The Equity Premium and Structural Breaks

by*

Ľuboš Pástor

and

Robert F. Stambaugh

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*Graduate School of Business, University of Chicago (Pástor) and the Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania and the National Bureau of Economic Research (Stambaugh). Stambaugh acknowledges support provided by his appointment during the 1997–98 academic year as a Marvin Bower Fellow at Harvard Business School, where portions of this research were conducted. Pástor is grateful for research support from the Center for Research in Security Prices and Dimensional Fund Advisors. Comments from Kent Daniel, René Stulz, Walt Tourous, Zhenyu Wang, and seminar participants at the University of Chicago, the 1999 Western Finance Association Meetings, the 1999 UCLA Equity Premium Conference, and the 2001 American Finance Association Meetings are appreciated.
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Ľuboš Pástor
Graduate School of Business
University of Chicago
Chicago, IL 60637
lubos.pastor@gsb.uchicago.edu

Robert F. Stambaugh
Finance Department
The Wharton School
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, PA 19104-6367
and
NBER
stambaugh@wharton.upenn.edu
Introduction

One of the most important but elusive quantities in finance is the equity premium, the expected rate of return on the aggregate stock market in excess of the riskless interest rate (the expected “excess return”). It is well known that estimates of the equity premium based on historical data can vary widely, depending on the methodology and the sample period, and the imprecision in such estimates can figure prominently in inference and decision making. Pástor and Stambaugh (1999) conclude, for example, that seven decades of data produce an equity premium estimate whose imprecision typically accounts for the largest fraction of uncertainty about a firm’s cost of equity. Long histories offer the prospect of increased precision, and researchers have constructed and analyzed series of U.S. equity returns and interest rates that begin early in the nineteenth century (e.g., Schwert (1990), Siegel (1992), and Goetzmann and Ibbotson (1994)). Finance practitioners and academics often elect to rely on more recent data, however, motivated in part by concerns that the probability distribution of excess returns changes over time, experiencing shifts known as “structural breaks.” We incorporate various economic considerations in estimating the equity premium from a long series of returns whose distribution is subject to structural breaks.

In standard approaches to models that admit structural breaks, estimates of current parameters rely on data only since the most recent estimated break. Discarding the earlier data reduces the risk of contaminating an estimate of the equity premium with data generated under a different mean. That practice seems prudent, but it contends with the reality that shorter histories typically yield less precision. Equity returns observed before a suspected break are likely to provide at least some information about the current premium. To take an extreme example, suppose one is confident that a shift in the equity premium occurred just a month ago. Discarding virtually all of the historical data on equity returns would certainly remove the risk of contamination by pre-break data, but it hardly seems sensible in estimating the current equity premium. Completely discarding the pre-break returns is appropriate only when one believes the premium might have shifted to such a degree that the pre-break returns are no more useful in estimating the current premium than, say, pre-break rainfall data, but such a view almost surely ignores economics.

A long return series also helps in estimating the current equity premium if one believes that, across subperiods separated by breaks, there is at least some positive association between the equity premium and volatility. Such an association might not be represented well by a specific parametric relation, but it can be represented as a flexible prior belief that, when combined with a long return history, provides information about the current equity premium.
premium. In essence, each earlier subperiod’s ratio of equity premium to variance, its “price of risk,” provides some information about the current price of risk and, given current estimated volatility, about the current equity premium as well. The strength of one’s prior belief about the premium-volatility link is characterized simply by the dispersion in the prices of risk across subperiods. Although he implements the idea differently, using parametric relations, Merton (1980) also proposes that one impose a prior belief in a premium-volatility link when estimating the current equity premium.

Basic principles of discounting suggest that a shift in the equity premium is likely to be accompanied by a price change in the opposite direction. To incorporate this property, we assume that returns during a transition from one level of the premium to the next are drawn from a distribution whose mean is negatively related to the premium shift. The strength of that negative relation is specified using a prior distribution. This feature of our approach plays a significant role in making inferences about the timing of breaks and in estimating the equity premium.

