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Evaluating the specification errors of asset pricing models[☆]

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This paper evaluates the specification errors of several empirical asset pricing models that have been developed as potential improvements on the CAPM. We use the methodology of Hansen and Jagannathan (J. Finance 51 (1997) 3), and the test assets are the 25 Fama-French (J. Financial Economics 52 (1997) 557) equity portfolios sorted on size and book-to-market ratio, and the Treasury bill. We allow the parameters of each model's pricing kernel to change with the business cycle. While we cannot reject correct pricing for Campbell's (J. Political Economics 104 (1996) 298) model, statistics indicate that the parameters may not be stable. A robustness exercise also indicates that none of the models correct price returns have scaled by the term premium. © 2001 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, financial economists investigated the pricing implications of the capital asset pricing model (CAPM) developed by Sharpe (1964) and Lintner (1965). The well-known prediction of the CAPM is that the expected excess return on an asset equals the covariance of the return on the asset with the return on the market portfolio times the market price of risk. This price is the ratio of the expected excess return on the market portfolio to the variance of the return on the market portfolio. The expected return prediction of the CAPM can equivalently be stated as the beta of the asset times the expected excess return on the market portfolio, where the beta is the covariance of the asset's return with the return on the market portfolio divided by the variance of the market return.

As empirical research began to uncover a number of expected-return anomalies, the CAPM could not explain, Roll (1977) argued that the model was not testable. Because investors and firms assessing their costs of capital cannot know the determinants of expected returns, empirical research concluded, but it is necessarily conditioned under the recognition that the essential role is a joint hypothesis on the model and the choice of the market portfolio.

The inability of the CAPM to explain the cross-section of asset returns led to the development of a number of alternative empirical asset pricing models. The diversity of these models and the fact that they have been evaluated on a variety of data sets pose serious difficulties for someone who is trying to understand and if any of these models is a reasonable replacement for the CAPM. The purpose of this paper is to evaluate and compare a number of these models on a common data set using an appropriate methodology.

Part of our empirical analysis uses the methodology of Hansen and Jagannathan (1997), who develop a distance metric called the HJ-distance. Hansen and Jagannathan demonstrate how to measure the distance between a return pricing kernel (stochastic discount factor) that prices all assets, and the implied pricing kernel produced by an asset pricing model. The distance between these two random variables is calculated in the usual way as the square root of the expected value of the squared difference between the two variables. HJ-distance can also be interpreted as the normalized maximum pricing error of the model for portfolios formed from the set of assets. Thus, if the model is correct, the HJ-distance is zero, and there are no pricing errors. Glasserman and Jin (1998) provide an alternative way of comparing models of stochastic discount factors (SDF) by examining the physical probability measures of asset

the Sharpe ratio predicted by the model and the true Sharpe ratio. Consequentially, estimation of HJ-dispersion also provides the maximum expected return error of the model by assuming the interest rates as a particular standard deviation.

The models examine only from the development of the literature. Even before the CAPM anomalies began to accumulate, theorists such as Meron (1973) noted that the CAPM is a static model, and the developed intertemporal models in which covariances of returns in the state variables other than the market return could influence expected returns if the consumption and interest rate opportunities of investors are over time. Breeden (1979) developed a Consumption CAPM (CCAPM) by demonstrating that an asset's risk premium depends on the covariance of the asset's return with aggregate consumption in the continuous time dynamic optimization models. Hansen and Singleton (1982) developed an empirical test of the CCAPM in discrete time by using the Euler equation of the interest rate's dynamic optimization problem, in which an expected return depends on the covariance of the return with the marginal utility of consumption.

The empirical failure of the CCAPM and the theoretical appeal of the Meron logic led Campbell (1993, 1996) to develop a dynamic asset pricing model in which an expected return depends on the covariances of the return with the market portfolio and with the innovation in the present discounted value of future expected market returns. In the Campbell model, anything that forecasts market returns becomes a risk factor for assets.

Jagannathan and Wang (1996) noted that it is possible for the CAPM to hold as a conditional model of expected returns in a conditional basis, but the unconditional model would be more complicated since basis could be over time. They developed an empirical model of this beta-premium sensitivity by taking a stand on the nature of the predictability of market returns.

Cochrane (1996) responded to the failure of the CCAPM by noting that the production side of the economy also must satisfy dynamic Euler equations. This logic led him to develop the implications of a production-based asset pricing model in which covariances of assets returns with macroeconomic measures of interest rates are important risk factors.

Finally, the empirical failure of the CAPM and the theoretical appeal of multi-factor models led Fama and French (1992, 1993, 1995, 1996) to develop a three-factor model. It is fair to say that his new model, or some extended version of it, is now the workhorse for risk adjustments in academic circles.

Although the estimation of the parameters associated with the measurement of HJ-dispersion solves a generalized method of moments (GMM) problem, it has a minimum quadratic form based on the average pricing errors from the basic assets, it is not the optimal GMM of Hansen (1982). We also report results from optimal GMM tests of the models, and the general and similar inference about the validity of the models as in the HJ-dispersion problems. Neither of

these approaches directly minimise the pricing errors of the basic assets which is equivalent to satisfying an identifying condition in GMM estimation. While such estimation is popular and satisfies the economist's desire for small errors, inference about the validity of the models is affected severely by the increase in the standard errors associated with this approach. Consequently, we do not report these results.

Because there is considerable evidence that expected returns change over time, we allow for time-varying prices of risks. We do this by allowing the parameters of the models to change with the business cycle. We measure the business cycle in a series. One uses the Hodrick and Prescott (1997) filter applied to either industrial production for monthly models or real GNP for quarterly models. The second approach for quarterly models uses the consumption-real measure developed by Leamer and Ludvigson (2001a, b). Also, because Lohrman (1997) and Daniel and Tieman (1997) argue that return characteristics are different in January than on the side of January, we use a January dummy variable to allow the parameters of the models to differ across this month and the other months.

Both HJ-dispersion and optimal GMM assume that the parameters of the model are stable over time. If a model is misspecified, because its parameters are not stable, it may nevertheless pass the tests of HJ-dispersion equality, but it would not predict well out-of-sample. This situation can characterise both conditional and unconditional models. Ghoshal (1998) finds that using conditioning variables to improve asset pricing models may actually worsen their performance out-of-sample because of parameter instability. We therefore follow Ghoshal who uses the splines developed by Andrews (1993) to investigate instability in parameters.

The common returns that require each of the models to price are the returns on the 25 portfolios constructed by Fama and French (1993) in which firms are sorted by the market value of their equity (size) and the book-to-market ratio. We use returns in excess of the Treasury bill return, and we also require the models to price the Treasury zero coupon maturity 4-month return. The economic aspects of the paper including the derivations of HJ-dispersion, the use of HJ-dispersion equality, and the interpretation of HJ-dispersion as the maximum difference between the Sharpe ratio of the model and the real Sharpe ratio. Section 3 discusses the data and the parameter estimation of the

different models. Section 4 contains the empirical results. Section 5 provides concluding remarks.

2. The stochastic discount factor

2.1. Motivation

Assume we have basic assets to be priced. It is well known that in the absence of arbitrage opportunities there exists a set M of stochastic pricing kernels which price every asset correctly. That is,

$$E(q_{t+1}, s_{t+1}) = 1, \quad \forall s_{t+1} > 0, \quad \forall q_{t+1} \in M_{t+1}, \quad (1)$$

where q_{t+1} is the stochastic pricing kernel at time $t+1$, M_{t+1} is the set of correct pricing kernels, s_{t+1} is the return for portfolio s at time $t+1$, and the price for return s_{t+1} at time t is 1. If s_{t+1} is a gross return for a portfolio, then $s_{t+1} = 1$; if s_{t+1} is an excess return for a portfolio, then $s_{t+1} = 0$. The conditional expectation in Eq. (1) is based on the information set \mathcal{F}_t , denoted E_t . Because of the iterated expectations, the unconditional version of Eq. (1) is

$$E(q_{t+1}, s_{t+1}) = 1, \quad \forall s_{t+1} > 0, \quad \forall q_{t+1} \in M_{t+1}. \quad (2)$$

We use Eq. (2) to estimate and test the various asset-pricing models.

As Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) note, an asset pricing model provides a pricing kernel q_{t+1} . If the model is true, $q_{t+1} \in M_{t+1}$. We will examine models in which the pricing kernel is a linear function of a constant and a vector of variable factors, F_{t+1} . Define $F'_{t+1} = [1, F'_{t+1}]$, and let the vector of parameters be $\beta' = [\beta_0, \beta_1]$. Then the pricing kernel is

$$q_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1' F_{t+1}, \quad (3)$$

where F_{t+1} is the 1×1 factor vector, and β_1 is the 1×1 coefficient vector. Nonzero elements of β_1 indicate the importance of a factor as a determinant of the pricing kernel. For ease of presentation, we drop the time subscript when it is not necessary for clarity of presentation.

Cochrane (1996) notes that if the model is true, Eq. (2) holds for all assets in which s_{t+1} is based on F_{t+1} . Then, if β_1 is the 1×1 vector of β_1 's, the pricing model has an equivalent representation in terms of market returns and prices of risks

$$E(q_{t+1}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1' \Lambda, \quad (4)$$

where $\beta_0 = 1/E(q_{t+1})$, $\beta_1 = \text{cov}(q_{t+1}, F_{t+1})^{-1} \text{cov}(q_{t+1}, F_{t+1})$, and $\Lambda = -\beta_0 \text{cov}(q_{t+1}, F_{t+1})$.

In Eq. (4), β_0 is the unconditional risk-free rate or the zero-beta rate, the β_1 's

determine whether the factor significance influences the expected returns on a particular set of portfolios, we must assess whether the corresponding A is significant different from zero. Notice $A = 0$ does not mean $\beta_1 = 0$ and vice versa. Only when $\sigma v(\cdot, \cdot)$ is diagonal are the two statements equivalent. The derivations and proofs of these statements can be found in Cochrane (1996).

One must be clear in discussing the prices of factor risks whether it is a risk or covariance risk. Campbell (1996), for example, uses the covariance decomposition of Eq. (2) to write

$$E(\cdot) = \beta^0 - \beta^0 \sigma v(\cdot, \cdot). \quad (5)$$

Based on the definition of β_{+1} for β_{+1} in Eq. (5), one can write

$$E(\cdot) = \beta^0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma v(\cdot, \cdot), \quad (6)$$

where the price of the covariance risk is $\beta^0 = -\beta^0 \beta_1$. Since β^0 is not different from one, we do not report statistics for β^0 .

2.2. HJ-distance

Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) note that when the asset pricing model is false, $\beta \notin M$, and there is a strict positive distance between β and M . Hansen and Jagannathan define the distance, which we call HJ-distance, as

$$\delta = \min_{\beta \in L^2} \|\beta - \beta^*\|, \quad \text{where } E(\beta^*) = \beta^*, \quad (7)$$

and the measure of distance is the usual norm, $\|\beta\| = \sqrt{E(\beta^2)}$.¹ The problem defined in Eq. (7) can be rewritten as the following Lagrangian minimization problem

$$\delta^2 = \min_{\beta \in L^2} \sup_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}} \{E(\beta - \beta^*)^2 + 2\lambda[E(\beta) - \beta^*]\}. \quad (8)$$

The value of δ is the minimum distance from the pricing portfolio of return pricing kernels M . Let $\tilde{\beta}$ and $\tilde{\lambda}$ be the solution of Eq. (8). One can think of $\tilde{\beta}$ as the minimal adjustment to make a return pricing kernel. Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) solve Eq. (8) to find

$$\tilde{\beta} = \tilde{\lambda}' \beta^*, \quad (9)$$

where

$$\tilde{\lambda} = E(\beta^* \beta^*)^{-1} E(\beta^* \beta^*). \quad (10)$$

¹Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) also consider a distance measure in which it is required to be strict positive. If the problem is solved in which the constraint and $\beta_{+1} > 0$ for all β , the two solutions coincide. In their empirical analysis, Hansen and Jagannathan find this additional restriction does not make a big difference.

