expectations at this stage, although it will be a feature of many of the models we consider. The ERP at time t for horizon k is defined as

$$ERP_t(k) = E_t[R_{t+k}] - R^f_{t+k}, \tag{2}$$

where R^f_{t+k} is the risk-free rate for investing from t to $t + k$ (which, being risk-free, is known at time t).

This definition shows three important aspects of the ERP. First, future expected returns and the future ERP are stochastic, since expectations depend on the arrival of new information that has a random component not known in advance[7]. Second, the ERP has an investment horizon k embedded in it, since we can consider expected excess returns over, say, one month, one year or five years from today. If we fix t, and let k vary, we trace the *term structure* of the equity risk premium. Third, if expectations are rational, because the unexpected component $error_{t+k}$ is stochastic and orthogonal to expected returns, the ERP is always less volatile than realized excess returns. In this case, we expect ERP estimates to be smoother than realized excess returns.

3. Models of the Equity Risk Premium

We describe twenty models of the equity risk premium, comparing their advantages, disadvantages and ease of implementation. Of course, there are many more models of the ERP than the ones we consider. We selected the models in our study based on the recent academic literature, their widespread use by practitioners and data availability. Table I describes the data we use and their sources, all of which are either readily available or standard in the literature[8]. With a few exceptions, all data is monthly from January 1960 to June 2013. Appendix A provides more details.

[Insert Table I here]

[7] More precisely, $E_t[R_{t+k}]$ and $ERP_t(k)$ are known at time t but random from the perspective of all earlier periods.

[8] In fact, except for data from I/B/E/S and Compustat, all sources are public.

We classify the twenty models into five categories based on their underlying assumptions; models in the same category tend to give similar estimates for the ERP. The five categories are: models based on the historical mean of realized returns, dividend discount models, cross-sectional regressions, time-series regressions and surveys.

All but one of the estimates of the ERP are constructed in real time, so that an investor who lived through the sample would have been able to construct the measures at each point in time using available information only[9]. This helps minimize look-ahead bias and makes any out-of-sample evaluation of the models more meaningful. Clearly, most of the models themselves were designed only recently and were not available to investors in real time, potentially introducing another source of forward-looking and selection biases that are much more difficult to quantify and eliminate.

3.1 Historical mean of realized returns

The easiest approach to estimating the ERP is to use the historical mean of realized market returns in excess of the contemporaneous risk-free rate. This model is very simple and, as shown in Goyal and Welch (2008), quite difficult to improve upon when considering out-of-sample predictability performance measures. The main drawbacks are that it is purely backward looking and assumes that the future will behave like the past, i.e. it assumes the mean of excess returns is either constant or very slow moving over time, giving very little time-variation in the ERP. The main choice is how far back into the past we should go when computing the historical mean. Table II shows the two versions of historical mean models that we use.

[Insert Table II here]

[9] The one exception is Adrian, Crump and Moench's (2014) cross-sectional model, which is constructed using full-sample regression estimates.

3.2 Dividend discount models (DDM)

All DDM start with the basic intuition that the value of a stock is determined by no more and no less than the cash flows it produces for its shareholders, as in Gordon (1962). Today's stock price should then be the sum of all expected future cash flows, discounted at an appropriate rate to take into account their riskiness and the time value of money. The formula that reflects this intuition is

$$P_t = \frac{D_t}{\rho_t} + \frac{E_t[D_{t+1}]}{\rho_{t+1}} + \frac{E_t[D_{t+2}]}{\rho_{t+2}} + \frac{E_t[D_{t+3}]}{\rho_{t+3}} + \cdots, \tag{3}$$

where P_t is the current price of the stock, D_t are current cash flows, $E_t[D_{t+k}]$ are the cash flows k periods from now expected as of time t, and ρ_{t+k} is the discount rate for time $t+k$ from the perspective of time t. Cash flows to stockholders certainly include dividends, but can also arise from spin-offs, buy-outs, mergers, buy-backs, etc. In general, the literature focuses on dividend distributions because they are readily available data-wise and account for the vast majority of cash flows. The discount rate can be decomposed into

$$\rho_{t+k} = 1 + R^f_{t+k} + ERP_t(k). \tag{4}$$

In this framework, the risk-free rate captures the discounting associated with the time value of money and the ERP captures the discounting associated with the riskiness of dividends. When using a DDM, we refer to $ERP_t(k)$ as the *implied* ERP. The reason is that we plug in prices, risk-free rates and estimated expected future dividends into equation (3), and then derive what value of $ERP_t(k)$ makes the right-hand side equal to the left-hand side in the equation, i.e. what ERP value is *implied* by equation (3).

DDM are forward looking and are consistent with no arbitrage. In fact, equation (3) must hold in any economy with no arbitrage[10]. Another advantage of DDM is that they are easy to implement. A drawback of DDM is that the results are sensitive to how we compute expectations of future dividends. Table III displays the DDM we consider and a brief description of their different assumptions.

[Insert Table III here]

3.3 Cross-sectional regressions

This method exploits the variation in returns and exposures to the S&P 500 of different assets to infer the ERP[11]. Intuitively, cross-sectional regressions find the ERP by answering the following question: what is the level of the ERP that makes expected returns on a variety of stocks consistent with their exposure to the S&P 500? Because we need to explain the relationship between returns and exposures for multiple stocks with a single value for the ERP (and perhaps a small number of other variables), this model imposes tight restrictions on estimates of the ERP.

The first step is to find the exposures of assets to the S&P 500 by estimating an equation of the following form:

$$R_{t+k}^{i} - R_{t+k}^{f} = \alpha^{i} \times state\ variables_{t+k} + \beta^{i} \times risk\ factors_{t+k} + idiosyncratic\ risk_{t+k}^{i}. \quad (5)$$

In equation (5), R_{t+k}^{i} is the realized return on a stock or portfolio i from time t to $t+k$. $State\ variables_{t+k}$ are any economic indicators that help identify the state of the economy and its likely future path. $Risk\ factors_{t+k}$ are any measures of systematic contemporaneous co-variation in returns across all stocks or portfolios. Of course, some economic indicators can be both state variables and risk

[10] Note that when performing the infinite summation in equation (3) we have not assumed the n^{th} term goes to zero as n tends to infinity, which allows for rational bubbles. In this sense, DDM do allow for a specific kind of bubble.

[11] See Polk, Thompson and Vuolteenaho (2006) and Adrian, Crump and Moench (2014) for a detailed description of this method.

factors at the same time. Finally, $idiosyncratic\ risk_{t+k}^{i}$ is the component of returns that is particular to each individual stock or portfolio that is not explained by $state\ variables_{t+k}$ or $risk\ factors_{t+k}$ (both of which, importantly, are common to all stocks and hence not indexed by i). Examples of state variables are inflation, unemployment, the yield spread between Aaa and Baa bonds, the yield spread between short and long term Treasuries, and the S&P 500's dividend-to-price ratio. The most important risk factor is the excess return on the S&P 500, which we must include if we want to infer the ERP consistent with the cross-section of stock returns. Other risk-factors usually used are the Fama-French (1992) factors and the momentum factor of Carhart (1997). The values in the vector α^{i} give the strength of asset-specific return predictability and the values in the vector β^{i} give the asset-specific exposures to risk factors[12]. For the cross-section of assets indexed by i, we can use the whole universe of traded stocks, a subset of them, or portfolios of stocks grouped, for example, by industry, size, book-to-market, or recent performance. It is important to point out that equation (5) is not a predictive regression; the left and right-hand side variables are both associated with time $t+k$.

The second step is to find the ERP associated with the S&P 500 by estimating the cross-sectional equations

$$R_{t+k}^{i} - R_{t+k}^{f} = \lambda_t(k) \times \hat{\beta}^{i} , \tag{6}$$

where $\hat{\beta}^{i}$ are the values found when estimating equation (5). Equation (6) attempts to find, at each point in time, the vector of numbers $\lambda_t(k)$ that makes exposures β^{i} as consistent as possible with realized excess returns of all stocks or portfolios considered. The element in the vector $\hat{\lambda}_t(k)$ that is multiplied by

[12] The vectors α^{i} and β^{i} could also be time-varying, reflecting a more dynamic relation between returns and their explanatory variables. In this case, the estimation of equation (5) is more complicated and requires making further assumptions. The model by Adrian, Crump and Moench (2014) is the only cross-sectional model we examine that uses time-varying α^{i} and β^{i} .

the element in the $\hat{\beta}^i$ vector corresponding to the S&P 500 is $ERP_t(k)$, the equity risk premium we are seeking.

One advantage of cross-sectional regressions is that they use information from more asset prices than other models. Cross-sectional regressions also have sound theoretical foundations, since they provide one way to implement Merton's (1973) Intertemporal Capital Asset Pricing Model. Finally, this method nests many of the other models considered. The two main drawbacks of this method are that results are dependent on what portfolios, state variables and risk factors are used (Harvey, Liu and Zhu (2014)), and that it is not as easy to implement as most of the other options. Table IV displays the cross-sectional models in our study, together with the state variables and risk factors they use.

[Insert Table IV here]

3.4 Time-series regressions

Time-series regressions use the relationship between economic variables and stock returns to estimate the ERP. The idea is to run a predictive linear regression of realized excess returns on lagged "fundamentals":

$$R_{t+k} - R^f_{t+k} = a + b \times Fundamental_t + error_t. \tag{7}$$

Once estimates $\hat{a}$ and $\hat{b}$ for a and b are obtained, the ERP is obtained by ignoring the error term:

$$ERP_t(k) = \hat{a} + \hat{b} \times Fundamental_t. \tag{8}$$

In other words, we estimate only the forecastable or expected component of excess returns. This method attempts to implement equations (1) and (2) as directly as possible in equations (7) and (8), with the assumption that "fundamentals" are the right sources of information to look at when computing expected returns, and that a linear equation is the correct functional specification.

The use of time-series regressions requires minimal assumptions; there is no concept of equilibrium and no absence of arbitrage necessary for the method to be valid[13]. In addition, implementation is quite simple, since it only involves running ordinary least-square regressions. The challenge is to select what variables to include on the right-hand side of equation (7), since results can change substantially depending on what variables are used to take the role of "fundamentals". In addition, including more than one predictor gives poor out-of-sample predictions even if economic theory may suggest a role for many variables to be used simultaneously (Goyal and Welch (2008)). Finally, time-series regressions ignore information in the cross-section of stock returns. Table V shows the time-series regression models that we study.

[Insert Table V here]

3.5 Surveys

The survey approach consists of asking economic agents about the current level of the ERP. Surveys incorporate the views of many people, some of which are very sophisticated and/or make real investment decisions based on the level of the ERP. Surveys should also be good predictors of excess returns because in principle stock prices are determined by supply and demand of investors such as the ones taking the surveys. On the other hand, Greenwood and Shleifer (2014) document that investor expectations of future stock market returns are positively correlated with past stock returns and with the current level of the stock market, but strongly *negatively* correlated with model-based expected returns and future realized stock market returns. Other studies such as Easton and Sommers (2007) also argue that survey measures of the ERP can be systematically biased. In this paper, we use the survey of CFOs by Graham and Harvey (2012), which to our knowledge is the only large-scale ERP survey that has more than just a few years of data (see Table VI).

[Insert Table VI here]

[13] However, the Arbitrage Pricing Theory of Ross (1976) provides a strong theoretical underpinning for time-series regressions by using no-arbitrage conditions.

4. Estimation of the Equity Risk Premium

We now study the behavior of the twenty models we consider by conducting principal component analysis. Since forecast accuracy can be substantially improved through the combination of multiple forecasts[14], the optimal strategy to forecast excess stock returns may consist of combining together all these models. The first principal component of the twenty models that we use is the linear combination of ERP estimates that captures as much of the variation in the data as possible. The second, third, and successive principal components are the linear combinations of the twenty models that explain as much of the variation of the data as possible and are also uncorrelated to all the preceding principal components. If the first few principal components —say one or two— account for most of the variation of the data, then we can use them as a good summary for the variation in all the measures over time, reducing the dimensionality from twenty to one or two. In addition, in the presence of classical measurement error, the first few principal components can achieve a higher signal-to-noise ratio than other summary measures like the cross-sectional mean of all models (Geiger and Kubin (2013)).

To compute the first principal component, we proceed in three steps. We first de-mean all ERP estimates and find their variance-covariance matrix. In the second step, we find the linear combination that explains as much of the variance of the de-meaned models as possible. The weights in the linear combination are the elements of the eigenvector associated with the largest eigenvalue of the variance-covariance matrix found in the first step. In the third step, we add to the linear combination just obtained, which has mean zero, the average of ERP estimates across all models and all time periods. Under the assumption that each of the models is an unbiased and consistent estimator of the ERP, the average across all models and all time periods is an unbiased and consistent estimator of the unconditional mean of the ERP. The time

[14] See, *inter alia*, Clemen (1989), Diebold and Lopez (1996) and Timmermann (2006).

variation in the first principal component then provides an estimate of the conditional ERP[15]. The share of the variance of the underlying models explained by this principal component is 76 percent, suggesting that there is not too much to gain from examining principal components beyond the first[16].

We now focus on the one-year-ahead ERP estimates and study other horizons in the next section.

The first two columns in Table VII show the mean and standard deviation of each model's estimates. The unconditional mean of the ERP across all models is 5.7 percent, with an average standard deviation of 3.2 percent. DDM give the lowest mean ERP estimates and have moderate standard deviations. In contrast, cross-sectional models tend to have mean ERP estimates on the high end of the distribution and very smooth time-series. Mean ERP estimates for time-series regressions are mixed, with high and low values depending on the predictors used, but uniformly large variances. The survey of CFOs has a mean and standard deviation that are both about half as large as in the overall population of models. The picture that emerges from Table VII is that there is considerable heterogeneity across model types, and even sometimes within model types, thereby underscoring the difficulty inherent in finding precise estimates of the ERP.

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[15] As is customary in the literature, we perform the analysis using ERP estimates in levels, even though they are quite persistent. Results in first-differences do not give economically reasonable estimates since they feature a pro-cyclical ERP and unreasonable magnitudes.

One challenge that arises in computing the principal component is when we have missing observations, either because some models can only be obtained at frequencies lower than monthly or because the necessary data is not available for all time periods (Appendix A contains a detailed description of when this happens). To overcome this challenge, we use an iterative linear projection method, which conceptually preserves the idea behind principal components. Let X be the matrix that has observations for different models in its columns and for different time periods in its rows. On the first iteration, we make a guess for the principal component and regress the non-missing elements of each row of X on the guess and a constant. We then find the first principal component of the variance-covariance matrix of the fitted values of these regressions, and use it as the guess for the next iteration. The process ends when the norm of the difference between consecutive estimates is small enough. We thank Richard Crump for suggesting this method and providing the code for its implementation.

[16] The second and third principal components account for 13 and 8 percent of the variance, respectively.

[Insert Table VII here]

Figure 1 shows the time-series for all one-year-ahead ERP model estimates, with each class of models in a different panel. The green lines are the ERP estimates from the twenty underlying models. The black line, reproduced in each of the panels, is the principal component of all twenty models. The shaded areas are NBER recessions. The figure gives a sense of how the time-series move together, and how much they co-vary with the first principal component. Table VIII shows the correlations among models. Figure 1 and Table VIII give the same message: despite some outliers, there is a fairly strong correlation within each of the five classes of models. Across classes, however, correlations are small and even negative. Interestingly, the correlation between some DDM and cross-sectional models is as low as -91 percent. This negative correlation, however, disappears if we look at lower frequencies. When aggregated to quarterly frequency, the smallest correlation between DDM and cross-sectional models is -22 percent, while at the annual frequency it is 12 percent.

[Insert Figure 1 here]

[Insert Table VIII here]

Figure 1 also shows that the first principal component co-varies negatively with historical mean models, but positively with DDM and cross-sectional regression models. Time-series regression models are also positively correlated with the first principal component, although this is not so clearly seen in Panel 4 of Figure 1 because of the high volatility of time-series ERP estimates. The last panel shows that the survey of CFOs does track the first principal component quite well at low frequencies (e.g. annual), although any conclusions about survey estimates should be interpreted with caution given the short length of the sample.

As explained earlier, the first principal component is a linear combination of the twenty underlying ERP models:

$$PC_t^{(1)} = \sum_{m=1}^{20} w^{(m)} ERP_t^{(m)}. \tag{9}$$

In the above equation, m indexes the different models, $PC_t^{(1)}$ is the first principal component, $ERP_t^{(m)}$ is the estimate from model m and $w^{(m)}$ is the weight that the principal component places on model m. The third column in Table VII, labeled "PC coefficients", shows the weights $w^{(m)}$ normalized to sum up to one to facilitate comparison, i.e. the table reports the weights $\widehat{w}^{(m)}$ where

$$\widehat{w}^{(m)} = \frac{w^{(m)}}{\sum_{m=1}^{20} w^{(m)}}. \tag{10}$$

The first principal component puts positive weight on models based on the historical mean, cross-sectional regressions and the survey of CFOs. It weights DDM and time-series regressions mostly negatively. The absolute values of the weights are very similar for many of the models, and there is no single model or class of models that dominates. This means that the first principal component uses information from many of the models.

The last column in Table VII, labeled "Exposure to PC", shows the extent to which models *load* on the first principal component. By construction, each of the twenty ERP models can be written as a linear combination of twenty principal components:

$$ERP_t^{(m)} = \sum_{i=1}^{20} load_i^{(m)} PC_t^{(i)}, \tag{11}$$

where m indexes the model and i indexes the principal components. The values in the last column of Table VII are the loadings on the first principal component ($i = 1$) for each model ($m = 1, 2, \ldots, 20$), again normalized to one for ease of comparability:

$$\widehat{load}_1^{(m)} = \frac{load_1^{(m)}}{\sum_{m=1}^{20} load_i^{(m)}}. \quad (12)$$

Most models have a positive loading on the first principal component; whenever the loading is negative, it tends to be relatively small. This means the first principal component, as expected, is a good explanatory variable for most models. Looking at the third and fourth columns of Table VII together, we can obtain additional information. For example, a model with a very high loading (fourth column) accompanied by a very small PC coefficient (third column) is likely to mean that the model is almost redundant, in the sense that it is close to being a linear combination of all other models and does not provide much independent information to the principal component. On the other hand, if the PC coefficient and loading are both high, the corresponding model is likely providing information not contained in other measures.

Figure 2 shows the first principal component of all twenty models in black, with recessions indicated by shaded bars (the black line is the same principal component shown in black in each of the panels of Figure 1). As expected, the principal component tends to peak during financial turmoil, recessions and periods of low real GDP growth or high inflation. It tends to bottom out after periods of sustained bullish stock markets and high real GDP growth. Evaluated by the first principal component, the one-year-ahead ERP reaches a local peak in June of 2012 at 12.2 percent. The surrounding months have ERP estimates of similar magnitude, with the most recent estimate in June 2013 at 11.2 percent. This behavior is not so clearly seen by simply looking at the collection of individual models in Figure 1, highlighting the usefulness of principal components analysis. Similarly high levels were seen in the mid and late 1970s, during a period of stagflation, while the recent financial crisis had slightly lower ERP estimates closer to 10 percent.

[Insert Figure 2 here]

Figure 2 also displays the 10th, 25th, 75th and 90th percentiles of the cross-sectional distribution of models. These bands can be interpreted as confidence intervals, since they give the range of the distribution of ERP estimates at each point in time. However, they do not incorporate other relevant sources of uncertainty, such as the errors that occur during the estimation of each individual model, the degree of doubt in the correctness of each model, and the correlation structure between these and all other kinds of errors. Standard error bands that capture all sources of uncertainty are therefore likely to be wider.

The difference in high and low percentiles can also be interpreted as measures of agreement across models. The interquartile range –the difference between the 25th and 75th percentiles— has compressed, mostly because the models in the bottom of the distribution have had higher ERP estimates since 2010. It is also interesting to note that the 75th percentile has remained fairly constant over the last 10 years at a level somewhat below its long-run mean. The cross-sectional standard deviation in ERP estimates (not shown in the graph) also decreased from 10.2% in January of 2000 to 4.3% in June of 2013, confirming that the disagreement among models has decreased.

Another *a priori* reasonable summary statistic for the ERP is the cross-sectional mean of estimates across models. In Figure 3, we can see that by this measure the ERP has also been increasing since the crisis. However, unlike the principal component, it has not reached elevated levels compared to past values. The cross-sectional mean can be useful, but it has a few undesirable features as an overall measure of the ERP compared to the first principal component. First, it is procyclical, which contradicts the economic intuition that expected returns are highest in recessions, when risk aversion is high and future prospects look brighter than current ones. Second, it overloads on DDM simply because there is a higher number of DDM models in our sample. Lastly, it has a smaller correlation with the realized returns it is supposed to predict.

[Insert Figure 3 here]

5. The Term Structure of Equity Risk Premia

In Section 2, we described the term structure of the ERP – what expected excess returns are over different investment horizons. In practical terms, we estimate the ERP at different horizons by using the inputs for all the models at the corresponding horizons[17]. For example, if we want to take the historical mean of returns as our estimate, we can take the mean of returns over one month, six months, or a one-year period. In cross-sectional and time-series regressions, we can predict monthly, quarterly or annual returns using monthly, quarterly or annual right-hand side variables. DDM, on the other hand, have little variation across horizons. In fact, all the DDM we consider have a constant term structure of expected stock returns, and the only term structure variation in ERP estimates comes from risk-free rates[18].

Figure 4 plots the first principal components of the ERP as a function of investment horizon for some selected dates. We picked the dates because they are typical dates for when the ERP was unusually high or unusually low at the one-month horizon. As was the case for one-year-ahead ERP estimates, we can capture the majority of the variance of the underlying models at all horizons by a single principal component. The shares of the variance explained by the first principal components at horizons of one month to three years range between 68 and 94 percent. The grey line in Figure 4 shows the average of the term structure across all periods. It is slightly upward sloping, with a short-term ERP at just over 6 percent and a three-year ERP at almost 7 percent.

[Insert Figure 4 here]

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[17] For other ways to estimate the term structure of the ERP using equilibrium models or derivatives, see Ait-Sahalia, Karaman and Mancini (2014), Ang and Ulrich (2012), van Binsbergen, Hueskes, Koijen and Vrugt (2014), Boguth, Carlson, Fisher and Simutin (2012), Durham (2013), Croce, Lettau and Ludvigson (2014), Lemke and Werner (2009), Lettau and Wachter (2011), Muir (2013), among others.

[18] In equation (3), ρ_{t+k} is assumed to be the same for all k, while risk-free rates are allowed to vary over the investment horizon k in equation (4). Of course, with additional assumptions, it is possible to have DDM with a non-constant term structure of expected excess returns.

The first observation is that the term structure of the ERP has significant time variation and can be flat, upward or downward sloping. Figure 4 also shows some examples that hint at lower future expected excess returns when the one-month-ahead ERP is elevated and the term structure is downward sloping, and higher future expected excess returns when the one-month-ahead ERP is low and the term structure is upward sloping. In fact, this is generally true: There is a strong negative correlation between the level and the slope of the ERP term structure of -71 percent. Figure 5 plots monthly observations of the one-month-ahead ERP against the slope of the ERP term structure (the three-year-ahead minus the one-month-ahead ERP) together with the corresponding ordinary least squares regression line in black. Of course, this is only a statistical pattern and should not be interpreted as a causal relation.

[Insert Figure 5 here]

6. Why is the Equity Risk Premium High?

There are two reasons why the ERP can be high: low discount rates and high current or expected future cash flows.

