting companies. The reported results screen out all non-dividend paying stocks on the premise that use of the DCF model is inappropriate in such cases. The dividend screen eliminates an average of 55 companies per month. In a given month, we also screen out firms with fewer than three analysts' forecasts, or if the standard deviation around the mean forecast exceeds 20%. When the analysis is repeated without any of the three screens, the average risk premium over the sample period increased by only 40 basis points, from 7.14% to 7.54%. The beta of the sample firms also was estimated and the sample average was one, suggesting that the screens do not systematically remove low or high-risk firms. (Specifically, using firms in the screened sample as of December 1997 (the last date for which we had CRSP return data), we used ordinary least squares regressions to estimate beta for each stock using the prior 60 months of data and the CRSP return (SPRTRN) as the market index. The value-weighted average of the individual betas was 1.00.)

The results reported here use firms in the S&P500 as reported by COMPUSTAT in September 1998. This could create a survivorship bias, especially in the earlier months of the sample. We compared our current results to those obtained in Harris and Marston (1992) for which there was data to update the S&P500 composition each month. For the overlapping period, January 1982-May 1991, the two procedures yield the same average market risk premium, 6.47%. This suggests that the firms departing from or entering the S&P500 index do so for a number of reasons with no discernable effect on the overall estimated S&P500 market risk premium.

IV. Changes in the Market Risk Premium Over Time

With changes in the economy and financial markets, equity investments may be perceived to change in risk. For instance, investor sentiment about future business conditions likely affects attitudes about the riskiness of equity investments compared to investments in the bond markets. Moreover, since bonds are risky investments themselves, equity risk premia (relative to bonds) could change due to changes in perceived riskiness of bonds, even if equities displayed no shifts in risk.

In earlier work covering the 1982-1991 period, Harris and Marston (1992) reported regression results indicating that the market premium decreased with the level of government interest rates and increased with the spread between corporate and government bond yields (BSPREAD). This bond yield spread was interpreted as a time series proxy for equity risk. In this paper, we introduce three additional *ex ante* measures of risk shown in Exhibit 1: CON, DISP, and VOL. The three measures come from three independent sets of data and are supplied by different agents in the economy (consumers, equity analysts, and investors (via option and share price data)). Exhibit 4 provides summary data on all four of these risk measures.

Exhibit 5 replicates and updates earlier analysis by Harris and Marston (1992).[7] The results confirm the earlier patterns. For the entire sample period, Panel A shows that risk premia are negatively related to interest rates. This negative relationship is also true for both

[7]OLS regressions with levels of variables generally showed severe autocorrelation. As a result, we used the Prais-Winsten method (on levels of variables) and also OLS regressions on first differences of variables. Since both methods yielded similar results and the latter had more stable coefficients across specifications, we report only the results using first differences. Tests using Durbin-Watson statistics from regressions in Exhibits 5 and 6 do not accept the hypothesis of autocorrelated errors (tests at .01 significance level, see Johnston, 1984). We also estimated the first difference model without an intercept and obtained estimates almost identical to those reported.

Exhibit 4. Descriptive Statistics on *Ex Ante* Risk Measures

Entries are based on monthly data. BSPREAD is the spread between yields on long-term corporate and government bonds. CON is the consumer confidence index. DISP measures the dispersion of analysts' forecasts of earnings growth. VOL is the volatility on the S&P500 index implied by options data. Variables are expressed in decimal form, (e.g., 12% = .12).

	Panel A. Variables are Monthly Levels			
	Mean	**Standard Deviation**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
BSPREAD	.0123	.0040	.0070	.0254
CON	.9504	.2242	.473	1.382
DISP	.0349	.0070	.0285	.0687
VOL	.1599	.0697	.0765	.6085
	Panel B. Variables are Monthly Changes			
	Mean	**Standard Deviation**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
BSPREAD	-.00001	.0011	-.0034	.0036
CON	.0030	.0549	-.2300	.2170
DISP	-.00002	.0024	-.0160	.0154
VOL	-.0008	.0592	-.2156	.4081
	Panel C. Correlation Coefficients for Monthly Changes			
	BSPREAD	**CON**	**DISP**	**VOL**
BSPREAD	1.00	-.16**	.054	.22*
CON	-.16**	1.00	.065	-.09
DISP	.054	.065	1.00	.027
VOL	.22*	-.09	.027	1.00

**Significantly different from zero at the .05 level.
*Significantly different from zero at the .01 level.

the 1980s and 1990s as displayed in Panels B and C. For the entire 1982 to 1998 period, the addition of the yield spread risk proxy to the regressions lowers the magnitude of the coefficient on government bond yields, as can be seen by comparing Equations (1) and (2) of Panel A. Furthermore, the coefficient of the yield spread (0.488) is itself significantly positive. This pattern suggests that a reduction in the risk differential between investment in government bonds and in corporate bonds is translated into a lower equity market risk premium.

In major respects, the results in Exhibit 5 parallel earlier findings. The market risk premium changes over time and appears inversely related to government interest rates but is positively related to the bond yield spread, which proxies for the incremental risk of investing in equities as opposed to government bonds. One striking feature is the large negative coefficients on government bond yields. The coefficients indicate the equity risk premium declines by over 70 basis points for a 100 basis point increase in government interest rates.[8] This inverse relationship suggests

[8]The Exhibit 5 coefficients on i are significantly different from −1. 0 suggesting that equity required returns do respond to interest rate changes. However, the large negative coefficients imply only minor adjustments of required returns to interest rate changes since the risk premium declines. In earlier work (Harris and Marston, 1992) the coefficient was significantly negative but not as large in absolute value. In that earlier work, we reported results using the Prais-Winsten estimators. When we use that estimation technique and recreate the second regression in Exhibit 5, the coefficient for i is -.584 (t = - 12.23) for the entire sample period 1982-1998.

Exhibit 5. Changes in the Market Equity Risk Premium Over Time

The exhibit reports regression coefficients (*t*-values). Regression estimates use all variables expressed as monthly changes to correct for autocorrelation. The dependent variable is the market equity risk premium for the S&P500 index. BSPREAD is the spread between yields on long-term corporate and government bonds. The yield to maturity on long-term government bonds is denoted as *i*. For purposes of the regression, variables are expressed in decimal form, (e.g., 12% = .12).

Time Period	Intercept	*i*	BSPREAD	R^2
A. 1982-1998	-.0002 (-1.49)	-.869 (-16.54)		.57
	-.0002 (-1.11)	-.749 (-11.37)	.488 (2.94)	.59
B. 1980s	-.0005 (-1.62)	-.887 (-10.97)		.56
	-.0004 (-1.24)	-.759 (-7.42)	.508 (1.99)	.57
C. 1990s	-.0000 (-0.09)	-.840 (-13.78)		.64
	-.0000 (0.01)	-.757 (-9.85)	.347 (1.76)	.65

Exhibit 6. Changes in the Market Equity Risk Premium Over Time and Selected Measures of Risk

The exhibit reports regression coefficients (*t*-values). Regression estimates use all variables expressed as monthly changes to correct for autocorrelation. The dependent variable is the market equity risk premium for the S&P500 index. BSPREAD is the spread between yields on long-term corporate and government bonds. The yield to maturity on long-term government bonds is denoted as *i*. CON is the consumer confidence index. DISP measures the dispersion of analysts' forecasts of earnings growth. VOL is the volatility on the S&P500 index implied by options data. For purposes of the regression, variables are expressed in decimal form, (e.g., 12% = .12).

Time Period		Intercept	*i*	BSPREAD	CON	DISP	VOL	*Adj.* R^2
A. 1982-1998								
	(1)	0.0002 (.97)			-0.014 (-3.50)			0.05
	(2)	-0.0001 (-.96)	-0.737 (-11.31)	0.453 (2.76)	-0.007 (-2.48)			0.60
	(3)	0.0002 (.79)				0.224 (2.38)		0.02
	(4)	-0.0001 (-.93)	-0.733 (-11.49)	0.433 (2.69)	-0.007 (-2.77)	0.185 (3.13)		0.62
B. May 1986-1998	(5)	0.0000 (.06)	-0.818 (-11.21)	0.420 (2.52)	-0.005 (-2.23)	0.378 (3.77)		0.68
	(6)	0.0001 (.53)					0.011 (2.89)	0.05
	(7)	0.0000 (.02)	-0.831 (-11.52)	0.326 (1.95)	-0.005 (-2.12)	0.372 (3.77)	0.006 (2.66)	0.69

much greater stability in equity required returns than is often assumed. For instance, standard application of the CAPM suggests a one-to-one change in equity returns and government bond yields.