Thus, the HJ-distance is

$$\delta = \| - \tilde{\lambda} \| = \|\tilde{\lambda}'\| = [\tilde{\lambda}'E(-')\tilde{\lambda}]^{1/2}. \quad (11)$$

Substituting for the value of $\tilde{\lambda}$ from Eq.-(10) gives

$$\delta = [E(- -)'E(-')^{-1}E(- -)]^{1/2}. \quad (12)$$

By solving the conjugate problem of Eq.-(8), Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) also provide an important alternative interpretation of δ . It is the maximum pricing error for the set of portfolios based on the basic asset prices with the norm of the portfolio return equal to one. We follow Campbell and Cochrane (2000) in interpreting the return errors of the models using his logic.

Consider the return on a portfolio of the basic assets, θ' . The expected return for this portfolio when priced with $\tilde{\lambda}$ is found from Eq.-(5) to be

$$E(\theta') = \theta'\theta - \theta'ov(\tilde{\lambda}, \theta'). \quad (13)$$

Let $E(\theta')$ denote the expected value of the portfolio return predicted by the pricing process. When $E(-) = E(\tilde{\lambda}) = (-\theta)^{-1}$, we can write

$$E(\theta') = \theta'\theta - \theta'ov(-\tilde{\lambda}, \theta'). \quad (14)$$

By substituting Eq.-(14) from Eq.-(13) and using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we have

$$|E(\theta') - E(\theta')| = |\theta'ov(-\tilde{\lambda}, \theta')| \leq \theta'\sigma(-\tilde{\lambda})\sigma(\theta'), \quad (15)$$

where $\sigma(-\tilde{\lambda})$ denotes the standard deviation of $\tilde{\lambda}$. The inequality in Eq.-(15) holds as an equality when the portfolio return is perfectly correlated with $-\tilde{\lambda}$. Recall from Eq.-(9) that $\tilde{\lambda}' = -\tilde{\lambda}$, and $\delta = \sigma(-\tilde{\lambda})$ when $E(-) = E(\tilde{\lambda})$. Thus, the portfolio with shares $\theta = \tilde{\lambda}/\delta$ is the maximally mispriced portfolio with norm equal to one. Substituting these results in Eq.-(15) and recognizing that $E(\lambda') = 0$ gives

$$\frac{|E(\lambda')|}{\sigma(\lambda')} = \delta. \quad (16)$$

The left-hand side of Eq.-(16) is the maximum absolute pricing error per unit of standard deviation, or the maximum mispriced Sharpe ratio. Campbell and Cochrane (2000) exploit this idea to evaluate and announce expected return errors of false models by multiplying δ by an announced standard deviation of 20%. We report this type of model return error below.

2.3. *E o o* ♦ ♦

Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) note that $\hat{\lambda}$, the estimator of $\tilde{\lambda}$, can be chosen to minimize δ . To see the relation of this problem to a standard generalized

method of moments (GMM) problem, define the pricing error vector $g = E(\epsilon - \beta'F)$, and its sample counterpart

$$g(\beta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\epsilon_i - \beta'F_i), \quad (17)$$

and let \hat{g} be a sample estimate of $E(\epsilon - \beta'F)^{-1}$. Then, by squaring Eq. (12), $\hat{\sigma}^2$ can be chosen as

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \arg \min \delta^2 = \arg \min g'(\beta) \hat{g}(\beta). \quad (18)$$

While Eq. (18) is a standard GMM problem, it is not the optimal GMM of Hansen (1982) which sets as the weighting matrix, $W^* = V^{-1}$, where V is a consistent estimator of $V \equiv [\text{var}(g)]$. Hansen demonstrates that W^* is optimal in the sense that the estimated parameters have the smallest asymptotic covariance.

In general, the optimal weighting matrix assigns big weights to assets with small variances in their pricing errors, and it assigns small weights to assets with large variances of their pricing errors. It is obvious that W^* changes with different models. This makes it not possible for the task of making comparisons among competing models. The alternative weighting matrix of Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) is invariant across competing asset pricing models. Using a common weighting matrix allows us to have a uniform measure of performance across models for a common set of portfolios. The only assumption needed is that the weighting matrix is nonsingular.

Cochrane (1996) argues that $E(\epsilon - \beta'F)$ may be nonsingular in which case the inference is problematic, but as we discuss later, we did not encounter inference problems. To avoid inference problems and to keep the weighting matrix the same across assets, Cochrane sets the identity matrix as a weighting matrix. This approach is often done in the regression estimates of a GMM problem because estimation of W^* requires consistent estimates of the parameters.

By assigning equal weights to all basic assets and ignoring cross products of pricing errors, Cochrane's (1996) approach minimizes the sum of squared pricing errors, which is appealing for two reasons. First, it is equivalent to a rational least squares approach often used in finance, and second, it provides the best graphical representation of predicted returns on the basic assets versus their average returns.

These desirable attributes may be balanced against the theoretical appeal of either optimal GMM or the HJ-dispersion approach. Optimal GMM provides the most efficient estimates among estimates that use linear combinations of pricing errors as moments. Working with the smallest standard errors provides a more powerful test of the validity of a particular model. But, because W^* is model dependent, it makes no sense to

compare chi-sq are statistics across models. We prefer the HJ-distance approach because it is explicitly designed for comparing the pricing errors of alternative models.

Below we report statistics for both HJ-distance and optimal GMM. We do not report statistics from regression estimates because we found them relatively uninformative. Most of the models were not rejected just due to large standard errors, which is economically uninteresting. We also do not find big

Since $v[g(\hat{\gamma})]$ only has rank p , the following Cochrane (1996) For optimal GMM, his Wald estimates of the ell-kno J -es, i h

$$J = g'(\hat{\gamma})v[g(\hat{\gamma})]^{-1}g(\hat{\gamma}) = g(\hat{\gamma})^*g(\hat{\gamma}) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^2(p). \quad (25)$$

From Eq.(10) the covariance matrix of the Lagrange multipliers is

$$v(\tilde{\lambda}) = v[g(\hat{\gamma})]. \quad (26)$$

Since the maximum pricing error δ is achieved by θ' in $\theta = \tilde{\lambda}/\delta$, we can examine the importance of individual assets on the pricing error by examining the null hypothesis $\tilde{\lambda} = 0$.

Finally, it is important to distinguish which pricing errors are under discussion. We denote the pricing errors of the models in Eq.(17). It is the sample average for the differences in prices between the price minus the correct prices which should be zero for an excess return and one for a gross return. As in other research, we can also denote a average return errors as

$$\pi = \bar{\pi} - E(\pi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [v(\pi_i)] = g(\hat{\gamma}). \quad (27)$$

To avoid confusion, we refer to $g(\hat{\gamma})$ as model errors and π as the pricing errors of the basic assets. Since π differs slightly across models, we do not provide the same information. We look at $g(\hat{\gamma})$ mainly for details associated directly with δ . We examine π to compare pricing errors for the basic assets across models.

2.4. Co. o. o. Φ

Examining the conditional implications of linear factor models has two inherent problems. One is that conditional risk premiums are estimated. The second is that the models force prices of fundamental risks to be constant across business cycles. Cochrane (1996), Ferson and Har (1999), and others try to solve these problems by using macroeconomic variables as conditioning variables. In Eq.(3), all parameters in Φ are constant. To allow them to vary with some elements in Φ , we write

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{t+1} &= \pi'_{t+1} F_{t+1} \\ &= (\pi_{0,1} + \pi_{0,2}) = [\pi'_{1,1} + (\pi'_{1,2})] F_{t+1} \\ &+ \pi_{0,1} + \pi_{0,2} + \pi'_{1,1} F_{t+1} + \pi'_{1,2} (F_{t+1}). \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

The last equal sign demonstrates Cochrane's point, scaling the prices of factors is equivalent to scaling the factors.

If prices of risks can alter the business cycle, we can capture his effect by using variables that are associated with business cycles. There are three requirements for macroeconomic variables to be legitimate instruments. First, they must be included in the time information set. Second, they should summarize the state of the business cycle. Third, since the number of the parameters increases geometrically with the number of conditioning variables, which can make the estimates unreliable, the conditioning variables cannot be too numerous. We use only one conditioning variable at a time. Because the previous literature has focused on both monthly and quarterly horizons, we would like a similar conditioning variable for each horizon.

Daniel and Toro (1995) find that the cyclical element in industrial production (IP) is predictive for common stock returns. We adopt their use of IP as one instrument for the monthly models. For quarterly models, we use the cyclical component of real GNP. Because the cyclical components are not observable, we derive both series by using the Hodrick-Prescott (1997) filter applied recursively. We elaborate on the construction of our data in the next section.

Lettau and Ludvigson (2001a) provide an alternative to these out-of-sample-based measures of the business cycle. Lettau and Ludvigson (2001a) demonstrate that the cyclical element in the log consumption-aggregate real hourly wage (CAY) is strongly predictive for excess stock returns. This argument is consistent with the CCAPM. Lettau and Ludvigson (2001b) use the CCAPM and the CAPM using CAY as a conditioning variable. In their cross-sectional tests, conditioning with CAY substantially improves the performance of the models. We also include CAY as a conditioning variable for the quarterly models.

Lo and MacKinlay (1997) and Daniel and Tirole (1997) argue that the book-to-market (B/M) effect in stock returns is largely driven by a January effect, that is, the B/M effect is not present at other times of the year. The basic assets we use are the Fama and French 25 portfolios which are constructed precisely to incorporate the B/M and size effects. We use a January dummy variable (JAN) to allow prices of risks to differ between January and other months of the year.

Another important issue is the stability of the model's parameters. Conditional models are attractive because unconditional models may not adequately capture time-varying risk premiums. But, this approach is not costless. If the conditional version is correctly specified and captures the dynamics in risk premiums, it will outperform the unconditional model. However, if the model's implied time-varying risk premiums are inherently misspecified because we choose the wrong conditioning variable, this false model may still appear to work well in small samples since it uses additional degrees of freedom. Ghoshal (1998) finds that conditional models are fragile and may have bigger pricing errors than unconditional models.

If the model is correctly specified, parameter stability is not a problem. We see the splines of Andrews (1993) to see whether there are structural shifts in the parameters. The null hypothesis is that there are no structural shifts. Andrews argues that the spline is powerful against the alternation of a single structural break at an unknown time. He also argues that even if this is not the most interesting alternation hypothesis, it provides a reasonable test of parameter stability. The LM statistics are calculated as 5% increments between 20% and 80% of the sample, and the largest is the spline statistic. The distribution for the spline statistic is presented in Andrews's Table 1.

To keep the estimation tractable, we use the 26 portfolios as the basic assets to be priced. We also investigate whether the model is robust to a different set of assets by adopting Cochrane's approach of scaling returns. Cochrane (1996) notes that conditioning information can be used to scale returns as implied by Eq.(1). These scaled returns can be interpreted as the returns to managed portfolios. The portfolio manager changes the weight of each portfolio according to the signal he observes from the conditioning variable. To illustrate, the implied both sides of Eq.(1) by an arbitrary $\epsilon \in \Phi$ of

$$E(\epsilon_{t+1}, \epsilon_{t+1}) = \epsilon, \quad \forall \epsilon, \epsilon > 0, \quad \forall \epsilon \in \Phi. \quad (29)$$

By the law of iterated expectations, we have

$$E(\epsilon_{t+1}, \epsilon_{t+1}) = E(\epsilon), \quad \forall \epsilon, \epsilon > 0, \quad \forall \epsilon \in \Phi. \quad (30)$$

Eq.(30) provides the orthogonality conditions for scaled returns. If the model is robust to changes in the underlying assets, it should price the new assets correctly. That is, if the model can price nonscaled returns, under the null hypothesis that the parameters are not asset-sensitive, the model should price scaled returns as well. The test statistic is described in Appendix B.

3.

Unless otherwise indicated, all data are from the Center for Research in Securities Prices (CRSP). For the monthly models, the sample period is 1952:01 to 1997:12, for 552 observations. For the quarterly models, the sample is from 1953:01 to 1997:04, for 180 observations. We begin in 1953:01 because CAY is only available after 1953:01.

3.1. *Portfolio*

Our basic equity assets are the 25 excess returns on the portfolios sorted by size and book-to-market ratio that are calculated as in Fama and French (1993). Excess returns are constructed by subtracting the T-bill rate, and otherwise, the return is the gross return on the T-bill. The pretax liabilities are

have the 25 B/M and size portfolios are either hard to price correctly because they incorporate both size premiums and value premiums. We require the models of price these excess equity returns and the risk-free rate, as well.