Figure 6 shows that earnings are unlikely to be the reason why the ERP is high. The green line shows the year-on-year change in the mean expectation of one-year-ahead earnings per share for the S&P 500. These expectations are obtained from surveys conducted by the Institutional Brokers' Estimate System (I/B/E/S) and available from Thomson Reuters. Expected earnings per share have been declining from 2010 to 2013, making earnings growth an unlikely reason for why the ERP was high in the corresponding period. The black line shows the realized monthly growth rates of real earnings for the S&P 500 expressed in annualized percentage points. Since 2010, earnings growth has been declining, hovering around zero for the last few months of the sample. It currently stands at 2.5 percent, which is near its long-run average.

[Insert Figure 6 here]

Another way to examine whether a high ERP is due to discount rates or cash flows is shown in Figure 7. The black line is the same one-year-ahead ERP estimate shown in Figure 2. The green line simply adds the realized one-year Treasury yield to obtain expected stock returns. The figure shows expected stock returns have increased since 2000, similarly to the ERP. However, unlike the ERP, expected stock returns are close to their long-run mean, and nowhere near their highest levels, achieved in 1980. The discrepancies between the two lines are due to exceptionally low bond yields since the end of the financial crisis.

[Insert Figure 7 here]

Figure 8 displays the term structure of the ERP under a simple counterfactual scenario, in addition to the mean and current term structures already displayed in Figure 4. In this scenario, we leave expected stock returns unmodified but change the risk-free rates in June 2012 from their actual values to the average nominal bond yields over 1960-2013. In other words, we replace R^f_{t+k} in equation (2) by the mean of R^f_{t+k} over t. The result of this counterfactual is shown in Figure 8 in green. Using average levels of bond yields brings the whole term structure of the ERP much closer to its mean level (the grey line), especially at intermediate horizons. This shows that a “normalization” of bond yields, everything else being equal, would bring the ERP close to its historical norm. This exercise shows that the current environment of low bond yields is capable, quantitatively speaking, of significantly contributing to an ERP as high as was observed in 2012-2013.

[Insert Figure 8 here]

7. Conclusion

We have analyzed twenty different models of the ERP by considering the assumptions and data required to implement them, and how they relate to each other. When it comes to the ERP, we find that there is substantial heterogeneity in estimation methodology and final estimates. We then extract the first principal component of the twenty models, which signals that the ERP in 2012 and 2013 is at heightened levels compared to previous periods. Our analysis provides evidence that the current level of the ERP is consistent with a bond-driven ERP: expected excess stock returns are elevated not because stocks are expected to have high returns, but because bond yields are exceptionally low. The models we consider suggest that expected stock returns, on their own, are close to average levels.

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Appendix A: Data Variables

Fama and French (1992)	http://mba.tuck.dartmouth.edu/pages/faculty/ken.french/data_library.html Monthly frequency; 1/1/1960 to 6/30/2013. We use 25 portfolios sorted on size and book to market, 10 portfolios sorted on momentum, realized excess market returns, HML, SMB, and the momentum factor.
Shiller (2005)	http://www.econ.yale.edu/~shiller/data.htm Monthly frequency; 1/1/1960 to 6/30/2013. We use the nominal and real price, nominal and real dividends and nominal and real earnings for the S&P 500, CPI, and 10 year nominal treasury yield.
Baker and Wurgler (2007)	http://people.stern.nyu.edu/jwurgler/data/Investor_Sentiment_Data_v23_POST.xlsx Monthly frequency; 7/1/1965 to 12/1/2010. We use the "sentiment measure".
Graham and Harvey (2012)	http://www.cfosurvey.org/index.htm Quarterly frequency; 6/6/2000 to 6/5/2013. We use the answer to the question "Over the next 10 years, I expect the average annual S&P 500 return will be: Expected return:" and the analogous one that asks about the next year.
Damodaran (2012)	http://www.stern.nyu.edu/~adamodar/pc/datasets/histimpl.xls Annual frequency; 1/1/1960 to 12/1/2012. We use the ERP estimates from his dividend discount models (one uses free-cash flow, the other one doesn't).
Gurkaynak, Sack and Wright (2007)	http://www.federalreserve.gov/pubs/feds/2006/200628/200628abs.html Daily frequency; starting on 6/14/61 for one- to seven-year yields; 8/16/71 for nine- and ten-year yields; 11/15/71 for eleven- to fifteen-year yields; 7/2/81 for sixteen- to twenty-year yields; 11/25/85 for twenty-one- to thirty-year yields. We use all series until 6/30/2013.
Gurkaynak, Refet, Sack and Wright (2010)	http://www.federalreserve.gov/econresdata/researchdata.htm Monthly frequency; 1/1/2003 to 7/1/2013. We use yields on TIPS of all maturities available.
Compustat	Variable BKVLPS Annual frequency; 12/31/1977 to 12/31/2012.
Thomson Reuters I/B/E/S	Variables EPS 1 2 3 4 5 Monthly frequency; 1/14/1982 to 4/18/2013 for current and next year forecasts; 9/20/84 to 4/18/2013 for two-year-ahead forecasts; 9/19/85 to 3/15/2012 for three-year-ahead forecasts; 2/18/88 to 3/15/07 for four-year-ahead forecasts.
FRED (St. Louis Federal Reserve)	http://research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/graph/?g=D9J and http://research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/graph/?g=KKk Monthly frequency. 1/1/1960 to 7/1/2013 for Baa minus Aaa bond yield spread and recession indicator.

Tables and Figures

Table I: Data sources	
Fama and French (1992)	Fama-French factors, momentum factor, twenty-five portfolios sorted on size and book-to-market
Shiller (2005)	Inflation and ten-year nominal treasury yield. Nominal price, real price, earnings, dividends and cyclically adjusted price-earnings ratio for the S&P 500
Baker and Wurgler (2007)	Debt issuance, equity issuance, sentiment measure
Graham and Harvey (2012)	ERP estimates from the Duke CFO survey
Damodaran (2012)	ERP estimates
Gurkaynak, Sack and Wright (2007)	Zero coupon nominal bond yields for all maturities[19]
Gurkaynak, Refet, Sack and Wright (2010)	Zero coupon TIPS yields for all maturities
Compustat	Book value per share for the S&P 500
Thomson Reuters I/B/E/S	Mean analyst forecast of expected earnings per share
FRED (St. Louis Federal Reserve)	Corporate bond Baa-Aaa spread and the NBER recession indicator

Note: All variables start in January 1960 (or later, if unavailable for early periods) and end in June 2013 (or until no longer available). CFO surveys are quarterly; book value per share and ERP estimates by Damodaran (2012) are annual; all other variables are monthly. Appendix A provides more details.

[19] Except for the 10-year yield, which is from Shiller (2005). We use the 10-year yield from Shiller (2005) for ease of comparability with the existing literature. Results are virtually unchanged if we use all yields, including the 10-year yield, from Gurkaynak, Sack and Wright (2007).

Table II: Models based on the historical mean of realized returns	
Long-run mean	Average of realized S&P 500 returns minus the risk-free rate using all available historical data
Mean of the previous five years	Average of realized S&P 500 returns minus the risk-free rate using only data for the previous five years

Table III: Dividend Discount Models	
Gordon (1962) with nominal yields	S&P 500 dividend-to-price ratio minus the ten-year nominal Treasury yield
Shiller (2005)	Cyclically adjusted price-earnings ratio (CAPE) minus the ten-year nominal Treasury yield
Gordon (1962) with real yields	S&P 500 dividend-to-price ratio minus the ten year real Treasury yield (computed as the ten-year nominal Treasury rate minus the ten year breakeven inflation implied by TIPS)
Gordon (1962) with earnings forecasts	S&P 500 expected earnings-to-price ratio minus the ten-year nominal Treasury yield
Gordon (1962) with real yields and earnings forecasts	S&P 500 expected earnings-to-price ratio minus the ten-year real Treasury yield (computed as the ten-year nominal Treasury rate minus the ten-year breakeven inflation implied by TIPS)
Panigirtzoglou and Loeys (2005)	Two-stage DMM. The growth rate of earnings over the first five years is estimated by using the fitted values in a regression of average realized earnings growth over the last five years on its lag and lagged earnings-price ratio. The growth rate of earnings from years six and onwards is 2.2 percent
Damodaran (2012)	A six-stage DDM. Dividend growth the first five stages are estimated from analyst's earnings forecasts. Dividend growth in the sixth stage is the ten-year nominal Treasury yield
Damodaran (2012) free cash flow	Same as Damodaran (2012), but uses free-cash-flow-to-equity as a proxy for dividends plus stock buybacks

Table IV: Models with cross-sectional regressions	
Fama and French (1992)	Uses the excess returns on the market portfolio, a size portfolio and a book-to-market portfolio as risk factors
Carhart (1997)	Identical to Fama and French (1992) but adds the momentum measure of Carhart (1997) as an additional risk factor
Duarte (2013)	Identical to Carhart (1997) but adds an inflation risk factor
Adrian, Crump and Moench (2014)	Uses the excess returns on the market portfolio as the single risk factor. The state variables are the dividend yield, the default spread, and the risk free rate

Table V: Models with time-series regressions	
Fama and French (1988)	Only predictor is the dividend-price ratio of the S&P 500
Goyal and Welch (2008)	Uses, at each point in time, the best out-of-sample predictor out of twelve predictive variables proposed by Goyal and Welch (2008)
Campbell and Thompson (2008)	Same as Goyal and Welch (2008), but imposes two restrictions on the estimation. First, the coefficient *b* in equation (9) is replaced by zero if it has the "wrong" theoretical sign. Second, we replace the estimate of the ERP by zero if the estimation otherwise finds a negative ERP
Fama and French (2002)	Uses, at each point in time, the best out-of-sample predictor out of three variables: the price-dividend ratio adjusted by the growth rate of earnings, dividends or stock prices
Baker and Wurgler (2007)	The predictor is Baker and Wurgler's (2007) sentiment measure. The measure is constructed by finding the most predictive linear combination of five variables: the closed-end fund discount, NYSE share turnover, the number and average first-day returns on IPOs, the equity share in new issues, and the dividend premium

Table VI: Surveys	
Graham and Harvey (2012)	Chief financial officers (CFOs) are asked since 1996 about the one and ten-year-ahead ERP. We take the mean of all responses

Table VII: ERP models

		Mean	Std. dev.	PC coefficients $\widehat{w}^{(m)}$	Exposure to PC $\widehat{load}_1^{(m)}$
Based on historical mean	Long-run mean	9.3	1.3	0.78	-0.065
	Mean of previous five years	5.7	5.8	0.42	-0.160
DDM	Gordon (1926): E/P minus nominal 10yr yield	-0.1	2.1	-0.01	0.001
	Shiller (2005): 1/CAPE minus nominal 10yr yield	-0.4	1.8	-0.10	0.011
	Gordon (1962): E/P minus real 10yr yield	3.5	2.1	0.69	-0.077
	Gordon (1962): Expected E/P minus real 10yr yield	5.3	1.7	-0.78	0.208
	Gordon (1962): Expected E/P minus nominal 10yr yield	0.4	2.3	-0.79	0.077
	Panigirtzoglou and Loeys (2005): Two-stage DDM	-1.0	2.3	0.07	-0.011
	Damodaran (2012): Six-stage DDM	3.4	1.3	-0.26	0.032
	Damodaran (2012): Six-stage free cash flow DDM	4.0	1.1	-0.62	0.053
Cross-sectional regressions	Fama and French (1992)	12.6	0.7	0.80	-0.040
	Carhart (1997): Fama-French and momentum	13.1	0.8	0.81	-0.042
	Duarte (2013): Fama-French, momentum and inflation	13.1	0.8	0.82	-0.044
	Adrian, Crump and Moench (2014)	6.5	6.9	-0.05	0.114
Time-series regressions	Fama and French (1988): D/P	2.4	4.0	-0.27	0.069
	Best predictor in Goyal and Welch (2008)	14.5	5.2	-0.07	0.023
	Best predictor in Campbell and Thompson (2008)	3.1	9.8	-0.12	0.081
	Best predictor in Fama French (2002)	11.9	6.8	-0.72	0.321
	Baker and Wurgler (2007) sentiment measure	3.0	4.7	-0.32	0.184
Surveys	Graham and Harvey (2012) survey of CFOs	3.6	1.8	0.72	0.264
	All models	5.7	3.2	0.78	-0.065

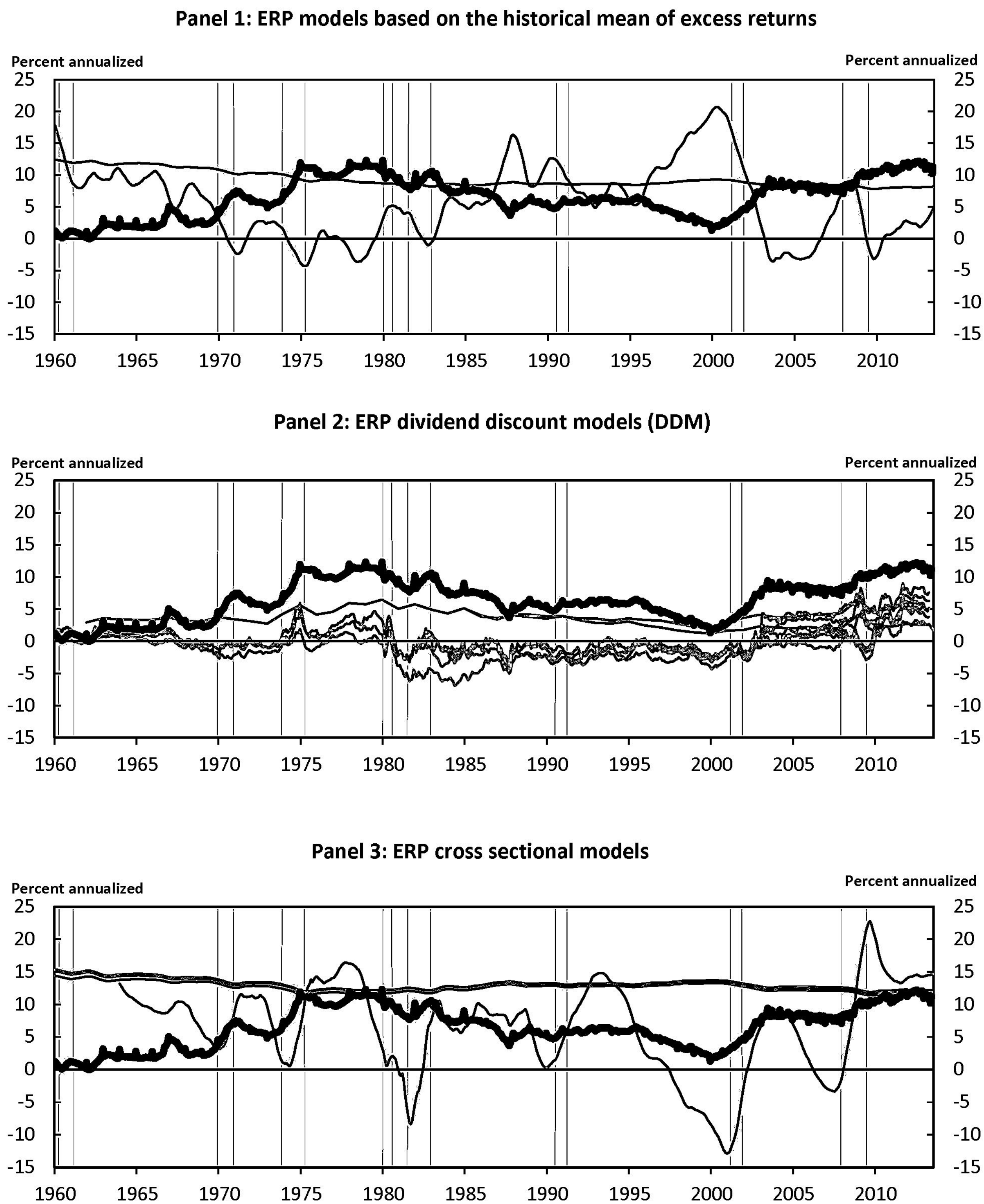
For each of the twenty models of the equity risk premium, we show four statistics. The first two are the time-series means and standard deviations for monthly observations from January 1960 to June 2013 (except for surveys, which are quarterly). The units are annualized percentage points. The third statistic, "PC coefficients $\widehat{w}^{(m)}$", is the weight that the first principal component places on each model (normalized to sum to one). The fourth is the "Exposure to PC $\widehat{load}_1^{(m)}$", the weight on the first principal component when each model is written as a weighted sum of all principal components (also normalized to sum to one).

Table VIII: Correlation of ERP models

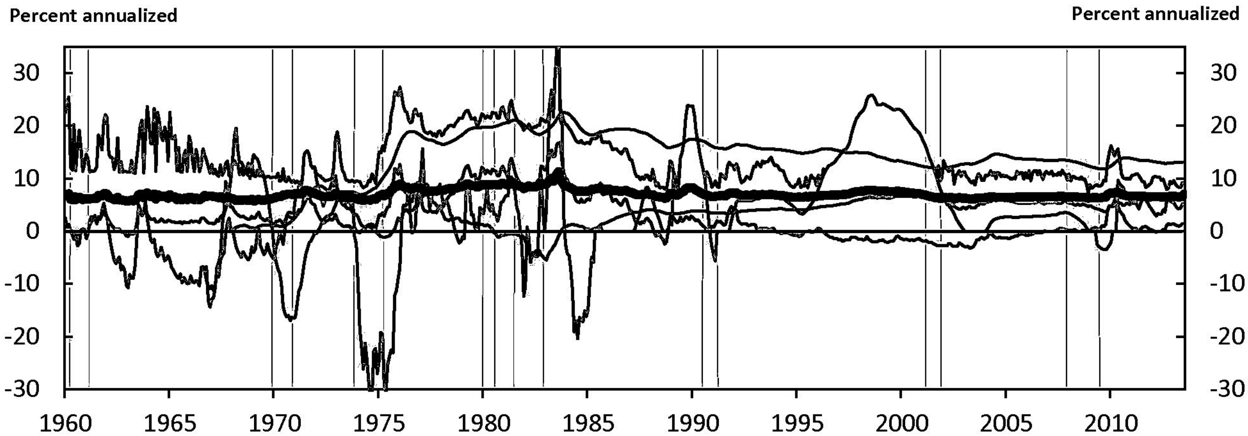
	LR mean	Mean past 5yr	E/P - 10yr	1/CAPE-10yr	E/P-real 10yr	Exp E/P-real 10yr	Exp E/P- 10yr	Two-stage DDM	Six-stage DDM	Free cash flow	FF	Carhart	Duarte	ACM	D/P	G and W	C and T	FF	Sentiment	CFO Survey
LR mean	100																			
Mean past 5yr	32	100																		
E/P - 10yr	8	15	100																	
1/CAPE-10yr	-9	0	78	100																
E/P-real 10yr	-11	25	98	23	100															
Exp E/P-real 10yr	-58	42	70	84	60	100														
Exp E/P- 10yr	-83	-61	84	95	46	98	100													
Two-stage DDM	17	27	88	54	89	66	79	100												
Six-stage DDM	3	-38	26	39	-30	32	52	-31	100											
Free cash flow	-43	-55	59	70	35	80	94	27	62	100										
FF	69	29	-8	-36	-21	-69	-91	9	-29	-77	100									
Carhart	71	30	-5	-31	-24	-71	-91	10	-25	-75	99	100								
Duarte	71	30	-3	-29	-22	-70	-91	11	-28	-74	99	100	100							
ACM	-1	-52	36	62	6	54	63	27	23	33	-28	-28	-25	100						
D/P	49	12	27	12	27	42	54	24	74	42	44	54	55	21	100					
G and W	25	12	25	21	-7	-36	-60	20	29	-9	7	13	14	-24	61	100				
C and T	27	31	14	-7	81	49	-60	28	-51	-40	60	57	58	-33	54	50	100			
FF	1	-30	-24	-29	37	-27	-37	-18	22	38	36	38	37	-9	40	23	43	100		
Sentiment	-10	33	-4	-20	68	-23	-29	27	-38	-20	18	17	18	-12	-38	-8	21	6	100	
CFO survey	-43	-33	12	30	1	1	13	16	5	-3	-36	-37	-39	60	14	-21	-32	-3	-36	100

This table shows the correlation matrix of the twenty equity risk premium models we consider. Numbers are rounded to the nearest integer. Thick lines group models by their type (see Tables II to VI). Except for the CFO survey, the observations used to compute correlations are monthly for January 1960 to June 2013. For the CFO survey, correlations are computed by taking the last observation in the quarter for monthly series and then computing quarterly correlations.

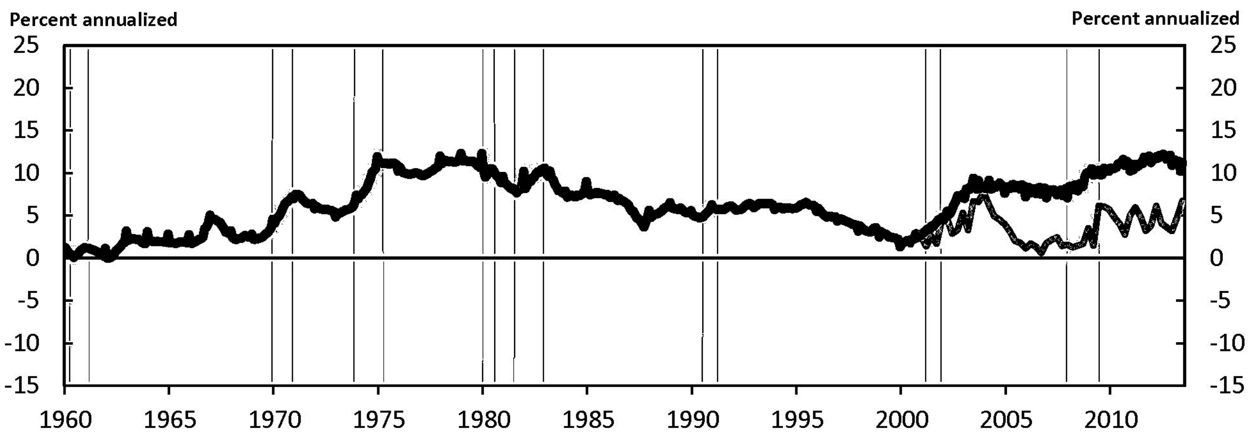
Figure 1: ERP estimates for all models



Panel 4: ERP time series models



Panel 5: ERP surveys

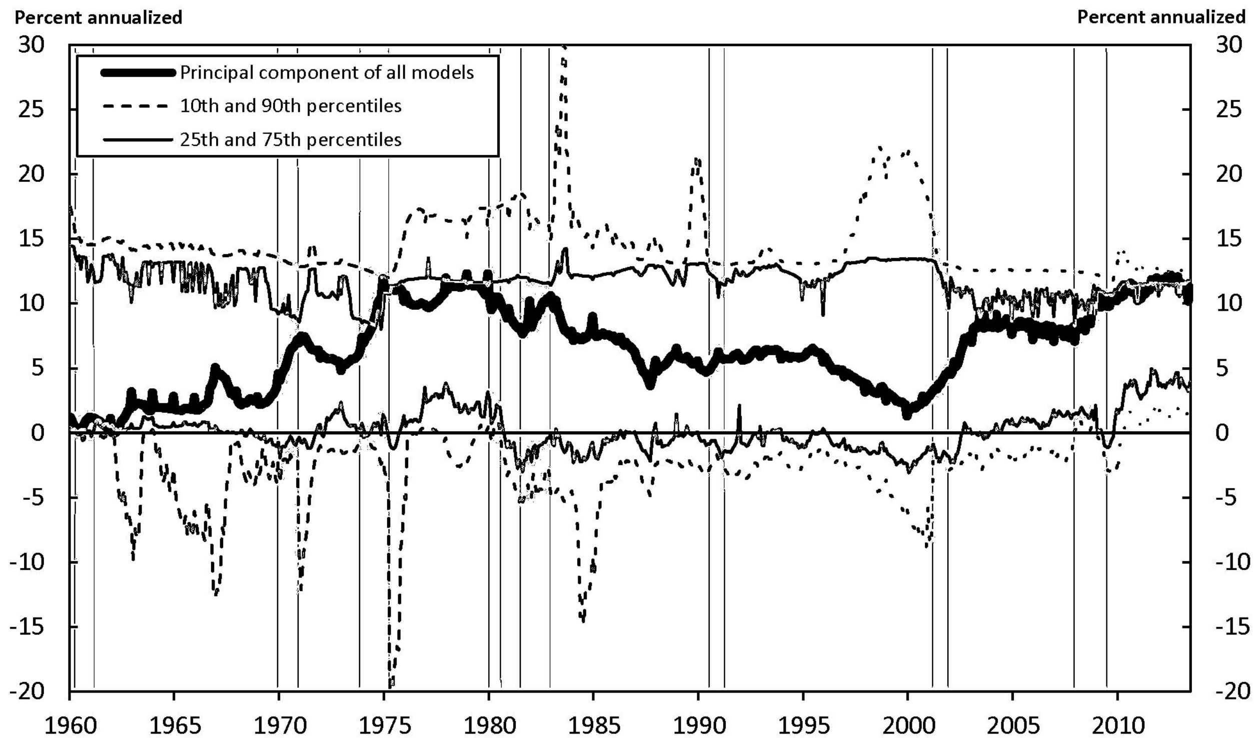


Each green line gives the one-year-ahead equity risk premium from each of the models listed in Tables II to VI. All numbers are in annualized percentage points.