Our estimates of the equity premium also incorporate the fact that the timing of structural breaks remains uncertain after examining the data. That is, the estimate of the equity premium on any given date reflects the uncertainty about where that date lies relative to breaks in the distribution. This feature of our approach, which applies the methodology of Chib (1998), stands in contrast to the commonly used maximum-likelihood procedure of estimating the dates of the breaks and then estimating parameters in each subperiod conditional on those dates.

The approach developed and implemented here is univariate, relying on a single time series of equity returns. As such, our approach is perhaps best viewed as an alternative to the popular method, also univariate, of estimating the equity premium by computing a sample average but using less of the available history. One can also view our approach as an alternative to modeling a time-varying equity premium as a function of observable state variables. Rather than specify those state variables and the function defining their roles, we simply augment the equity return series with the economically motivated beliefs that changes in the equity premium are unlikely to be extreme, are associated in part with shifts in volatility, and are likely to be accompanied by price changes in the opposite direction.

When these beliefs are incorporated, the estimated equity premium since 1834 fluctuates between roughly four and six percent (annualized). It rises through much of the 1800’s, reaches its peak in the 1930’s, and declines fairly steadily thereafter, except for a brief upward spike in the early 1970’s. The sharpest decline in the premium occurs in the 1990’s. The
latter inference is influenced by the prior belief that the premium and the price tend to change in opposite directions. When that aspect of the model is omitted, the estimated premium instead increases during the last decade. The prior beliefs about shifts in the premium and about the premium’s association with volatility are also shown to play important roles in estimating the premium. In our model with structural breaks but economically motivated prior beliefs, the precision associated with the estimate of the current equity premium is nearly as high as what one would attribute to an estimate based on the long-sample average when potential breaks are ignored.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section I describes the stochastic setting and the priors used in our Bayesian approach. Section II presents the empirical results, and Section III briefly reviews the conclusions.

I. Methodology

This section describes our Bayesian framework for making inferences about the equity premium in the presence of structural change in the distribution of excess market returns. Although this framework is newly developed, our analysis shares some features with previous studies dealing with structural change.\(^1\) This section first introduces the stochastic setting, and then discusses the prior distributions for the model’s parameters. The general approach for obtaining posterior distributions is discussed briefly at the conclusion of this section, but the details of the computations are given in the Appendix.

A. Stochastic Framework

The data consist of \(T\) observations of excess market returns. Let \(x_t\) denote the excess return at time \(t\), and \(x = (x_1, \ldots, x_T)\). The sample period is split into \(2K + 1\) regimes, \(K\) of which are transition regimes (TRs), during which the probability distribution of returns

changes. In the $K + 1$ regimes separated by the TRs, referred to as stable regimes (SRs),
the return distribution does not change. The SRs and TRs alternate in order, beginning
and ending with a SR. The times at which the SRs change into the TRs and vice versa, the
“changepoints”, are unknown and denoted by $q_1, \ldots, q_{2K}$. Let $q_0 = 0$ and $q_{2K+1} = T$. The
time spans for the $i$-th SR and the $j$-th TR can then be defined as

$$SR_i = \{q_{2i-2} + 1, \ldots, q_{2i-1}\}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, K + 1 \quad (1)$$

$$TR_j = \{q_{2j-1} + 1, \ldots, q_{2j}\}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, K. \quad (2)$$

We denote the duration of the $k$-th regime as $l_k = q_k - q_{k-1}$, so the duration of $SR_i$ is $l_{2i-1}$
and the duration of $TR_j$ is $l_{2j}$. Within each stable regime $SR_i$, the excess market returns
are assumed to be normally distributed with mean $\mu_i$ and variance $\sigma_i^2$:

$$x_t \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2), \quad t \in SR_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, K + 1. \quad (3)$$

Define $\Delta_i \equiv \mu_{i+1} - \mu_i$. Later in this section, we incorporate informative prior beliefs about
the magnitude of $\Delta_i$ and about a positive relation between $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$. Within each transition
regime $TR_j$, the excess market returns are assumed to be normally distributed with mean $\frac{\mu_j + \mu_{j+1}}{2} + b_j \Delta_j$ and variance $\sigma_{j,j+1}^2$:

$$x_t \sim N\left(\frac{\mu_j + \mu_{j+1}}{2} + b_j \Delta_j, \sigma_{j,j+1}^2\right), \quad t \in TR_j, \quad j = 1, \ldots, K. \quad (4)$$