Exhibit 6 introduces three additional proxies for risk and explores whether these variables, either individually or collectively, are correlated with the market premium. Since the estimates of implied volatility start in May 1986, the exhibit shows results for both the entire sample period and for the period during which we can introduce all variables. Entered individually each of the three variables is significantly linked to the risk premium with the coefficient having the expected sign. For instance, in regression (1) the coefficient on CON is -.014, which is significantly different from zero (t = -3.50). The negative coefficient signals that higher consumer confidence is linked to a lower market premium. The positive coefficients on VOL and DISP indicate the equity risk premium increases with both market volatility and disagreement among analysts. The effects of the three variables appear largely unaffected by adding other variables. For instance, in regression (4) the coefficients on CON and DISP both remain significant and are similar in magnitude to the coefficients in single variable regressions.[9]

Even in the presence of the new risk variables, Exhibit 6 shows that the market risk premium is affected by interest rate conditions. The large negative coefficient on government bond rates implies large reductions in the equity premium as interest rates rise. One feature of our data may contribute to the observed negative relationship between the market risk premium and the level of interest rates. Specifically, if analysts are slow to report updates in their growth forecasts, changes in the estimated k would not adjust fully with changes in the interest rate even if the true risk premium were constant. To address the impact of "stickiness" in the measurement of k, we formed "quarterly" measures of the risk premium that treat k as an average over the quarter. Specifically, we take the value of k at the end of a quarter and subtract from it the average value of i for the months ending when k is measured. For instance, to form the risk premium for March 1998, the average value of i for January, February, and March is subtracted from the March value of k. This approach assumes that, in March, k still reflects values of g that have not been updated from the prior two months. The quarterly measure of risk premium then is paired with the average values of the other variables for the quarter. For instance, the March 1998 "quarterly" risk premium would be paired with averaged values of BSPREAD over the January through March period. To avoid overlapping observations for the independent variables, we use only every third month (March, June, September, December) in the sample.

As reported in Exhibit 7, sensitivity analysis using "quarterly" observations suggests that delays in updating may be responsible for a portion, but not all, of the observed negative relationship between the market premium and interest rates. For example, when quarterly observations are used, the coefficient on i in regression (2) of Exhibit 7 is -.527, well below the earlier estimates but still significantly negative.[10]

As an additional test, movements in the bond risk premium (BSPREAD) are examined. Since BSPREAD is constructed directly from bond yield data, it does not have the potential for reporting lags that may affect analysts' growth forecasts. Regression 3 in Exhibit 7 shows BSPREAD is negatively linked to government rates and significantly so.[11] While the equity premium need not move in the same pattern as the corporate bond premium, the negative coefficient on BSPREAD suggests that our earlier results are not due solely to "stickiness" in measurements of market required returns.

The results in Exhibit 7 suggest that the inverse relationship between interest rates and the market risk premium may not be as pronounced as suggested in earlier exhibits. Still, there appears to be a significant negative link between the equity risk premium and government interest rates. The quarterly results in Exhibit 7 would suggest about a 50 basis point change in risk premium for each 100 basis point movement in interest rates.

Overall, the *ex ante* estimates of the market risk premium are significantly linked to *ex ante* proxies for risk. Such a link suggests that investors modify their required returns in response to perceived changes in the environment. The findings provide some comfort that our risk premium estimates are capturing, at least

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[9] Realized equity returns are difficult to predict out of sample (see Goyal and Welch, 1999). Our approach *is different* in that we look at expectational risk premia which are much more stable. For instance, when we estimate regression coefficients (using the specification shown in regression 7 of Exhibit 6) and apply them out of sample we obtain "predictions" of expectational risk premia that are significantly more accurate (better than the .01 level) than a no change forecast. We use a "rolling regression" approach using data through December 1991 to get coefficients to predict the risk premium in January 1992. We repeat the procedure moving forward a month and dropping the oldest month of data from the regression. Details are available from the authors.

[10] Sensitivity analysis for the 1982-1989 and 1990-1998 subperiods yields results similar to those reported.

[11] We thank Bob Conroy for suggesting use of BSPREAD. Regression 3 in Exhibit 7 appears to have autocorrelated errors: the Durbin-Watson (DW) statistic rejects the hypothesis of no autocorrelation. However, in subperiod analysis, the DW statistic for the 1990-98 period is consistent with no autocorrelation and the coefficient on i is essentially the same (-.24, t = -8.05) as reported in Exhibit 7.

Exhibit 7. Regressions Using Alternate Measures of Risk Premia to Analyze Potential Effects of Reporting Lags in Analysts' Forecasts

The exhibit reports regression coefficients (*t*-values). Regression estimates use all variables expressed as changes (monthly or quarterly) to correct for autocorrelation. BSPREAD is the spread between yields on long-term corporate and government bonds. *rp* is the risk premium on the S&P500 index. The yield to maturity on long-term government bonds is denoted as *i*. For purposes of the regression, variables are expressed in decimal form, (e.g., 12% = .12).

Dependent Variable	Intercept	*i*	BSPREAD	*Adj.* R^2
(1) Equity Risk Premium (*rp*) Monthly Observations (same as Table V)	-.0002 (-1.11)	-.749 (-11.37)	.488 (2.94)	.59
(2) Equity Risk Premium (*rp*) "Quarterly" nonoverlapping observations to account for lags in analyst reporting	-.0002 (-.49)	-.527 (-6.18)	.550 (2.20)	.60
(3) Corporate Bond Spread (BSPREAD) Monthly Observations	-.0001 (-1.90)	-.247 (-11.29)		.38

in part, underlying changes in the economic environment. Moreover, each of the risk measures appears to contain relevant information for investors. The market risk premium is negatively related to the level of consumer confidence and positively linked to interest rate spreads between corporate and government debt, disagreement among analysts in their forecasts of earnings growth, and the implied volatility of equity returns as revealed in options data.

V. Conclusions

Shareholder required rates of return and risk premia should be based on theories about investors' expectations for the future. In practice, however, risk premia are typically estimated using averages of historical returns. This paper applies an alternate approach to estimating risk premia that employs publicly available expectational data. The resultant average market equity risk premium over government bonds is comparable in magnitude to long-term differences (1926 to 1998) in historical returns between stocks and bonds. As a result, our evidence does not resolve the equity premium puzzle; rather, the results suggest investors still expect to receive large spreads to invest in equity versus debt instruments.

There is strong evidence, however, that the market risk premium changes over time. Moreover, these changes appear linked to the level of interest rates as well as *ex ante* proxies for risk drawn from interest rate spreads in the bond market, consumer confidence in future economic conditions, disagreement among financial analysts in their forecasts and the volatility of equity returns implied by options data. The significant economic links between the market premium and a wide array of risk variables suggests that the notion of a constant risk premium over time is not an adequate explanation of pricing in equity versus debt markets.

These results have implications for practice. First, at least on average, the estimates suggest a market premium roughly comparable to long-term historical spreads in returns between stocks and bonds. Our conjecture is that, if anything, the estimates are on the high side and thus establish an upper bound on the market premium. Second, the results suggest that use of a constant risk premium will not fully capture changes in investor return requirements. As a specific example, our findings indicate that common application of models such as the CAPM will overstate changes in shareholder return requirements when government interest rates change. Rather than a one-for-one change with interest rates implied by use of constant risk premium, the results indicate that equity required returns for average risk stocks likely change by half (or less) of the change in interest rates. However, the picture is considerably more complicated as shown by the linkages between the risk premium and other attributes of risk.