Panel 1 shows the estimates for models based on the historical mean of excess returns, which are listed in Table II. Panel 2 shows estimates computed by the dividend discount models in Table III. Panel 3 uses the cross-sectional regression models from Table IV. Panel 4 shows the equity risk premium computed by the time-series regression models in Table V. Panel 5 gives the estimate obtained from the survey cited in Table VI.

In all panels, the black line is the first principal component of all twenty models (it can look different across panels due to different scales in the y-axis).

Figure 2: One-year-ahead ERP

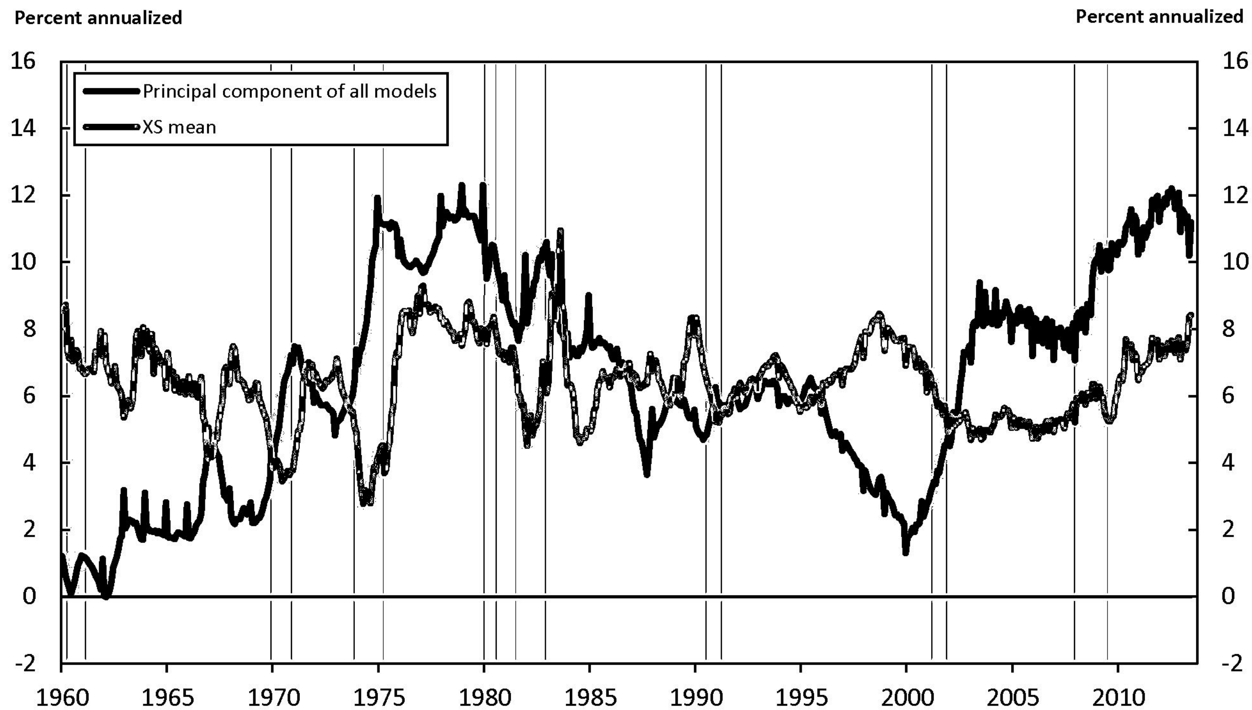


The black line is the first principal component of twenty models of the one-year-ahead equity risk premium (this is the same principal component shown in black in all panels of Figure 1). The models are listed in Tables II to VI.

The 25th and 75th percentiles (solid green lines) give the corresponding quartile of the 20 estimates for each time period, and similarly for the 10th and 90th percentiles (dashed green line).

Shaded bars indicate NBER recessions.

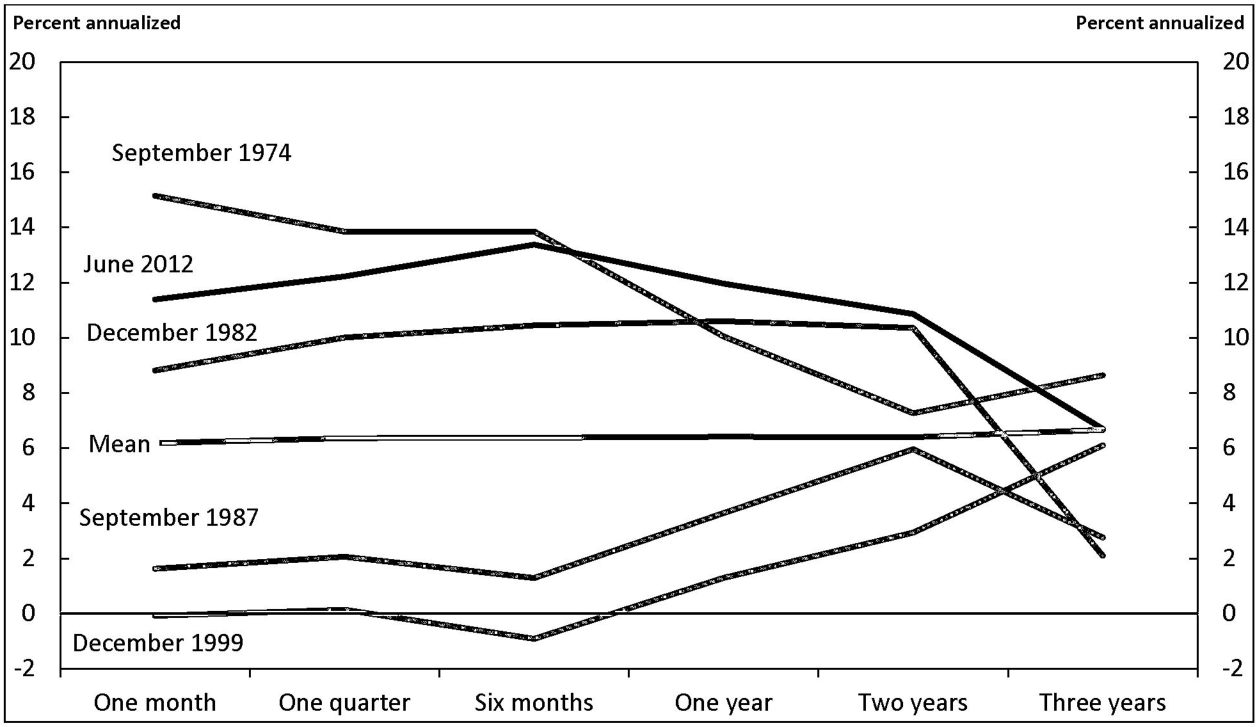
Figure 3: One-year-ahead ERP and cross-sectional mean of models



The black line is the first principal component of twenty models of the one-year-ahead equity risk premium (also shown in Figures 1 and 2). The green line is the cross-sectional average of models for each time period.

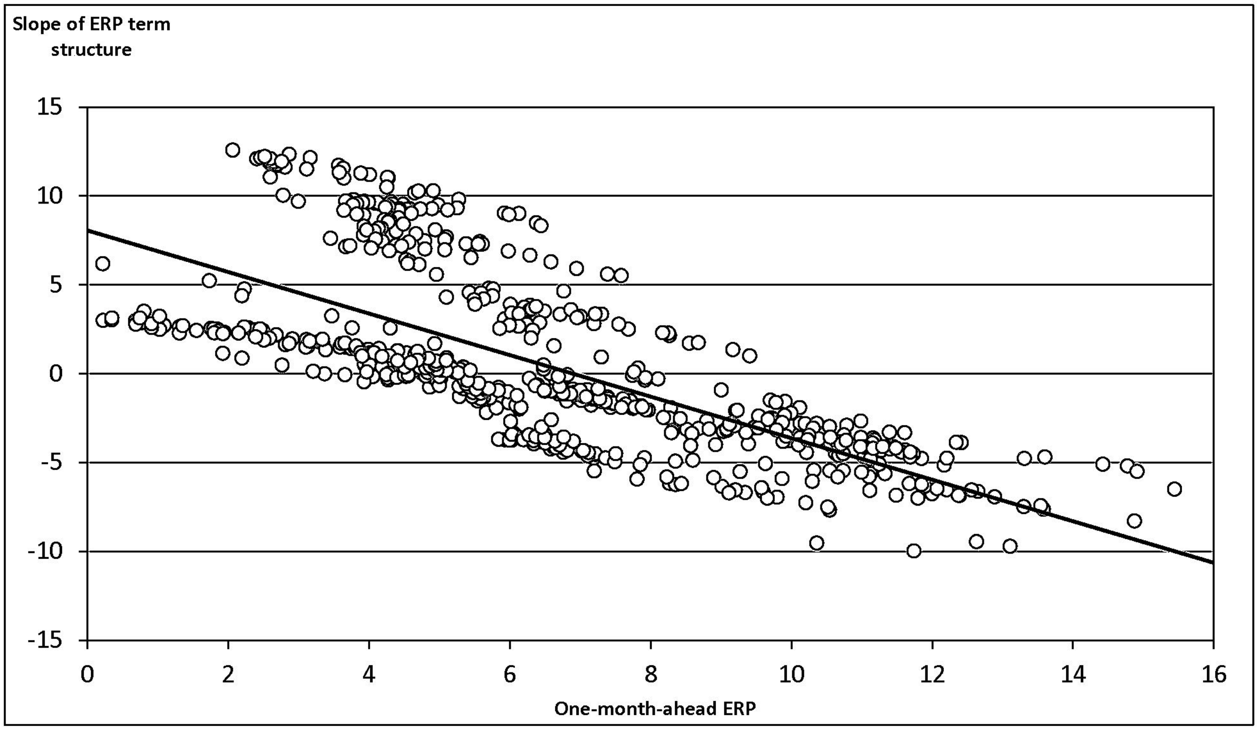
Shaded bars are NBER recessions.

Figure 4: Term structure of the ERP



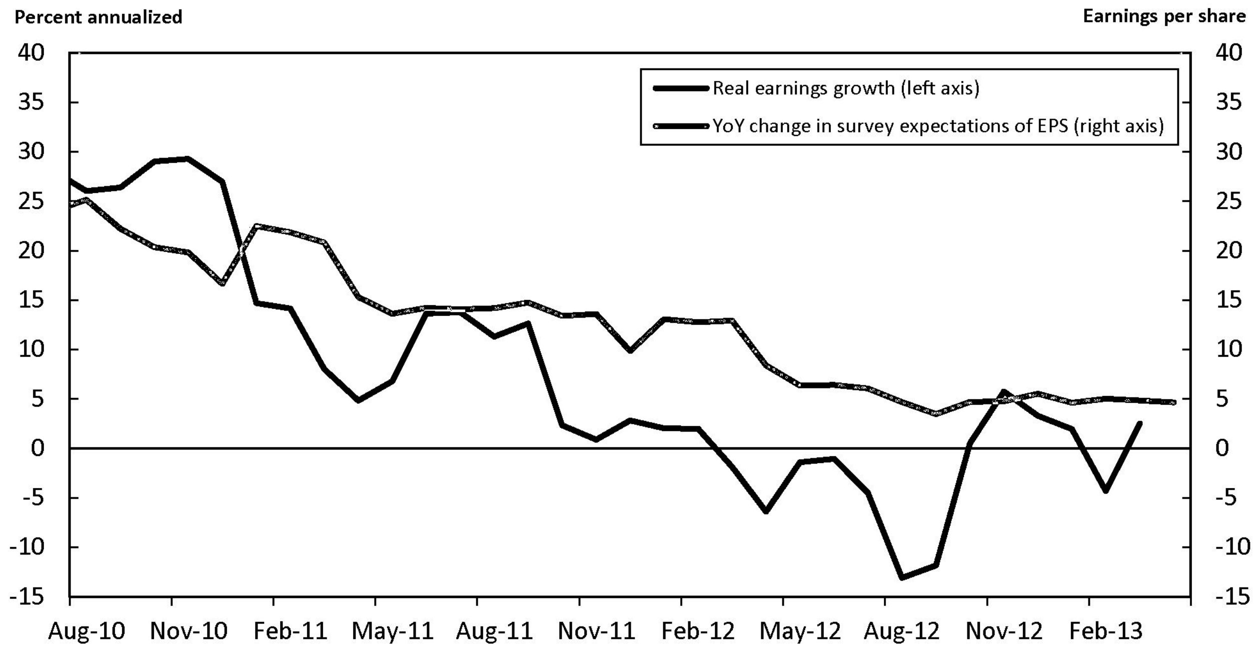
Each line, except for the grey one, shows equity risk premia as a function of investment horizon for some specific months in our sample. We consider horizons of one month, one quarter, six months, one year, two years and three years. The grey line (labeled "Mean") shows the average risk premium at different horizons over the whole sample January 1960 to June 2013. September 1987 and December 1999 were low points in one-month-ahead equity premia. In contrast, September 1974, December 1982 and June 2012 were peaks in the one-month-ahead equity premium.

Figure 5: Regression of the slope of the ERP term structure on one-month-ahead ERP



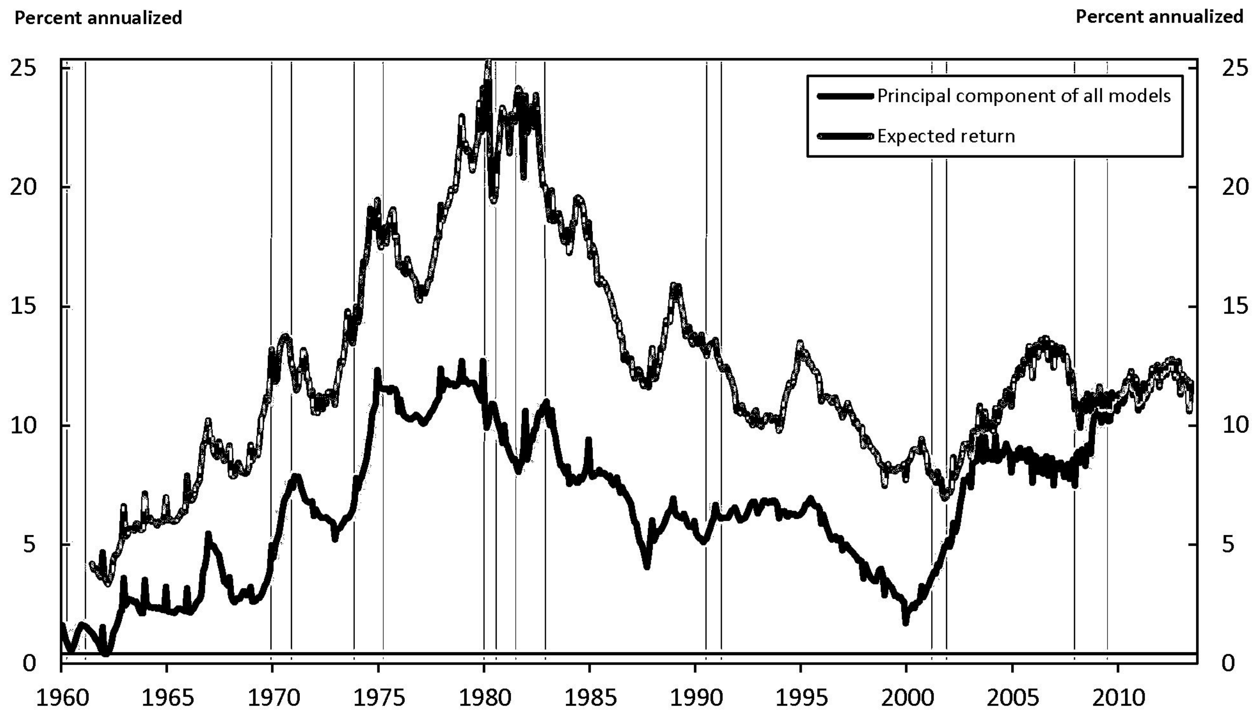
The figure shows monthly observations and the corresponding OLS regression for of the one-month-ahead ERP plotted against the slope of the ERP term structure for the period January 1960 to June 2013. The slope of the ERP term structure is the difference between the three-year-ahead ERP and the one-month-ahead ERP. All units are in annualized percentage points. The one-month-ahead and three-year-ahead ERP estimates used are the first principal components of twenty one-month-ahead or three-year-ahead ERP estimates from models described in Tables II-VI. The OLS regression slope is -1.17 (significant at the 99 percent level) and the R^2 is 50.1 percent.

Figure 6: Earnings behavior



The black line shows the monthly growth rate of real S&P 500 earnings, annualized and in percentage points. The green line shows the year-on-year change in the mean expectation of one-year-ahead earnings per share for the S&P 500 from a survey of analysts provided by Thomson Reuters I/B/E/S.

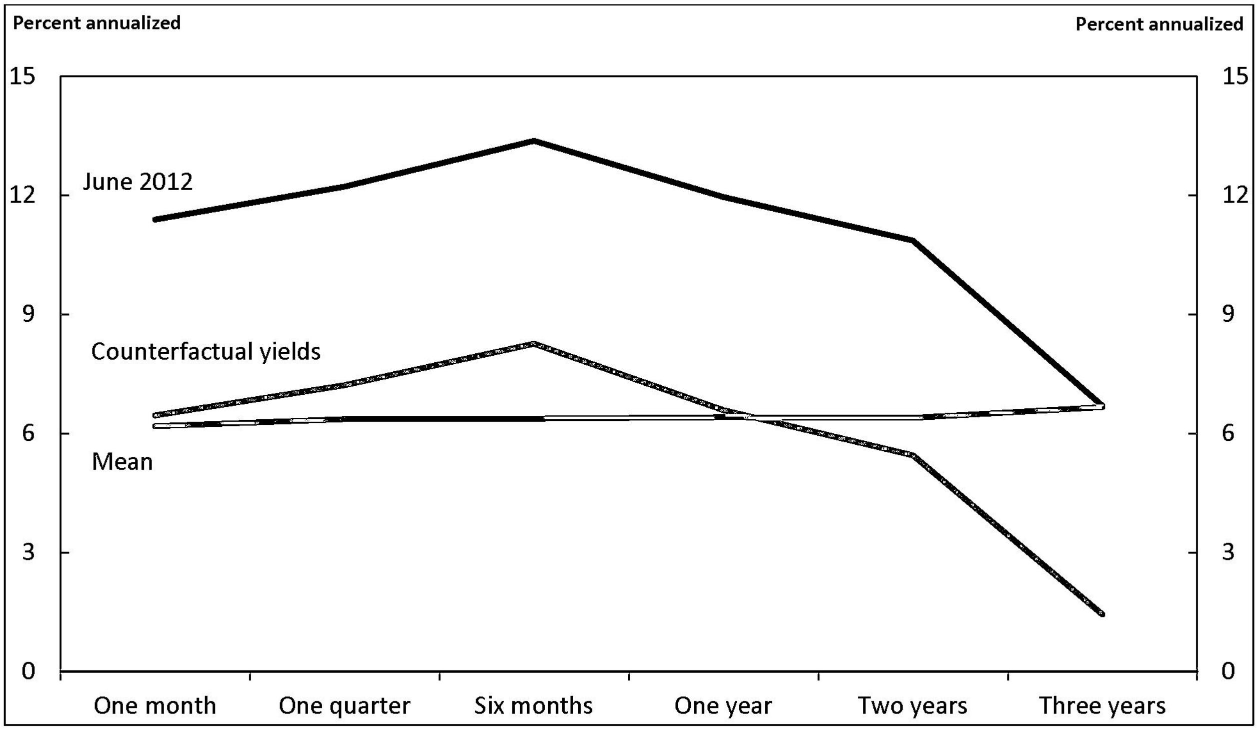
Figure 7: One-year-ahead ERP and expected returns



The black line is the first principal component of twenty models of the one-year-ahead equity risk premium (also shown in Figures 1, 2 and 3). The green line is the one-year-ahead expected return on the S&P 500, obtained by adding the realized one-year maturity Treasury yield from the principal component (the black line).

Shaded bars are NBER recessions.

Figure 8: Term structure of ERP using counterfactual bond yields



The grey line, labeled "Mean", shows the mean term structure of the equity risk premium over the sample January 1960 to June 2013. The black line, labeled "June 2012", shows the term structure for the most recent peak in the one-month-ahead ERP. These two lines are the same as in Figure 4. The green line, labeled "Counterfactual yields", shows what the term structure of equity risk premia would be in June 2012 if instead of subtracting June 2012's yield curve from expected returns we subtracted the average yield curve for January 1960 to June 2013.

KROLL

Table: U.S. Equity Risk Premium & Risk-free Rates

Kroll Recommended U.S. Equity Risk Premium (ERP) and Corresponding Risk-free Rates (R_f); January 2008–Present

For additional information, please visit kroll.com/cost-of-capital-resource-center

Date	Risk-free Rate (R_f)	R_f (%)	Kroll Recommended U.S. ERP (%)	What Changed
Current Guidance:				
April 7, 2022 – UNTIL FURTHER NOTICE	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.00	5.50	Rf
December 7, 2020 – April 6, 2022	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	2.50	5.50	*ERP*
June 30, 2020 – December 6, 2020	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	2.50	6.00	Rf
March 25, 2020 – June 29, 2020	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.00	6.00	*ERP*
December 19, 2019 – March 24, 2020	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.00	5.00	*ERP*
September 30, 2019 – December 18, 2019	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.00	5.50	R_f
December 31, 2018 – September 29, 2019	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.50	5.50	*ERP*
September 5, 2017 – December 30, 2018	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.50	5.00	*ERP*
November 15, 2016 – September 4, 2017	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	3.50	5.50	R_f
January 31, 2016 – November 14, 2016	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.50	ERP
December 31, 2015	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.00	
December 31, 2014	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.00	
December 31, 2013	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.00	
February 28, 2013 – January 30, 2016	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.00	ERP
December 31, 2012	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.50	
January 15, 2012 – February 27, 2013	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.50	ERP
December 31, 2011	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	6.00	
September 30, 2011 – January 14, 2012	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	6.00	ERP
July 1 2011 – September 29, 2011	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.50	R_f
June 1, 2011 – June 30, 2011	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	5.50	R_f
May 1, 2011 – May 31, 2011	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.50	R_f
December 31, 2010	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	5.50	
December 1, 2010 – April 30, 2011	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	5.50	R_f
June 1, 2010 – November 30, 2010	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.00	5.50	R_f
December 31, 2009	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	5.50	
December 1, 2009 – May 31, 2010	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	5.50	ERP
June 1, 2009 – November 30, 2009	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	6.00	R_f
December 31, 2008	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.50	6.00	
November 1, 2008 – May 31, 2009	Normalized 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	4.50	6.00	R_f
October 27, 2008 – October 31, 2008	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	6.00	ERP
January 1, 2008 – October 26, 2008	Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury yield	Spot	5.00	Initialized

"Normalized" in this context means that in months where the risk-free rate is deemed to be abnormally low, a proxy for a longer-term sustainable risk-free rate is used.