The mean excess return during the transition regime is conditioned on the shift in the
premium. The first term, the average of the premiums in the neighboring stable regimes, is
intended to represent the unconditional expected return during the transition. The second
term, which reflects the conditioning on the premium shift $\Delta_j$, allows us to impose a prior
belief that $b_j$ is negative. That is, we expect to see high returns during a TR in which the
premium falls and low returns during a TR in which the premium rises.

Let $\mu = (\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_{K+1})$ denote the vector of equity premiums, let $\sigma_{SR} = (\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{K+1})$
denote the vector of standard deviations (“volatilities”) in the SRs, let $\sigma_{TR} = (\sigma_{1,2}, \ldots, \sigma_{K,K+1})$
denote the vector of volatilities in the TRs, let $q = (q_1, \ldots, q_{2K})$ denote the set of change-
points, and let $b = (b_1, \ldots, b_K)$. The likelihood function can be written as a product of
$(2K + 1)$ normal densities:

$$p(x|\mu, \sigma_{SR}, \sigma_{TR}, b, q) \propto \left(\prod_{i=1}^{K+1} \frac{1}{\sigma_i^{2i-1}}\right) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} \sum_{t=q_{2i-2}+1}^{q_{2i-1}} \frac{(x_t - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right\} \times \left(\prod_{j=1}^{K} \frac{1}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^{2j+1}}\right) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{t=q_{2j-1}+1}^{q_{2j+1}} \frac{(x_t - \frac{\mu_j + \mu_{j+1}}{2} + b_j \Delta_j)^2}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2} \right\} \quad (5)$$

where “$\propto$” denotes “proportional to” (up to a factor not involving $\mu, \sigma_{SR}, \sigma_{TR}, b,$ or $q$).
B. Prior Beliefs

Bayesian estimators combine the sample information contained in the likelihood function with prior information about the values of the model parameters and the relations among them. The prior beliefs used in this study are motivated by economic arguments. First, we impose a prior belief that the equity premium is positive. This prior reflects a simple argument that, in an equilibrium with risk-averse investors, the expected return on a value-weighted portfolio of all risky assets should exceed the risk-free rate of return. Merton (1980), for example, argues that the non-negativity restriction on the expected excess market return should be imposed in estimating the equity premium. The rest of this section explains how our framework also incorporates informative prior beliefs about the relation between mean returns in the TRs and changes in the equity premium, about the duration of the TRs, about the premium’s association with volatility, and about the magnitudes of the changes in the premium.

B.1. Beliefs About the Transition Regime Parameters and Duration

The TRs are relatively short periods during which the mean and the volatility of equity returns change. Recall that the expected return during $TR_j$ is $$(\mu_j + \mu_{j+1})/2 + b_j \Delta_j.$$ A drop in the equity premium during $TR_j$ ($\Delta_j < 0$) is likely to accompany a drop in the rate at which future dividends are discounted (unless an increase in the interest rate accounts totally for the drop in the premium). With a drop in the discount rate, it seems reasonable to expect that the returns during the TR are high (unless there is an offsetting drop in expected dividends). Similarly, if the premium rises ($\Delta_j > 0$), the TR returns are likely to be low. This motivates our informative prior belief that $b_j < 0$. Therefore, the prior on $b_j$ is assumed to be normal with a mean $\tilde{b} < 0$ and variance $\sigma_b^2$:

$$p(b_j) \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{(b_j - \tilde{b})^2}{2\sigma_b^2} \right\}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, K.$$  (6)

The prior mean $\tilde{b}$ is set equal to $-15.13$. This specification, explained in the appendix, is based on Campbell’s (1991) variance decomposition of aggregate equity returns. The prior standard deviation $\sigma_b$ is set equal to a third of the absolute value of $\tilde{b}$, so that virtually all of the prior mass of $b_j$ is below zero.