Ultimately, our research does not resolve the answer to the question "What is the right market risk premium?" Perhaps more importantly, our work suggests that the answer is conditional on a number of features in the economy—not an absolute. We hope that future research will harness *ex ante* data to provide additional guidance to best practice in using a market premium to improve financial decisions.■

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Cost of Capital Estimation

The Risk Premium Approach to Measuring a Utility's Cost of Equity

Eugene F. Brigham, Dilip K. Shome, and Steve R. Vinson

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■ In the mid-1960s, Myron Gordon and others began applying the theory of finance to help estimate utilities' costs of capital. Previously, the standard approach in cost of equity studies was the "comparable earnings method," which involved selecting a sample of unregulated companies whose investment risk was judged to be comparable to that of the utility in question, calculating the average return on book equity (ROE) of these sample companies, and setting the utility's service rates at a level that would permit the utility to achieve the same ROE as comparable companies. This procedure has now been thoroughly discredited (see Robichek [15]), and it has been replaced by three market-oriented (as opposed to accounting-oriented) approaches: (i) the DCF method, (ii) the bond-yield-plus-risk-premium method, and (iii) the CAPM, which is a specific version of the generalized bond-yield-plus-risk-premium approach.

Our purpose in this paper is to discuss the risk-premium approach, including the market risk premium that is used in the CAPM. First, we critique the various procedures that have been used in the past to estimate risk premiums. Second, we present some data on estimated risk premiums since 1965. Third, we examine the relationship between equity risk premiums and the level of interest rates, because it is important, for purposes of estimating the cost of capital, to know just how stable the relationship between risk premiums and interest rates is over time. If stability exists, then one can estimate the cost of equity at any point in time as a function of interest rates as reported in *The Wall Street Journal*, the *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, or some similar source.[1] Fourth, while we do not discuss the CAPM directly, our analysis does have some important implications for selecting a market risk premium for use in that model. Our focus is on utilities, but the methodology is applicable to the estimation of the cost of

[1]For example, the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission's Staff recently proposed that a risk premium be estimated every two years and that, between estimation dates, the last-determined risk premium be added to the current yield on ten-year Treasury bonds to obtain an estimate of the cost of equity to an average utility (Docket RM 80-36). Subsequently, the FCC made a similar proposal ("Notice of Proposed Rulemaking," August 13, 1984, Docket No. 84-800). Obviously, the validity of such procedures depends on (i) the accuracy of the risk premium estimate and (ii) the stability of the relationship between risk premiums and interest rates. Both proposals are still under review.

equity for any publicly traded firm, and also for non-traded firms for which an appropriate risk class can be assessed, including divisions of publicly traded corporations.[2]

Alternative Procedures for Estimating Risk Premiums

In a review of both rate cases and the academic literature, we have identified three basic methods for estimating equity risk premiums: (i) the *ex post*, or historic, yield spread method; (ii) the survey method; and (iii) an *ex ante* yield spread method based on DCF analysis.[3] In this section, we briefly review these three methods.

Historic Risk Premiums

A number of researchers, most notably Ibbotson and Sinquefield [12], have calculated historic holding period returns on different securities and then estimated risk premiums as follows:

$$\text{Historic Risk Premium} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Average of the} \\ \text{annual returns on} \\ \text{a stock index for} \\ \text{a particular} \\ \text{past period} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \text{Average of the} \\ \text{annual returns on} \\ \text{a bond index for} \\ \text{the same} \\ \text{past period} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Ibbotson and Sinquefield (I&S) calculated both arithmetic and geometric average returns, but most of their risk-premium discussion was in terms of the geometric averages. Also, they used both corporate and Treasury bond indices, as well as a T-bill index, and they analyzed all possible holding periods since 1926. The I&S study has been employed in numerous rate cases in two ways: (i) directly, where the I&S historic risk premium is added to a company's bond yield to obtain an estimate of its cost of equity, and (ii) indirectly, where I&S data are used to estimate the market risk premium in CAPM studies.

There are both conceptual and measurement problems with using I&S data for purposes of estimating the cost of capital. Conceptually, there is no compelling reason to think that investors expect the same relative returns that were earned in the past. Indeed, evidence presented in the following sections indicates that relative expected returns should, and do, vary significantly over time. Empirically, the measured historic premium is sensitive both to the choice of estimation horizon and to the end points. These choices are essentially arbitrary, yet they can result in significant differences in the final outcome. These measurement problems are common to most forecasts based on time series data.

The Survey Approach

One obvious way to estimate equity risk premiums is to poll investors. Charles Benore [1], the senior utility analyst for Paine Webber Mitchell Hutchins, a leading institutional brokerage house, conducts such a survey of major institutional investors annually. His 1983 results are reported in Exhibit 1.

Exhibit 1. Results of Risk Premium Survey, 1983*

Assuming a double A, long-term utility bond currently yields 12½%, the common stock for the same company would be fairly priced relative to the bond if its expected return was as follows:

Total Return	Indicated Risk Premium (basis points)	Percent of Respondents
over 20½%	over 800	
20½%	800	
19½%	700	
18½%	600	10%
17½%	500	8%
16½%	400	29%
15½%	300	35%
14½%	200	16%
13½%	100	0%
under 13½%	under 100	1%
Weighted average	358	100%

*Benore's questionnaire included the first two columns, while his third column provided a space for the respondents to indicate which risk premium they thought applied. We summarized Benore's responses in the frequency distribution given in Column 3. Also, in his questionnaire each year, Benore adjusts the double A bond yield and the total returns (Column 1) to reflect current market conditions. Both the question above and the responses to it were taken from the survey conducted in April 1983.

[2]The FCC is particularly interested in risk-premium methodologies, because (i) only eighteen of the 1,400 telephone companies it regulates have publicly-traded stock, and hence offer the possibility of DCF analysis, and (ii) most of the publicly-traded telephone companies have both regulated and unregulated assets, so a corporate DCF cost might not be applicable to the regulated units of the companies.

[3]In rate cases, some witnesses also have calculated the differential between the yield to maturity (YTM) of a company's bonds and its concurrent ROE, and then called this differential a risk premium. In general, this procedure is unsound, because the YTM on a bond is a *future expected* return on the bond's *market value*, while the ROE is the *past realized* return on the stock's *book value*. Thus, comparing YTMs and ROEs is like comparing apples and oranges.

Benore's results, as measured by the average risk premiums, have varied over the years as follows:

Year	Average RP (basis points)
1978	491
1979	475
1980	423
1981	349
1982	275
1983	358

The survey approach is conceptually sound in that it attempts to measure investors' expectations regarding risk premiums, and the Benore data also seem to be carefully collected and processed. Therefore, the Benore studies do provide one useful basis for estimating risk premiums. However, as with most survey results, the possibility of biased responses and/or biased sampling always exists. For example, if the responding institutions are owners of utility stocks (and many of them are), and if the respondents think that the survey results might be used in a rate case, then they might bias upward their responses to help utilities obtain higher authorized returns. Also, Benore surveys large institutional investors, whereas a high percentage of utility stocks are owned by individuals rather than institutions, so there is a question as to whether his reported risk premiums are really based on the expectations of the "representative" investor. Finally, from a pragmatic standpoint, there is a question as to how to use the Benore data for utilities that are not rated AA. The Benore premiums can be applied as an add-on to the own-company bond yields of any given utility only if it can be assumed that the premiums are constant across bond rating classes. *A priori*, there is no reason to believe that the premiums will be constant.

DCF-Based *Ex Ante* Risk Premiums

In a number of studies, the DCF model has been used to estimate the *ex ante* market risk premium, RP_M. Here, one estimates the average expected future return on equity for a group of stocks, k_M, and then subtracts the concurrent risk-free rate, R_F, as proxied by the yield to maturity on either corporate or Treasury securities:[4]

$$RP_M = k_M - R_F. \quad (2)$$

Conceptually, this procedure is exactly like the I&S approach except that one makes direct estimates of future expected returns on stocks and bonds rather than assuming that investors expect future returns to mirror past returns.

The most difficult task, of course, is to obtain a valid estimate of k_M, the expected rate of return on the market. Several studies have attempted to estimate DCF risk premiums for the utility industry and for other stock market indices. Two of these are summarized next.