To learn more about cost of capital issues, and to ensure that you are using the most recent Kroll Recommended U.S. ERP, visit kroll.com/cost-of-capital-resource-center.
This and other related resources can also be found in the online Cost of Capital Navigator platform. To learn more about the Cost of Capital Navigator and other Kroll valuation and industry data products, visit kroll.com/costofcapitalnavigator.

DUFF & PHELPS

Client Alert

March 16, 2016

Duff & Phelps Increases U.S. Equity Risk Premium Recommendation to 5.5%, Effective January 31, 2016

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Section 01

Executive Summary

Executive Summary

Duff & Phelps Increases U.S. Equity Risk Premium Recommendation to 5.5%, Effective January 31, 2016

- Equity Risk Premium: Increased from 5.0% to 5.5%
- Risk-Free Rate: 4.0% (normalized)
- Base U.S. Cost of Equity Capital: 9.5% (4.0% + 5.5%)

5.5%

The Duff & Phelps U.S. Equity Risk Premium Recommendation effective January 31, 2016

The Equity Risk Premium (ERP) is a key input used to calculate the cost of capital within the context of the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) and other models.[1,2] The ERP is used as a building block when estimating the cost of capital (i.e., "discount rate", "expected return", "required return"), and is an essential ingredient in any business valuation, project evaluation, and the overall pricing of risk. Duff & Phelps regularly reviews fluctuations in global economic and financial conditions that warrant periodic reassessments of the ERP.

Based on current market conditions, Duff & Phelps is increasing its U.S. ERP recommendation from 5.0% to 5.5% when developing discount rates as of January 31, 2016 and thereafter until such time that evidence indicates equity risk in financial markets has materially changed and new guidance is issued.

[1] The equity risk premium (ERP), sometimes referred to as the "market" risk premium, is defined as the return investors expect as compensation for assuming the additional risk associated with an investment in a diversified portfolio of common stocks *in excess* of the return they would expect from an investment in risk-free securities.

[2] The cost of capital is the expected rate of return required in order to attract funds to a particular investment.

4.0%

The Duff & Phelps concluded normalized risk-free rate, as of January 31, 2016

Duff & Phelps developed its current ERP recommendation in conjunction with a "normalized" 20-year yield on U.S. government bonds of 4.0% as a proxy for the risk-free rate (R_f) implying a 9.5% (4.0% + 5.5%) "base" U.S. cost of equity capital estimate at the end of January 2016.[3] The use of the spot yield-to-maturity of 2.4% as of January 29, 2016 would result in an overall discount rate that is likely inappropriately low vis-à-vis the risks currently facing investors.[4]

Duff & Phelps last changed its U.S. ERP recommendation on February 28, 2013.[5] On that date, our recommendation was lowered to 5.0% (from 5.5%) in response to evidence that suggested a *reduced* level of risk in financial markets relative to the heightened uncertainty observed in the aftermath of the 2008 global financial crisis, and during the ensuing Euro sovereign debt crisis (which was severely felt from 2010 until 2012).

During 2015, we started seeing some signs of increased risk in financial markets. While the evidence was somewhat mixed as of December, 31, 2015, we can now see clear indications that equity risk in financial markets has increased significantly as of January 31, 2016. Exhibit 1 summarizes the factors considered in our U.S. ERP recommendation.[6]

Exhibit 1: Factors Considered in U.S. ERP Recommendation

Factor	Change	Effect on ERP
U.S. Equity Markets	↓	↑
Implied Equity Volatility	↑	↑
Corporate Spreads	↑	↑
Historical Real GDP Growth and Forecasts	↔	↔
Unemployment Environment	↓	↓
Consumer and Business Sentiment	↔	↔
Sovereign Credit Ratings	↔	↔
Damodaran Implied ERP Model	↑	↑
Default Spread Model	↑	↑

[3] A risk-free rate is the return available on a security that the market generally regards as free of the risk of default. We discuss the background for using a normalized risk-free rate and our concluded normalized risk-free rate in Section 3 "Estimating the Risk-Free Rate", starting on page 9.
[4] The 20-year constant-maturity U.S. Treasury yield was 2.36%, as of January 29, 2016. Source: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System website at: http://www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h15/data.htm.
[5] To access the Client Alert report documenting Duff & Phelps' prior U.S. ERP recommendation, visit: www.duffandphelps.com/costofcapital.
[6] Some of the factors in Exhibit 1 are discussed in greater detail later in this report.

Taking these factors together, we find support for increasing our ERP recommendation relative to our previous recommendation.[7]

TO BE CLEAR:

- The Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendation as of January 31, 2016 (and thereafter, until further notice) is 5.5%, matched with a normalized risk-free rate of 4.0%. This implies a 9.5% (4.0% + 5.5%) "base" U.S. cost of equity capital estimate as of January 31, 2016.

- Many valuations are done at year-end. The Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendation for use with December 31, 2015 valuations is 5.0%, matched with a normalized risk-free rate of 4.0%. This implies a 9.0% (4.0% + 5.0%) "base" U.S. cost of equity capital estimate as of December 31, 2015.

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[7] The Duff & Phelps ERP estimate is made in relation to a risk-free rate (either "spot" or "normalized"). A "normalized" risk-free rate can be developed using longer-term averages of Treasury bond yields and the build-up framework outlined in Section 3 "Estimating the Risk-Free Rate", starting on page 9.

Section 02

Overview of Duff & Phelps ERP Methodology

Overview of Duff & Phelps ERP Methodology

A Two-Dimensional Process

There is no single universally accepted methodology for estimating the ERP; consequently there is wide diversity in practice among academics and financial advisors with regards to ERP estimates. For this reason, Duff & Phelps employs a two-dimensional process that takes into account a broad range of economic information and multiple ERP estimation methodologies to arrive at its recommendation.

First, a reasonable range of normal or unconditional ERP is established. Second, based on current economic conditions, we estimate where in the range the true ERP likely lies (top, bottom, or middle).

Long-term research indicates that the ERP is cyclical.[8] We use the term *normal*, or *unconditional* ERP to mean the long-term average ERP without regard to current market conditions. This concept differs from the *conditional* ERP, which reflects current economic conditions.[9] The "unconditional" ERP range versus a "conditional" ERP is further distinguished as follows:

"What is the range?"

- **Unconditional ERP Range** – The objective is to establish a reasonable range for a normal or unconditional ERP that can be expected over an entire business cycle. Based on an analysis of academic and financial literature and various empirical studies, we have concluded that a reasonable long-term estimate of the normal or unconditional ERP for the U.S. is in the range of 3.5% to 6.0%.[10]

"Where are we in the range?"

- **Conditional ERP** – The objective is to determine where within the unconditional ERP range the conditional ERP should be, based on current economic conditions. Research has shown that ERP fluctuates during the business cycle. When the economy is near (or in) a recession, the conditional ERP is at the higher end of the normal, or unconditional ERP range. As the economy improves, the conditional ERP moves back toward the middle of the range and at the peak of an economic expansion, the conditional ERP approaches the lower end of the range.

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[8] See for example John Cochrane's "Discount Rates. American Finance Association Presidential Address" on January 8, 2011, where he presented research findings on the cyclicality of discount rates in general. His remarks were published as Cochrane, J. H. (2011), *Presidential Address: Discount Rates*. The Journal of Finance, 66: 1047–1108.

[9] The "conditional" ERP is the ERP estimate published by Duff & Phelps as the "Duff & Phelps Recommended ERP".

[10] See Shannon P. Pratt and Roger J. Grabowski, *Cost of Capital: Applications and Examples*, Fifth Edition, Chapter 8 "Equity Risk Premium", and accompanying Appendices 8A and 8B, for a detailed discussion of the ERP.

Section 03

Estimating the Risk-Free Rate

Estimating the Risk-Free Rate

The Risk-free Rate and Equity Risk Premium: Interrelated Concepts[11]

A risk-free rate is the return available, as of the valuation date, on a security that the market generally regards as free of the risk of default.

For valuations denominated in U.S. dollars, valuation analysts have typically used the spot yield to maturity (as of the valuation date) on U.S. government securities as a proxy for the risk-free rate. The two most commonly used risk-free bond maturities have been the 10- and 20-year U.S. government bond yields.

The use of (i) long-term U.S. government bonds, and (ii) an ERP estimated relative to yields on long-term bonds most closely match the investment horizon and risks that confront business managers who are making capital allocation decisions and valuation analysts who are applying valuation methods to value a "going concern" business.

The risk-free rate and the ERP are interrelated concepts. All ERP estimates are, by definition, developed *in relation* to the risk-free rate. Specifically, the ERP is the extra return investors expect as compensation for assuming the additional risk associated with an investment in a diversified portfolio of common stocks, compared to the return they would expect from an investment in risk-free securities.

This brings us to an important concept. When developing cost of capital estimates, the valuation analyst should match the term of the risk-free rate used in the CAPM or build-up formulas with the duration of the expected net cash flows of the business, asset, or project being evaluated. Further, the term of the risk-free rate should also match the term of the risk-free rate used to develop the ERP, as illustrated in Exhibit 2.

Exhibit 2: The Risk-Free Rate and ERP Should be Consistent with the Duration of the Net Cash Flows of the Business, Asset, or Project Being Evaluated

Term of risk-free rate used in CAPM or Build-up equation	=	Expected duration of the net cash flows of the business, asset, or project being evaluated	=	Term of risk-free rate used to develop the ERP

[11] This section was extracted from Chapter 3 of the Duff & Phelps *2016 Valuation Handbook – Guide to Cost of Capital* (Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, 2016). The discussion in this section was based on information available at the time of writing (through February 23, 2016). Events and market conditions may have changed since then relative to when this report is issued.

In many of the cases in which one is valuing a business, a "going concern" assumption is made (the life of the business is assumed to be indefinite), and therefore selecting longer-term U.S. government bond yields (e.g., 20 years) as the proxy for the risk-free rate is appropriate.

The risk-free rate and the ERP, like all components of the cost of equity capital (and the cost of equity capital itself), are *forward-looking* concepts. The reason that the cost of capital is a forward-looking concept is straightforward: when we value a company (for instance), we are trying to value how much we would pay (now) for the *future* economic benefits associated with owning the company. Since we will ultimately use the cost of capital to discount these future economic benefits (usually measured as expected cash flows) back to their present value, the cost of capital itself must *also* be forward-looking.

Spot Risk-Free Rates versus Normalized Risk-Free Rates

Beginning with the financial crisis of 2008 (the "Financial Crisis"), analysts have had to reexamine whether the "spot" rate is still a reliable building block upon which to base their cost of equity capital estimates. The Financial Crisis challenged long-accepted practices and highlighted potential problems of simply continuing to use the spot yield-to-maturity on a safe government security as the risk-free rate, without any further adjustments.

During periods in which risk-free rates appear to be abnormally low due to flight to quality or massive central bank monetary interventions, valuation analysts may want to consider normalizing the risk-free rate. By "normalization" we mean estimating a risk-free rate that more likely reflects the *sustainable* average return of long-term U.S. Treasuries.

Why Normalize the Risk-Free Rate?

The yields of U.S. government bonds in certain periods during and after the Financial Crisis may have been *artificially* repressed, and therefore likely unsustainable. Many market participants will agree that nominal U.S. government bond yields in recent periods have been artificially low. The Federal Reserve Bank ("Fed"), the central bank of the United States, kept a zero interest rate policy (dubbed "ZIRP" in the financial press) for seven years, from December 2008 until December 2015.

Even members of the Federal Open Market Committee (FOMC) have openly discussed the need to "normalize" interest rates over the last couple of years.[12] For example, at an April 2015 conference, James Bullard, President of the Federal

[12] The FOMC is a committee within the Federal Reserve System, charged under U.S. law with overseeing the nation's open market operations (i.e., the Fed's buying and selling of U.S. Treasury securities).

Reserve Bank of St. Louis, discussed “Some Considerations for U.S. Monetary Normalization”, where he stated:[13]

“Now may be a good time to begin normalizing U.S. monetary policy so that it is set appropriately for an improving economy over the next two years.”

John C. Williams, President of the Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco (not currently an FOMC member), has also been very vocal about the need to start normalizing interest rates. During 2015, he gave several presentations and speeches, where he mentioned the need to normalize interest rates. For example, in a series of presentations delivered in September and October 2015, he said:[14]

“(…) an earlier start to raising rates would allow us to engineer a smoother, more gradual process of policy normalization.”

In a more recent speech, he acknowledged, however, that even after normalization takes place, interest rates may simply be lower than in pre-Financial Crisis years. Discussing the Fed’s short-term benchmark interest rate (the target federal funds rate), he elaborated on that topic:[15,16]

“As we make our way back to normal, we should consider what “normal” will look like for interest rates.(…) The evidence is building that the new normal for interest rates is quite a bit lower than anyone in this room is accustomed to.(...) That doesn’t mean they’ll be zero, but compared with the pre-recession “normal” funds rate of, say, between 4 and 4.5 percent, we may now see the underlying r-star guiding us towards a fed funds rate of around 3–3½ percent instead.”[17]

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[13] “Some Considerations for U.S. Monetary Policy Normalization”, presentation at the 24th Annual Hyman P. Minsky Conference in Washington, D.C., April 15, 2015. A copy of the presentation can be found here: https://www.stlouisfed.org/~/media/Files/PDFs/Bullard/remarks/Bullard-Minsky-15-April-2015.pdf. For a list of speeches and presentations by President James Bullard, visit: https://www.stlouisfed.org/from-the-president/speeches-and-presentations.

[14] This series of presentations was entitled “The Economic Outlook: Live Long and Prosper”. See for example, the presentation at UCLA Anderson School of Management, Los Angeles, California on September 28, 2015. A copy of the remarks can be found here: http://www.frbsf.org/our-district/press/presidents-speeches/williams-speeches/2015/september/economic-outlook-live-long-and-prosper-ucla/. For a list of speeches and presentations by President John C. Williams, visit: http://www.frbsf.org/our-district/press/presidents-speeches/williams-speeches/.

[15] The federal funds rate is the interest rate at which depository institutions lend balances to each other overnight. The target federal funds rate is a short-term rate and is used as the benchmark interest rate to implement U.S. monetary policies, such as raising or reducing interest rates.

[16] “After the First Rate Hike”, Presentation to California Bankers Association, Santa Barbara, California on January 8, 2016. A copy of the remarks can be found here: http://www.frbsf.org/our-district/press/presidents-speeches/williams-speeches/2016/january/after-the-first-rate-hike-economic-outlook/.

[17] The so-called r* (r-star) stands for the longer-run value of the neutral rate. President Williams defined r-star as essentially what inflation-adjusted interest rates (i.e. real rates) will be once the economy is back to full strength.

While the views of regional Fed Presidents or individual FOMC members do not reflect the official positions of the committee, the reality is that the minutes of 2014 and 2015 FOMC meetings repeated the term "policy normalization" several times, in the context of deciding if and when to raise interest rates.[18]

At its December 15–16, 2015 meeting, the Fed decided to raise the target range for the federal funds rate for the first time in nine years, from a range of 0.00%–0.25% to 0.25%–0.50% (a 25 basis point increase). In support of its decision, the Fed highlighted the considerable improvement in the labor market over the course of the year, and reiterated its expectation that inflation would rise over the medium-term to its target rate of 2.0%.[19]

Even then, officials were very cautious on how to characterize the timing of nominalization policies, seemingly signaling that further increase in interest rates will be gradual.

Nevertheless, in conjunction with the December 15–16, 2015 meeting, FOMC members also submitted their projections of the most likely outcomes for real GDP growth, unemployment rate, inflation, and the federal funds rate for each year from 2015 to 2018 and over the longer run. All of the 17 FOMC participants believed that the target level for the federal funds rate should increase further during 2016, with the median projection suggesting it could rise by another 100 basis points. The median estimate for the longer-term federal funds rate is 3.5% (note: the federal funds rate is a short-term interest rate). However, given the recent headwinds in global financial markets, investors are projecting a much slower pace of rate hikes.[20]

So what does it mean when someone says the current U.S. Treasury yields are not "normal"? And even if interest rates are not considered "normal", why is that any different from other periods in history? Remember, the risk-free rate is intended to adjust the cost of equity capital for expected future inflation. Typically, valuation analysts use a 20-year U.S. government bond yield when developing a U.S. dollar-denominated cost of equity capital. Therefore, the risk-free rate should reflect an average expected return over those years.

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[18] To access minutes of FOMC meetings visit:
http://www.federalreserve.gov/monetarypolicy/fomccalendars.htm.

[19] Minutes of the Federal Open Market Committee December 15–16, 2015", Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System. For details visit:
http://www.federalreserve.gov/monetarypolicy/fomccalendars.htm.

[20] See, for example, the CME Group FedWatch Tool. The FedWatch Tool is based on CME Group 30-Day Fed Fund futures prices, which are used to express the market's views on the likelihood of changes in U.S. monetary policy. This tool allows market participants to view the probability of an upcoming federal funds rate hike up to one year out. For details visit:
http://www.cmegroup.com/trading/interest-rates/countdown-to-fomc.html.

To be clear, in most circumstances we would prefer using the "spot" yield (i.e., the yield available in the market) on a safe government security as a proxy for the risk-free rate.[21] However, during times of flight to quality and/or high levels of central bank intervention (such as the period beginning with the Financial Crisis) those *lower* observed yields imply a *lower* cost of capital (all other factors held the same), just the opposite of what one would expect in times of relative economy-wide distress and uncertainty. During these periods, using a non-normalized risk-free rate (with no corresponding adjustments to the ERP) would likely lead to an *underestimated* cost of equity capital, and so a "normalization" adjustment may be a reasonable approach to address the apparent inconsistency.

Why isn't the Current Spot Risk-Free Rate Considered "Normal"?

Part of the reason that U.S. Treasury yields are likely "artificially repressed" is that the "Fed" has been *telling* us that its actions are intended to push rates down, and thus boost asset prices (e.g., stocks, housing). For example, at the September 13, 2012 FOMC press conference, the Fed Chairman at the time, Ben Bernanke, stated:

> *"...the tools we have involve affecting financial asset prices...To the extent that home prices begin to rise, consumers will feel wealthier, they'll feel more disposed to spend ... So house prices is one vehicle. Stock prices – many people own stocks directly or indirectly...and if people feel that their financial situation is better because their 401(k) looks better or for whatever reason, their house is worth more, they are more willing to go out and spend, and that's going to provide the demand that firms need in order to be willing to hire and to invest."*

In Exhibit 3, the balance sheet of the U.S. Federal Reserve is shown over time. Since the Financial Crisis, the Fed has been purchasing massive quantities of U.S. Treasuries and mortgage backed securities (MBS) through a series of so-called quantitative easing (QE) measures. At the end of December 2015, the Fed's balance sheet summed to $4,491,440 million ($4.5 *trillion*), virtually unchanged from December 2014.[22]

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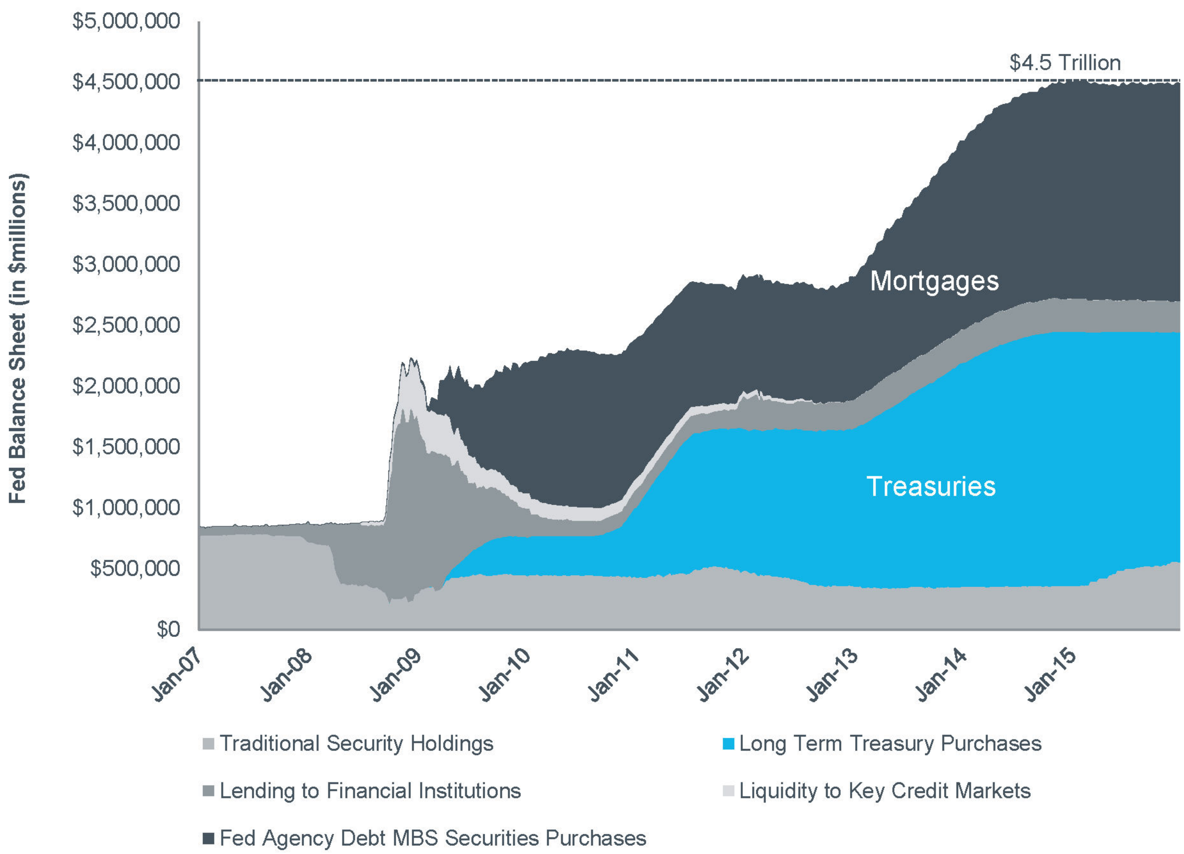
[21] Government bond yields can be found at the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System website at: http://www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h15/data.htm.

[22] Source of underlying data: Federal Reserve Bank of Cleveland. To learn more, visit: https://www.clevelandfed.org.