The prior on the TR volatility, $\sigma_{j,j+1}$, is an inverted gamma distribution with $\eta = 10$.
degrees of freedom:
\[ p(\sigma_{j+1}) \propto \frac{1}{\sigma_{j+1}^{p+1}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(n-2)\alpha^2}{2\sigma_{j+1}^2} \right\}, \quad \sigma_{j+1} > 0, \quad j = 1, \ldots, K. \]  
(7)

The parameter \( \alpha^2 \), equal to the prior mean of \( \sigma_{j+1}^2 \), is set equal to 0.000634. This choice is also based on the results in Campbell (1991), as explained in the appendix. The prior is informative about \( \sigma_{j+1}^2 \) to roughly the same extent as a sample of 10 observations of returns with a sample variance equal to \( \alpha^2 \). Since some TRs can potentially be as short as one month, some prior information is needed to estimate the TR volatilities.

We explore a model with \( K = 15 \) transition regimes. The explanation for this choice is postponed until section II.B. Our inference about the \( 2K = 30 \) changepoints is based on Chib (1998). Chib formulates a multiple changepoint model in terms of a latent state variable \( s_t \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 2K + 1\} \), whose value at time \( t \) indicates the regime from which the time-\( t \) observation has been drawn. This state variable follows a Markov process with a transition matrix \( P \) constrained such that, if \( s_{t-1} = k \), then \( s_t \) can only take two values, \( k \) or \( k + 1 \) (for \( k = 1, \ldots, 2K \)). We need to specify a prior distribution for each diagonal element of \( P \), \( p_{k,k} = \text{Prob}(s_t = k|s_{t-1} = k) \), which denotes the probability of staying in regime \( k \). By construction, \( p_{2K+1,2K+1} = 1 \). Following Chib, the prior of \( p_{k,k} \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, 2K \) is specified as a beta distribution with parameters \( a_k \) and \( c_k \):

\[ p(p_{k,k}) = \frac{\Gamma(a_k + c_k)}{\Gamma(a_k)\Gamma(c_k)} p_{k,k}^{a_k-1}(1 - p_{k,k})^{c_k-1}. \]  
(8)

Chib recommends specifying the prior parameters such that they correspond to prior beliefs about the mean duration of each regime. Given \( p_{k,k} \), the prior density of the duration \( d_k \) of the regime \( k \) is \( p(d_k|p_{k,k}) = \frac{d_k^{a_k-1}(1 - p_{k,k})}{p_{k,k}^{a_k-1}(1 - p_{k,k})^{c_k-1}} \), and its prior mean is \( E(d_k|p_{k,k}) = (1 - p_{k,k})^{-1} \). The duration’s unconditional prior density and its moments can also be derived analytically. The unconditional prior mean is

\[ E(d_k) = \frac{a_k + c_k - 1}{c_k - 1}. \]  
(9)

For TRs (i.e., for even values of \( k \)), we set \( a_k = 11 \) and \( c_k = 2 \). These values imply that the prior distribution of the duration of each TR has a mean of 12 months, a median of 5 months, a mode of 1 month, and its 95th percentile is 39 months. This specification seems reasonable, in that most of the prior mass is on very short TR durations, but the skewness implies some chance that a TR might instead last for several years.

For stable regimes (i.e., for odd values of \( k \)), we set \( c_k = 2 \) and compute \( a_k \) such that

\[ E(d_{SR}) = \frac{T - K E(d_{TR})}{K + 1}. \]  
(10)
Such a specification makes the prior internally consistent, in that the number of the TRs times their expected duration plus the number of the SRs times their expected duration equals the sample size, $T = 1982$. The resulting $a_k$ equals 223.25, the expected duration of each SR is 113 months, and the 95th percentile of each SR’s duration is 708 months.