Vandell and Kester. In a recently published monograph, Vandell and Kester [18] estimated *ex ante* risk premiums for the period from 1944 to 1978. R_F was measured both by the yield on 90-day T-bills and by the yield on the Standard and Poor's AA Utility Bond Index. They measured k_M as the average expected return on the S&P's 500 Index, with the expected return on individual securities estimated as follows:

$$k_i = \left(\frac{D_1}{P_0}\right)_i + g_i, \quad (3)$$

where,

D_1 = dividend per share expected over the next twelve months,
P_0 = current stock price,
g = estimated long-term constant growth rate, and
i = the i^{th} stock.

To estimate g_i, Vandell and Kester developed fifteen forecasting models based on both exponential smoothing and trend-line forecasts of earnings and dividends, and they used historic data over several estimating horizons. Vandell and Kester themselves acknowledge that, like the Ibbotson-Sinquefield premiums, their analysis is subject to potential errors associated with trying to estimate expected future growth purely from past data. We shall have more to say about this point later.

[4]In this analysis, most people have used yields on long-term bonds rather than short-term money market instruments. It is recognized that long-term bonds, even Treasury bonds, are not risk free, so an RP_M based on these debt instruments is smaller than it would be if there were some better proxy to the long-term riskless rate. People have attempted to use the T-bill rate for R_F, but the T-bill rate embodies a different average inflation premium than stocks, and it is subject to random fluctuations caused by monetary policy, international currency flows, and other factors. Thus, many people believe that for cost of capital purposes, R_F should be based on long-term securities.

We did test to see how debt maturities would affect our calculated risk premiums. If a short-term rate such as the 30-day T-bill rate is used, measured risk premiums jump around widely and, so far as we could tell, randomly. The choice of a maturity in the 10- to 30-year range has little effect, as the yield curve is generally fairly flat in that range.

Malkiel. Malkiel [14] estimated equity risk premiums for the Dow Jones Industrials using the DCF model. Recognizing that the constant dividend growth assumption may not be valid, Malkiel used a nonconstant version of the DCF model. Also, rather than rely exclusively on historic data, he based his growth rates on Value Line's five-year earnings growth forecasts plus the assumption that each company's growth rate would, after an initial five-year period, move toward a long-run real national growth rate of four percent. He also used ten-year maturity government bonds as a proxy for the riskless rate. Malkiel reported that he tested the sensitivity of his results against a number of different types of growth rates, but, in his words, "The results are remarkably robust, and the estimated risk premiums are all very similar." Malkiel's is, to the best of our knowledge, the first risk-premium study that uses analysts' forecasts. A discussion of analysts' forecasts follows.

Security Analysts' Growth Forecasts

Ex ante DCF risk premium estimates can be based either on expected growth rates developed from time series data, such as Vandell and Kester used, or on analysts' forecasts, such as Malkiel used. Although there is nothing inherently wrong with time series-based growth rates, an increasing body of evidence suggests that primary reliance should be placed on analysts' growth rates. First, we note that the observed market price of a stock reflects the consensus view of investors regarding its future growth. Second, we know that most large brokerage houses, the larger institutional investors, and many investment advisory organizations employ security analysts who forecast future EPS and DPS, and, to the extent that investors rely on analysts' forecasts, the consensus of analysts' forecasts is embodied in market prices. Third, there have been literally dozens of academic research papers dealing with the accuracy of analysts' forecasts, as well as with the extent to which investors actually use them. For example, Cragg and Malkiel [7] and Brown and Rozeff [5] determined that security analysts' forecasts are more relevant in valuing common stocks and estimating the cost of capital than are forecasts based solely on historic time series. Stanley, Lewellen, and Schlarbaum [16] and Linke [13] investigated the importance of analysts' forecasts and recommendations to the investment decisions of individual and institutional investors. Both studies indicate that investors rely heavily on analysts' reports and incorporate analysts' forecast information in the formation of their expectations about stock returns. A representative listing of other work supporting the use of analysts' forecasts is included in the References section. Thus, evidence in the current literature indicates that (i) analysts' forecasts are superior to forecasts based solely on time series data, and (ii) investors do rely on analysts' forecasts. Accordingly, we based our cost of equity, and hence risk premium estimates, on analysts' forecast data.[5]

Risk Premium Estimates

For purposes of estimating the cost of capital using the risk premium approach, it is necessary either that the risk premiums be time-invariant or that there exists a predictable relationship between risk premiums and interest rates. If the premiums are constant over time, then the constant premium could be added to the prevailing interest rate. Alternatively, if there exists a stable relationship between risk premiums and interest rates, it could be used to predict the risk premium from the prevailing interest rate.

To test for stability, we obviously need to calculate risk premiums over a fairly long period of time. Prior to 1980, the only consistent set of data we could find came from Value Line, and, because of the work involved, we could develop risk premiums only once a year (on January 1). Beginning in 1980, however, we began collecting and analyzing Value Line data on a monthly basis, and in 1981 we added monthly estimates from Merrill Lynch and Salomon Brothers to our data base. Finally, in mid-1983, we expanded our analysis to include the IBES data.

Annual Data and Results, 1966–1984

Over the period 1966–1984, we used Value Line data to estimate risk premiums both for the electric utility industry and for industrial companies, using the companies included in the Dow Jones Industrial and Utility averages as representative of the two groups. Value Line makes a five-year growth rate forecast, but it also gives data from which one can develop a longer-term forecast. Since DCF theory calls for a truly long-term (infinite horizon) growth rate, we concluded that it was better to develop and use such a forecast than to

[5] Recently, a new type of service that summarizes the key data from most analysts' reports has become available. We are aware of two sources of such services, the Lynch, Jones, and Ryan's Institutional Brokers Estimate System (IBES) and Zack's Icarus Investment Service. IBES and the Icarus Service gather data from both buy-side and sell-side analysts and provide it to subscribers on a monthly basis in both a printed and a computer-readable format.

Exhibit 2. Estimated Annual Risk Premiums, Nonconstant (Value Line) Model, 1966–1984

January 1 of the Year Reported	Dow Jones Electrics k_{Avg}	R_F	RP	Dow Jones Industrials k_{Avg}	R_F	RP	(3) ÷ (6)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1966	8.11%	4.50%	3.61%	9.56%	4.50%	5.06%	0.71
1967	9.00%	4.76%	4.24%	11.57%	4.76%	6.81%	0.62
1968	9.68%	5.59%	4.09%	10.56%	5.59%	4.97%	0.82
1969	9.34%	5.88%	3.46%	10.96%	5.88%	5.08%	0.68
1970	11.04%	6.91%	4.13%	12.22%	6.91%	5.31%	0.78
1971	10.80%	6.28%	4.52%	11.23%	6.28%	4.95%	0.91
1972	10.53%	6.00%	4.53%	11.09%	6.00%	5.09%	0.89
1973	11.37%	5.96%	5.41%	11.47%	5.96%	5.51%	0.98
1974	13.85%	7.29%	6.56%	12.38%	7.29%	5.09%	1.29
1975	16.63%	7.91%	8.72%	14.83%	7.91%	6.92%	1.26
1976	13.97%	8.23%	5.74%	13.32%	8.23%	5.09%	1.13
1977	12.96%	7.30%	5.66%	13.63%	7.30%	6.33%	0.89
1978	13.42%	7.87%	5.55%	14.75%	7.87%	6.88%	0.81
1979	14.92%	8.99%	5.93%	15.50%	8.99%	6.51%	0.91
1980	16.39%	10.18%	6.21%	16.53%	10.18%	6.35%	0.98
1981	17.61%	11.99%	5.62%	17.37%	11.99%	5.38%	1.04
1982	17.70%	14.00%	3.70%	19.30%	14.00%	5.30%	0.70
1983	16.30%	10.66%	5.64%	16.53%	10.66%	5.87%	0.96
1984	16.03%	11.97%	4.06%	15.72%	11.97%	3.75%	1.08

use the five-year prediction.[6] Therefore, we obtained data as of January 1 from Value Line for each of the Dow Jones companies and then solved for k, the expected rate of return, in the following equation:

$$P_0 = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{D_t}{(1 + k)^t} + \left(\frac{D_n(1 + g_n)}{k - g_n}\right)\left(\frac{1}{1 + k}\right)^n. \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) is the standard nonconstant growth DCF model; P_0 is the current stock price; D_t represents the forecasted dividends during the nonconstant growth period; n is the years of nonconstant growth; D_n is the first constant growth dividend; and g_n is the constant, long-run growth rate after year n. Value Line provides D_t values for t = 1 and t = 4, and we interpolated to obtain D_2 and D_3. Value Line also gives estimates for ROE and for the retention rate (b) in the terminal year, n, so we can forecast the long-term growth rate as g_n = b(ROE). With all the values in Equation (4) specified except k, we can solve for k, which is the DCF rate of return that would result if the Value Line forecasts were met, and, hence, the DCF rate of return implied in the Value Line forecast.[7]