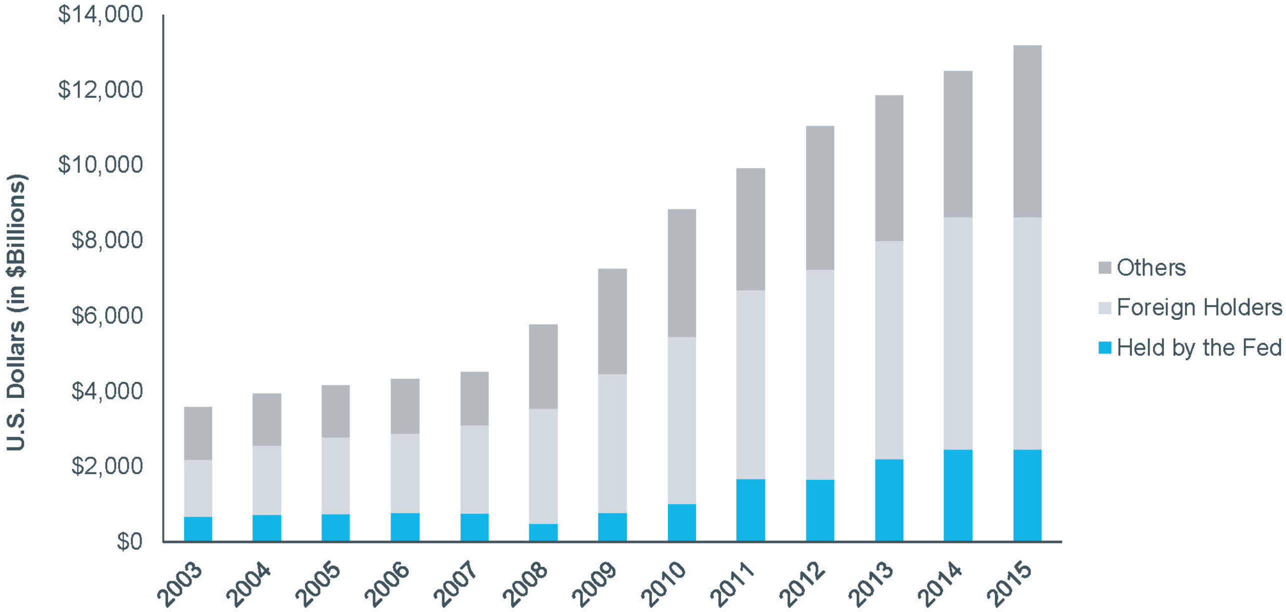
Exhibit 3: Balance Sheet of the Federal Reserve (vis-à-vis Credit Easing Policy Tools)
January 2007–December 2015



In the post-crisis period, some analysts estimated that the Fed's purchases accounted for a growing majority of new Treasury issuance. In early 2013 in the online version of the *Financial Times*, one analyst wrote, "*The Fed, the biggest buyer in the market, has been the driver of artificially low Treasury yields*".[23] In Exhibit 4 we show the aggregate dollar amount of marketable securities issued by the U.S. Department of Treasury (e.g., bills, notes, bonds, inflation-indexed securities, etc.) from 2003 through December 2015. We also display how much of the U.S. public debt is being held by the Fed, foreign investors (including official foreign institutions), and other investors.[24]

[23] Michael Mackenzie, "Fed injects new sell-off risk into Treasuries", FT.com, January 8, 2013.
[24] Source of underlying data: Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis Economic Research; U.S. Department of the Treasury. Compiled by Duff & Phelps LLC. Sources included: (i) Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System (U.S.), U.S. Treasury securities held by the Federal Reserve: All Maturities [TREAST], retrieved from FRED, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis at https://research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/series/TREAST/, January 29, 2016; (ii) Monthly Statements of the Public Debt (MSPD) retrieved from https://www.treasurydirect.gov/govt/reports/pd/mspd/mspd.htm, January 29, 2016; and (iii) U.S. Department of the Treasury International Capital (TIC) System's Portfolio Holdings of U.S. and Foreign Securities – A. Major Foreign Holders of U.S. Treasury Securities retrieved from http://www.treasury.gov/resource-center/data-chart-center/tic/Pages/ticsec2.aspx, February 17, 2016.

Exhibit 4: Marketable U.S. Treasury Securities Held by the Public
December 2003–December 2015

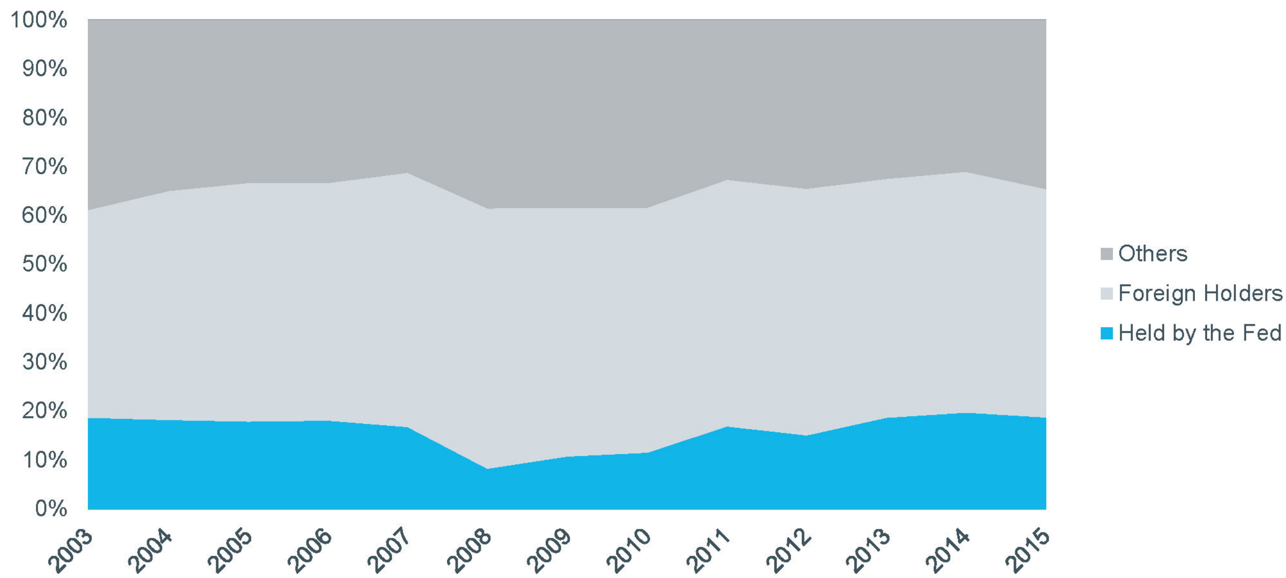


Notably, the issuance of marketable interest-bearing debt by the U.S. government to the public increased almost threefold between the end of 2007 and 2015. Keeping everything else constant (ceteris paribus), the law of supply and demand would tell us that the dramatic increase in supply would lead to a significant decline in government bond prices, which would translate into a surge in yields. But that is not what happened. During the same period, the Fed more than tripled its holdings of U.S. Treasury securities, representing a 16% compound annual growth rate through the end of 2015.[25] Between 2003 and 2008, the Fed's holdings of U.S. Treasuries had held fairly constant in the vicinity of $700 to $800 billion, with December 2008 being the significant exception, when holdings dropped to approximately $476 billion. The first QE program was announced by the FOMC in November 2008, and formally launched in mid-December 2008. After that period, the various QE programs implemented by the Fed have contributed to absorb a sizable portion of the increase in U.S. Treasuries issuance. It is noted that for the first time since 2008, the Fed's holding of marketable U.S. Treasury securities stayed constant at the end of 2015 (in dollar amount) relative to the prior year. Nevertheless, the share held by the Fed at the end of 2015 continues to be at similar levels as those of 2013 and 2014.

[25] If the comparison had been made between 2008 and 2015, the increase would be even more staggering: holdings by the Fed increased 417%, or a 26% compound annual growth rate.

Likewise, broad demand for safe government debt by foreign investors, amid the global turmoil that followed the Financial Crisis, has absorbed another considerable fraction of new U.S. Treasuries issuance. How significant are these purchases by the Fed and foreign investors? Exhibit 5 shows the same information as in Exhibit 4, but displays the relative share of each major holder of marketable U.S. Treasuries since 2003 until 2015.[26]

Exhibit 5: Relative Holdings of Marketable U.S. Treasury Securities Held by the Public (in percentage terms)
December 2003–December 2015



At the end of 2015, the relative share of U.S. Treasuries held by the Fed and foreign investors was almost 19% and 47% respectively, for a combined 65%. This combined level is actually close to the 69% observed at the end of 2007, prior to the onset of the Financial Crisis. However, as indicated above, the dollar amount of U.S. Treasuries has tripled after 2007, meaning that the Fed and foreign investors have absorbed over two-thirds of the available stock in the post-crisis period. Interestingly, a look at the composition of foreign investors reveals that since 2006 over two-thirds are actually foreign official institutions (i.e., central banks and central governments of foreign countries).[27,28] Thus, a great majority of U.S. Treasuries are currently being held by either foreign government arms or central banks around the world (including the Fed).

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[26] Source of underlying data: Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis Economic Research; U.S. Department of the Treasury. Compiled by Duff & Phelps LLC.
[27] Source: Treasury International Capital (TIC) System's Portfolio Holdings of U.S. and Foreign Securities – A. Major Foreign Holders of U.S. Treasury Securities retrieved from http://www.treasury.gov/resource-center/data-chart-center/tic/Pages/ticsec2.aspx, February 17, 2016.
[28] For a description of foreign official institutions, visit "TIC Country Codes and Partial List of Foreign Official Institutions" at: http://www.treasury.gov/resource-center/data-chart-center/tic/Pages/foihome.aspx.

A team of researchers has recently studied the impact that this massive amount of U.S. Treasury purchases by foreign investors and the Fed have had on long-term real rates. Specifically, using data through November 2012, the authors estimated that by 2008 foreign purchases of U.S. Treasuries had cumulatively reduced 10-year real yields by around 80 basis points. The subsequent Fed purchases through the various QE programs implemented in the 2008–2012 period was estimated to incrementally depress 10-year real yields by around 140 basis points. Combining the impact of Fed and foreign investor purchases of U.S. Treasuries, real 10-year yields were depressed by 2.2% at the end of 2012, according to these authors' estimates.[29]

When the Fed concluded its third round of QE measures (in October 2014) and signaled that an increase in the target federal funds rate might be on the horizon, the salient question was what would happen to rates as one of the largest purchasers in the market (the Fed) discontinued its QE operations. All other things held the same, rates would be expected to rise. But again, that is not what happened. In fact, the yield on 10-year U.S. Treasury bonds dropped from 2.4% at the end of October to 2.2% at the end of December 2014. Likewise, the 20-year yield dropped from 2.8% to 2.5% over the same period. Even more concerning is the behavior of interest rates following the Fed's decision on December 16, 2015 to raise its target range for the federal funds rate for the first time in nine years. At first, the yield on 10- and 20-year U.S. Treasury bonds increased, reaching 2.3% and 2.7% respectively at December 31, 2015. In fact, yields had already been rising since October 2015, in anticipation of such a rate hike decision. However, by January 31, 2016, 10- and 20-year yields were back at 1.9% and 2.4%, respectively.

Why is that?

It may be useful to first distinguish short-term drivers versus long-term trends in interest rates.

It is almost undisputed that aggressive monetary policies implemented as a response to the Financial Crisis drove long-term interest rates in the U.S. and several advanced economies to historically low levels. But many economists claim that the current low rate environment is not just a cyclical story and that we can expect to see a lower level of interest rates in the long term (although not as low as today's). A number of explanatory factors and theories have emerged, some more pessimistic than others.

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29 Kaminska, Iryna and Zinna, Gabriele, "Official Demand for U.S. Debt: Implications for U.S. Real Interest Rates". IMF Working Paper No. 14/66 (April 2014).

It is not our place to select which, amongst the various theories, is more (or less) correct. Instead, we suggest that valuation specialists read different sources to get acquainted with such theories. A recent survey conducted by the Council of Economic Advisers lists various factors that could help explain why long-term interest rates are currently so low. According to the study, the following is a list of possible factors, bifurcated between those that are likely transitory in nature and those that are likely longer-lived:[30, 31]

Factors that Are Likely Transitory

- Fiscal, Monetary, and Foreign-Exchange Policies
- Inflation Risk and the Term Premium
- Private-sector Deleveraging

Factors that Are Likely Longer-Lived

- Lower Global Long-run Output and Productivity Growth
- Shifting Demographics
- The Global “Saving Glut”
- Safe Asset Shortage
- Tail Risks and Fundamental Uncertainty

The report concludes that it remains an open question whether the underlying factors linked to the currently low rates are transitory, or do they imply that the long-run equilibrium for long-term interest rates is lower than before the Financial Crisis.

The bottom line is that the future path of interest rates is currently uncertain.[32] So, for now, we will focus on some the factors that may be keeping interest rates ultra-low in the near term and discuss whether one can expect an increase from these levels in the medium term.

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[30] The Council of Economic Advisers, an agency within the Executive Office of the President of the United States, is charged with providing economic advice to the U.S. President on the formulation of both domestic and international economic policy.

[31] “Long-Term Interest Rates: A Survey”, July 2015. The full report can be accessed here: https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/interest_rate_report_final_v2.pdf. See also “The Decline in Long-Term Interest Rates”, July 14, 2015, a short blog article by Maurice Obstfeld and Linda Tesar discussing the various possible drivers of low long-term interest rates listed in the report. The article can be accessed here: https://www.whitehouse.gov/blog/2015/07/14/decline-long-term-interest-rates.

[32] For another analysis of current long-term interest rates, see Jonathan Wilmot, “When bonds aren’t bonds anymore”, *Credit Suisse Global Investment Returns Yearbook 2016*, February 2016.

First of all, the size of the Fed's balance sheet is still considered enormous by historical standards and the Fed has expressed the intent to keep its holdings for a long time. For example, at its December 2015 meeting, when announcing the increase by 25 basis points of the target range for the federal funds rate from 0.00%–0.25% to 0.25%–0.50%, the FOMC still stated that:[33]

> *"The Committee is maintaining its existing policy of reinvesting principal payments from its holdings of agency debt and agency mortgage-backed securities in agency mortgage-backed securities and of rolling over maturing Treasury securities at auction, and it anticipates doing so until normalization of the level of the federal funds rate is well under way. This policy, by keeping the Committee's holdings of longer-term securities at sizable levels, should help maintain accommodative financial conditions."*

Translation: the Fed is keeping the size of its balance sheet constant for the foreseeable future, because it still wants to keep long-term interest rates low.

A report released in November 2014 (following the conclusion of QE3) by Standard & Poor's (S&P) appears to concur with our interpretation:[34]

> *"Since QE works via a stock effect, as long as a central bank is maintaining a certain stock of QE, it is still "doing" QE. If a central bank has reached the maximum point of expanding its balance sheet, it is a little perverse to describe it as having "ended QE." Rather, what it will have ended are the asset purchases required to get it to the point of having done the maximum amount of QE it has decided to put in place."*

So, while the process of rate normalization has formally begun, the Fed is planning for a very gradual increase in interest rates. For example, in the minutes of the same December 2015 meeting, the FOMC also stated that:

> *"The Committee expects that economic conditions will evolve in a manner that will warrant only gradual increases in the federal funds rate; the federal funds rate is likely to remain, for some time, below levels that are expected to prevail in the longer run."*

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[33] Press Release of FOMC's Monetary Policy Statement, December 16, 2015. For details visit: http://www.federalreserve.gov/monetarypolicy/fomccalendars.htm.

[34] S&P *Ratings Direct* report entitled "Economic Research: The Fed Is Continuing, Not 'Ending,' Quantitative Easing", November 4, 2014.

Secondly, another phenomenon has helped push U.S. interest rates lower over time: purchases of U.S. Treasury securities by foreign investors have grown at a fast pace over the last several years.[35] While 2015 was the first time in many years when net purchases increased by only a negligible amount, the reality is that the total share of U.S. Treasuries owned by foreign investors is still very high (refer back to Exhibit 4). Should foreign demand for U.S. Treasury securities drop, it would still take some years for such significant holdings to be unwound (especially given the level of globalization of the world economy). Notably, there are academic studies that document a significant impact of foreign investors on U.S. interest rates even prior to the onset of 2008 Financial Crisis. One such study (not to be confused with the research cited above) estimated that absent the substantial foreign inflows into U.S. government bonds, the (nominal) 10-year Treasury yield would be 80 basis points higher using data through 2005.[36] The impact of foreign financial flows on long-term interest rates is not confined to the U.S. A recent research paper estimates that the increase in foreign holdings of Eurozone bonds between early 2000 and mid-2006 is associated with a reduction of Eurozone long-term interest rates by 1.55%.[37]

Thirdly, an environment of geopolitical and economic uncertainty led to flight to quality movements during certain periods of 2015, which helped drive interest rates even lower for major safe havens countries. Flight to quality has been particularly acute in early 2016.

Global investors had enough reasons to seek safe haven investments during 2015. In general, political conflicts continued in 2015 in various regions of the world. Major examples include (i) the face-off between the Eurozone and Greece's new radical left-leaning government, which culminated in Greece defaulting on its sovereign debt with the International Monetary Fund (IMF), being forced to accept a third bail-out package, and barely escaping an exit from the Eurozone; (ii) the escalation of the civil war in Syria, leading to a refugee crisis, with an increasing number of refugees seeking asylum in neighboring Middle Eastern countries and in the European Union; and (iii) the strengthening of the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS), which continued to launch terrorist attacks across the globe, with the greatest shock felt in November when ISIS carried out a series of coordinated attacks in Paris, France.

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[35] Source: Treasury International Capital (TIC) System's Portfolio Holdings of U.S. and Foreign Securities – A. Major Foreign Holders of U.S. Treasury Securities retrieved from http://www.treasury.gov/resource-center/data-chart-center/tic/Pages/ticsec2.aspx, February 17, 2016.

[36] Warnock, Francis E., and Veronica Cacdac Warnock, "International Capital Flows and U.S. Interest Rates," *Journal of International Money and Finance* 28 (2009): 903-919.

[37] Carvalho, Daniel and Michael Fidora, "Capital inflows and euro area long-term interest rates", ECB Working Paper 1798, June 2015. Note that the 'euro' was introduced to financial markets on January 1, 1999 as the new 'single currency' of what is now known as the Eurozone.

In addition, concerns about a slowing global economy and deflationary pressures have also led global investors to seek safe haven investments, such as government bonds issued by the U.S., Germany, and Switzerland, to name a few. Oil prices continued to tumble from its mid-2014 highs, reinforcing investor anxiety over stagnant growth in the Eurozone and Japan, as well as a deceleration in China and several other emerging-market countries.

Mid-August 2015 caught global markets by surprise, when China announced a devaluation of the yuan, following dramatic sell-offs of Chinese equities throughout the month of July. The surprise yuan devaluation was followed by a few days of disappointing news about China's economy. The apparent slowdown in China's economy (i) raised fears of a further global economic slowdown, (ii) significantly depressed commodity prices (China is the world's largest importer of several raw materials), and (iii) weighed heavily on world financial markets. The Fed's announcement in September that it would not raise rates (when the market participant consensus had been predicting a rate hike), took into consideration the increased economic uncertainty implied by the tumult observed in global markets.

On the other hand, the sharp decline in oil prices has put additional pressure in an already very low inflation environment, considered by many as bordering on deflation territory. For perspective, the price of Brent crude oil was at $115/barrel in mid-June 2014; since then prices declined to $38/barrel at the end of 2015, a cumulative 67% decline in the space of a year and a half. The collapse of oil prices has continued in early 2016.[38] The potential benefit of lower oil prices to oil-importing nations has not (yet, at least) been felt on economic growth. Worryingly, should major economic regions such as the Eurozone enter into a deflationary path, one could use Japan's "lost decades" as a parallel to what might happen in the future.

Deflation risks and economic stagnation are precisely what led central banks in Japan and Eurozone to recently boost their respective monetary easing policies. In October 2014, Japan's central bank surprised the world by announcing a second easing program self-dubbed as "quantitative and qualitative easing" (QQE).[39] In November, after the announcement of a second consecutive quarter of economic contraction, Japan's prime minister Shinzo Abe also proclaimed snap parliamentary elections, explicitly seeking endorsement to continue with the government's expansionary economic policies (also known as "Abenomics"). While Abe's party managed to keep its two-third majority in the December 2014 elections, the QQE measures failed to spur real economic growth in 2015, with headline inflation far below the Bank of Japan's (BOJ) 2.0% target.

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[38] Source: S&P *Capital IQ* database.
[39] For a list of BOJ's monetary policy decisions, visit: http://www.boj.or.jp/en/mopo/mpmdeci/index.htm/.

In another surprise move, the BOJ announced on January 29, 2016 a landmark decision to implement a negative interest rate policy (dubbed "NIRP" in the financial press), in conjunction with its QQE. The BOJ now joins the European Central Bank (ECB), as well as the Danish, the Swedish, and the Swiss central banks in adopting this new form of unconventional monetary policies. NIRP entails financial institutions paying interest on the liabilities that the central bank issues to them. The main idea of NIRP is to discourage savings, while creating incentives for consumers to increase their spending and companies to expand their investment. However, the consequence of such measures is to also pressure interest rates further downwards. According to an S&P research report:[40]

> *"Negative interest rate policy appears to be able to exert downward pressure on the whole yield curve via the portfolio rebalance effect, as security prices, perturbed by the central bank's fixing of one price, adjust to restore equilibrium."*

According to recent Bloomberg calculations, more than $7 trillion of government bonds globally offered negative yields in early February 2016, making up about 29% of the Bloomberg Global Developed Sovereign Bond Index.[41]

In the Eurozone, lackluster growth trends, coupled with deflation fears, induced the ECB to cut its benchmark rate to a new record low in early June 2014, while also announcing an unprecedented measure to charge negative interest rates on deposits held at the central bank.[42] Responding to a weak third quarter, the ECB again cut its benchmark rate to 0.05% in September 2014, and revealed details for two different securities purchase programs. The continued threat of deflation led the ECB to announce a larger scale sovereign debt buying program in January 2015, consisting of €60 billion in monthly asset purchases. This program was launched in March with an original target end-date of September 2016. Real GDP growth did accelerate in the first quarter of 2015, with consumer price inflation and job growth also showing signs of improvement. However, growth decelerated once again in the second and third quarters. The November terrorist attacks in Paris, the Syrian refugee crisis, and the mounting political uncertainty in Spain and Portugal were all risk factors affecting the Eurozone at the end of 2015. Inflation was also virtually stagnant in October and November. As a result, the ECB announced on December 3, 2015 a further cut of the already-negative deposit facility rate and an extension of monthly asset purchases to March 2017; markets were nevertheless disappointed, as a further expansion of the QE program had been anticipated.

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[40] Standard & Poor's *Ratings Direct* report entitled "Negative Interest Rates: Why Central Banks Can Defy 'Time Preference'", February 3, 2016.

[41] World's Negative-Yielding Bond Pile Tops $7 Trillion: Chart", February 9, 2015. This article can be accessed here: http://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2016-02-09/world-s-negative-yielding-bond-pile-tops-7-trillion-chart.

[42] For a list of ECB's monetary policy decisions, visit: https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/govcdec/html/index.en.html.

Markets are now expecting the ECB to expand its QE policies at its March 2016 meeting.[43]

The current economic conditions in the Eurozone and Japan are in stark contrast with the recent performance of the U.S. economy. Over the last two years, the U.S. economy has been expanding at a healthy pace (albeit below its long-term potential). That, coupled with solid jobs gains, made the Fed more confident that a rise in short-term interest rates was in order, back in December 2015. The divergence in economic growth and monetary policies in the U.S. versus other major economic regions is actually contributing to some of the decline in U.S. Treasury yields. Ultimately, U.S. government bonds continue to offer more-attractive yields than bonds issued by other safe-haven countries, and a stronger dollar enables foreign investors to pick up extra returns on U.S. investments.

Looking forward to 2016, many of the forces behind disappointing U.S. stock market performance during 2015, such as low commodity prices, sluggish global growth, and shrinking corporate profits (partly due to a strong U.S. dollar), may still be present in the coming year. This could contribute to a downward pressure in global interest rates, including those in the U.S.