**B.2. Beliefs About the Premium’s Association with Volatility**

In a study about estimating the equity premium, Merton (1980) proposes models in which the equity premium is linked positively to volatility. In motivating such models, Merton notes that, to preclude arbitrage, the equity premium must be zero if volatility is zero. Moreover, at positive levels of market volatility, risk-averse investors must in general be compensated by a positive equity premium. Thus, at least to this degree, a positive relation between the equity premium and volatility seems likely. Merton essentially proposes a positive relation as a reasonable prior belief, as opposed to a regularity that one might verify with the data. Attempts to do the latter, beginning with French, Schwert, and Stambaugh (1987), have produced mixed results, but such studies have generally investigated the presence of a relation at higher frequencies than envisioned in our setting. One might believe that occasional changes in the equity premium during TRs, typically separated by a number of years, are associated to some degree with changes in volatility. At the same time, one might be less inclined to believe that the equity premium changes with higher-frequency fluctuations in volatility, which are essentially ignored in the present setting with returns assumed to be i.i.d. within each regime. The prior link between the equity premium and volatility that we introduce below can take the form of a weak positive association, as opposed to a strict parametric relation, and we suggest that such priors offer a sensible framework in which to explore the potential importance of volatility.

A prior association between the equity premium and volatility is introduced as follows.

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3In parameterized versions of equilibrium models in which moments of the aggregate endowment follow Markov-switching processes, Kandel and Stambaugh (1990) and Backus and Gregory (1993) show that the relation between the equity premium and volatility need not be positive. Campbell (1987) considers conditions under which the intertemporal CAPM implies an approximately proportional relation between the conditional mean and conditional variance of market returns.
For a scalar parameter $\gamma > 0$, let
\[ \mu_i = \gamma \psi_i \sigma_i^2, \quad i = 1, \ldots, K + 1, \quad (11) \]
and let $\psi = (\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_{K+1})$. As explained below, the prior on each $\psi_i$ is centered at one. Hence, $\gamma$ can be viewed a priori as the average market “price of risk”, defined as the ratio of the equity premium to the equity variance. The prior on $\gamma$ is specified as a gamma distribution with parameters $a_\gamma$ and $b_\gamma$:
\[ p(\gamma) \propto \gamma^{a_\gamma - 1} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\gamma}{b_\gamma} \right\}, \quad \gamma > 0. \quad (12) \]
The prior parameters are specified using an empirical Bayes approach as $a_\gamma = 18.7$ and $b_\gamma = 0.1$. These values equate the prior mean of $\gamma$ to the unconditional sample estimate of the price of risk from the overall sample (1.98). The prior standard deviation of $\gamma$ is equated to the sampling uncertainty in the price of risk estimate, 0.46, which is computed as the standard error of the sample mean return divided by the sample variance (this computation assumes for simplicity that the unconditional return variance is estimated without error). The 1st and the 99th percentiles of the prior for $\gamma$ are 1.07 and 3.20.

In each stable regime $SR_i$, the price of risk is equal to $\psi_i \gamma$, with the $\psi_i$’s assumed to be independent across subperiods. The prior on each $\psi_i$ is a gamma distribution, with parameters $\nu/2$ and $2/\nu$,
\[ p(\psi_i) \propto \psi_i^{\nu - 1} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\psi_i \nu}{2} \right\}, \quad \psi_i > 0, \quad i = 1, \ldots, K + 1. \quad (13) \]
The prior on $\psi_i$ implies that$^4$
\[ E(\psi_i) = 1 \quad (14) \]
\[ \text{Var}(\psi_i) = \frac{2}{\nu}. \quad (15) \]
The desired degree of association between $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$ across the SRs is achieved by specifying the parameter $\nu$. At one extreme, as $\nu \rightarrow 0$, the prior on $\psi_i$ approaches a standard diffuse or noninformative prior, $p(\psi_i) \propto 1/\psi_i$. With a noninformative prior on $\psi_i$, no association between the elements of $\mu$ and $\sigma_{SR}$ is imposed a priori. At the other extreme, as $\nu \rightarrow \infty$, it follows from (15) that $\text{Var}(\psi_i) \rightarrow 0$, so $\psi_i = 1$ for all $i$, which imposes a perfect link between $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$ of the form $\mu_i = \gamma \sigma_i^2$. A positive but finite value of $\nu$ implies an intermediate degree of association between the equity premium and volatility: the higher the value of $\nu$, the stronger the prior belief that the equity premium is linked positively to volatility. In the empirical analysis, a range of values for $\nu$ is entertained.