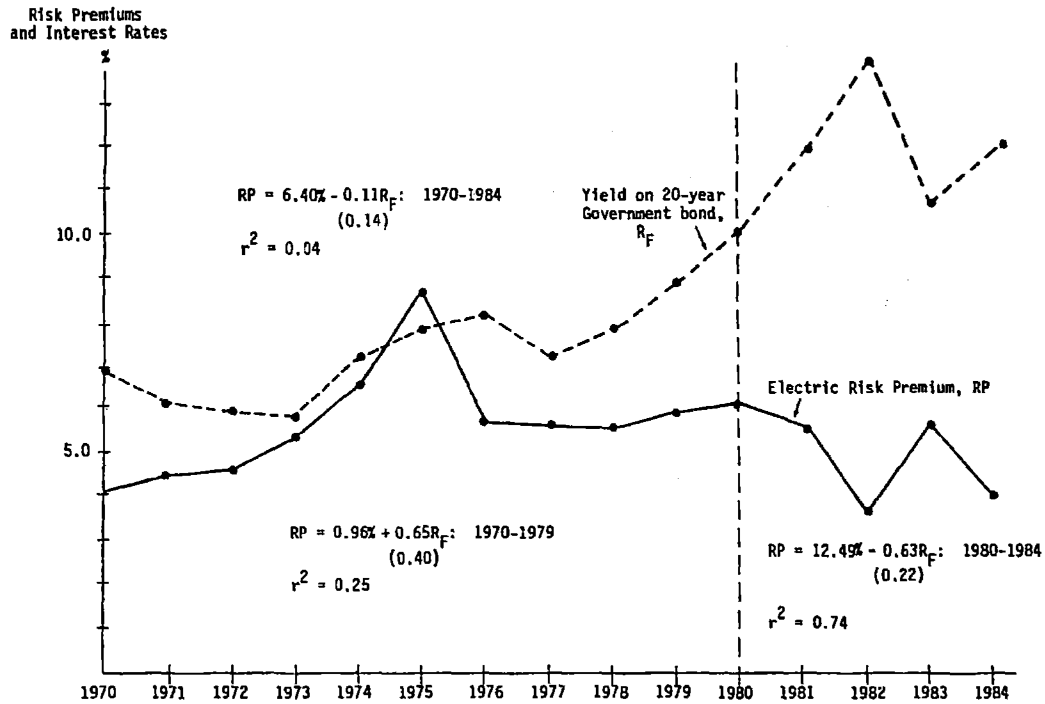
Having estimated a k value for each of the electric and industrial companies, we averaged them (using market-value weights) to obtain a k value for each group, after which we subtracted R_F (taken as the December 31 yield on twenty-year constant maturity Treasury bonds) to obtain the estimated risk premiums shown in Exhibit 2. The premiums for the electrics are plotted in Exhibit 3, along with interest rates. The following points are worthy of note:

1. Risk premiums fluctuate over time. As we shall see in the next section, fluctuations are even wider when measured on a monthly basis.
2. The last column of Exhibit 2 shows that risk premi-

[6] This is a debatable point. Cragg and Malkiel, as well as many practicing analysts, feel that most investors actually focus on five-year forecasts. Others, however, argue that five-year forecasts are too heavily influenced by base-year conditions and/or other nonpermanent conditions for use in the DCF model. We note (i) that most published forecasts do indeed cover five years, (ii) that such forecasts are typically "normalized" in some fashion to alleviate the base-year problem, and (iii) that for relatively stable companies like those in the Dow Jones averages, it generally does not matter greatly if one uses a normalized five-year or a longer-term forecast, because these companies meet the conditions of the constant-growth DCF model rather well.

[7] Value Line actually makes an explicit price forecast for each stock, and one could use this price, along with the forecasted dividends, to develop an expected rate of return. However, Value Line's forecasted stock price builds in a forecasted *change* in k. Therefore, the forecasted price is inappropriate for use in estimating current values of k.

Exhibit 3. Equity Risk Premiums for Electric Utilities and Yields on 20-Year Government Bonds, 1970–1984*



*Standard errors of the coefficients are shown in parentheses below the coefficients.

ums for the utilities increased relative to those for the industrials from the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s. Subsequently, the perceived riskiness of the two groups has, on average, been about the same.

3. Exhibit 3 shows that, from 1970 through 1979, utility risk premiums tended to have a positive association with interest rates: when interest rates rose, so did risk premiums, and vice versa. However, beginning in 1980, an inverse relationship appeared: rising interest rates led to declining risk premiums. We shall discuss this situation further in the next section.

Monthly Data and Results, 1980–1984

In early 1980, we began calculating risk premiums on a monthly basis. At that time, our only source of analysts' forecasts was Value Line, but beginning in 1981 we also obtained Merrill Lynch and Salomon Brothers' data, and then, in mid-1983, we obtained IBES data. Because our focus was on utilities, we restricted our monthly analysis to that group.

Our 1980–1984 monthly risk premium data, along with Treasury bond yields, are shown in Exhibits 4 and 5 and plotted in Exhibits 6, 7, and 8. Here are some comments on these Exhibits:

1. Risk premiums, like interest rates and stock prices, are volatile. Our data indicate that it would not be appropriate to estimate the cost of equity by adding the current cost of debt to a risk premium that had been estimated in the past. Current risk premiums should be matched with current interest rates.
2. Exhibit 6 confirms the 1980-1984 section of Exhibit 3 in that it shows a strong inverse relationship between interest rates and risk premiums; we shall discuss shortly why this relationship holds.
3. Exhibit 7 shows that while risk premiums based on Value Line, Merrill Lynch, and Salomon Brothers

Exhibit 4. Estimated Monthly Risk Premiums for Electric Utilities Using Analysts' Growth Forecasts, January 1980–June 1984