Portfolios are numbered 11–55, where the first number refers to the size quintile and the second number refers to the B/M quintile. For example, 11 is the portfolio of the smallest firms in the lowest B/M, while 55 is the portfolio of the largest firms and highest B/M. Table 1 provides summary statistics for the 25 portfolios for the sample period 1952:01 to 1997:12. It is similar to Table 2 of Fama and French (1993), which in effect is a shorter sample period from 1963:01 to 1991:12. For our longer sample, most average returns are larger, except for the lowest B/M firms. Since the standard errors are smaller, the statistics are larger except for the lowest B/M firms. Table 1 indicates that there is considerable difference in the average returns across the 25 portfolios. The average annualized returns range from 4.3% for the smallest firms in the lowest B/M ratio to 13.6% for the smallest firms in the highest B/M ratio. Within a size quintile, there is a nearly monotonic increase in average returns as B/M increases. Within the B/M quintiles, the average returns of the smallest firms are larger than the average returns of the largest firms, except for the lowest

Table 1
Summary statistics for Fama-French 25 portfolios

The data are monthly returns on the Fama-French 25 portfolios from 1952:01 to 1997:12 in excess of the one-month T-bill rate. Portfolios are numbered in the index size increasing from one to five and index book-to-market ratio increasing from one to five.

Portfolios	BM1	BM2	BM3	BM4	BM5
<i>A Market</i>					
SIZE1	0.36	0.77	0.83	1.03	1.13
SIZE2	0.49	0.78	0.96	1.00	1.15
SIZE3	0.59	0.76	0.80	0.97	1.04
SIZE4	0.60	0.60	0.82	0.87	1.02
SIZE5	0.57	0.63	0.68	0.67	0.85
<i>B Book-to-Market</i>					
SIZE1	7.17	6.25	5.56	5.26	5.53
SIZE2	6.49	5.62	5.11	4.85	5.39
SIZE3	5.94	5.04	4.66	4.50	5.14
SIZE4	5.32	4.80	4.61	4.52	5.22
SIZE5	4.54	4.39	4.09	4.24	4.91
<i>C Beta</i>					
SIZE1	1.18	2.91	3.52	4.58	4.82
SIZE2	1.76	3.25	4.41	4.85	5.03
SIZE3	2.33	3.55	4.05	5.04	4.76
SIZE4	2.64	2.93	4.17	4.50	4.60
SIZE5	2.97	3.36	3.89	3.74	4.07

B/M q in ile, b here is no mono onici in a erage re rns across si e q in ile.

As demons ra ed in Sec ion 2, he eigh ing ma ri for he calc la ion of HJ-dis ance depends onl on he asse s and is he same for di eren models. The eigh ing ma ri is no he same hen e se condi ioning informa ion o scale re rns. Hence, e ha e fo r eigh ing ma rices mon hl and q ar erl nonscaled re rns, and mon hl and q ar erl scaled re rns. Beca se o r main res l s are deri ed from mon hl and q ar erl nonscaled re rns, e foc s primaril on hese o cases. Eq. (18) demons ra es ha he eigh ing ma ri is he es ima e of he in erse of he second momen ma ri of re rns, hich m s be nonsing lar. The condi ion n mbers of he o ma rices of sample second momen s are 13,548 and 7,851 for mon hl and q ar erl re rns, respec i el. For mon hl scaled re rns, he condi ion n mber is 10,264; for q ar erl scaled re rns, he condi ion n mber is 5,238. This indica es ha in ersion of he ma rices sho ld be ell beha ed.

Cochrane (1996) no es ha one can ransform he eigh ing ma ri sing eigen al e decomposi ion s ch ha $\Sigma = \Gamma \Gamma'$ here Γ is an or honormal ma ri i h he eigen ec ors of Σ on i s col mns, and Γ is a diagonal ma ri of eigen al es. Then, he HJ-dis ance problem in Eq. (12) can be re ri en as

$$\delta = [E(\Sigma - \Gamma \Gamma' E(\Sigma - \Gamma \Gamma'))^{1/2}. \quad (31)$$

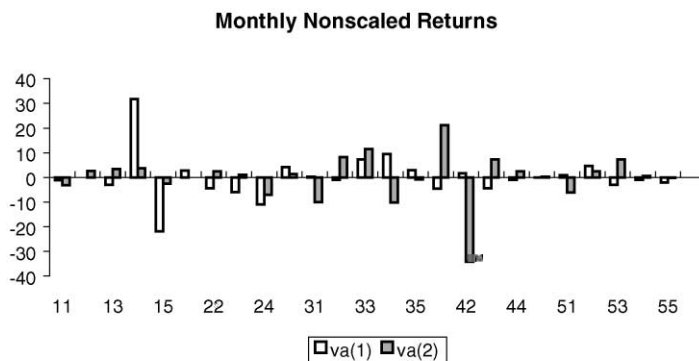
The elemen s of he h col mn in Γ can be in erpre ed as eigh s ha are assigned o he basic asse s o form a por folio associa ed i h he h eigen al e in Σ . If here are a fe large eigen al es of Σ i h eigen ec ors ha place large eigh s on onl a fe por folios, he GMM problem ma be choosing parame rs ha are associa ed onl i h a fe por folios. Beca se does no change across models, i is fair o ask he compe ing models o price he same por folios. B , e do an he s r c re of he eigh ing ma ri o be reasonable.

Fig. 1 presen s he por folio eigh s associa ed i h he o larges eigen al es of he mon hl and q ar erl eigh ing ma rices. The eigh s are s andardi ed o s m o one. For mon hl re rns, Fig. 1 demons ra es ha no par ic lar por folio recei es more han ice he eigh of he ne smalles. Fo r por folios, 14, 15, 41, and 42, recei e s bs an ial eigh s, b se eral o her por folios also recei e non ri ial eigh s. Gi en ha here are o her eigen al es ha are also q an i a i el impor an, e concl de ha he eigh ing ma rices for he HJ-dis ance pro ide a fair challenge o he asse pricing models.

3.2. Co o g v e

We se e ariables o cap re mo emen s in he prices of risks o er he b siness c cle. For he mon hl models, he c clcal par of he na ral

Panel A:



Panel B:

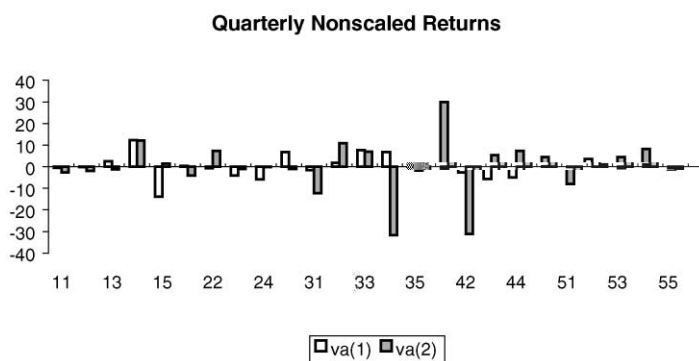


Fig.1. Standardized eigen vectors of the two largest eigen values of the conditioning matrix $\mathbf{M} = [(1/\sigma^2) \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{y}_t \mathbf{y}_t']^{-1}$. The data are monthly and quarterly excess returns of the Fama-French 25 portfolios and the return on the T-bill. Monthly data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12. Quarterly data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. The portfolio numbers on the x-axis are numbered in the increasing size increasing from one to the indexing book-to-market ratio increasing from one to the. The vector $\mathbf{a}(1)$ and $\mathbf{a}(2)$ are the eigen vectors corresponding to the two largest eigen values of \mathbf{M} .

logarithm of the industrial production index is one conditioning variable. The industrial production index is from the Citibase monthly data set. The series is available from January 1947 to April 1999. We use the Hodrick-Prescott (1997) filter on the series to remove the cyclical series. The smoothing parameter is set to be 6,400. Consequently, the series element of order k is 1951:12. We then use the procedure recursively on all available data and the subsequent elements for the cyclical series. This methodology ensures that each element is in the time information set. Panel A of Fig.2 displays the cyclical element of log industrial production index, IP_t .

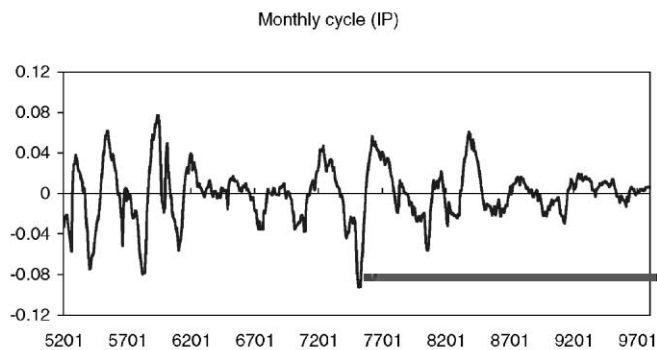
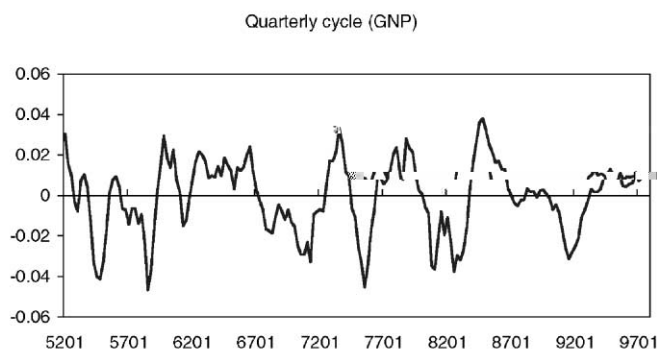
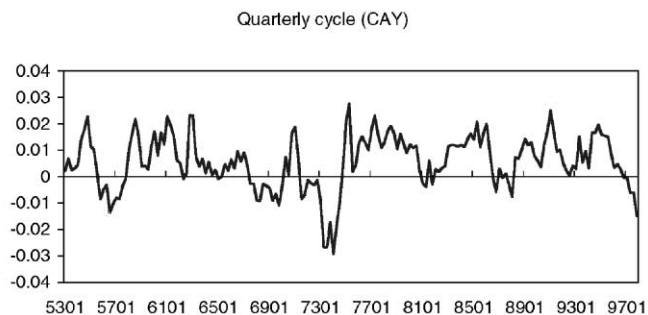
Panel A:*Panel B:**Panel C:*

Fig.-2.- Time series of three conditioning variables.-C cle (IP) is the cyclical element in monthly Hodrick-Prescott (1997) filtered industrial production.-C cle (GNP) is the cyclical element in quarterly Hodrick-Prescott (1997) filtered GNP.-C cle (CAY) is the aggregate consumption-real hours ratio, derived in Leamer and Ludvigson (2001a).-Monthly data for IP are from 1952:01 to 1997:12. Quarterly data for GNP are from 1952:01 to 1997:04, and quarterly data for CAY are from 1953:01 to 1997:04.-

As mentioned above, in monthly models we also scale the factors in a January dummy, JAN, which takes the value one for each January and is zero otherwise. For quarterly models, JAN takes the value one for the first quarter and is zero otherwise.

For the quarterly models, we also scale the factors in the cyclical component of real GNP. The data are also from the Citibase quarterly database

can interpret the HJ-dispersion as the standard deviation for the least-squares element in M . In the conditional case, the NLL model has two factors, the constant and the conditional ϵ . The conditional NLL model determines whether the movement in the cycle is an important pricing factor.

The second model is the CAPM. The model SDF has two factors, a constant, and the excess return on the market portfolio. We use the return on the well-known CRSP index in excess of the one-month risk-free rate, r_{vw} , as a proxy for the excess return on the market. For the quarterly model, we computed the monthly market returns to produce quarterly returns, and we subtract the return on the three-month T-bill rate. In the conditional model of the SDF, there are four factors: the constant, the ϵ , r_{vw} and $r_{vw} \cdot \epsilon$.

The third model is a linearized CCAPM. The original CCAPM is nonlinear and requires a particular form for the utility function. Rather than develop nonlinear models of marginal utility, we simply use consumption growth, Δ , as the factor. We use the growth rate in real nondurable consumption from CPJ9M9 from ZIM5RJQAR.