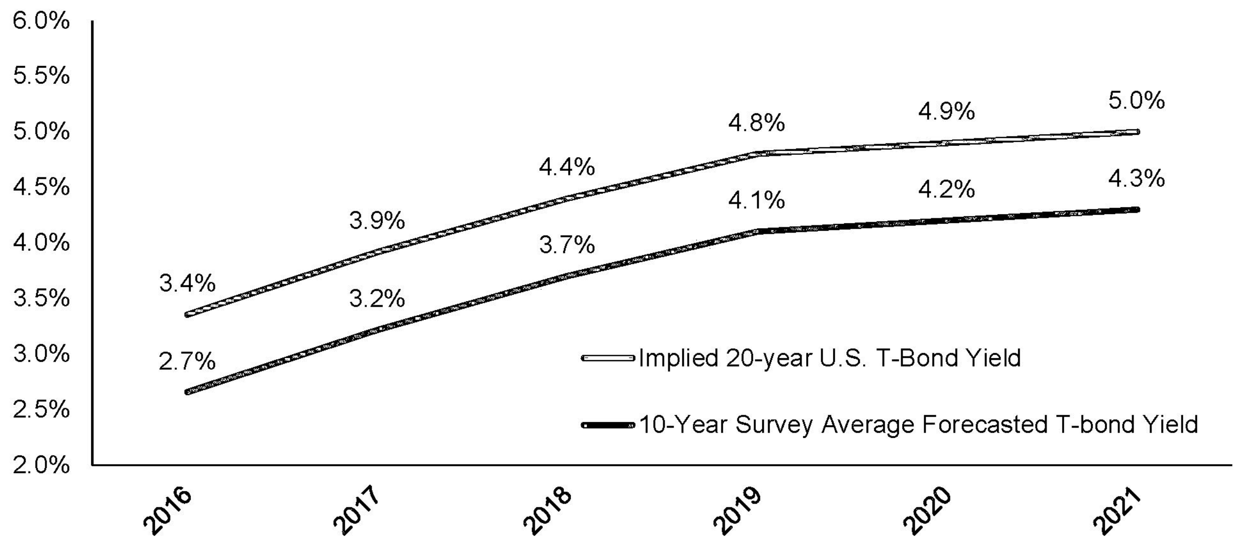
So, are artificially repressed U.S. Treasury yields sustainable? Sustainability implies that something can go on forever, but Stein's Law tells us that "If something cannot go on forever, it will stop".[44] A possible corollary of Stein's Law is that if the accommodative monetary policy (including the massive QE programs) by the Fed since the Financial Crisis "cannot go on forever", then the Fed may really not have much of a choice in whether to "stop" or not. Put simply, things that are destined to stop will stop by their own accord, one way or another. Whether it will be a "graceful dismount" is yet to be seen.

In the short-term, there are probably still enough significant factors that will keep interest rates at artificially low levels. However, in the medium-term, borrowing any major setback in the global economy, investors seem to be expecting U.S. interest rates to start rising, albeit slowly, after 2016.

[43] The discussion in this section was based on information available at the time of writing (through February 23, 2016). Events and market conditions may have changed since then relative to when this report is issued.
[44] Professor Herbert Stein was a member and later chairman of the Council of Economic Advisers under Presidents Nixon and Ford. Source: Michael M. Weinstein, "Herbert Stein, Nixon Adviser And Economist, Is Dead at 83", *New York Times*, September 09, 1999.

We compiled consensus forecasts from reputable sources published close to year-end 2015. Exhibit 6 displays the average of consensus forecasts for 10-year U.S. Treasury bond yields through 2021 from a variety of surveys.[45,46,47] We then added a maturity premium to the 10-year yield, to arrive at an implied forecast for the 20-year government bond yield.[48]

Exhibit 6: Average forecasted 10-year U.S. Treasury Bond Yield and Implied 20-year U.S. Risk-free Rate (in percentage terms) at year-end 2015



[45] Sources: "Survey of Professional Forecasters: Fourth Quarter 2015", Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia (November 13, 2015); "The Livingston Survey: December 2015", Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia (December 10, 2015); "US Consensus Forecast ", Consensus Economics Inc. (January 11, 2016); *Blue Chip Economic Indicators* (January 10, 2016); *Blue Chip Financial Forecasts* (December 1, 2015); S&P *Capital IQ*™ database. Note that while some of the sources were released in 2016, the underlying surveys had been conducted in early January 2016, still reflecting expectations close to year-end 2015.

[46] Not all surveys provided consensus forecasts through 2021. At a minimum, all five sources included forecasts for 2016.

[47] Sources of underlying data: Survey of Professional Forecasters; Livingston Survey; U.S. Consensus Forecast; *Blue Chip Economic Indicators*; and *Blue Chip Financial Forecasts*; S&P *Capital IQ* database. Compiled by Duff & Phelps LLC.

[48] A maturity premium of approximately 70 basis points was added to the 10-year yield. This was based on the average yield spread between the 20 and the 10-year U.S. Treasury constant maturity bonds from December 2008 through December 2015. Had more recent data been used, when the yield spread declined to a range of 40 to 50 basis points, this would not have materially changed our main conclusion. While the magnitude of the maturity premium can be debated, using even the most recent 40 to 50 basis points average yield spread would imply that at year-end 2015 market participants expected the 20-year yield to reach close to 4.1% by 2018 (3.7% + approximately 0.4%).

The Congressional Budget Office (CBO), a non-partisan agency supporting the U.S. Congressional budgeting process, is more optimistic on how fast rates will rise. In its report "The Budget and Economic Outlook: 2016 to 2026", the CBO estimates the 10-year yield to average 3.5% in 2017, which would imply a 20-year yield around 4.2% using a maturity premium of 70 basis points. Its long-term forecast for the 10-year yield is 4.1% starting in 2019, again implying a long-term 20-year yield around 4.8%.[49]

Methods of Risk-free Rate Normalization

Normalization of risk-free rates can be accomplished in a number of ways, including (i) simple averaging, or (ii) various "build-up" methods.

The first normalization method entails calculating averages of yields to maturity on long-term government securities over various periods. This method's implied assumption is that government bond yields revert to the mean. In Exhibit 7, the solid blue line is the spot yield on a 20-year U.S. government bond (December 2007–January 2016), whereas the dashed black line shows a 3.7% average monthly yield of the 20-year U.S. government bond over the previous 10 years ending on January 2016 (at the end of December 2015, the long-term average would still be 3.7%).[50] Government bond spot yields at the end of December 2015, and even more so at the end of January 2016, were lower than the monthly average over the last 10 years. Taking the average over the last 10 years is a simple way of "normalizing" the risk-free rate. An issue with using historical averages, though, is selecting an appropriate comparison period that can be used as a reasonable proxy for the future.

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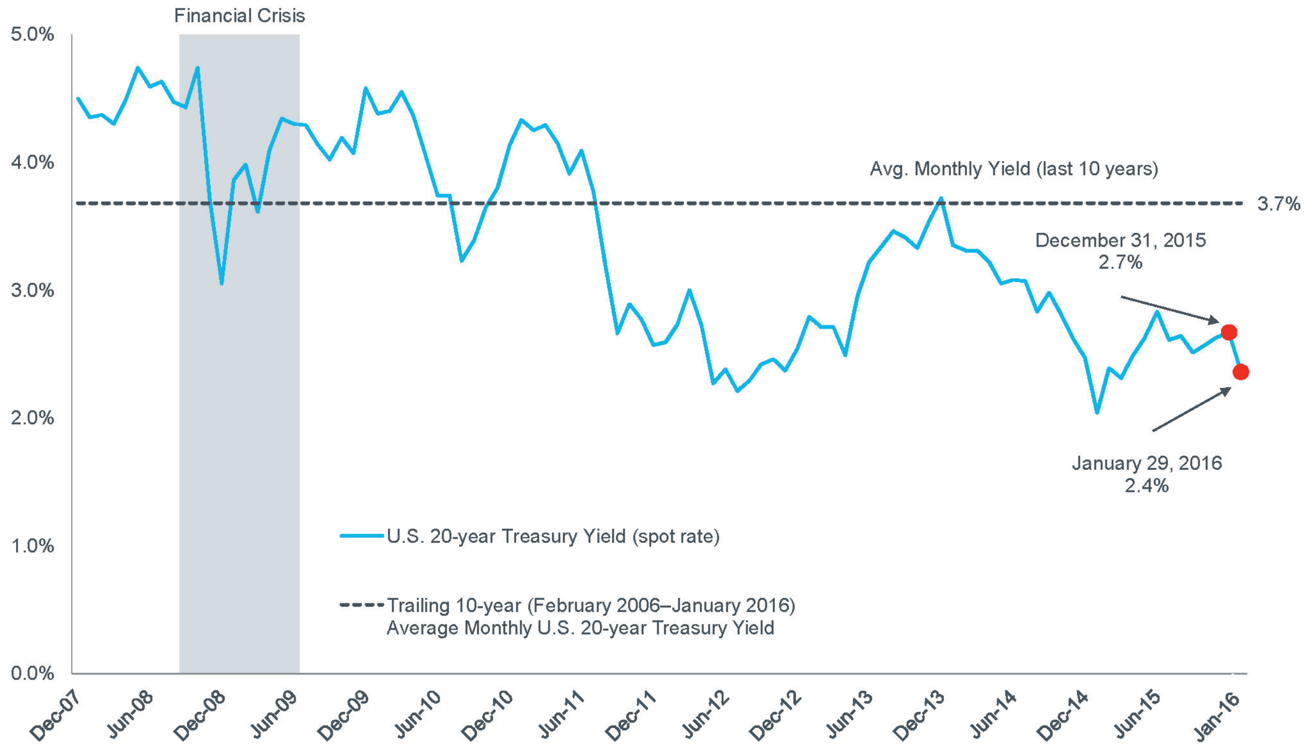
[49] "The Budget and Economic Outlook: 2016 to 2026", released January 25, 2016. Again, using a maturity premium of 40 basis points would imply a 20-year yield of 3.9% in 2017 and a long-term 20-year yield of 4.5% starting in 2019. For more details on this report, visit: https://www.cbo.gov/sites/default/files/114th-congress-2015-2016/reports/51129-2016Outlook_OneCol-2.pdf.

[50] Source of underlying data: 20-year U.S. government bond series. Board of Governors of the Federal serve System website at: http:// www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h15/data.htm.

Exhibit 7: Spot and Average Yields on 20-year U.S. Government
December 2007–January 2016



The second normalization method entails using a simple build-up method, where the components of the risk-free rate are estimated and then added together. Conceptually, the risk-free rate can be (loosely) illustrated as the return on the following two components:[51]

Risk-Free Rate = Real Rate + Expected Inflation

Some academic studies have suggested the long-term "real" risk-free rate to be somewhere in the range of 1.2% to 2.0% based on the study of inflation swap rates and/or yields on long-term U.S. Treasury Inflation Protected Securities (TIPS).[52,53,54,55]

The second component, *expected inflation*, can also be estimated in a number of ways. Monetary policymakers and academics have been monitoring several measures of market expectations of future inflation. One method of estimating long-term inflation is to take the difference between the yield on a 20-year U.S. government bond yield and the yield of a 20-year U.S. TIPS. This is also known as the "breakeven inflation".[56] This calculation is shown in Exhibit 8 over the time period July 2004–January 2016.[57] Over this period, the average monthly breakeven long-term inflation estimate using this method was 2.3% (3.8% government bond yield – 1.5% TIPS). As of December 31, 2015, the average monthly breakeven long-term inflation estimate was also 2.3%.

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[51] This is a simplified version of the "Fisher equation", named after Irving Fisher. Fisher's "*The Theory of Interest*" was first published by Macmillan (New York), in 1930.

[52] TIPS are marketable securities whose principal is adjusted relative to changes in the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

[53] Haubrich, Joseph, George Pennacchi, and Peter Ritchken, "Inflation Expectations, Real Rates, and Risk Premia: Evidence from Inflation Swaps," *Review of Financial Studies* Vol. 25 (5) (2012): 1588-1629. The results of the authors' work is updated on a monthly basis and published in the Federal Reserve Bank of Cleveland's website. The 'Inflation Expectations' monthly series published in the 'Inflation Central' section of the website, contains an expected 10-year Real Risk Premia (as predicted by the model), which would be a proxy for the maturity premium of the 10-year real yield over the short-term real risk-free rate. For example, in December 2015, this expected 10-year Real Risk Premia was 1.2%. The 'Inflation Central' is located here: https://www.clevelandfed.org/en/our-research/inflation-central.aspx.

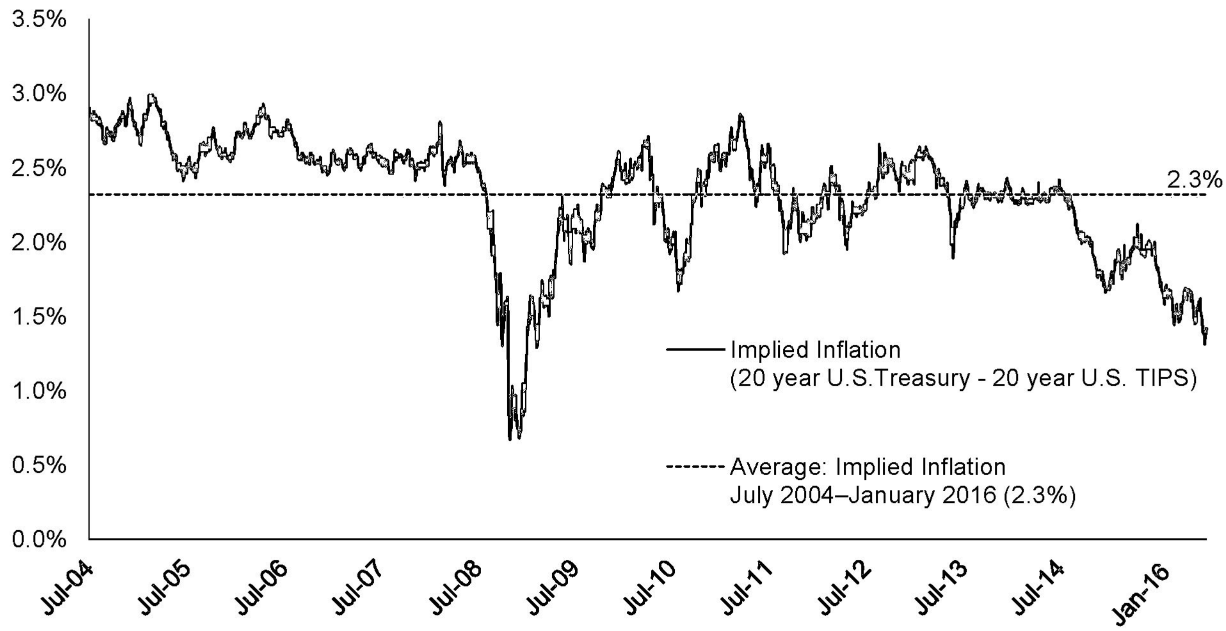
[54] Andrew Ang and Geert Bekaert "The Term Structure of Real Rates and Expected Inflation," *The Journal of Finance*, Vol. LXIII (2) (April 2008).

[55] Olesya V Grishchenko and Jing-zhi Huang "Inflation Risk Premium: Evidence From the TIPS Market," *The Journal of Fixed Income*, Vol. 22 (4) (2013): 5-30.

[56] Breakeven inflation is based on the differential between nominal and TIPS yields with equivalent maturity. However, several studies have documented that the breakeven inflation has not been a good predictor for inflation expectations. The differential between nominal and real rates is not only complicated by a liquidity premium, but also by the potential presence of the inflation risk premium, with both of these premiums varying through time. For a more detailed list of academic studies documenting the magnitude of the liquidity premium and the inflation risk premium, refer back to Chapter 7 of Shannon P. Pratt and Roger J. Grabowski, *Cost of Capital: Applications and Examples*, 5th ed. (Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, 2014).

[57] Source of underlying data: 20-year U.S. government bond series and 20-year TIPS series, Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System website at:
http://www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h15/data.htm. Calculated by Duff & Phelps LLC.

Exhibit 8: Breakeven Long-Term Inflation Estimate (20 year Government Bond Yield – 20 year TIPS Yield)
July 2004–January 2016



Additionally, in the U.S., there are a number of well-established surveys providing consensus estimates for expected inflation. One academic study has examined various methods for forecasting inflation over the period 1952–2004 and found that surveys significantly outperform other forecasting methods.[58] Exhibit 9 outlines some of the most prominent surveys in this area.[59] Altogether, the year-end 2015 estimates of longer-term inflation range from 1.8% to 2.6%.

[58] Ang, A., G. Bekaert, and M. Wei. "Do macro variables, asset markets, or surveys forecast inflation better?" *Journal of Monetary Economics*. 54, 1163-1212.
[59] Sources of underlying data: "The Livingston Survey: December 2015," Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia (December 10, 2015); "Survey of Professional Forecasters: Fourth Quarter 2015," Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia (November 13, 2015); *Blue Chip Financial Forecasts* Vol. 34 (12) (December 1, 2015); Federal Reserve Bank of Cleveland (estimates as of December 2015); Bloomberg.

Exhibit 9: Long-term Expected Inflation Estimates Year-end 2015 (approx.)

Source	Estimate (%)
Livingston Survey (Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia)	2.3
Survey of Professional Forecasters (Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia)	2.2
Cleveland Federal Reserve	1.8
Blue Chip Financial Forecasts	2.3
University of Michigan Survey 5-10 Year Ahead Inflation Expectations	2.6
Range of Expected Inflation Forecasts	1.8% – 2.6%

Adding the estimated ranges for the "real" risk-free rate and longer-term inflation together produces an estimated normalized risk-free rate range of 3.0% to 4.6%, with a midpoint of 3.8% (or 4.0%, if rounding to the nearest 50 basis points).

Range of Estimated Long-term Real Rate	1.2% to 2.0%
Range of Estimated Expected Inflation Forecasts	1.8% to 2.6%
Range of Estimated Long-term Normalized Risk-free Rate	3.0% to 4.6%
Midpoint	3.8%

Spot Yield or Normalized Yield?

Should the valuation analyst use the current market yield on risk-free U.S. government bonds (e.g., "spot" yield equal to 2.7% at December 31, 2015 or 2.4% at January 31, 2016) or use a "normalized" risk-free yield when estimating the cost of equity capital?

As stated earlier, in most circumstances we would prefer to use the "spot" yield on U.S. government bonds available in the market as a proxy for the U.S. risk-free rate. However, during times of flight to quality and/or high levels of central bank intervention, those lower observed yields imply a lower cost of capital (all other factors held the same) – just the opposite of what one would expect in times of relative economic distress – so a "normalization" adjustment may be considered appropriate. By "normalization" we mean estimating a rate that more likely reflects the sustainable average return of long-term risk-free rates. *If spot yield-to-maturity were used at these times, without any other adjustments, one would arrive at an overall discount rate that is likely inappropriately low vis-à-vis the risks currently facing investors*. Exhibit 10 shows the potential problems of simply using the spot yield-to-maturity on 20-year U.S. government bonds in conjunction with unadjusted U.S. historical equity risk premia.[60] Data is displayed for year-end 2007 through year-end 2015, as well as end of January 2016. For example, in December 2008, at the height of the Financial Crisis (when risks were arguably at all-time highs), using the 1926–2008 historical ERP of 6.5% together with the spot 20-year yield of 3.0% would result in a base cost of equity capital of 9.5%. In contrast, the base cost of equity would be 11.6% (4.5% plus 7.1%) at year-end 2007, implying that risks were actually higher at the end of 2007 than at the end of 2008. From both a theoretical and practical standpoint, the reality is that investors likely perceived risks to be much higher in December 2008, relative to the December 2007. This demonstrates that a mechanical application of the data may result in nonsensical results.[61]

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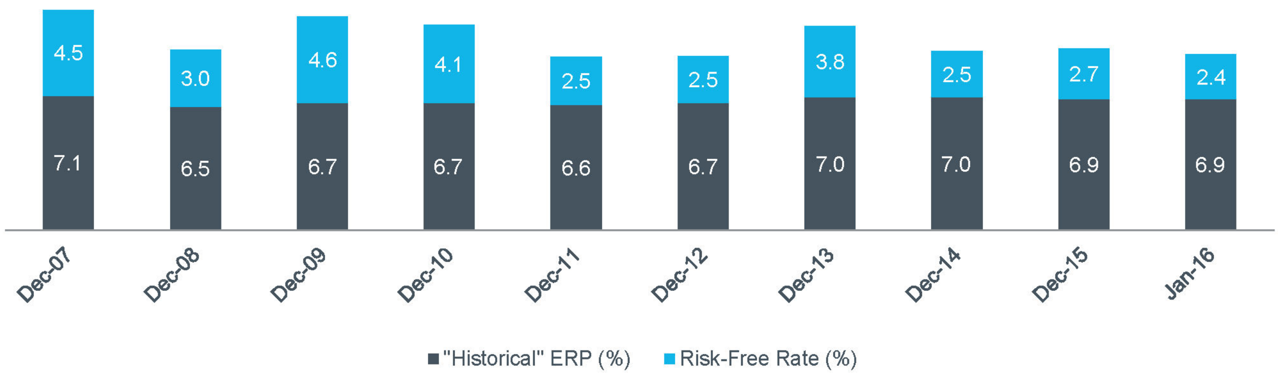
[60] Source of underlying data: Morningstar *Direct* database. Used with permission. Risk-free rate data series used: Long-term Gov't Bonds (IA SBBI US LT Govt YLD USD). All rights reserved. Calculations performed by Duff & Phelps LLC

[61] More detailed information on historical and forward-looking ERPs can be found later in this report.

Exhibit 10: Spot 20-year U.S. Treasury Yield in Conjunction with Unadjusted "Historical" Equity Risk Premium



Adjustments to the ERP or to the risk-free rate are, in principle, a response to the same underlying concerns and should result in broadly similar costs of capital. Adjusting the risk-free rate in conjunction with the ERP is only one of the alternatives available when estimating the cost of equity capital.

For example, one could use a spot yield for the risk-free rate, but *increase* the ERP or other adjustment to account for higher (systematic) risk. If the valuation analyst chooses to use the spot yield to estimate the cost of capital during periods when those yields are less than "normal," the valuation analyst must use an estimated ERP that is *matched* to (or implied by) those *below-normal* yields. However we note that the most commonly used data sources for ERP estimates are long-term series measured when interest rates were largely not subject to such market intervention. Using those data series with an abnormally low spot yield creates a mismatch.

Alternatively, if the valuation analyst chooses to use a normalized risk-free rate in estimating the cost of capital, the valuation analyst must again use an estimated ERP that is *matched* to those *normalized* yields. Normalizing the risk-free rate is likely a more direct (and more easily implemented) analysis than adjusting the ERP due to a *temporary* reduction in the yields on risk-free securities, while *longer-term* trends may be more appropriately reflected in the ERP.

4.0%

The Duff & Phelps concluded normalized risk-free rate, as of January 31, 2016

We examined interest rates for the months since the Financial Crisis began. We also estimated a "normalized" yield each month using trailing averages and a build-up model. Considering longer-term averages of Treasury bond yields, and the build-up framework outlined above, Duff & Phelps has currently concluded on a 4.0% "normalized" risk free rate in developing its U.S. ERP (as compared to the 2.4% "spot rate" as of January 31, 2016). The 4.0% normalized risk-free rate should be used in conjunction with the 5.5% ERP recommendation outlined herein, implying a 9.5% (4.0% + 5.5%) base cost of equity capital for the U.S. as of January 31, 2016 and thereafter (until further guidance is issued) .

Exhibit 11 (in Section 4 of this report) displays the month by month spot yields on 20-year U.S. government bonds and the matching "normalized" yields (as suggested by Duff & Phelps) for months in which the normalized yields are greater than the corresponding spot yields. The months in which we believe a valuation analyst should consider using a normalized risk-free rate (or at least consider whether adjustments are warranted) are highlighted in bold and the "normalized" yields are shown in these months.