Beginning of Month	Value Line	Merrill Lynch	Salomon Brothers	Average Premiums	20-Year Treasury Bond Yield, Constant Maturity Series
Jan 1980	6.21%	NA	NA	6.21%	10.18%
Feb 1980	5.77%	NA	NA	5.77%	10.86%
Mar 1980	4.73%	NA	NA	4.73%	12.59%
Apr 1980	5.02%	NA	NA	5.02%	12.71%
May 1980	4.73%	NA	NA	4.73%	11.04%
Jun 1980	5.09%	NA	NA	5.09%	10.37%
Jul 1980	5.41%	NA	NA	5.41%	9.86%
Aug 1980	5.72%	NA	NA	5.72%	10.29%
Sep 1980	5.16%	NA	NA	5.16%	11.41%
Oct 1980	5.62%	NA	NA	5.62%	11.75%
Nov 1980	5.09%	NA	NA	5.09%	12.33%
Dec 1980	5.65%	NA	NA	5.65%	12.37%
Annual Avg.	5.35%			5.35%	11.31%
Jan 1981	5.62%	4.76%	5.63%	5.34%	11.99%
Feb 1981	4.82%	4.87%	5.16%	4.95%	12.48%
Mar 1981	4.70%	3.73%	4.97%	4.47%	13.10%
Apr 1981	4.24%	3.23%	4.52%	4.00%	13.11%
May 1981	3.54%	3.24%	4.24%	3.67%	13.51%
Jun 1981	3.57%	4.04%	4.27%	3.96%	13.39%
Jul 1981	3.61%	3.63%	4.16%	3.80%	13.32%
Aug 1981	3.17%	3.05%	3.04%	3.09%	14.23%
Sep 1981	2.11%	2.24%	2.35%	2.23%	14.99%
Oct 1981	2.83%	2.64%	3.24%	2.90%	14.93%
Nov 1981	2.08%	2.49%	3.03%	2.53%	15.27%
Dec 1981	3.72%	3.45%	4.24%	3.80%	13.12%
Annual Avg.	3.67%	3.45%	4.07%	3.73%	13.62%
Jan 1982	3.70%	3.37%	4.04%	3.70%	14.00%
Feb 1982	3.05%	3.37%	3.70%	3.37%	14.37%
Mar 1982	3.15%	3.28%	3.75%	3.39%	13.96%
Apr 1982	3.49%	3.61%	4.29%	3.80%	13.69%
May 1982	3.08%	4.25%	3.91%	3.75%	13.47%
Jun 1982	3.16%	4.51%	4.72%	4.13%	13.53%
Jul 1982	2.57%	4.21%	4.21%	3.66%	14.48%
Aug 1982	4.33%	4.83%	5.27%	4.81%	13.69%
Sep 1982	4.08%	5.14%	5.58%	4.93%	12.40%
Oct 1982	5.35%	5.24%	6.34%	5.64%	11.95%
Nov 1982	5.67%	5.95%	6.91%	6.18%	10.97%
Dec 1982	6.31%	6.71%	7.45%	6.82%	10.52%
Annual Avg.	4.00%	4.54%	5.01%	4.52%	13.09%
Jan 1983	5.64%	6.04%	6.81%	6.16%	10.66%
Feb 1983	4.68%	5.99%	6.10%	5.59%	11.01%
Mar 1983	4.99%	6.89%	6.43%	6.10%	10.71%
Apr 1983	4.75%	5.82%	6.31%	5.63%	10.84%
May 1983	4.50%	6.41%	6.24%	5.72%	10.57%
Jun 1983	4.29%	5.21%	6.16%	5.22%	10.90%
Jul 1983	4.78%	5.72%	6.42%	5.64%	11.12%
Aug 1983	3.89%	4.74%	5.41%	4.68%	11.78%
Sep 1983	4.07%	4.90%	5.57%	4.85%	11.71%
Oct 1983	3.79%	4.64%	5.38%	4.60%	11.64%
Nov 1983	2.84%	3.77%	4.46%	3.69%	11.90%
Dec 1983	3.36%	4.27%	5.00%	4.21%	11.83%
Annual Avg.	4.30%	5.37%	5.86%	5.17%	11.22%
Jan 1984	4.06%	5.04%	5.65%	4.92%	11.97%
Feb 1984	4.25%	5.37%	5.96%	5.19%	11.76%
Mar 1984	4.73%	6.05%	6.38%	5.72%	12.12%
Apr 1984	4.78%	5.33%	6.32%	5.48%	12.51%
May 1984	4.36%	5.30%	6.42%	5.36%	12.78%
Jun 1984	3.54%	4.00%	5.63%	4.39%	13.60%

Exhibit 5. Monthly Risk Premiums Based on IBES Data

Beginning of Month	Average of Merrill Lynch, Salomon Brothers, and Value Line Premiums for Dow Jones Electrics	IBES Premiums for Dow Jones Electrics	IBES Premiums for Entire Electric Industry
Aug 1983	4.68%	4.10%	4.16%
Sep 1983	4.85%	4.43%	4.27%
Oct 1983	4.60%	4.31%	3.90%
Nov 1983	3.69%	3.36%	3.36%
Dec 1983	4.21%	3.86%	3.54%
Jan 1984	4.92%	4.68%	4.18%
Feb 1984	5.19%	5.00%	4.36%
Mar 1984	5.72%	5.35%	4.45%
Apr 1984	5.48%	5.33%	4.23%
May 1984	5.36%	5.26%	4.30%
Jun 1984	4.39%	4.47%	3.40%
Average Premiums	4.83%	4.56%	4.01%

Exhibit 6. Utility Risk Premiums and Interest Rates, 1980–1984

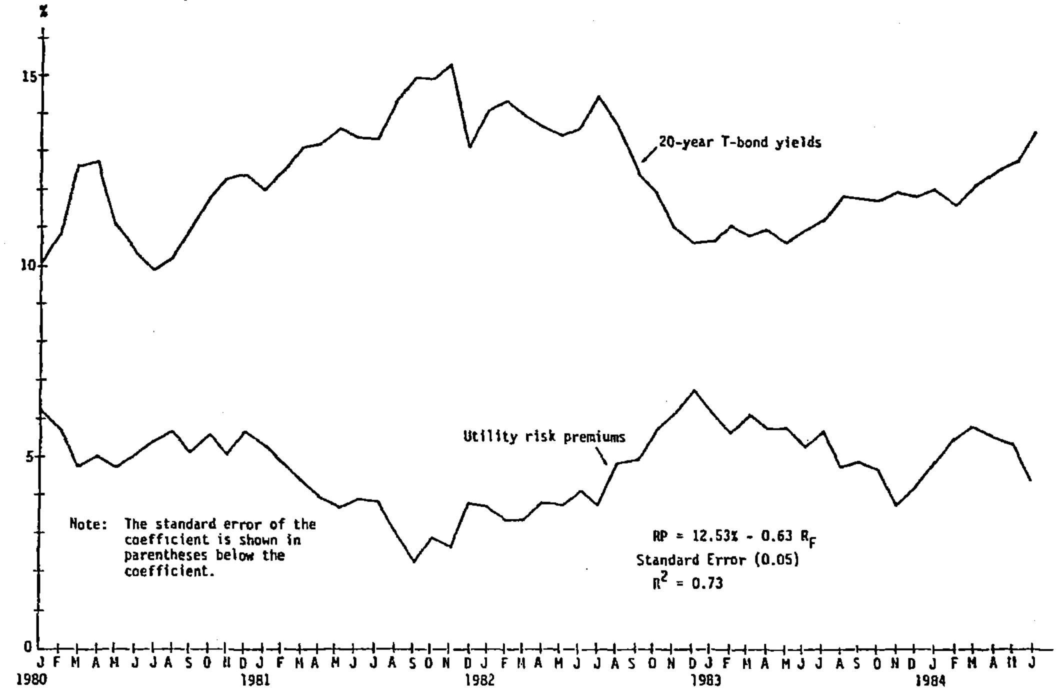


Exhibit 7. Monthly Risk Premiums, Electric Utilities, 1981–1984 (to Date)