$^4$The two moment equations follow from standard results for the gamma density, such as in Zellner (1971, p.370). The moments exist for all $\nu > 0$, but the density has no mode for $\nu < 2$. 

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B.3. Beliefs About Magnitudes of Changes in the Premium

We use a “hierarchical” prior distribution on \( \mu \), given by

\[
p(\mu | \bar{\mu}) \propto \exp\left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mu - \bar{\mu})' V_\mu^{-1} (\mu - \bar{\mu}) \right\}, \quad \mu > 0, \tag{16}
\]

\[
p(\bar{\mu}) \propto 1, \quad \bar{\mu} > 0, \tag{17}
\]

where \( \iota \) denotes a \((K + 1) \times 1\) vector of ones. The scalar \( \bar{\mu} \) is a “hyperparameter” that can be interpreted roughly as a cross-period grand mean of the elements of \( \mu \).\(^5\) The prior for \( \mu \) conditional on \( \bar{\mu} \) is a truncated normal distribution whose location depends on \( \bar{\mu} \). The prior distribution of \( \bar{\mu} \) is noninformative, except for the positivity restriction. As a result, the unconditional variance of each element of \( \mu \) is large, and the marginal prior for each element of \( \mu \) is noninformative.

The elements of \( V_\mu \) can be specified such that (16) is informative about differences between the elements of \( \mu \). Recall that \( \Delta_i = (\mu_{i+1} - \mu_i), \ i = 1, \ldots, K \), and let \( \Delta = (\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_K) \). The elements of \( \Delta \) represent the magnitudes by which the market premium changes in the TRs. Note that (16) implies that the prior on each \( \Delta_i \) is centered at zero, so the prior is noninformative about the direction of any shift in the premium. Some might find it reasonable to believe, as we do, that extremely large shifts in the equity premium are unlikely. For example, one could believe that the probability is only 5% that the annual equity premium can shift by more than 6% during any TR. This type of prior belief can be expressed by specifying a value for the standard deviation of the prior distribution of each \( \Delta_i \), denoted by \( \sigma_\Delta \).\(^6\) In the preceding example, \( \sigma_\Delta = 3\% \). At one extreme, setting \( \sigma_\Delta = \infty \) assigns equal prior probabilities to fixed-width neighborhoods around all values of \( \Delta_i \), however large. One consequence of such a noninformative belief about \( \Delta \) is that, in estimating the equity premium in \( SR_i \), the data from all other regimes are discarded (in the absence of other informative prior beliefs). In other words, this prior results in a use of the data that corresponds to common practice. At the other extreme, setting \( \sigma_\Delta = 0 \) reflects a dogmatic belief that all \( \Delta_i = 0 \) and there has never been a change in the equity premium, in which case data from the entire sample are simply “pooled,” roughly speaking, to estimate the premium. In intermediate cases, the smaller the value of \( \sigma_\Delta \), the more attention is paid to

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\(^5\)In the absence of truncation in (16), \( \bar{\mu} \) would be the mean of \( p(\mu | \bar{\mu}) \).

\(^6\)In general, the literature treats the parameters before and after a structural break as independent of each other (see Carlin, Gelfand, and Smith (1992) and Barry and Hartigan (1993) for Bayesian examples and Liu, Wu, and Zidek (1997) and Bai and Perron (1998) for frequentist examples). An exception is the early study by Chernoff and Zacks (1964), who, in a simpler setting, place an informative prior on the difference in subperiod means.
data from other SRs. In order to explore the effect of prior beliefs about $\Delta$ on the estimates of the equity premium, this study entertains a wide range of values of $\sigma_\Delta$.