The fourth model is the conditional CAPM developed by Jagannathan and Wang (1996) (hereafter the JW model). The JW model is derived from the assumption that the CAPM holds as a conditional model and that the return on the market is predictable in the default premium, $PREM$, which is the difference between the yield on Treasury corporate bonds from the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve. The JW model's unconditional form in OLS can be as follows. One is the original market beta. The other beta incorporates variation in the market beta, which Jagannathan and Wang call beta-premium sensitivity. Beta-premium sensitivity is captured by variation in the default premium. $PREM$ measures the insensitivity of the market beta to other business cycle. Jagannathan and Wang also argue that the unlevered index is an inadequate proxy for the market return. The inclusion of labor income growth, LBR , as an additional factor reflecting a return on human capital. Jagannathan and Wang measure $reincom-T5qP$ $M'gr-aZP$ M -change,

The simple model is a linearized version of Cochrane's (1996) production-based asset pricing model (described in the tables as COCH). Cochrane argues that returns should be well priced by the income return, which is a complicated function of the income-capital ratio and several parameters. But Cochrane finds that the income return growth rate performs equally well, and he adopts the income return growth rate model instead of the income return model. The factors are the growth rate on real nonresidential income, GNR, and the growth rate on real residential income, GR. Both original series are from Citibase. The model has three factors in the unconditional model, a constant, GNR, and GR. The conditional Cochrane model has six factors. The data are from Citibase. Since we only have quarterly data for real income, we do not compute a monthly model in this case.

The above simple models are all based on explicit economic theories. We also consider some empirical asset pricing models. They are called empirical because their key pricing factors are derived from the data. The second model is the Fama-French (1993) three-factor model (hereafter the FF3 model). The first factor is the excess return on the market portfolio, r_{vw} , as calculated above. To mimic the risk factors in returns related to size and B/M ratio, Fama and French (1993) sort all stocks in order of size portfolios, and g , he also sort all stocks in order of B/M portfolios, g , ϕ , and o . Factor SMB (small minus big) is constructed as the difference in returns on g and g , his size captures risk related to size. Factor HML (high minus low) is constructed as the difference in returns on g and o , his size captures risk related to the B/M ratio. The unconditional model of the SDF has four factors: a constant, r_{vw} , SMB, and HML. We construct quarterly factors by compounding the monthly factors. There are eight factors in the conditional model.

The eighth model is the Fama-French (1993) five-factor model in which he adds a term spread factor and a default-premium factor to their three-factor model (hereafter the FF5 model). The term spread factor, TERM, is the difference between the yield on a thirty-year bond and the yield on the one-month bill. Default risk is the difference between the yields on g and corporate bonds (r_{PREM} as in JW). We construct quarterly data by compounding the monthly r_{vw} , SMB and HML, and we use the third observation of each quarter for TERM and r_{PREM} . The conditional model has eleven factors.

4. Results

4.1. Basic model diagnostics

The basic model diagnostics are presented in the seven panels of Table 3. The estimates of HJ-dispersion are labeled HJ-dis (δ). The values of the test $\delta = 0$,

Table 3
Summary of models using nonscaled returns (26 assets)

The data are returns on the Fama-French 25 portfolios in excess of the T-bill rate and the return on the T-bill. Monthly data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12; quarterly data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. CLE (IP) is the cyclical element in the industrial production index; CLE (GNP) is the cyclical element in real GNP; CAY is from Leal and Ludwigson (2001a). JAN is a dummy variable in the model for January (monthly models) or first quarter (quarterly models) and error covariance. HJ-dis (δ) is Hansen-Jagannathan distance. -al e for the $\delta = 0$ calculated under the null $\delta = 0$ ($\delta = 0$). Market Error is the maximum annual pricing error for a portfolio in the annual standard error of 20% under the assumption $E(\cdot) = E(\cdot)$. The standard error for HJ-distance under the alternative hypothesis $\delta \neq 0$ is $se(\delta)$. The -al e of the optimal GMM is (J) . The -al e of the Wald test has all conditional elements of $*$ are error is -Wald($*$). The -al e of the splm statistics is splm. An asterisk indicates the model fails the splm test at the 5% significance level. Number of parameters is No.-of para.

MODEL	NULL	CAPM	CCAPM	JW	CAMP	FF3	FF5	
<i>A Model</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>					
HJ-dis (δ)	0.420	0.390	0.429	0.386	0.296	0.323	0.316	
($\delta = 0$)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.347	0.000	0.001	
Market-Error	8.4%	7.8%	8.6%	7.8%	5.9%	6.5%	6.4%	
se(δ)	0.051	0.050	0.063	0.052	0.065	0.052	0.055	
(J)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.194	0.001	0.005	
splm	216.500*	3.548	4.234	38.290*	193.976*	9.971	58.889*	
No.-of para	1	2	2	4	6	4	6	
<i>B Model</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>I</i>				
HJ-dis (δ)	0.410	0.352	0.389	0.314	0.256	0.302	0.273	
($\delta = 0$)	0.000	0.026	0.041	0.057	0.580	0.010	0.143	
Market-Error	8.2%	7.1%	7.8%	6.3%	5.1%	6.1%	5.5%	
se(δ)	0.054	0.064	0.084	0.050	0.079	0.062	0.062	
(J)	0.000	0.269	0.002	0.062	0.534	0.027	0.218	
-Wald($*$)	0.006	0.003	0.021	0.016	0.486	0.329	0.398	
splm	10.028	15.963*	9.831	28.254*	73.909*	16.646	40.204*	
No.-of para	2	4	4	8	12	8	12	
<i>C Model</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>JAN</i>				
HJ-dis (δ)	0.396	0.366	0.367	0.274	0.284	0.287	0.268	
($\delta = 0$)	0.000	0.000	0.057	0.650	0.126	0.101	0.335	
Market-Error	8.0%	7.3%	7.4%	5.5%	5.7%	5.8%	5.4%	
se(δ)	0.060	0.067	0.089	0.086	0.064	0.049	0.067	
(J)	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.809	0.065	0.025	0.098	
-Wald($*$)	0.000	0.165	0.026	0.018	0.962	0.238	0.594	
splm	5.692	6.244	10.345	52.663*	180.979*	13.470	39.225*	
No.-of para	2	4	4	8	12	8	12	
MODEL	NULL	CAPM	CCAPM	JW	CAMP	COCH	FF3	FF5
<i>D Model</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>					
HJ-dis (δ)	0.649	0.621	0.619	0.578	0.550	0.626	0.537	0.516
($\delta = 0$)	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.037	0.016	0.000	0.001	0.018
Market-Error	13.2%	12.6%	12.6%	11.8%	11.2%	12.7%	10.9%	10.5%
se(δ)	0.103	0.097	0.108	0.125	0.107	0.113	0.116	0.105

Table 3 ($\rho = 0$)

MODEL	NULL	CAPM	CCAPM	JW	CAMP	COCH	FF3	FF5
(J)	0.001	0.001	0.005	0.083	0.050	0.000	0.010	0.125
s pLM	55.023*	3.671	10.071	31.078*	55.957*	10.026	8.746	52.170*
No.-of para	1	2	2	4	6	3	4	6
$\rho = E$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$
HJ-dis (δ)	0.642	0.600	0.613	0.543	0.504	0.559	0.452	0.429
($\delta = 0$)	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.088	0.147	0.108	0.488	0.362
Ma -Error	13.1%	12.2%	12.5%	11.1%	10.3%	11.4%	9.2%	8.7%
se(δ)	0.099	0.082	0.106	0.111	0.104	0.129	0.108	0.099
(J)	0.000	0.011	0.001	0.056	0.101	0.086	0.423	0.254
-Wald(*)	0.219	0.051	0.799	0.013	0.575	0.008	0.111	0.242
s pLM	10.837	11.076	11.578	37.006*	44.640*	9.848	11.285	34.071*
No.-of para	2	4	4	8	12	6	8	12
$\rho = F$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$
HJ-dis (δ)	0.634	0.613	0.608	0.544	0.515	0.623	0.528	0.498
($\delta = 0$)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.269	0.099	0.000	0.001	0.011
Ma -Error	12.9%	12.5%	12.4%	11.1%	10.5%	12.7%	10.8%	10.1%
se(δ)	0.099	0.110	0.105	0.154	0.125	0.114	0.105	0.090
(J)	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.428	0.097	0.001	0.003	0.032
-Wald(*)	0.012	0.542	0.253	0.404	0.834	0.609	0.931	0.930
s pLM	14.028*	14.310	7.170	39.171*	40.373*	16.757	20.149	30.937*
No.-of para	2	4	4	8	12	6	8	12
$\rho = G$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0$
HJ-dis (δ)	0.590	0.564	0.582	0.391	0.379	0.510	0.509	0.394
($\delta = 0$)	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.997	0.975	0.429	0.005	0.870
Ma -Error	12.0%	11.5%	11.9%	8.0%	7.7%	10.4%	10.4%	8.0%
se(δ)	0.135	0.127	0.131	0.239	0.195	0.133	0.129	0.149
(J)	0.011	0.003	0.010	0.997	0.984	0.600	0.004	0.910
-Wald(*)	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.206	0.435	0.001	0.676	0.500
s pLM	8.586	9.181	9.133	32.223*	28.311	11.794	20.144	52.123*
No.-of para	2	4	4	8	12	6	8	12

as calculated in Appendix A under the null hypothesis that the risk premium is zero, are labeled $p(\delta = 0)$. The maximum mean squared prediction error from a portfolio of the basic assets based on Eq. (16) is labeled Ma -Error . The maximum pricing error is the product of the HJ-discount and the average risk-free rate times an assumed standard deviation of 20%. The standard errors for the estimates of HJ-discount are labeled $\text{se}(\delta)$ and are calculated under the alternative hypothesis that the risk premium is non-zero as in Eq. (45) of Hansen and Jagannathan (1997). These standard errors allow an assessment of the precision with which δ is estimated, and they can hence be used to infer an approximate standard error for the pricing errors in the three benchmarking by the average risk-free rate and the assumed standard deviation of 20%.

The t -ratios of the J -statistics from optimal GMM estimates of the models are labeled (J) . The t -ratios of the Wald tests for the parameters of the scaled factors are all zero and are labeled $-Wald(0)$. The t -ratios of the s PLM tests are labeled s PLM, and an asymptotic test has the test statistic exceeds the 0.05 critical value taken from Table 1 of Andrews (1993). The number of estimated parameters is labeled $N_{\text{of para}}$.

In finite samples, interpretation of the HJ-disincentives estimates and their associated maximum pricing errors is hampered by the fact that zero is on the boundary of the parameter space. Even if the null hypothesis is true, in finite samples the estimated HJ-disincentives will be positive. Of course, if the t -ratios of the test statistics are well behaved, false rejections of the null hypothesis only occur the correct percentage of the time.

The Monte Carlo experiments conducted by Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) indicate that the expected value of the HJ-disincentives calculated under the null hypothesis has a three-factor model is true can be quite large and depends on the number of assets and the number of time periods. From Table 1 of Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) in 25 returns, the end average HJ-disincentives of 0.393 for 160 observations, 0.260 for 330 observations, and 0.174 for 700 observations. Hence, by extrapolating from our monthly sample of 552 observations, we should not be surprised to see an HJ-disincentives equal to 0.21, even though a three-factor model is true. This corresponds to an annualized maximum pricing error of 4.2%. Similarly, for a quarterly sample of 180 observations, we should not be surprised to see an HJ-disincentives equal to 0.38 in a maximum pricing error of 7.7%, even though the model is true.

Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) also investigate the empirical size of the test has HJ-disincentives equals zero. For 25 assets the end has 5.5% of their experiments exceed the 1% critical value in 160 observations, 2.5% are greater in 330 observations, and 1.5% are greater in 700 observations. Thus, for our sample sizes, the monthly model appears to be close to having the correct size of the test if a three-factor model is true, while the rejection rates for the quarterly model appear to be too high.

Panels A–C of Table 3 summarize the results for the monthly models. The results of Panel A in Table 3 indicate that the NLL model, the CAPM, the CCAPM, the JW model, and the FF3 model all have HJ-disincentives that are larger than or equal to 0.32. The t -ratios of the tests have these disincentives are all less than 0.0001. The maximum annualized pricing errors from these models are between 6.5% and 8.6%. The standard errors of the HJ-disincentives in row four are all above 0.05. Hence, the standard errors of the maximum pricing errors are all above 1%. Generally, the end likely disagreements between the Wald tests based on HJ-disincentives or on optimal GMM of the hedge pricing errors on the 26 original portfolios are joint zero. Consequently, we only report the J -tests from optimal GMM, and in Panel A of Table 3 the end of the seven models are rejected at the 0.001

marginal level of significance or smaller. Campbell's model achieves the smallest HJ-dispersion, and hence the test of $\delta = 0$ indicates we cannot reject correct pricing. Thus, the model captures the size and B/M effects and also prices the risk-free rate. It is notable that the same model also passes the J -test. Unfortunately, Campbell's model does not have stable parameters as it fails the $sPLM$ test serially.