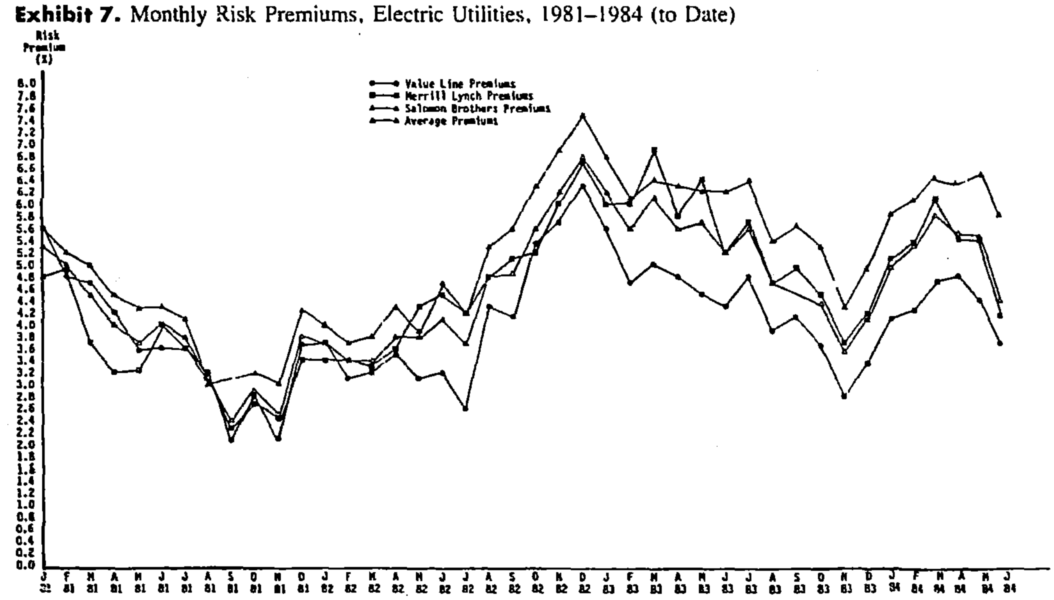
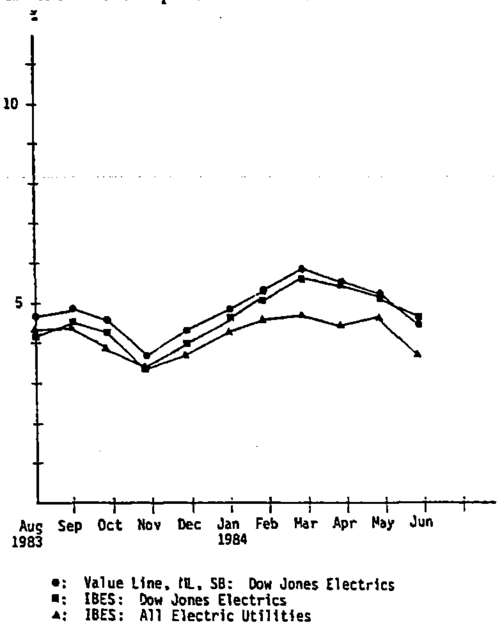


Exhibit 8. Comparative Risk Premium Data



do differ, the differences are not large given the nature of the estimates, and the premiums follow one another closely over time. Since all of the analysts are examining essentially the same data and since utility companies are not competitive with one another, and hence have relatively few secrets, the similarity among the analysts' forecasts is not surprising.

4. The IBES data, presented in Exhibit 5 and plotted in Exhibit 8, contain too few observations to enable us to draw strong conclusions, but (i) the Dow Jones Electrics risk premiums based on our three-analyst data have averaged 27 basis points above premiums based on the larger group of analysts surveyed by IBES and (ii) the premiums on the 11 Dow Jones Electrics have averaged 54 basis points higher than premiums for the entire utility industry followed by IBES. Given the variability in the data, we are, at this point, inclined to attribute these differences to random fluctuations, but as more data become available, it may turn out that the differences are statistically significant. In particular, the 11 electric utilities included in the Dow Jones Utility Index all have large nuclear investments, and this may cause them to be regarded as riskier than the industry average, which includes both nuclear and non-nuclear companies.

Tests of the Reasonableness of the Risk Premium Estimates

So far our claims to the reasonableness of our risk-premium estimates have been based on the reasonableness of our variable measures, particularly the measures of expected dividend growth rates. Essentially, we have argued that since there is strong evidence in the literature in support of analysts' forecasts, risk premiums based on these forecasts are reasonable. In the spirit of positive economics, however, it is also important to demonstrate the reasonableness of our results more directly.

It is theoretically possible to test for the validity of the risk-premium estimates in a CAPM framework. In a cross-sectional estimate of the CAPM equation,

$$(k - R_F)_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1\beta_i + u_i, \qquad (5)$$

we would expect

$$\hat{\alpha}_0 = 0 \text{ and } \hat{\alpha}_1 = k_M - R_F = \text{Market risk premium.}$$

This test, of course, would be a joint test of both the CAPM and the reasonableness of our risk-premium estimates. There is a great deal of evidence that questions the empirical validity of the CAPM, especially when applied to regulated utilities. Under these conditions, it is obvious that no unambiguous conclusion can be drawn regarding the efficacy of the premium estimates from such a test.[8]

A simpler and less ambiguous test is to show that the risk premiums are higher for lower rated firms than for higher rated firms. Using 1984 data, we classified the

[8] We carried out the test on a monthly basis for 1984 and found positive but statistically insignificant coefficients. A typical result (for April 1984) follows:

$$(k - R_F)_i = \underset{(0.91)}{3.1675} + \underset{(1.44)}{1.8031}\ \beta_i.$$

The figures in parentheses are standard errors. Utility risk premiums do increase with betas, but the intercept term is not zero as the CAPM would predict, and α_1 is both less than the predicted value and not statistically significant. Again, the observation that the coefficients do not conform to CAPM predictions could be as much a problem with CAPM specification for utilities as with the risk premium estimates.

A similar test was carried out by Friend, Westerfield, and Granito [9]. They tested the CAPM using expectational (survey) data rather than *ex post* holding period returns. They actually found their coefficient of β_i to be negative in all their cross-sectional tests.

Exhibit 9. Relationship between Risk Premiums and Bond Ratings, 1984*

Month	Aaa/AA	AA	Aa/A	A	A/BBB	BBB	Below BBB
January†	—	2.61%	3.06%	3.70%	5.07%	4.90%	9.45%
February	2.98%	3.17%	3.36%	4.03%	5.26%	5.14%	7.97%
March	2.34%	3.46%	3.29%	4.06%	5.43%	5.02%	8.28%
April	2.37%	3.03%	3.29%	3.88%	5.29%	4.97%	6.96%
May	2.00%	2.48%	3.42%	3.72%	4.72%	6.64%	8.81%
June	0.72%	2.17%	2.46%	3.16%	3.76%	5.00%	5.58%
Average	2.08%	2.82%	3.15%	3.76%	4.92%	5.28%	7.84%

*The risk premiums are based on IBES data for the electric utilities followed by both IBES and Salomon Brothers. The number of electric utilities followed by both firms varies from month to month. For the period between January and June 1984, the number of electrics followed by both firms ranged from 96 to 99 utilities.
†In January, there were no Aaa/AA companies. Subsequently, four utilities were upgraded to Aaa/AA.

utility industry into risk groups based on bond ratings. For each rating group, we estimated the average risk premium. The results, presented in Exhibit 9, clearly show that the lower the bond rating, the higher the risk premiums. Our premium estimates therefore would appear to pass this simple test of reasonableness.

Risk Premiums and Interest Rates

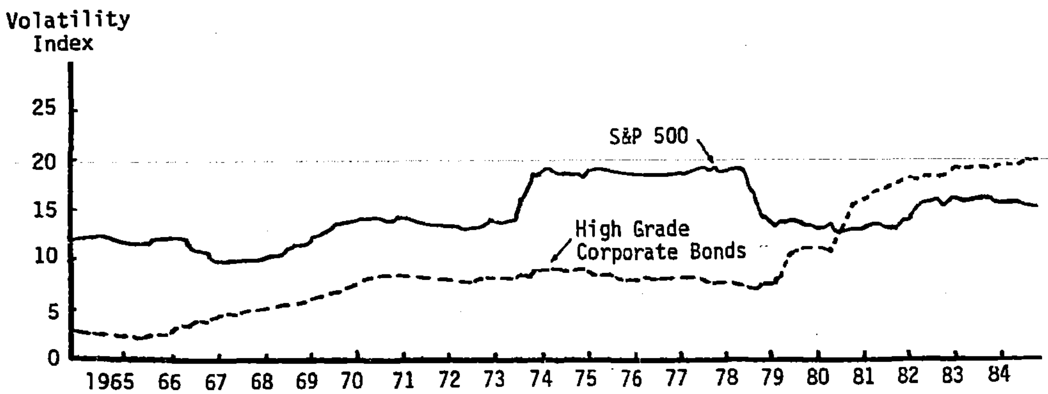
Traditionally, stocks have been regarded as being riskier than bonds because bondholders have a prior claim on earnings and assets. That is, stockholders stand at the end of the line and receive income and/or assets only after the claims of bondholders have been satisfied. However, if interest rates fluctuate, then the holders of long-term bonds can suffer losses (either realized or in an opportunity cost sense) even though they receive all contractually due payments. Therefore, if investors' worries about "interest rate risk" versus "earning power risk" vary over time, then perceived risk differentials between stocks and bonds, and hence risk premiums, will also vary.