The value of $\sigma_\Delta$ is implied by the covariance matrix $V_\mu$ in (16). It is assumed that $V_\mu = \sigma_\mu^2 I_{K+1}$, where $I_{K+1}$ denotes an identity matrix of size $K + 1$. Conditional on $\bar{\mu}$, and in the absence of truncation, the prior variance of each $\mu_i$ equals $\sigma_\mu^2$. The unconditional prior variance of $\Delta_i$ for any $i$ is equal to $\sigma_\Delta^2 = \text{Var}(\mu_i + 1 - \mu_i)$. The value of $\sigma_\mu^2$ that produces a desired value of $\sigma_\Delta^2$ is computed by simulation. In the resulting prior, the equity premium is believed to fluctuate independently across the stable regimes and thereby exhibit “immediate” mean reversion to a grand mean.

Let the vector $\theta$ contain the elements of $b, \sigma_{TR}, P, \gamma, \psi, \mu$, and $\bar{\mu}$. It is assumed that all the elements of $\theta$, except for $\mu$ and $\bar{\mu}$, are independent a priori, which implies that the joint prior on all the parameters in the model can be written as

$$p(\theta) = \left(\prod_{j=1}^{K} p(b_j)\right) \left(\prod_{j=1}^{K} p(\sigma_{j,j+1})\right)^{2K} \left(\prod_{k=1}^{K+1} p(p_k)\right) p(\gamma) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{K+1} p(\psi_i)\right) p(\mu|\bar{\mu}) p(\bar{\mu}).$$ (18)

The densities multiplied on the right-hand side are given in equations (6), (7), (8), (12), (13), (16), and (17).

C. Posterior Distribution

In a Bayesian setting, a posterior probability distribution for the unknown parameters is obtained by updating a prior distribution with the information in the data, transmitted through the likelihood function. Substituting for the elements of $\sigma_{SR}$ from (11), the reparameterized likelihood from (5) can be written as

$$p(x|\mu, \psi, \gamma, b, \sigma_{TR}, q) \propto \left(\prod_{j=1}^{K} \left(\frac{\psi_i \gamma}{\mu_i}\right)^{l_{2j-1}}\right) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} \sum_{t=q_{2i-1}+1}^{q_{2i}} \frac{(x_t - \mu_i)^2}{\mu_i} \gamma \psi_i \right\}$$

$$\times \left(\prod_{j=1}^{K} \sigma_{j,j+1}^{-l_{2j}}\right) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{t=q_{2j-1}+1}^{q_{2j}} \frac{(x_t - (\mu_j + \mu_{j+1} + b_j \Delta_j))^2}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2} \right\}. \quad (19)$$

Multiplying the prior in (18) by the likelihood in (19) gives the joint posterior distribution, $p(\theta|x)$. Posterior distributions for parameters of interest, such as the equity premium $\mu$, are

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7 In the case with no premium-volatility link ($\nu = 0$), there is no need to substitute for $\sigma_{SR}$ from (11) and reparameterize the likelihood, so we work with the likelihood in (5). Such an equivalent specification turns out to save some computation time.
computed numerically using a Metropolis-Hastings algorithm combined with the algorithm of Chib (1998) for drawing the changepoints.

Note that frequentist analyses of structural breaks typically estimate the break locations and then estimate the remaining parameters of interest conditional on those break locations. Recent examples include Bai (1995, 1997), Bai and Perron (1998), and Liu, Wu, and Zidek (1997). The usual argument in favor of such a two-step procedure is that, under certain assumptions, the resulting parameter estimates are consistent. Treating estimates of the breakpoints as true values ignores the potential error in those estimates ("estimation risk") and could thereby compromise inferences in finite samples. In contrast, a Bayesian approach can account for the uncertainty about the locations of the breakpoints. Instead of conducting inference based on the posterior \( p(\theta|x, \hat{q}) \), which conditions on the break estimates, we obtain results based directly on \( p(\theta|x) \), which incorporates the uncertainty. The algorithm of Chib (1998) allows us to generate the posterior distribution \( p(q|x) \) of the locations of structural breaks. A Bayesian approach integrates over this posterior,

\[
p(\theta|x) = \int_q p(\theta|x, q)p(q|x) dq,
\]

thereby incorporating break uncertainty in estimating \( \theta \).