The HJ-dispersion of the FF5 model is smaller than that of the FF3 model, but it is still around 0.30. If we subtract the small sample bias in the size effect of 0.21, discussed above, we can conclude that the bias-adjusted HJ-dispersion is around 0.41 and the maximum annualized pricing error is around 2.2%. As one might suspect, the chief difference between the FF3 model and the FF5 model comes from the fact that the T-bill rate is hard for the FF3 model to price because it only includes equity pricing factors. To evaluate this conjecture, we did a test which only used gross returns on the 25 size and B/M portfolios. There are only small differences between the FF3 model and the FF5 model in these tests, and we could reject correct pricing for both models at the 5% marginal level of significance.

Panel B of Table 3 reports the results when the factors of the model SDF's are scaled by $c(IP)$. We find the magnitudes of HJ-dispersions and the corresponding maximum pricing errors all shrink significantly by approximately 10%, except for the NLL model. The t -values for the tests of HJ-dispersion equality are not between 1% and 5%. We see here that conditioning information is significantly important in a Wald test on the joint hypothesis that the parameters for all scaled factors equality. For the CAPM, the CCAPM and the JW model, the t -values are smaller than 0.023, which means the scaling variable IP significantly captures time-varying behavior of risks. Using $c(IP)$ reduces HJ-dispersion for all models, and Campbell's model achieves the smallest dispersion, although there is no significance on the parameters associated with scaling. None of the models pass both the tests of HJ-dispersion equality and the $sPLM$ test. It is notable that the CAPM with scaled factors marginally passes both the tests of HJ-dispersion equality and the optimal GMM test. Again, all results from minimizing HJ-dispersion are similar to those found from the optimal GMM approach.

The fact that scaled factor models have smaller HJ-dispersions than nonscaled factor models comes from two sources. First, the conditioning information reduces the pricing errors by allocating the prices of risks to their business cycle. Second, by doubling the number of parameters, a scaled factor model uses additional degrees of freedom in the minimization problem and is better able to fit the data. This behavior may be superior, though, as small-sample biases may worsen. The next section examines the details of individual models.

According to Lo and MacKinlay (1997), the January effect explains a substantial part of the B/M effect. When we allow only for a January dummy variable in

addition to the constant term of the SDF's, here are several changes compared to the results in Panel A of Table 3. These results are not reported in the same space. Panel C of Table 3 reports results in all factors scaled by JAN. This effect separates the January observations from the non-January observations by allowing different factor risk prices in January. For the N-ll model, the Wald statistic for the test that the JAN parameter equals zero is 0.0001, which demonstrates the importance of a January effect. Allowing for a January conditioning variable improves the point estimates of HJ-discount for all the models. Nevertheless, all of the J statistics indicate that the CAPM, the CCAPM, and the FF3 models are still rejected at the 0.05 level of significance. The most dramatic improvement is in the JW model which now passes all of the essential hypothesis tests. The Wald test on the importance of the scaled factors indicates their joint significance. There is a slight improvement in the performance of the FF3 model although the joint test of the significance of the scaled factors has a p -value of 0.45. The FF5 model and Campbell's model already do reasonably well in nonscaled factors. Scaling all the factors in these models in a January dummy does not appear to add an important factor since the p -values of the Wald tests are both quite large.

The previous literature typically reports either monthly or quarterly models. Some models, such as Cochrane's (1996) model, can only be applied to quarterly data because of data constraints. In this section we investigate the performance of the models in quarterly data. Several issues arise. First, time aggregation may worsen the behavior of the factors and the models by smoothing the factors.⁴ Second, market imperfections have a shorter-term deviation from the models may be lessened because the returns are censored. Third, as noted above, the small-sample performance of any model deteriorates in a smaller number of observations. The first and third effects suggest the performance of the models in quarterly data deteriorates, while the second factor allows for improvement.

Panel D provides the summary results for the eight quarterly models, the seven previously investigated plus Cochrane's (1996) model. Although the point estimates of the HJ-discounts are much larger for the quarterly models than the monthly models, recall from our discussion of Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) that values like 0.38 are to be expected in these sample sizes even if a three-factor model is true. Nevertheless, the quarterly HJ-discounts generally exceed the average of the Ahn and Gadaroski results more than the monthly estimates exceed the corresponding average from the Monte Carlo experiments. For example, the monthly FF3 model has an HJ-discount of 0.323 and the Monte Carlo average is approximately 0.21 for a difference of

⁴This logic leads Cochrane (1996) to time average monthly returns in constructing quarterly returns. While we construct the quarterly returns from the compounded monthly returns as $r_{1+} + r_{2+} + r_{3+}$, Cochrane (1996) uses $\frac{1}{3} r_{1+} + \frac{2}{3} r_{2+} + \frac{2}{3} r_{3+} + \frac{1}{3} r_{4+} + \frac{1}{3} r_{5+}$.

0.413. The quarterly sampling interval and a difference of $0.537 - 0.38 = 0.157$. Using his bias-adjusted alternative calculation the maximum pricing error for the FF3 model leads to a value of 3.2% rather than the 10.9% reported in Panel D.

While the values of the test statistics HJ-dispersion equations are all less than 0.037, recall also that in his sample since the asymptotic values probably understate the probability of a Type I error as Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) find that 15.7% of their empirical experiments exceed the 5% asymptotic critical value in samples of 160 observations. Hence, it seems reasonable to conclude that the evidence against the JW model, the FF5 model, and Campbell's model is not particularly strong. Unfortunately these three models all fail the parameter stability tests.

In Panel E, the scale all factors by the lagged cyclical component of GNP. Including this conditioning information reduces the magnitudes of HJ-dispersion and the associated maximum pricing errors by 5–10%. To models, the FF3 model and Cochrane's, no longer pass the tests of HJ-dispersion equations and the splines, although Cochrane's model has a considerably larger δ . Once again the HJ-dispersion tests are consistent with the results from optimal GMM. The test statistics all parameters for scaled factors equations indicate scaling in which GNP does not significantly improve the performance of the models. One should keep in mind, however, that this is a joint test which may overshadow the significance of individual parameters.

An alternative quarterly scaling variable is the consumption real ratio, CAY, from Lettau and Ludvigson (2001a). The new scaling in which CAY greatly improves the performance of the CCAPM in pricing the excess returns on the 25 Fama-French portfolios over a sample period 1963–1997 when the returns are equalized. However, evaluating the model in which the HJ-dispersion metric for our sample of 1953 to 1998 indicates that scaling in which CAY does not produce a noticeable improvement for the CCAPM. The scaled model fails both the tests of HJ-dispersion equations and the optimal GMM tests. None of the models scaled by CAY passes both the tests of HJ-dispersion equations and the splines. The Wald tests of the importance of the scaling parameters also does not indicate a significant significance of CAY.

Panel G provides results when all the factors are scaled by JAN. For the quarterly models, JAN takes the alternative for the rescaling of each year and the alternative over the series. The resulting none is scaling all factors in which JAN reduces the magnitude of the HJ-dispersion for all models. The JW model, Campbell's model, and the FF5 model all have values for the tests of HJ-dispersion equations above 80%. The annualized pricing errors for these three models also are no less than or equal to 8%, which is in the range of correct pricing given the bias discussed above. Surprisingly, the FF3 model does not pass the HJ-dispersion tests and the tests. This is because the scaled factor model is still unable to price the small growth returns. Cochrane's model passes both the

es of HJ-dis-ance eq al ero and he s pLM es .-More de ails for his model are pro ided in he sec ion on s ccessf l models.-

4.2. *Mo e e o o o e o o e*

Addi onal informa ion on he performance of he models is a ailable b e aminating he model errors and he Lagrange m llipliers hich are he componen s of δ . To check he her condi ioning informa ion impro es he performance of a model, e rs need o nders and he performance of he original nonscaled fac or model.-The a erage model errors from HJ-dis-ance es ima es i h a o s andard error band are presen ed in Fig.-3.-Since mon hl ncondi onal model errors share er similar pa erns i h he q ar erl model errors, e onl presen mon hl model errors (g) as de ned in Eq.- (17).- For Cochrane's model, e repor q ar erl model errors.⁵

In Panel A of Fig.-3, he model errors for he N ll model range from -0.01% for he T-bill o 1.45% per mon h for por folio 25.-Remember ha he rs n mber of a por folio inde es he si e q in ile i h increasing n mbers indica ing increases in si e and ha he second n mber of a por folio inde es he book- o-marke ra io i h increasing n mbers indica ing increases in B/M.-The B/M e ec is er e iden in Fig.-3 as in each si e q in ile, higher B/M por folios ha e larger a erage pricing errors.-As e increase across si e q in ile, here is less dispersion in he pricing errors b no par ic larl prono ced decrease in a erage pricing errors.-The model nde-es ima es he re rns on all por folios e cep he T-bill ra e.-

Panel B of Fig.-3 demons ra es ha he CAPM correc l prices he larges si e por folios, b i ends o nde-es ima e re rns on high B/M por folios and o o er-es ima e re rns on lo B/M por folios.-The model errors range from -0.50% per mon h for por folio 11 o 0.45% per mon h for por folio 15.-

The CCAPM is presen ed in Panel C of Fig.-3.-I has a pa ern er similar o he N ll model, hich is consis en i h he correla ion of 0.93 be en he adj s men , $- \sim = \tilde{\lambda}'$, o he N ll model and he adj s men o he CCAPM o make i a correc SDF.- High B/M rms are more se erel nderpriced b he CCAPM han b he CAPM.-

The JW model is presen ed in Panel D of Fig.-3.-I has a er similar pa ern o he CAPM e cep he o er-es ima ion for lo B/M por folios is sligh l smaller.-This is no s rprising in ligh of he correla ion of 0.99 be en he adj s men s o he CAPM and o he JW model.-

Panel E of Fig.-3 repor s he pa ern for Campbell's pricing errors.-The model considerabl a en a es he B/M e ec.-The a erage errors range from

⁵We also e amined model errors from minimi ing he eq al- eigh ed s m of sq ared pricing errors, ha is sing an iden i ma ri as he eig hing ma ri .-The pa erns of errors across he ario s models are q i e similar o he errors in Fig.-3 and are conseq en l no repor ed.-

-0.28% to 0.30%. Part of the ability of the model to pass the tests of HJ-dispersion equality arises from its increased standard errors relative to the CAPM. Although δ can be compared across models, the values of the tests are not comparable because they are based on the eigenvalues of A in Appendix A which depend on the pricing factors, the variance of pricing errors, and the number of parameters.

Panel F presents the pricing errors in Cochrane's quarterly model which shares the same magnitude and pattern as the quarterly CAPM, which is not presented. There is a decline in B/M effect as in the monthly CAPM. The correlation between the adjustments to Cochrane's model to make it a correct pricing model and the adjustments to the quarterly CAPM is 0.97.

The FF3 model is presented in Panel G. The presence of the two factors SMB and HML in addition to the market return considerably dampens the B/M effect presented in Panel B. Note there is no particular pattern for the model errors. They are scattered around the zero axis. The FF3 model overpredicts the average returns for both the smallest firms and the largest firms, but especially the small growth stocks (smallest firms with low B/M ratios). The FF5 model in Panel H has a similar pattern to the FF3 model, except in red cases the pricing errors slightly. The correlation of the adjustments to the two models is 0.98.

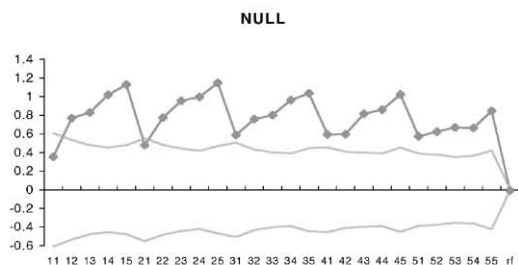
All models share one common characteristic, they do not misprice the T-bill rate. Model errors for the T-bill rate are all as small as zero.