Any number of events could occur to cause the perceived riskiness of stocks versus bonds to change, but probably the most pervasive factor, over the 1966–1984 period, is related to inflation. Inflationary expectations are, of course, reflected in interest rates. Therefore, one might expect to find a relationship between risk premiums and interest rates. As we noted in our discussion of Exhibit 3, risk premiums were positively correlated with interest rates from 1966 through 1979, but, beginning in 1980, the relationship turned negative. A possible explanation for this change is given next.

1966–1979 Period. During this period, inflation heated up, fuel prices soared, environmental problems surfaced, and demand for electricity slowed even as expensive new generating units were nearing completion. These cost increases required offsetting rate hikes to maintain profit levels. However, political pressure, combined with administrative procedures that were not designed to deal with a volatile economic environment, led to long periods of "regulatory lag" that caused utilities' earned ROEs to decline in absolute terms and to fall far below the cost of equity. These factors combined to cause utility stockholders to experience huge losses: S&P's Electric Index dropped from a mid-1960s high of 60.90 to a mid-1970s low of 20.41, a decrease of 66.5%. Industrial stocks also suffered losses during this period, but, on average, they were only one third as severe as the utilities' losses. Similarly, investors in long-term bonds had losses, but bond losses were less than half those of utility stocks. Note also that, during this period, (i) bond investors were able to reinvest coupons and maturity payments at rising rates, whereas the earned returns on equity did not rise, and (ii) utilities were providing a rising share of their operating income to debtholders versus stockholders (interest expense/book value of debt was rising, while net income/common equity was declining). This led to a widespread belief that utility commissions would provide enough revenues to keep utilities from going bankrupt (barring a disaster), and hence to protect the bondholders, but that they would not necessarily provide enough revenues either to permit the expected rate of dividend growth to occur or, perhaps, even to allow the dividend to be maintained.

Because of these experiences, investors came to regard inflation as having a more negative effect on utility stocks than on bonds. Therefore, when fears of inflation increased, utilities' measured risk premiums

Exhibit 10. Relative Volatility* of Stocks and Bonds, 1965–1984



*Volatility is measured as the standard deviation of total returns over the last 5 years.
Source: Merrill Lynch, *Quantitative Analysis*, May/June 1984.

also increased. A regression over the period 1966–1979, using our Exhibit 2 data, produced this result:

$$RP = 0.30\% + \underset{(0.22)}{0.73}\, R_F; \qquad r^2 = 0.48.$$

This indicates that a one percentage point increase in the Treasury bond rate produced, on average, a 0.73 percentage point increase in the risk premium, and hence a 1.00 + 0.73 = 1.73 percentage point increase in the cost of equity for utilities.

1980–1984 Period. The situation changed dramatically in 1980 and thereafter. Except for a few companies with nuclear construction problems, the utilities' financial situations stabilized in the early 1980s, and then improved significantly from 1982 to 1984. Both the companies and their regulators were learning to live with inflation; many construction programs were completed; regulatory lags were shortened; and in general the situation was much better for utility equity investors. In the meantime, over most of the 1980–1984 period, interest rates and bond prices fluctuated violently, both in an absolute sense and relative to common stocks. Exhibit 10 shows the volatility of corporate bonds very clearly. Over most of the eighteen-year period, stock returns were much more volatile than returns on bonds. However, that situation changed in October 1979, when the Fed began to focus on the money supply rather than on interest rates.[9]

In the 1980–1984 period, an increase in inflationary expectations has had a more adverse effect on bonds than on utility stocks. If the expected rate of inflation increases, then interest rates *will increase* and bond prices *will fall*. Thus, uncertainty about inflation translates directly into risk in the bond markets. The effect of inflation on stocks, including utility stocks, is less clear. If inflation increases, then utilities should, in theory, be able to obtain rate increases that would offset increases in operating costs and also compensate for the higher cost of equity. Thus, with "proper" regulation, utility stocks would provide a better hedge against unanticipated inflation than would bonds. This hedge did not work at all well during the 1966–1979 period, because inflation-induced increases in operating and capital costs were not offset by timely rate increases. However, as noted earlier, both the utilities and their regulators seem to have learned to live better with inflation during the 1980s.

Since inflation is today regarded as a major investment risk, and since utility stocks now seem to provide a better hedge against unanticipated inflation than do

[9]Because the standard deviations in Exhibit 10 are based on the last five years of data, even if bond returns stabilize, as they did beginning in 1982, their reported volatility will remain high for several more years. Thus, Exhibit 10 gives a rough indication of the current relative riskiness of stocks versus bonds, but the measure is by no means precise or necessarily indicative of future expectations.

bonds, the interest-rate risk inherent in bonds offsets, to a greater extent than was true earlier, the higher operating risk that is inherent in equities. Therefore, when inflationary fears rise, the perceived riskiness of bonds rises, helping to push up interest rates. However, since investors are today less concerned about inflation's impact on utility stocks than on bonds, the utilities' cost of equity does not rise as much as that of debt, so the observed risk premium tends to fall.

For the 1980–1984 period, we found the following relationship (see Exhibit 6):

$$RP = 12.53\% - \underset{(0.05)}{0.63}\, R_F; \qquad r^2 = 0.73.$$

Thus, a one percentage point increase in the T-bond rate, on average, caused the risk premium to fall by 0.63%, and hence it led to a $1.00 - 0.63 = 0.37$ percentage point increase in the cost of equity to an average utility. This contrasts sharply with the pre-1980 period, when a one percentage point increase in interest rates led, on average, to a 1.73 percentage point increase in the cost of equity.

Summary and Implications

We began by reviewing a number of earlier studies. From them, we concluded that, for cost of capital estimation purposes, risk premiums must be based on expectations, not on past realized holding period returns. Next, we noted that expectational risk premiums may be estimated either from surveys, such as the ones Charles Benore has conducted, or by use of DCF techniques. Further, we found that, although growth rates for use in the DCF model can be either developed from time-series data or obtained from security analysts, analysts' growth forecasts are more reflective of investors' views, and, hence, in our opinion are preferable for use in risk-premium studies.

Using analysts' growth rates and the DCF model, we estimated risk premiums over several different periods. From 1966 to 1984, risk premiums for both electric utilities and industrial stocks varied widely from year to year. Also, during the first half of the period, the utilities had smaller risk premiums than the industrials, but after the mid-1970s, the risk premiums for the two groups were, on average, about equal.

The effects of changing interest rates on risk premiums shifted dramatically in 1980, at least for the utilities. From 1965 through 1979, inflation generally had a more severe adverse effect on utility stocks than on bonds, and, as a result, an increase in inflationary expectations, as reflected in interest rates, caused an increase in equity risk premiums. However, in 1980 and thereafter, rising inflation and interest rates increased the perceived riskiness of bonds more than that of utility equities, so the relationship between interest rates and utility risk premiums shifted from positive to negative. Earlier, a 1.00 percentage point increase in interest rates had led, on average, to a 1.73% increase in the utilities' cost of equity, but after 1980 a 1.00 percentage point increase in the cost of debt was associated with an increase of only 0.37% in the cost of equity.

Our study also has implications for the use of the CAPM to estimate the cost of equity for utilities. The CAPM studies that we have seen typically use either Ibbotson-Sinquefield or similar historic holding period returns as the basis for estimating the market risk premium. Such usage implicitly assumes (i) that *ex post* returns data can be used to proxy *ex ante* expectations and (ii) that the market risk premium is relatively stable over time. Our analysis suggests that neither of these assumptions is correct; at least for utility stocks, *ex post* returns data do not appear to be reflective of *ex ante* expectations, and risk premiums are volatile, not stable.

Unstable risk premiums also make us question the FERC and FCC proposals to estimate a risk premium for the utilities every two years and then to add this premium to a current Treasury bond rate to determine a utility's cost of equity. Administratively, this proposal would be easy to handle, but risk premiums are simply too volatile to be left in place for two years.

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