Section 04

Basis for U.S. ERP Recommendation as of January 31, 2016

Basis for U.S. Recommended ERP as of January 31, 2016

Unconditional ERP

ERP is a forward-looking concept. It is an expectation as of the valuation date for which no market quotes are directly observable. While an analyst can observe premiums realized over time by referring to historical data (i.e., realized return approach or ex post approach), such realized premium data do not represent the ERP expected in prior periods, nor do they represent the current ERP estimate. Rather, realized premiums represent, at best, only a sample from prior periods of what may have then been the expected ERP.

To the extent that realized premiums on the average equate to expected premiums in prior periods, such samples may be representative of current expectations. But to the extent that prior events that are not expected to recur caused realized returns to differ from prior expectations, such samples should be adjusted to remove the effects of these nonrecurring events. Such adjustments are needed to improve the predictive power of the sample.

Alternatively, the analyst can derive forward-looking estimates for the ERP from sources such as: (i) data on the underlying expectations of growth in corporate earnings and dividends; (ii) projections of specific analysts as to dividends and future stock prices; or (iii) surveys (an ex-ante approach). The goal of these approaches is to estimate the true expected ERP as of the valuation date.

Duff & Phelps recognizes that making any ERP estimate requires a great degree of judgment. In arriving at our recommended ERP, we weigh both economic and financial markets evidence. We choose to change our recommendations when the preponderance of evidence indicates a change is justified. We try to avoid making a change in one month to only find the evidence reversing itself the following month.

As indicated in Section 2 "Overview of Duff & Phelps ERP Methodology", based on the analysis of academic and financial literature and various empirical studies, we have concluded that a reasonable long-term estimate of the normal or unconditional U.S. ERP is in the range of 3.5% to 6.0%.

From 5.0% to 5.5%

The change in the Duff & Phelps recommended U.S. Equity Risk Premium effective January 31, 2016

Conditional ERP

As previously stated, based on recent economic and financial market conditions (further described below), we are updating our estimated *conditional* ERP as of January 31, 2016. Specifically, Duff & Phelps is increasing its recommended U.S. ERP from 5.0% to 5.5% (while maintaining a *normalized* risk-free rate of 4.0%) when developing discount rates as of January 31, 2016 and thereafter, until further guidance is issued.

Exhibit 11 displays the Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendations issued since 2008 until the present, along with an indication of whether spot yields on 20-year U.S. government bonds or "normalized" yields (as suggested by Duff & Phelps) were used. In months in which we believe a valuation analyst should consider using a normalized risk-free rate (or at least consider whether adjustments are warranted), we show the "normalized" yields that match the Duff & Phelps recommended U.S. ERP.

Exhibit 11: Duff & Phelps Recommended U.S. ERP and Corresponding Risk Free Rates January 2008−Present

	Duff & Phelps Recommended ERP	*Risk Free Rate*
Change in ERP Guidance (current guidance) ✓ January 31, 2015 − UNTIL FURTHER NOTICE	5.5%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
Year-end 2015 Guidance December 31, 2015	5.0%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
Change in ERP Guidance February 28, 2013 − January 30, 2016	5.0%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
Change in ERP Guidance January 15, 2012 − February 27, 2013	5.5%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
Change in ERP Guidance September 30, 2011 − January 14, 2012	6.0%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
July 1, 2011 − September 29, 2011	5.5%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
June 1, 2011 − June 30, 2011	5.5%	Spot 20-year Treasury Yield
May 1, 2011 − May 31, 2011	5.5%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
December 1, 2010 − April 30, 2011	5.5%	Spot 20-year Treasury Yield
June 1, 2010 − November 30, 2010	5.5%	4.0% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
Change in ERP Guidance December 1, 2009 − May 31, 2010	5.5%	Spot 20-year Treasury Yield
June 1, 2009 − November 30, 2009	6.0%	Spot 20-year Treasury Yield
November 1, 2008 − May 31, 2009	6.0%	4.5% Normalized 20-year Treasury yield *
Change in ERP Guidance October 27, 2008 − October 31, 2008	6.0%	Spot 20-year Treasury Yield
January 1, 2008 − October 26, 2008	5.0%	Spot 20-year Treasury Yield

* Normalized in this context means that in months where the risk-free rate is deemed to be abnormally low, a proxy for a longer-term sustainable risk-free rate is used. To ensure the most recent ERP recommendation (and associated risk-free rate) is used, visit: www.duffandphelps.com/costofcapital.

To Be Clear:

December 31, 2015 (i.e., "year-end") Valuations: Duff & Phelps recommends a 5.0% U.S. ERP, matched with a normalized yield on 20-year U.S. government bonds equal to 4.0%, implying a 9.0% base cost of equity capital in the United States as of December 31, 2015.

January 31, 2016 Valuations: Duff & Phelps recommend a 5.5% U.S. ERP, matched with a normalized yield on 20-year U.S. government bonds equal to 4.0%, implying a 9.5% base cost of equity capital in the United States as of January 31, 2016 (and thereafter, until further notice).

Basis for Duff & Phelps Recommended U.S. ERP[62]

In estimating the conditional ERP, valuation analysts cannot simply use the long-term historical ERP, without further analysis. A better alternative would be to examine approaches that are sensitive to the current economic conditions.

As previously discussed, Duff & Phelps employs a multi-faceted analysis to estimate the conditional ERP that takes into account a broad range of economic information and multiple ERP estimation methodologies to arrive at its recommendation.[63]

First, a reasonable range of normal or unconditional ERP is established.

Second, based on current economic conditions, Duff & Phelps estimates where in the range the true ERP likely lies (top, bottom, or middle) by examining the current state of the economy (both by examining the level of stock indices as a forward indicator and examining economic forecasts), as well as the implied equity volatility and corporate spreads as indicators of perceived risk.

For example, since December 31, 2014, while the evidence was somewhat mixed, on balance we saw indications that equity risk in financial markets had stayed relatively constant through the end of 2015, when estimated against a normalized risk-free rate of 4.0%. Exhibit 12-A summarizes the primary economic and financial market indicators we analyzed at December 31, 2015 and how they have moved since December 31, 2014, with the corresponding relative impact on ERP indications:

[62] This discussion was extracted from Chapter 3 of the Duff & Phelps *2016 Valuation Handbook – Guide to Cost of Capital* (Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, 2016). The discussion in this section was based on information available at the time of writing (through February 23, 2016). Events and market conditions may have changed since then relative to when this report is issued.

[63] To ensure you are always using the most recent ERP recommendation, visit: www.duffandphelps.com/costofcapital.

Exhibit 12-A: Economic and Financial Market Indicators Considered in Duff & Phelps' U.S. ERP Recommendation *as of December 31, 2015*

Factor	Change	Effect on ERP
U.S. Equity Markets	↔	↔
Implied Equity Volatility	↔	↔
Corporate Spreads	↑	↑
Historical Real GDP Growth and Forecasts	↔	↔
Unemployment Environment	↓	↓
Consumer and Business Sentiment	↔	↔
Sovereign Credit Ratings	↔	↔
Damodaran Implied ERP Model	↑	↑
Default Spread Model	↑	↑

Recent economic indicators point to a positive, yet below-pace, real growth for the U.S. economy. The economy has been expanding at a modest rate, but generally better than other major developed economies, and with the risks of a recession seemingly tempered. The employment situation is reaching a level of stability, with the U.S. economy reaching close to full employment. Consumer confidence and business sentiment are generally stable, with the former still above its long-term average.

On the other hand, inflation has been persistently below the Fed's target of 2.0%. The sharp decline in oil prices since 2014 has put additional pressure in an already very low inflation environment.

Concerns about a slowing global economy and deflationary pressures have troubled investors in 2015. Tumbling oil and other commodity prices have reinforced investor anxiety over stagnant growth in the Eurozone and Japan, as well as a deceleration in several emerging-market countries, with a particular focus on China (considered by many analysts as the engine of growth for the global economy). Global financial markets reacted negatively to these trends in August and September of 2015, but settled down towards year-end. As a result, the Fed saw sufficient support to raise its benchmark interest rate in December 2015, the first time since the beginning of the 2008 global financial crisis.

Since early 2016, however, broad equity indices (e.g., the S&P 500) across the globe have suffered significant losses, market volatility has spiked, and credit spreads of U.S. high-yield over U.S. investment grade corporate bonds continued to widen substantially (now affecting companies outside the oil and mining sectors). This has led global investors to seek safe haven investments, such as securities issued by the U.S., Germany, and United Kingdom governments, to name a few, causing sharp declines in government bond yields for these countries. Financial markets are now attaching a lower probability of further interest rate increases by the Fed in the near term.

We show in Exhibit 12-B the primary economic and financial market indicators as of January 31, 2016 and how they have moved since year-end 2014, with the corresponding relative impact on ERP indications.

Exhibit 12-B: Economic and Financial Market Indicators Considered in Duff & Phelps' ERP Recommendation *as of January 31, 2016*

Factor	Change	Effect on ERP
U.S. Equity Markets	↓	↑
Implied Equity Volatility	↑	↑
Corporate Spreads	↑	↑
Historical Real GDP Growth and Forecasts	↔	↔
Unemployment Environment	↓	↓
Consumer and Business Sentiment	↔	↔
Sovereign Credit Ratings	↔	↔
Damodaran Implied ERP Model	↑	↑
Default Spread Model	↑	↑

Finally, we examine other indicators that may provide a more quantitative view of where we are within the range of reasonable long-term estimates for the U.S. ERP.

Duff & Phelps currently uses several models as corroborating evidence. We reviewed these indicators both at year-end 2015 and at the end of January 2016.

- **Damodaran Implied ERP Model** − Professor Aswath Damodaran calculates implied ERP estimates for the S&P 500 and publishes his estimates on his website. Prof. Damodaran estimates an implied ERP by first solving for the discount rate that equates the current S&P 500 index level with his estimates of cash distributions (dividends and stock buybacks) in future years. He then subtracts the current yield on 10-year U.S. government bonds. Duff & Phelps then converts his estimate to an arithmetic average equivalent measured against the 20-year U.S. government bond rate.

  Prof. Damodaran has recently added new capabilities to his implied equity risk premium calculator. The new features introduced last year allow the user to select a variety of base projected cash flow yields, as a well as several expected growth rate choices for the following five years in the forecast. Each option for cash flow yields is independent of the growth rate assumptions, which means that the user can select up to 35 different combinations to estimate an implied ERP. More recently, Prof. Damodaran added a new feature that allows the terminal year's projected cash flows to be adjusted to what he considers a more sustainable payout ratio. This sustainable payout is computed using the long-term growth rate (g) and the trailing 12-month return on equity (ROE), as follows: Sustainable Payout = 1 – g/ROE. If the user selects this option, the payout ratio over the next (projected) five years is based on a linear interpolation between today's payout ratio and the Sustainable Payout. Otherwise, the terminal year payout ratio will be the same as today's value throughout the entire forecast.

  Exhibit 13 shows the current options that a user can select to arrive at an implied ERP indication. Each of these combinations can then be adjusted for a sustainable payout, if the user so decides.[64]

[64] Source of underlying data: Downloadable dataset entitled "Spreadsheet to compute ERP for current month". To obtain a copy, visit: http://people.stern.nyu.edu/adamodar/.

Exhibit 13: Professor Damodaran's Implied Equity Risk Premium Calculator Cash Flow Yield (Dividends + Buybacks) and Growth Rate Options

S&P 500 Cash Flow Yield (Dividends + Buybacks)	S&P Earnings Growth Rates for Years 1 through 5 in the Projections	Adjustment for Sustainable Payout
Trailing 12 months Dividend + Buyback Yield	Historical Growth Rate for the last 10 years	Adjust Cash Flow Yield for Sustainable Payout
Average Dividend + Buyback Yield for the last 10 years	Bottom-up Forecasted Growth Rate for next 5 years	Do Not Adjust Cash Flow Yield for Sustainable Payout
Average Dividend + Buyback Yield for the last 5 years	Top-Down Forecasted Growth Rate for next 5 years	
Average Payout for the last 10 years	Fundamental Growth Rate (based on Current ROE)	
Average Payout for the last 5 years	Fundamental Growth Rate (based on 10-Year Average ROE)	
Average Payout using S&P 500 Normalized Earnings		
Trailing 12 months Dividend + Buyback Yield, Net of Stock Issuance		

Note: ROE = Return on Equity

Based on Prof. Damodaran's estimates of the trailing 12-month cash flow yield (dividends plus buybacks) of S&P 500 constituents – as published on the home page of his website – his implied ERP (converted into an arithmetic average equivalent) was approximately 7.16% measured against an abnormally low 20-year U.S. government bond yield (2.67%), as of December 31, 2015.[65] The equivalent normalized implied ERP estimate was 5.83% measured against a normalized 20-year U.S. government bond yield (4.0%), which represents an increase of 44 basis points relative to the prior year's indication.[66] Testing the various available options outlined in Exhibit 13 – but not adjusting for a Sustainable Payout in the terminal year – we obtained a range of indications for a normalized arithmetic average implied ERP estimate between 3.77% and 6.42% (once again, measured against a normalized 20-year U.S. government bond yield of 4.0%), representing an increase in the range observed last year. Alternatively, if projected cash flows were adjusted for a Sustainable Payout, the implied ERP indications would narrow to a range between 4.45% and 5.33%.

Performing these same steps as of January 31, 2016 would result in increased ERP indications, if computed against spot yields, but similar ones when using a normalized risk-free rate. For example, the implied arithmetic average ERP measured against the spot 20-year U.S. government bond yield (2.36%) was 7.49%, using a trailing 12-month cash flow yield.[67] Against a normalized 20-year U.S. government bond yield (4.0%), this implied ERP would be 5.85% as of January 31, 2016.[68] Similarly, we obtained a range of normalized arithmetic average implied ERP estimates between 3.71% and 6.48% (unadjusted for Sustainable Payout and measured against a normalized 20-year U.S. government bond yield of 4.0%).

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[65] Damodaran's implied rate of return (based on the actual 10-year yield) on the S&P 500 = 8.39% as of January 1, 2016, minus 2.67% actual rate on 20-year U.S. government bonds plus an adjustment to equate the geometric average ERP to its arithmetic equivalent. The result reflects conversion of the implied ERP to an arithmetic average equivalent.

[66] Damodaran's implied rate of return (based on the actual 10-year yield) on the S&P 500 = 8.39% as of January 1, 2016 minus 4.00% normalized rate on 20-year U.S. government bonds plus an adjustment to equate the geometric average ERP to its arithmetic equivalent. The result reflects conversion of the implied ERP to an arithmetic average equivalent.

[67] Damodaran's implied rate of return (based on the actual 10-year yield) on the S&P 500 = 8.41% as of February 1, 2016, minus 2.36% actual rate on 20-year U.S. government bonds plus an adjustment to equate the geometric average ERP to its arithmetic equivalent. The result reflects conversion of the implied ERP to an arithmetic average equivalent.

[68] Damodaran's implied rate of return (based on the actual 10-year yield) on the S&P 500 = 8.41% as of February 1, 2016 minus 4.00% normalized rate on 20-year U.S. government bonds plus an adjustment to equate the geometric average ERP to its arithmetic equivalent. The result reflects conversion of the implied ERP to an arithmetic average equivalent.

[**Note**: Appendix A summarizes the U.S. ERP implied by the Damodaran model since December 31, 2008, as converted by Duff & Phelps into an arithmetic average equivalent against normalized 20-year U.S. government bonds.]

- **Default Spread Model (DSM)** – The Default Spread Model is based on the premise that the long term average ERP (the unconditional ERP) is constant and deviations from that average over an economic cycle can be measured by reference to deviations from the long term average of the default spread (Baa - Aaa).[69]

  At the end of December 2015 and January 2016, the conditional ERP calculated using the DSM model was 5.51% and 5.65% respectively. For perspective, the last time this model resulted in an implied ERP in excess of 5.5% was back in August 2012. This model notably removes the risk-free rate itself as an input in the estimation of ERP. However, the ERP estimate resulting from the DSM is still interpreted as an estimate of the relative return of stocks in excess of risk-free securities.

[**Note:** Appendix B summarizes the conditional U.S. ERP (CERP) implied by the Default Spread Model since December 31, 2008.]

- **Hassett Implied ERP (Hassett)** – Stephen Hassett has developed a model for estimating the implied ERP, as well as the estimated S&P 500 index level, based on the current yield on long-term U.S. government bonds and a risk premium factor (RPF).[70] The RPF is the empirically derived relationship between the risk-free rate, S&P 500 earnings, real interest rates, and real GDP growth to the S&P 500 index over time. The RPF appears to change only infrequently. The model can be used monthly to estimate the S&P 500 index level and the conditional ERP based on the current level of interest rates.[71]

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[69] The Default Spread Model presented herein is based on Jagannathan, Ravi, and Wang, Zhenyu," The Conditional CAPM and the Cross -Section of Expected Returns," *The Journal of Finance*, Volume 51, Issue 1, March 1996: 3-53. See also Elton, Edwin J. and Gruber, Martin J., Agrawal, Deepak, and Mann, Christopher "Is There a Risk Premium in Corporate bonds?", Working Paper, http://pages.stern.nyu.edu/~eelton/working_papers/corp%20bonds/Is%20there%20a%20risk%20premium%20in%20corporate%20bonds.pdf. Duff & Phelps uses (as did Jagannathan, Ravi, and Wang) the spread of high-grade corporates against lesser grade corporates. Corporate bond series used in analysis herein: Barclays US Corp Baa Long Yld USD (Yield) and Barclays US Corp Aaa Long Yld USD (Yield); Source: Morningstar *Direct*.

[70] Stephen D. Hassett, ''The RPF Model for Calculating the Equity Risk Premium and Explaining the Value of the S&P with Two Variables,'' *Journal of Applied Corporate Finance* 22, 2 (Spring 2010): 118–130.

[71] For a more detailed description of Hassett's Risk Premium Factor model see Pratt and Grabowski, op.cit., Chapter 8A, "Deriving ERP Estimates": 167-168".

Hassett's analysis uses the spot 10-year risk-free rate for the period from January 2008 through July 2011; thereafter, his analysis uses a normalized yield on U.S. Treasuries of 4.5% (2.0% real risk-free rate plus 2.5% inflation).[72] Using a normalized 4.5% risk-free rate at both December 2015 and January 2016, the S&P 500 index appeared to be slightly overvalued based on the Hassett model's predictions. Alternatively, based on the S&P 500 index level at the end of December 2015, the implied risk-free rate commensurate with the index closing price was 3.90%. At the end of January 2016, the implied risk-free rate was slightly up at 4.08%. Both of these indications for the risk-free rate are very close to the Duff & Phelps concluded normalized risk-free rate of 4.0% at both dates.

While these additional models may be useful in suggesting the direction of changes in the conditional ERP, they are, like all methods of estimating the ERP, imperfect. The Damodaran Implied ERP Model, the Default Spread Model, and the Hassett Implied ERP Model all utilize assumptions that are subjective in nature. For example, the Damodaran Implied ERP Model assumes a long-term growth rate for dividends and buybacks that is largely a matter of judgment. Likewise, in the default spread model, the changes in spread are applied to a "benchmark" ERP estimate; the choice of that benchmark ERP is largely a matter of judgment.

Again, the inherent "imperfection" of any single ERP estimation model is precisely why Duff & Phelps takes into account a broad range of economic information and multiple ERP estimation methodologies to arrive at our conditional ERP recommendation.

Taking these factors together, we find support for increasing our ERP recommendation relative to our previous recommendation

TO BE CLEAR:

5.5%

The Duff & Phelps U.S. Equity Risk Premium Recommendation effective January 31, 2016

- Many valuations are done at year-end. The Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendation for use with December 31, 2015 valuations is 5.0%, matched with a normalized risk-free rate of 4.0%. This implies a 9.0% (4.0% + 5.0%) "base" U.S. cost of equity capital estimate as of December 31, 2015.

- The Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendation as of January 31, 2016 (and thereafter, until further notice) is 5.5%, matched with a normalized risk-free rate of 4.0%. This implies a 9.5% (4.0% + 5.5%) "base" U.S. cost of equity capital estimate as of January 31, 2016.

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[72] "Dissecting S&P 500 2015 Performance Using The RPF Model" by Steve Hassett, Retrieved from: http://seekingalpha.com/article/3811186-dissecting-s-and-p-500-2015-performance-using-rpf-model.

Section 05

Conclusion

Conclusion

Duff & Phelps U.S. Equity Risk Premium and Risk-Free Rate Guidance as of January 31, 2016

- Equity Risk Premium: Increase from 5.0% to 5.5%
- Risk-Free Rate: 4.0% (normalized)
- Base U.S. Cost of Equity Capital: 9.5% (4.0% + 5.5%)

Based on the foregoing, we find evidence to adjust our ERP recommendation upwards to 5.5% relative to our previous guidance issued on February 28, 2013, when the U.S. ERP was adjusted downward (from 5.5% to 5.0%). During 2015, we started seeing some signs of increased risk in financial markets. As further explained below, while the evidence was somewhat mixed as of December, 31, 2015, we can now see clear indications that equity risk in financial markets has increased significantly as of January 31, 2016. Exhibit 14 summarizes the factors considered in our U.S. ERP recommendation.[73]

Exhibit 14: Factors Considered in U.S. ERP Recommendation

Factor	Change	Effect on ERP
U.S. Equity Markets	↓	↑
Implied Equity Volatility	↑	↑
Corporate Spreads	↑	↑
Historical Real GDP Growth and Forecasts	↔	↔
Unemployment Environment	↓	↓
Consumer and Business Sentiment	↔	↔
Sovereign Credit Ratings	↔	↔
Damodaran Implied ERP Model	↑	↑
Default Spread Model	↑	↑

[73] Exhibit 14 is identical to the previous Exhibit 1 (see "Executive Summary") as well as to Exhibit 12-B, and is reproduced here for reader convenience. The factors listed in Exhibit 14 are the factors that were considered the most relevant at the end of January 2016. The factors that Duff & Phelps considers in its monthly review of its ERP recommendation can vary, depending on the economic situation at the time.

Recent economic indicators point to a positive, yet below-pace, real growth for the U.S. economy. The U.S. economy has been expanding at a modest rate, but generally better than other major developed economies, and with the risks of a recession seemingly tempered. The employment situation is reaching a level of stability, with the U.S. economy reaching close to full employment. Consumer confidence and business sentiment are generally stable, with the former still above its long-term average.

On the other hand, inflation has been persistently below the Federal Reserve Bank's (Fed) target of 2.0%. The sharp decline in oil prices since 2014 has put additional pressure in an already very low inflation environment. For perspective, the price of Brent crude oil was at $115/barrel in mid-June 2014; since then prices declined to $38/barrel at the end of 2015, a cumulative 67% decline in the space of a year and a half.

Concerns about a slowing global economy and deflationary pressures have troubled investors in 2015. Tumbling oil and other commodity prices have reinforced investor anxiety over stagnant growth in the Eurozone and Japan, as well as a deceleration in several emerging-market countries, with a particular focus on China (considered by many analysts as the engine of growth for the global economy). Global financial markets reacted negatively to these trends in August and September of 2015, but settled down towards year-end. Since the beginning of 2016, however, broad equity indices (e.g., the S&P 500) across the globe have suffered significant losses, market volatility has spiked, and credit spreads of U.S. high-yield bonds over U.S. investment grade corporate bonds continued to widen substantially (now affecting companies outside the oil and mining sectors).

This has led global investors to seek safe haven investments, such as securities issued by the U.S., Germany, and United Kingdom governments, to name a few, causing sharp declines in government bond yields for these countries. Despite the fact that in December 2015 the Fed decided to raise U.S. interest rates for the first time since the beginning of the 2008 global financial crisis, financial markets are now attaching a lower probability of further increases in the near term.