4.3. Inference

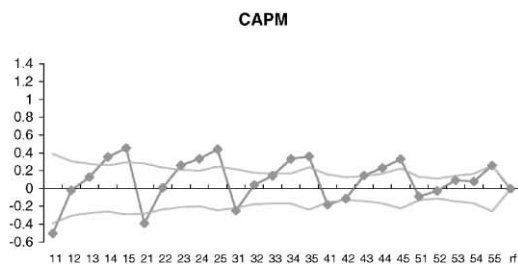
Since we have 21 monthly models and 32 quarterly models, we cannot display all the parameter estimates, but we report results for "inference models." We define "inference" as a model that at least marginally passes the tests of HJ-dispersion equality at the 1% marginal level of significance. We also require that the scaling parameters for an inference scaled factor model are jointly significant at the 5% level. Because inference about the validity of the models based on the tests of HJ-dispersion equality is almost as similar to inference based on the J tests from optimal GMM, passing the J tests is implicitly also a criterion. In total we have 12 models satisfying both

Fig. 3. Model errors for monthly models with nonscaled factors. The data are monthly and quarterly excess returns of the Fama-French 25 portfolios over the T-bill rate and the return on the T-bill. Monthly data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12. Quarterly data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. The portfolio numbers on the x-axis are numbered in the index increasing from one on the left and index book-to-market ratio increasing from one on the right. The diamonds are the model errors, as defined in Eq. (17), and the numbers are in monthly (quarterly from Cochrane's model) percent. The outer lines provide a 95% standard error band.

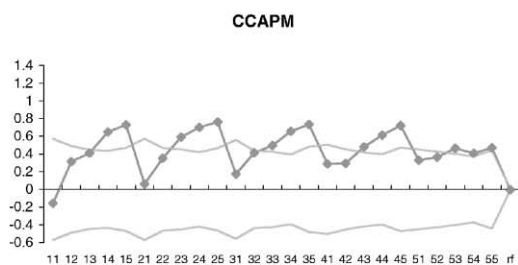
Panel A:



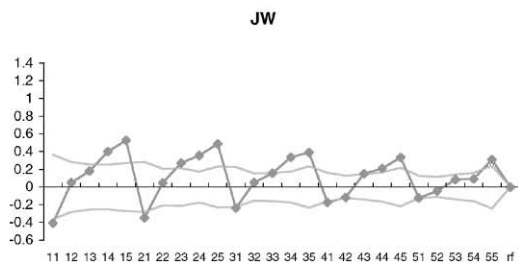
Panel B:



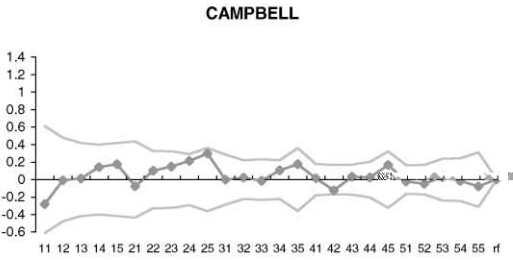
Panel C:



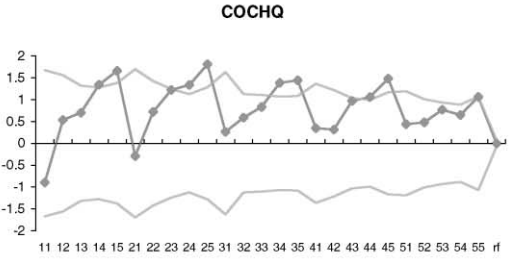
Panel D:



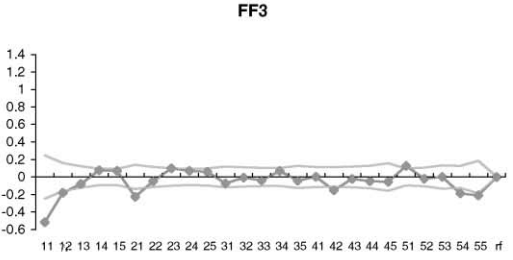
Panel E:



Panel F:



Panel G:



Panel H:

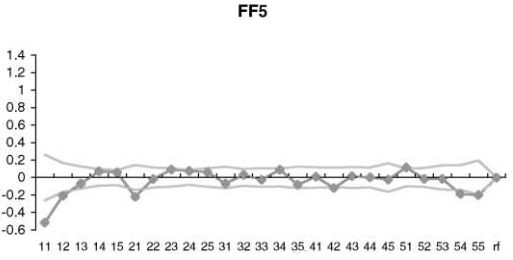


Fig.-3.- (o e)

conditions. In addition, we provide information on the monohl FF3 model with nonscaled factors for comparison. This section also discusses monohl models, hence quarterly models.

Table 4 reports parameter estimates from minimizing the HJ-disance measure for the in-eres ing models. Each panel has two parts. The first part presents estimates for β as in Eq. (3). If β_1 for one factor is significant, it differs from zero, then that factor is an important determinant of the pricing kernel. The second part of each panel presents estimates for the prices of risks, λ , as in Eq. (4). It provides information on whether the factor risk prices are significant in the expected returns.

The first model is the monohl CAPM with factors scaled by IP. The model marginally passes the test of HJ-disance equality with a p -value of 0.026. Both β_{vw} and IP are significant determinants of the correct pricing kernel, while the interaction between the two variables is not significant. Thus, the business cycle influence specified by IP is an important element missing from the CAPM. The same two factors have significant prices of risks with positive signs. Thus, a positive covariance with the market or the size of the business cycle increases the required rate of return. The factor IP helps to explain the B/M and size effects as in the framework of Jagannathan and Wang (1996) because IP could be a proxy for the pre-market sentiment. The factor $\beta_{vw} \cdot IP$ is not an important indicator of the price of market risk or change across the business cycle is not an important determinant of the cross section of returns. Panel A of Fig. 4 reports the model's pricing errors, which is nonscaled coefficient. Most of the improvement in pricing from adding IP and $\beta_{vw} \cdot IP$ to the CAPM occurs for low B/M portfolios, and the biggest improvement is for the smallest growth firms. As size increases, the improvement becomes smaller. However, the scaled factor model does not eliminate either the B/M or size effects. The monohl CAPM with factors scaled by IP also does not pass the SPLM test at the 5% level indicating that the estimates may be unstable.

The second monohl model is the CCAPM with factors scaled by IP. Parameter estimates are reported in Panel B of Table 4. The test of HJ-disance equality is passed with a p -value of 0.041. The parameters associated with Δ , IP and $\Delta \cdot IP$ are all statistically significant elements of the pricing kernel. The estimates for factor risk prices indicate that both Δ and IP are significant in the expected returns on the underlying 26 portfolios with economically sensible signs. Returns have a positive relationship with either consumption growth or the business cycle have higher required rates of return.

The monohl CCAPM with factors scaled by JAN also satisfies both conditions for being "in-eres ing" with a p -value for the test of HJ-disance equality of 0.057. The parameter estimates are provided in Panel C of Table 4. Only the interaction between Δ and JAN is statistically significant for both the

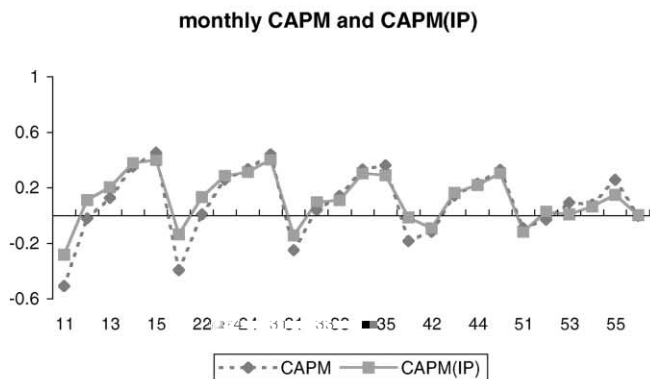
pricing kernel and prices of risk. While this result literally implies that the consumption growth rate is important only in January, an alternative interpretation is that the return characteristics of the underlying 26 portfolios are most evident in January. The pricing errors for the unscaled factors versions of the CCAPM together with the nonscaled factor benchmark are given in Panel B of Fig. 4. When the factors are scaled by IP, the improvement is most noticeable a reduction of the errors for the high B/M portfolios by 0.1–0.2% per month which halves the pricing errors relative to the nonscaled CCAPM. When the factors are scaled by JAN, both the size effect and the B/M effect are smaller and the line connecting the pricing errors is somewhat flatter.

Panel D of Table 4 reports the parameter estimates for the monthly JW model with factors scaled by IP. The t -value for the test of HJ-disance equality is 0.057. The significant determinants of the pricing kernel are ψ_{vw} and $LBR \cdot IP$. The same two factor risk prices along with that of $PREM \cdot IP$ significantly affect risk premiums. Panel E of Table 4 presents the parameter estimates for the monthly JW model with factors scaled by JAN. The t -value of the test of HJ-disance equality is 0.650. From the parameter estimates, both LBR and $LBR \cdot JAN$ are significant determinants of the model's pricing kernel. The parameters indicate that the factor risk price of the labor income growth rate is different in January ($-0.28 + 0.13 = -0.15$) than outside of January (-0.28). The pricing errors of these two models together with the nonscaled JW benchmark model are presented in Panel C of Fig. 4. When the factors are scaled by IP, the pricing errors are smaller for both small firms and high B/M firms. Thus IP helps dampen both the size effect and the B/M effect. When the factors are scaled by JAN, the pricing errors are even smaller, as in the CCAPM above. However, neither of the models passes the s_{PLM} test.

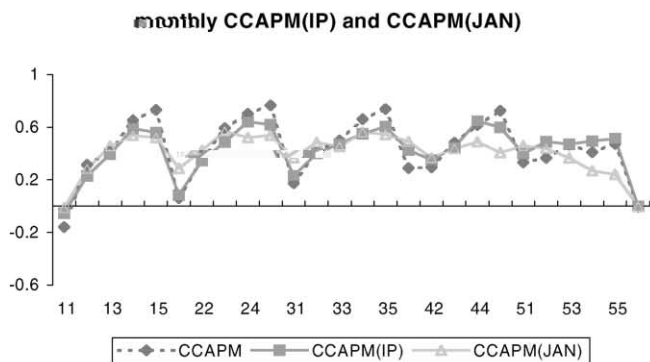
Campbell's model with nonscaled factors is reported in Panel F of Table 4. The model passes the test of HJ-disance equality with a t -value 0.347. Both the dividend yield, DIV , and the term premium, TRM , are statistically significant determinants of the pricing kernel. The second part of Panel F indicates that three variables, ψ_{vw} , DIV , and TRM , have statistically significant prices of risks. Neither labor income nor the relative bill rate is important in either the pricing kernel or the prices of risks. Panel D of Fig. 4

Fig. 4. Pricing errors for investing models. The data are monthly and quarterly excess returns of the Fama-French 25 portfolios over the T-bill rate and the return on the T-bill. Monthly data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12. Quarterly data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. The portfolio numbers on the x -axis are numbered with indexing starting increasing from one on the left and indexing book-to-market ratio increasing from one on the right. Pricing errors are defined in Eq. (27), and the numbers are in monthly (quarterly) percent.