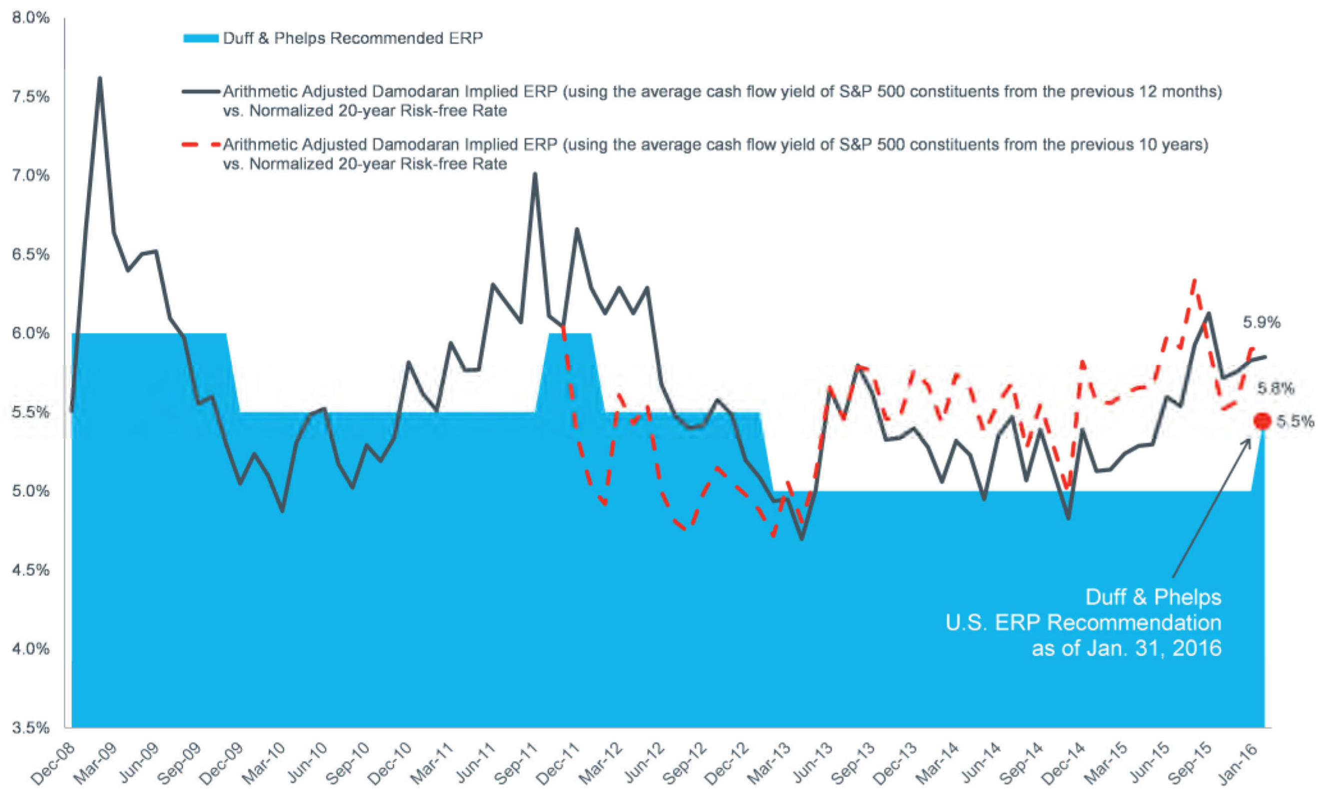
Duff & Phelps monitors two additional quantitative models as corroboration of the qualitative factors discussed above: 1) the Damodaran Implied ERP Model and (2) the Default Spread Model. Both of these models indicated a higher ERP at the end of January 2016 relative to our prior recommendation issued back February 2013.

Taken together, we found sufficient support for increasing our ERP recommendation relative to our previous recommendation. Accordingly, Duff & Phelps recommends a U.S. Equity Risk Premium of 5.5% when developing discount rates as of January 31, 2016 and thereafter, to be used in conjunction with a normalized risk-free rate of 4.0%.

Section 06

Appendices

Appendix A – Damodaran Implied ERP Model



Additional Indicators: The Damodaran Implied ERP Model

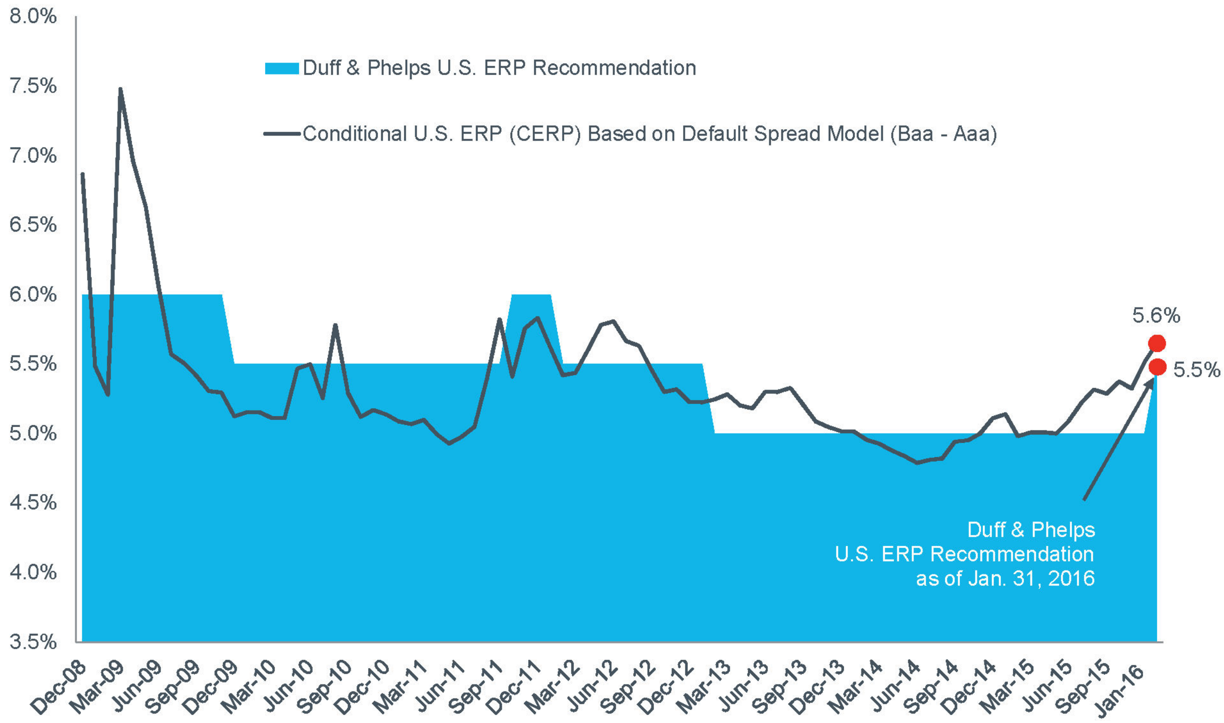
The graph illustrates the Damodaran Implied U.S. ERP model over the time period December 2008 through January 2016 (estimated using a "normalized" 20-year U.S. Treasury yield) as compared to the Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendation.

- At the end of January 2016, the U.S. ERP implied by the Damodaran Model was 5.8% using the average cash flow yield of S&P 500 constituents from the *previous 12 months*, and a normalized 4.0% risk free rate.

- At the end of January 2016, the U.S. ERP implied by the Damodaran Model was 5.9% using the average cash flow yield of S&P 500 constituents from the *previous 10 years*, and a normalized 4.0% risk free rate.

Duff & Phelps regularly reviews fluctuations in global economic and financial conditions that warrant periodic reassessments of ERP. As of January 31, 2016, Duff & Phelps' U.S. ERP recommendation is 5.5%, used in conjunction with a 4.0% normalized risk-free rate.

Appendix B – Default Spread Model



Additional Indicators: The Default Spread Model

The graph illustrates the Default Spread Model used to estimate a conditional U.S. ERP (CERP) over the time period December 2008 through January 2016 as compared to the Duff & Phelps U.S. ERP recommendation. This model notably removes the risk-free rate itself as an *input* in the estimation of ERP. However, the ERP estimate resulting from the Default Spread Model is still interpreted as an estimate of the relative return of stocks *in excess* of risk-free securities.

- At the end of January 2016, the U.S. ERP implied by the Default Spread Model was 5.6%.

Duff & Phelps regularly reviews fluctuations in global economic and financial conditions that warrant periodic reassessments of ERP. As of January 31, 2016, Duff & Phelps' U.S. ERP recommendation is 5.5%, used in conjunction with a 4.0% normalized risk-free rate.

For more information, visit:
www.duffandphelps.com\costofcapital

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US Treasury bonds

'The market is just dead': Investors steer clear of 20-year Treasuries

Weak demand for debt maturing in two decades causes distortions in US government bond market

The US Treasury reintroduced the 20-year bond in 2020 © FT montage/AFP/Getty Images

Kate Duguid in New York and **Colby Smith** in Washington JULY 14 2022

Investors are shunning 20-year US government bonds, causing a distortion in the $23tn US Treasury market.

Demand for the 20-year government debt security since its reintroduction in 2020 has been so weak that its price is far out of sync with the rest of the market and it is harder to trade. The price swings and lack of liquidity have made it even less popular with the long-term, conservative investors such as pension funds that would typically be its natural buyers.

"The 20-year part of the market is just dead," said Edward Al-Hussainy, senior interest rates strategist at Columbia Threadneedle.

The difficulties in drumming up investor demand for 20-year Treasuries could ultimately spread to other parts of a market that act as the bedrock of global finance, said Mark Cabana, head of US rates strategy at Bank of America.

As a result of the lacklustre interest, the 20-year stands out as the cheapest conventional bond within the Treasury market. The low price means yields on 20-year Treasuries are higher than their 30-year counterparts, at 3.37 per cent and 3.1 per cent, respectively. Typically longer-dated bonds provide higher yields to account for the greater risks associated with holding debt that matures further into the future.

Cabana said the higher yields required to convince investors to hold 20-year Treasuries ultimately cost taxpayers by nudging the government's cost of borrowing higher.

"They discontinued 20s once in the past," he said. "And why did they discontinue it in the past? Because they felt that it was not advantageous to the taxpayer. It was not achieving the lowest cost of funds for the taxpayer, and that argument can be easily made today."

The disparity between the 20- and 30-year yields widened earlier this month as the Federal Reserve sharply tightened monetary policy in a bid to counteract soaring inflation. The reduction in the size of the Fed's $9tn balance sheet has only exacerbated these problems, as the market has been left with more supply to absorb.

Investors demand a rising premium to hold 20-year Treasuries

Difference in 20- and 30-year Treasury yields (basis points)

Source: Refinitiv

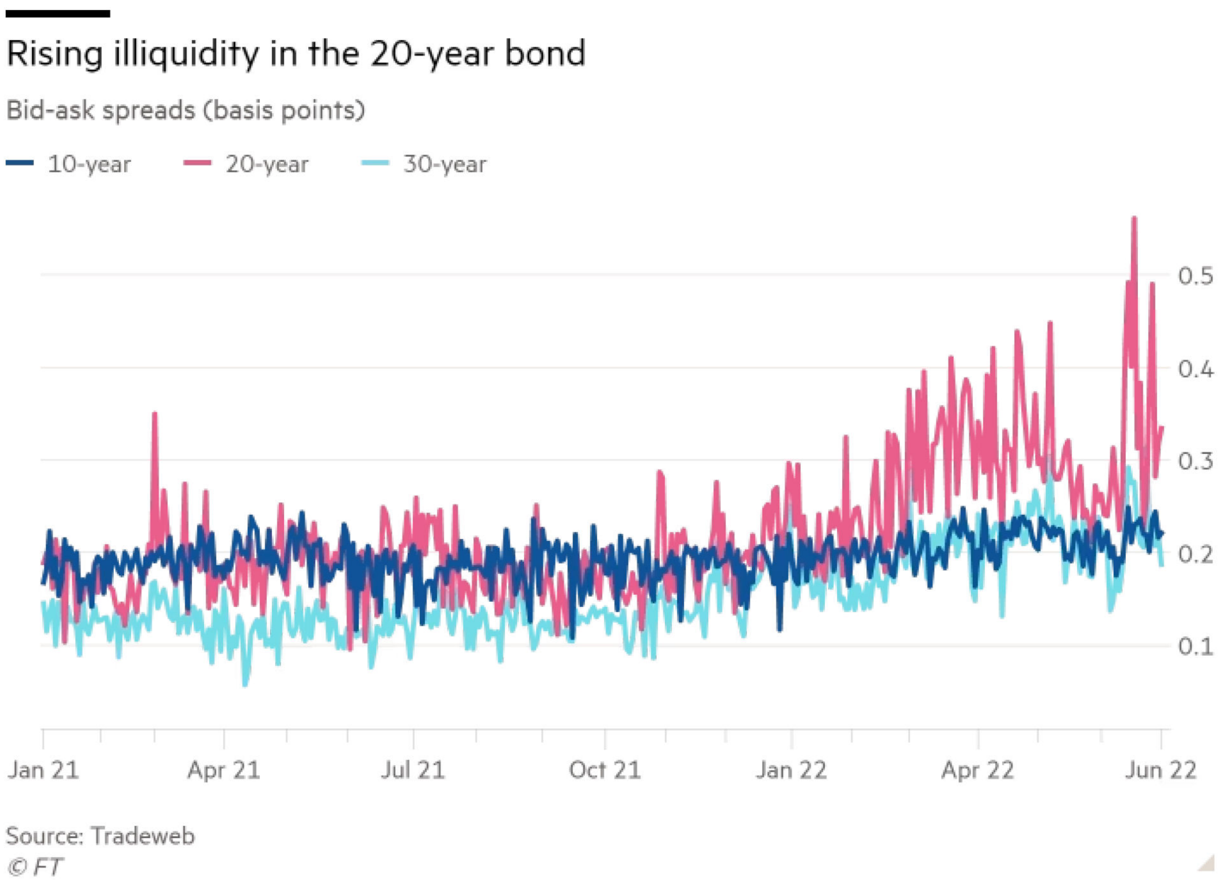
The revival of the 20-year bond, which the Treasury had mothballed for more than three decades owing to lacklustre appetite, was part of a broader plan to significantly increase the government's borrowing through longer-term debt in a bid to lock in lower rates for an extended period of time.

"It just never really got any traction because [the 20-year] has traded so poorly relative to other similar [long-dated] instruments, and the liquidity is terrible," said Bob Miller, head of US multisector fixed income at BlackRock. "Then you throw on a nine-month period where the Fed has pivoted and is intentionally very aggressively trying to tighten financial conditions . . . [and] that has exacerbated the structural weaknesses that were already evident."

The 20-year is expected to remain cheap going forward because the amount being issued by the Treasury is so much higher than the demand for the securities. When the Treasury reintroduced the debt in 2020, the first auction was for $20bn, twice the size of what had been recommended by the group of industry representatives — the Treasury Borrowing Advisory Committee — which advises the Treasury on refinancing.

As pandemic-era fiscal spending has slowed, the Treasury has reduced the size of its 20-year auctions, alongside reductions across other maturities, but in the latest quarter at a slower pace than recommended by the TBAC.

The 20-year is expected to remain out of vogue not just because of the excess supply, but also because of the rise in volatility in the Treasury market as bonds are whipsawed by recession fears and the changing outlook of the Fed. The 20-year typically endures big price swings when markets become volatile because sluggish demand makes it harder to transact.



The low price, volatility and illiquidity have brought in a new crop of investors: hedge funds looking to exploit inefficiencies in the pricing of the 20-year.

"It takes a brave person or someone who has deep pockets to hold on to [a position in the 20-year] for a long time and withstand a lot more volatility," said John Madziyire, head of US Treasuries at Vanguard.

"That's why you see hedge funds are the ones who are more likely to try to step in," said Madziyire, who expects to remain underweight the 20-year because of the firm's "conservative" approach.

The most active players in the 20-year are hedge funds and the clutch of banks that transact directly with the Treasury, known as primary dealers, according to market participants.

"When you look at the risk you have with the leverage you need to apply to make real returns, it becomes a very, very difficult position for most people to hold in material size," said a portfolio manager at a large US hedge fund.

On Friday, the Treasury will send out a questionnaire to primary dealers, soliciting feedback on their quarterly refunding process, during which issuance sizes are determined for the three months ahead. Cabana said he would be watching closely for any evidence that the Treasury was prepared to meaningfully cut 20-year auction sizes.

"Treasury basically needs to cut until the [20-year] point stabilises itself, but be open to the notion that there may not be any level of issuance that really is justifiable," said Cabana.

Effect of analysts' optimism on estimates of the expected rate of return implied by earnings forecasts

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Abstract

Recent literature has used analysts' earnings forecasts, which are known to be optimistic, to estimate expected rates of return; yielding upwardly biased estimates. We find a bias of 2.84 percent computed as the difference between the estimates of the expected rate of return based on analysts' earnings forecasts and estimates based on current earnings realizations. The importance of this bias is illustrated by the fact that studies using the biased estimates of the expected rate of return suggest an equity premium in the vicinity of 3 percent. Further analyses show that use of value-weighted, rather than equally-weighted, estimates reduces the bias and yields more reasonable estimates of the equity premium. We also show that analysts recommend "buy" ("sell") when they expect the future return to be high (low) regardless of market expectations and that bias is present for all recommendation types.

1. Introduction

A large and expanding body of literature uses analysts' forecasts of earnings to determine the expected rate of return implied by these forecasts, current book values, and current prices. These implied expected rates of return are often used as estimates of the market's expected rate of return and/or as estimates of the cost of capital.[1] Yet the earnings forecasts are optimistic; and they are made by sell-side analysts who are in the business of making buy/hold/sell recommendations which are, presumably, based on the difference between their expectation of the future rate of return and the market expectation of this rate of return. If these earnings forecasts are optimistically biased, the expected rates of return implied by these forecasts will be upward biased. We estimate the extent of this bias.[2]

We show that, consistent with the extant evidence that forecasts (particularly longer-run forecasts) are optimistic, the difference between the expected rate of return implied by analysts' earnings forecasts and the expected rate of return implied by current earnings is statistically and economically significantly positive. In other words, *ceteris paribus*, studies that use the expected rate of return implied by current prices and these forecasts of earnings have estimates of the cost of capital that may be too high.[3]

The extant literature on analysts' optimism/pessimism generally compares forecasts of earnings with realizations of the earnings that are forecasted. This is an ex post measure of optimism and one that pervades the extant literature. Most of our analysis is a comparison of the expected rate of return implied by analysts' earnings forecasts and the expected rate of return

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[1] Cost of capital is an equilibrium concept that relies on the no arbitrage assumption. In the absence of arbitrage opportunities, the markets expected rate of return is equal to the cost of capital.
[2] Claus and Thomas (2001) observe that the optimistic bias in analysts' forecasts will bias their estimate of the equity premium upward.
[3] Examples include Gebhardt, Lee, and Swaminathan (2001), Claus and Thomas (2001), and Easton, Taylor, Shroff, and Sougiannis (2002).

implied by current earnings. This is an ex ante measure of optimism/pessimism. We are primarily interested in this ex ante comparison for two reasons. First, our goal is to determine the bias in estimates of expected rates of return implied by analysts' forecasts at the time that these forecasts are made. Second, this comparison provides an indication of optimism/pessimism that is not affected by events that occur between the forecast date and the time of the earnings realization.[4]

All of our analyses are based on two methods for simultaneously estimating the expected rate of return and the expected growth rate for a portfolio/group of stocks. The estimate of the expected growth rate is not important in and of itself in our study; but estimating it simultaneously with the estimation of the expected rate of return avoids the introduction of error which will almost inevitably arise when the expected growth rate is assumed. Any assumed growth rate will almost invariably differ from the growth rate implied by the data.[5]

The method we use for estimating the expected rate of return that is implied by prices and current accounting data is an adaptation of the method that O'Hanlon and Steele (2000) use to estimate the expected market equity premium for the U.K. The method we use for estimating the expected rate of return that is implied by prices, current book values, and forecasts of earnings is an adaptation of the method that Easton, Taylor, Shroff, and Sougiannis (2002) use to estimate the equity premium in the U.S.

Literature that reverse-engineers valuation models to obtain estimates of the expected rate of return on equity investment is very new. These models include the dividend capitalization model in Botosan (1997); the residual income valuation model in O'Hanlon and Steele (2000),

[4] An obvious recent example of such an event is the tragedy of the terrorist attack of September 11, 2001. This event, which was not foreseen by analysts, would almost certainly have made their forecasts overly optimistic with the benefit of hindsight. We will return to this example.

[5] See Easton (2005) for a detailed discussion of this source of error.

Gebhardt, Lee, and Swaminathan (2001), Claus and Thomas (2001), Easton, Taylor, Shroff, and Sougiannis (2002), and Baginski and Wahlen (2003); and the abnormal growth in earnings model in Gode and Mohanram (2003) and Easton (2004). Literature using these estimates to test hypotheses regarding factors that may affect the expected rate of return developed almost simultaneously; for example, see Daske (2006); Dhaliwal, Krull, Li, and Moser (2005); Francis, Khurana, and Periera (2005); Francis, LaFond, Olsson, and Schipper (2004); Hail and Leuz (2006); Hribar and Jenkins (2004); and Lee, Myers, and Swaminathan (1999). This development took place despite the fact that (1) some of these methods were not designed to provide firm-specific estimates; see, in particular, Claus and Thomas (2001), Easton, Taylor, Shroff, and Sougiannis (2002), and Easton (2004); and (2) there is very little evidence regarding the empirical validity of these methods.

The conclusion from the very recent studies that examine the validity of firm-specific estimates of expected rate of return derived from these reverse-engineering exercises (see, Botosan and Plumlee, 2005; Guay, Kothari and Shu, 2005; and Easton and Monahan, 2005), is that these estimates are poor, indeed. None of these studies addressed the issue of the difference between the market expectation of the rate of return, which these studies purport to measure, and rates implied by analysts' forecasts. Nevertheless, it is possible that the difference is a correlated omitted variable, which could affect the results in studies comparing estimates of the implied expected rate of return on equity capital. For example, it is possible that analysts' forecasts for firms under one accounting regime (say, accounting based on international accounting standards) may be more optimistic than analysts' forecasts for firms under a different accounting regime (say, accounting based on domestic standards). These optimistic forecasts will bias the estimate of the expected rate of return upward, potentially leading to the (possibly erroneous) conclusion that the cost of capital is higher for these firms.

In light of analysts' tendency to be optimistic, estimates of the expected rate of return based on analysts' forecasts are likely to be higher than the cost of capital. Williams (2004) makes this point in his discussion of Botosan, Plumlee, and Xie (2004). This effect of analysts' optimism is exacerbated by the fact that all studies using analysts' forecasts to calculate an implied expected rate of return are based on forecasts made well in advance (usually at least a year ahead) of the earnings announcement. These forecasts tend to be much more optimistic than those made closer to the earnings announcement; see Richardson, Teoh, and Wysocki (2004).

All of our analyses are based on I/B/E/S forecasts of earnings and recommendations for the years 1993 to 2004 and actual prices and accounting data for 1992 to 2004. Consistent with the extant literature, the forecasts tend to be optimistic. We show that, on average, the estimate of the expected rate of return based on analysts' forecasts is 2.84 percent higher than the estimate that is based on current accounting data. An implication of the observation that analysts tend to make optimistic forecasts is that caution should be taken when interpreting the meaning of the expected rate of return implied by analysts' earnings forecasts; it may not be, as the literature generally claims, an estimate of the cost of capital.

The observation that the optimism bias in analysts' forecasts may imply a 2.84 percent upward bias in the estimate of the implied expected rate of return is troublesome. Comparing this bias with the estimates of the expected equity premium based on these data (3 percent or less in Claus and Thomas (2001); between 2 and 3 percent in Gebhardt, Lee, and Swaminathan (1999); and 4.8 percent in Easton, Taylor, Shroff, and Sougiannis (2002)) suggests that there