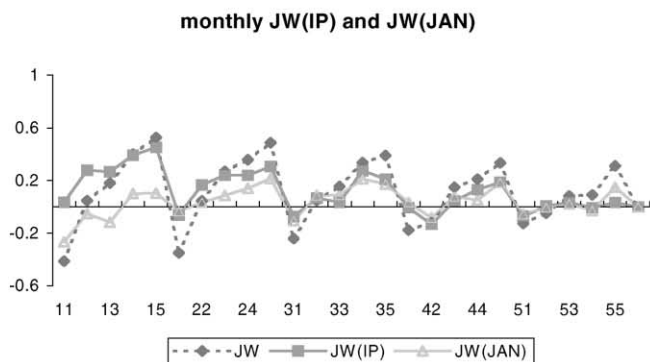
Panel A:



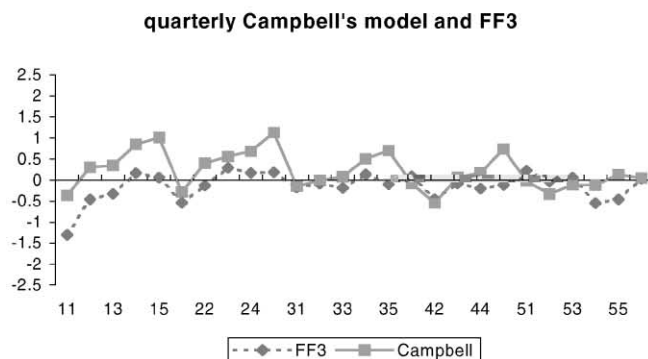
Panel B:



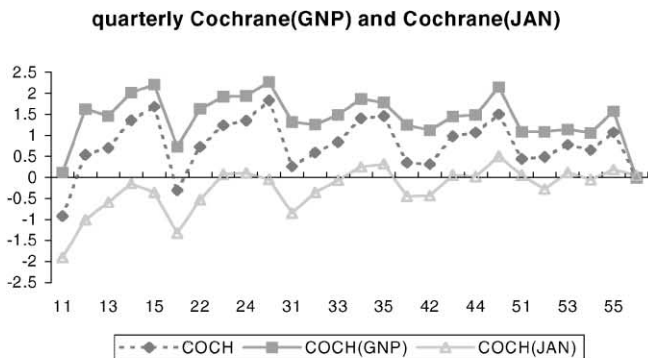
Panel C:



Panel G:



Panel H:



Panel I:

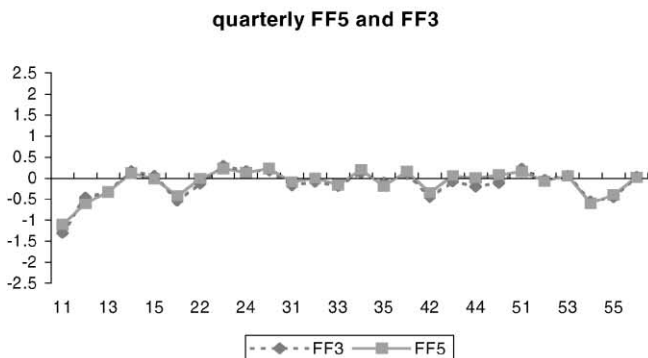


Fig.4. (o e)

Table 4 (continued)

β_J	β_C	β_{vw}	β_{LBR}	β_{DIV}	β_{RTB}	β_{TRM}
Cons	an					
Parameters of the pricing kernel						
$\hat{\alpha}$	0.22	0.00	0.10	0.28	-0.20	-0.56
se	1.00	0.02	0.16	0.27	2.64	0.22
Factor risk prices						
$\hat{\lambda}$		1.52	-0.13	-0.28	-0.03	0.85
se		0.79	0.37	0.24	0.02	0.34

β_K	β_G	β_{NRINV}	β_{RINV}	β_{GNP}	$\beta_{NRINV*GNP}$	$\beta_{RINV*GNP}$
Cons	an					
Parameters of the pricing kernel						
$\hat{\alpha}$	0.92	-0.01	-0.16	0.12	-0.04	-0.09
se	0.27	0.16	0.07	0.22	0.07	0.04
Factor risk prices						
$\hat{\lambda}$		0.33	1.76	0.03	0.86	5.33
se		0.85	1.31	0.58	1.21	3.24

β_L	β_G	β_{NRINV}	β_{RINV}	β_{JAN}	$\beta_{NRINV*JAN}$	$\beta_{RINV*JAN}$
Cons	an					
Parameters of the pricing kernel						
$\hat{\alpha}$	1.41	-0.24	0.09	-1.44	0.90	-0.19
se	0.21	0.17	0.07	0.53	0.37	0.15
Factor risk prices						
$\hat{\lambda}$		-0.63	-1.38	0.15	-1.25	-0.03
se		0.75	1.44	0.08	0.59	0.61

β_M	β_{FF5}	β_{vw}	β_{SMB}	β_{HML}	β_{TERM}	β_{PREM}
Cons	an					
Parameters of the pricing kernel						
$\hat{\alpha}$	1.23	-0.05	0.00	-0.06	-0.21	1.25
se	0.52	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.11	0.78
Factor risk prices						
$\hat{\lambda}$		1.51	0.58	1.12	0.23	-0.06
se		0.79	0.42	0.41	0.51	0.10

reports the model's pricing errors along with the errors from the FF3 model as a comparison. No size effect is apparent and Campbell's model prices the small group better than the FF3 model. While a B/M effect is present in the pricing errors of Campbell's model, its magnitude is not large. Overall, the pricing errors for Campbell's model are not bigger than those of the FF3 model, while the latter model is constrained to price the size effect and B/M effect. However, Campbell's model fails the SPLM test. Thus, the parameter estimates may be unstable and should be used cautiously.

The last monomial models we report are FF3 with nonscaled factors and FF3 with factors scaled by JAN. FF3 is reported because it is so idealized, and we can examine how it prices the size and B/M effects, which it is constrained to do. It does not pass the tests of HJ-displacement equality. Parameter estimates for FF3 are presented in Panel G of Table 4. It is somewhat surprising that only γ_{vw} and HML are important for the pricing kernel, and they are also significantly priced risk factors. Panel E of Fig. 4 provides the pricing errors for FF3. The problem portfolios are the low B/M with the smallest and second smallest sizes, which are overpriced by the model. Thus, the factor SMB cannot adequately capture the size effect in the portfolios, and SMB is not significantly priced in the unconditional version when risk prices are held constant.

The monomial FF3 with factors scaled by JAN is reported in Panel H of Table 4. It passes the tests of HJ-displacement equality with a p -value of 0.401. From the parameter estimates, γ_{vw} , SMB and $SMB \cdot JAN$ are important factors for the pricing kernel. For the prices of risks, γ_{vw} , HML and $SMB \cdot JAN$ are significant. This is consistent with the idea that the size effect is primarily a January effect as the prices of risks for γ_{vw} and HML are essentially the same across the models, both in the scaling by the January dummy. As mentioned in the previous section, if the B/M effect occurred mainly in January, and HML explained the B/M effect, HML should not be priced outside January. Thus, the results tell us either there is still a significant B/M effect outside of January or there are some other risks which can be priced by HML. We also examine the pricing errors to see whether scaling by JAN really improves on the performance of the FF3 model in an interesting way. In the Panel E of Fig. 4, we find that scaling the FF3 factors with JAN actually reduces the pricing errors by 0.2% for the smallest group of stocks. Since the FF3 model already captures the B/M effect reasonably well, JAN does not improve this dimension. Both models pass the SPLM test.

The risk arbitrage model is the JW model. It marginally passes the tests of HJ-displacement equality with a p -value of 0.037. The parameter estimates are presented in Panel I of Table 4. Only LBR is statistically significant in the pricing kernel. For the prices of factor risks, LBR is also significant with a positive sign. In addition, the price of market risk is marginally significant, but

$PREM$ is not priced in contrast to Jagannathan and Wang (1996). The pricing

errors of the JW model are reported in Panel F of Fig. 4. Together with the quarterly FF3 model, the nonscaled factors as a benchmark. Both the size effect and the B/M effect are evident in the JW pricing errors, which range from 0.5% to 2% per quarter. These pricing errors are quite large compared to those of the FF3 model. Thus, the quarterly JW model passes the HJ-distance test not because it has small pricing errors but because it has larger standard errors. Hence, the quarterly version of the JW model with nonscaled factors is not an economically interesting model. It also fails the splines indicating that the parameter estimates may be unstable.

The second quarterly model is Campbell's model with nonscaled factors. The test of HJ-distance equal to zero has a p -value of 0.016. Panel J of Table 4 provides the parameter estimates, and as in the monthly models, the term premium is important in the pricing kernel. Both market risk and term premium risk are priced factors for the risk premiums. The pricing errors are reported in Panel G of Fig. 4. Together with the benchmark FF3, the pattern of the errors is very similar to the monthly errors in Panel D. Campbell's model improves on the smallest growth portfolio, but it has an evident B/M effect. It also fails the splines.

The third quarterly model is Cochrane's model with factors scaled by the cyclical element in lag GNP. The parameter estimates are given in Panel K of Table 4. For the pricing kernel, both RINV and $RINV \cdot GNP$ are important, and both have marginally significant prices of risks. This is consistent with Cochrane (1996) who demonstrates the importance of residential investment. The HJ-distance measure drops from 0.626 for Cochrane's nonscaled factor model to 0.559 for the scaled factor model. In all of the models discussed above, the scaled-factor models perform better than nonscaled models in the sense of HJ-distance, and we confirm that the scaling factors are economically interesting by looking at the pricing errors and parameter estimates. However, for Cochrane's model, the improvement in HJ-distance does not actually come from the improvements on pricing errors. This can be seen in Panel H of Fig. 4. The pricing errors of the nonscaled model show a distinctive pattern of size and B/M effects. The scaled factor model shifts most of the pricing error upward by 0.5–1%. There is improvement only for the risk portfolio. The smaller HJ-distance for the scaled factor model arises because the additional free parameters make it easier for the scaled-factor model to solve the minimization problem with the particular weighting matrix. This is significant statistically, but it is not economically interesting.

Panel L of Table 4 reports the quarterly Cochrane model with factors scaled by JAN. Both JAN and $NRINV \cdot JAN$ are important for the pricing kernel, and the same two factors also have significant prices of risks. By looking at Panel H of Fig. 4, the end-of-year rolling for the January effect, the pricing errors are shifted downward by 1–1.5%, which is a big improvement for all the risks. The B/M effect is mitigated by its presence. Thus, the conclusion is that the

improvement in HJ-discount arises from an improvement of pricing errors. Both Cochrane's scaled factor models are stable, and they both pass the SPLM tests.

The quarterly FF5 model with nonscaled factors is provided in Panel M of Table 4. It passes the tests of HJ-discount equality with $\alpha = 0.018$. From the parameter estimates, γ_{vw} and HML are determinants of the pricing kernel, as in the FF3 model, but the macro factors, TERM and PREM are also significant determinants of the pricing kernel. The macro factors do not have significant prices of risks. The pricing errors from FF5 in Panel I of Fig. 4 are almost the same as those in FF3. There are only small improvements on the smallest gross portfolios. Unfortunately, the additional macro factors bring instability in the model as it fails the SPLM tests.

There is one last issue to note. All of the models do well in pricing the gross return of the T-bill. This implies that although the minimization problem does not appear particularly large enough on the T-bill return, it does not ignore it either. Others, such as Lettau and Ludvigson (2001b) and Jagannathan and Wang (1996), only include stock portfolios and have big estimates for the zero-beta rate. We estimate the zero-beta rate for each model. For monthly models, the rate is around 0.4% per month; for quarterly models, it is around 1.8% per quarter. We believe these estimates are more reasonable.

4.4. φ o φ φ

We now describe how the solution for the HJ-discount from the NLL model provides the least-squares element of the set of recursive discount factors, M . From Eq. (9) we know that $\tilde{\lambda} = -\tilde{\lambda}'$, and Eq. (10) provides the estimates of the Lagrange multipliers. The standard errors of the Lagrange multipliers are found from Eq. (24). These estimates for the NLL model are presented in Table 5 for the monthly and quarterly data.

The Lagrange multipliers can be interpreted as portfolio weights on the basic assets. They are the product of the HJ-discount weighting matrix and the vector of average pricing errors from the model. As both the weights and the errors differ across assets and because there is correlation across the elements of the multipliers, the interpretation of the individual significance of the multipliers is best done in a caution. Nevertheless, for monthly data, the endowments 11, 14, 42, and 53 as well as the risk-free return have statistically significant multipliers when the individual coefficients are evaluated at the 5% critical level. For quarterly data, these same portfolios plus portfolios 41 and 54 are also important. The importance of these portfolios is consistent with the observation that in each sequence, there is at least one large spread position in which one of the Lagrange multipliers is a large

Table 5

 λ for mon hl and q ar erl n ll models

The data are returns on the Fama-French 25 portfolios in excess of the T-bill rate and the return on the T-bill. Mon hl data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12; q ar erl data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. Portfolios are numbered in the index increasing from 1 to 5. The Lagrangian Multipliers, λ 's, are defined in Eq.(10) and their standard errors, $se(\lambda)$, are defined in Eq.(26). An asset risk indicates the parameter is significant at the 5% level.

Portfolio	Mon hl		Q ar erl	
	λ	$se(\lambda)$	λ	$se(\lambda)$
11	-6.35*	1.73	-5.42*	1.72
12	-3.83	2.41	-3.60	2.32
13	-1.75	3.27	-3.32	3.52
14	8.76*	4.24	10.02*	4.69
15	3.72	3.71	-2.45	4.24
21	-3.66	2.65	-3.93	2.69
22	-0.09	3.15	5.02	3.32
23	6.94	3.73	5.59	3.48
24	3.40	3.75	5.28	3.83
25	2.56	3.27	4.56	3.43
31	-2.75	3.17	-3.53	3.22
32	0.02	3.67	0.17	4.05
33	-3.72	3.87	-7.36	4.36
34	5.85	3.82	4.79	4.35
35	-0.29	2.71	1.92	2.58
41	6.92	3.62	9.90*	4.03
42	-10.59*	3.95	-11.97*	4.18
43	0.09	3.66	0.91	3.98
44	-0.67	3.10	-4.63	3.64
45	0.36	2.33	2.33	2.57
51	1.78	2.43	0.28	2.39
52	-0.25	3.11	1.21	3.15
53	5.65*	2.70	5.48*	2.77
54	-4.22	2.64	-6.21*	2.85
55	-0.30	1.67	-0.16	1.72
r	-0.18*	0.02	-0.42*	0.06

position number and another one close by is a large negative number. For the small firms, the portfolio positions indicate being long high B/M firms and short low B/M firms. Summing in the sequence in the results has one should be primarily long the second and short the fourth sequence in the results. Because the spread positions are probably associated with a single source of risk, it appears that there are essential factors of significant equity risk in these 25 portfolios.

4.5. Cb g e o o o o e

An alternative approach to compare models is to include the factors of several models simultaneously in the model of the pricing kernel and perform an exclusion test asking whether the second set of factors is necessary in the presence of the first. This section performs a limited comparison because the large dimensionality of the factors and scaled factor makes such a comparison impossible.

In the analysis above, both the Campbell model and the Fama-French three-factor model are reasonably successful. Including the additional FF3 factors, SMB and HML, in the pricing kernel of the Campbell model, one can see whether there are significant additional determinants of the pricing kernel. The results of this analysis are presented in Panel A of Table 6. Notice that none of the individual coefficients is significant at the 0.05 level of significance, in strong contrast to the results of the individual models. This is an indication of multicollinearity. Correlation across the factors also makes the exclusion test inconclusive. The F -value of the Wald test that the parameters associated with SMB and HML are zero is 0.435 indicating that these factors are unnecessary once the Campbell factors are present, but the comparable test that the FF3 model does not need the four additional factors of Campbell's model has a F -value of 0.215. Thus, since the factors of the respective models are significant when included individually, we can conclude that the same basic information is captured in different ways by the two models.

To avoid problems with multicollinearity, Campbell (1996) orthogonalizes the factors and scales them so that they have the same variance as the market return. The first factor is the market return, the second is the per capita labor income that is not explained by the market return, the third is the per capita dividend yield that is not explained by the market return and labor income, and so on. When we place the four Fama-French factors after the three Campbell factors, we ask whether the parameters of SMB and HML can now be explained by the Campbell factors are significant determinants of the pricing kernel. The results are presented in Panel B of Table 6.

The coefficients on vw , DIV , TRM , and HML are all more than 1.5 times their standard errors. In particular, even though HML is placed last in the ordering of variables, its F -value remains 0.069. Thus, HML appears to add some independent information to the pricing kernel over and above that provided by the Campbell factors.

Panels C and D of Table 6 report the results of a hybrid model that uses these four elements in the orthogonalized factors. The hybrid model has the smallest HJ-distance, 0.285, of any of the estimated models, and the test indicates no evidence against the model, except for the seriality test which again indicates potential problems with the model.

Table 6

Combining factors of Campbell's model and the Fama-French three-factor model

The data are returns on the Fama-French 25 portfolios in excess of the T-bill rate and the return on the T-bill. Monthly data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12; quarterly data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. The factors are collected from Campbell's model and FF3. We use Cholesky decomposition of orthogonal factors in Panels B and C. The parameters $\hat{\alpha}_i$ are factor prices defined in Eq. (3). The standard errors for $\hat{\alpha}_i$ are provided in the row of $se(\hat{\alpha}_i)$. The t -statistic for the test $\hat{\alpha}_i = 0$ is $t(\hat{\alpha}_i = 0)$. HJ-dis (δ) is Hansen-Jagannathan distance. t -statistic for the test $\delta = 0$ is calculated under the null $\delta = 0$ is $t(\delta = 0)$. Market error is the maximum annual pricing error for a portfolio with annual standard error of 20% under the assumption $E(\epsilon) = E(\epsilon)$. The standard error for HJ-distance under the alternative hypothesis $\delta \neq 0$ is $se(\delta)$. The t -statistic of the optimal GMM estimates is (J) . The t -statistic of the S-PLM statistics is S -PLM. An asterisk indicates the model fails the S-PLM test at the 5% significance level. No. of parameters is the number of parameters.

Fac ors	Cons an	vw	LBR	DIV	RTB	TRM	SMB	HML
$\alpha_i^A: Fama-French$								
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	-0.31	-0.02	-0.11	0.43	0.70	-0.38	-0.02	-0.06
$se(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	1.03	0.02	0.33	0.27	3.33	0.26	0.02	0.03
$t(\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0)$	0.76	0.35	0.74	0.11	0.83	0.14	0.37	0.07
$\alpha_i^B: Fama-French$								
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	-0.31	-0.05	-0.03	0.11	0.07	-0.10	-0.01	-0.03
$se(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	1.03	0.01	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.01	0.02
$t(\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0)$	0.76	0.00	0.61	0.09	0.27	0.12	0.46	0.07
Fac ors	Cons an	vw	DIV		TRM		HML	
$\alpha_i^C: Fama-French$								
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	0.02	-0.05	0.09		-0.14		-0.03	
$se(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	0.95	0.01	0.06		0.06		0.02	
$t(\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0)$	0.99	0.00	0.12		0.02		0.11	
HJ-dis (δ)	($\delta = 0$)	Market error	$se(\delta)$		(J)	S-PLM		No.-of para
α_i^D								
0.285	0.235	5.7%	0.058		0.144		192.736	
							5	

The inclusion of the Campbell model is having an additional variable has predicted the market return in a multivariate setting is a potential factor has a effect the cross-section of asset prices. To determine whether HML arises as a risk factor in this restricted context we estimated a cointegration of the four factors. The results indicate that HML is not an important determinant of the

Table 7
Robustness tests for nonscaled returns models

The tests are based on returns on the Fama-French 25 portfolios in excess of the T-bill rate and the return on the T-bill, conditioned on the term premium, the difference in yields between a 30-year government bond and a one-year bond. Monthly data are from 1952:01 to 1997:12; quarterly data are from 1953:01 to 1997:04. The test statistics are: 1, tests of HJ-dispersion = 0 using parameter estimates from optimal GMM for corresponding nonscaled return models; 2, tests of optimal GMM orthogonality condition using parameter estimates from optimal GMM for corresponding nonscaled return models; 3, tests of HJ-dispersion = 0 using parameter estimates from minimizing HJ-dispersion for corresponding nonscaled return models.

	NULL	CAPM	CCAPM	JW	CAMP	FF3	FF5
<i>Panel A: Monthly</i>							
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	0	0.001	0.003
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Panel B: Quarterly</i>							
1	0	0	0	0.002	0	0	0
2	0	0.004	0	0.004	0	0.017	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Panel C: Monthly</i>							
1	0	0	0.001	0	0	0	0
2	0	0.001	0.036	0.002	0	0.007	0.086
3	0	0	0.075	0.004	0	0.001	0.001

	NULL	CAPM	CCAPM	JW	CAMP	COCH	FF3	FF5
<i>Panel D: Monthly</i>								
1	0	0	0.014	0.002	0	0	0.002	0.003
2	0.003	0.005	0.012	0.006	0	0	0.040	0.049
3	0	0	0.006	0.001	0	0	0.001	0.002
<i>Panel E: Quarterly</i>								
1	0.0050.006	0.001	0	0.0010				
2	0.001	0.005	0.0060.001					

Panel F: Monthly

35qjj9qj95M'-49 M 0.001ZPq 9Mj 0ZP 9qM4 0ZPq -'M 0.001ZP-9 M1 0.003Z?ImW qR9R?fm

j 30.0050.0120.001

book-to-market ratios in files, average returns are generally decreasing in size. The conditional CAPM cannot explain these returns.

We consider only linear extensions of the models, and evaluate the models in both nonscaled factors and scaled factors, where the scaling reflects either business-cycle movements or a January dummy. The models are compared using the methodology of Hansen and Jagannathan (1997) who recognize that the estimated distance between a model's pricing kernel and the true pricing kernel also is an estimate of the maximal mispricing of a portfolio of the assets. We also evaluate the models using the optimal GMM tests of Hansen (1982). In general, the endline disagreements between the models. Finally, we evaluate the temporal stability of the parameters using the splines of Andrews (1993).

For monthly models in both nonscaled factors, Campbell's (1996) model is the only model that passes the tests of HJ-distance equality, and its estimated HJ-distance is also smaller than that of the Fama-French (1993) three-factor model. Only three of the six factors in the model appear to be important here: return on the market portfolio, the dividend yield, and the term premium. The HML factor of the Fama-French model also has independent information over and above that provided by these three factors. Unfortunately, the Campbell model fails to pass the stability tests. While the simulation standard of Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) provides some support for the small-sample distributions of the HJ-distance tests are reliable for our sample size, no comparable standard of the small-sample distributions of the stability tests has been conducted. Thus, additional standard of the Campbell model is desirable. In particular, we evaluate only the linear extension of the model.

Scaling the risk factors of the models in the cyclical elements in industrial production as measured by the Hodrick-Prescott (1997) filter improves the performance of several of the models. The CAPM, CCAPM, and Jagannathan and Wang (1996) models all have significant coefficients on the scaled factors. There is also evidence that pricing in January is significantly different than pricing outside of January. For example, when the three factors of the Fama-French (1993) model are entered in the scaling, only the market return and the HML portfolio are significant risk factors. When the factors are also scaled in a January dummy, the market return and the HML portfolio retain their significance and the SMB portfolio is significant in January. This latter model also passes the stability tests.

With quarterly data, none of the models in both nonscaled factors passes the tests of HJ-distance equality. Nevertheless, the simulation results of Ahn and Gadaroski (1999) suggest that these results should be interpreted with care as the sizes of the estimates appear to deteriorate in this sample size. Neither scaling in the cyclical components of GNP, as measured by the Hodrick-Prescott (1997) filter, nor scaling in the consumption-leisure series of Leamer and Ludvigson (2001a) has much of an influence on the results.

Additionally, none of the models, either monthly or quarterly, appears to be robust in the following sense. When we estimate the parameters of the models using the basic returns and ask the models to price the set of assets constructed by scaling returns in the term premium, all of the models fail.

There are several directions in which this study could be extended. First, we construct portfolios as if there are no transactions costs or short-sale constraints in asset markets. Hanna and Read (1999) find that transaction

A $\hat{\beta}$.

We re calculate parameter estimates from optimal GMM using the 26 re

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min g(\beta, \hat{\beta})' * g(\beta, \hat{\beta}). \quad (\text{B.1})$$

Then, under the null hypothesis the reparameter, the set of scaled re should be correctly priced in $\hat{\beta}$. We calculate the new J statistics as

$$J = g(\beta, \hat{\beta})' v [g(\beta, \hat{\beta})]^{-1} g(\beta, \hat{\beta}), \quad (\text{B.2})$$

here

$$g(\beta, \hat{\beta}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} [(F_{t+1})' (F_{t+1}) - 1]. \quad (\text{B.3})$$

The J -statistic is distributed as a $\chi^2(\cdot)$ under the null. The degrees of freedom are because the heteroskedasticity conditions, and we do not estimate an additional parameter. The same argument applies to HJ-disincentive. With the heteroskedasticity conditions for scaled re, we need to calculate the new δ and the distribution of δ^2 . Since the re estimates based on optimal GMM are not different from those obtained from HJ-disincentive estimation, we choose to use the estimates from optimal GMM to calculate the new HJ-disincentive for the new scaled assets.

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