For the purpose of estimating and plotting a monthly series of the equity premium, we define the premium in month \( t \) as

\[
\mu^t = \begin{cases} 
\mu_i & \text{if } t \in SR_i \\
\mu_{(j)} & \text{if } t \in TR_j
\end{cases},
\]

where \( \mu_{(j)} \equiv (\mu_j + \mu_{j+1})/2 \). That is, we include only the unconditional mean of the excess return during the transition regime and omit the portion \( b_j \Delta_j \) negatively associated with the premium shift. We estimate \( \mu^t \) by its posterior mean, using iterated expectations:\(^9\)

\[
E(\mu^t|x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} E(\mu_i|x)p(t \in SR_i|x) + \sum_{j=1}^{K} E(\mu_{(j)}|x)p(t \in TR_j|x).
\]

Since the regime to which a particular month belongs is uncertain, the estimated equity premium in our framework generally fluctuates at a monthly frequency, as opposed to remaining constant between fixed estimates of break locations.

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\(^8\)Examples of earlier Bayesian studies that account for the uncertainty about breakpoints include Chernoff and Zacks (1964), Hsu (1982), and Broemeling and Tsurumi (1987).

\(^9\)The posterior mean is the estimate that minimizes the expected value of a quadratic loss function. For additional details, as well as alternative posterior estimators, see Berger (1985).
The posterior variance of $\mu^t$ is calculated by decomposing it as the weighted average of the posterior variance in each regime plus the variance of the posterior mean across regimes:

$$\text{Var}(\mu^t|x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} \left[ \text{Var}(\mu_i|x) + \left( E(\mu_i|x) - E(\mu^t|x) \right)^2 \right] p(t \in SR_i|x) +$$

$$+ \sum_{j=1}^{K} \left[ \text{Var}(\mu_{i(j)}|x) + \left( E(\mu_{i(j)}|x) - E(\mu^t|x) \right)^2 \right] p(t \in TR_j|x).$$ (23)

The posterior moments and probabilities are calculated across a large number of parameter draws from the joint posterior for $\theta$ and the $s_t$’s. The details are provided in the appendix.

## II. Empirical Analysis

### A. The Market Excess-Return Series

The data used in this study consist of monthly returns on a broadly based equity portfolio in excess of returns on a short-term riskless instrument. The equity-return series and the risk-free return series, described in this subsection, cover the period from January 1834 to June 1999. The equity series from January 1926 to June 1999 consists of returns on the value-weighted portfolio of NYSE stocks, obtained from the Center for Research in Security Prices (CRSP). Equity returns before 1926 are taken from Schwert (1990), who relies on a variety of historical indexes to construct a series of U.S. monthly returns over the past two centuries.\footnote{Up through 1862, his index is based on the returns on financial firms and railroads from Smith and Cole (1935). For 1863 through 1870, Schwert uses the returns on the railroad index from Macaulay (1938), and for the 1871 through 1885 period he uses returns on the value-weighted market index constructed by Cowles (1939). Finally, the 1885–1925 data consist of returns on the Dow Jones index of industrial and railroad stocks, taken from Dow Jones (1972).\footnote{Schwert adjusts the series for the effects of time averaging present in the Cowles and Macaulay series. Also, he acknowledges that the returns on the original Smith and Cole and Macaulay indexes do not include dividend yield and adds the dividend yield back based on an estimate from the Cowles series.}}

Although the series constructed in Schwert (1990) begins in 1802, we use the series back only to 1834, because the earlier data do not appear to capture aggregate equity returns.\footnote{We thank Bill Schwert for providing these data.}
Prior to 1834, the Smith and Cole index is based only on financial firms, whose returns were much less volatile than returns on a typical industrial company. Through 1814, the Smith and Cole index is an equally weighted portfolio of only seven banks, and those seven were chosen in hindsight from a larger group. Also, in their careful historical account of the early years on Wall Street, Werner and Smith (1991, p. 38) note that “... in periods of speculative fever, such as 1824 and 1825, trading volume and share prices both rose sharply...” and “Late in 1825, the securities market bubble burst.” An unusual price increase is not evident in the Smith and Cole data, however, as the annualized mean excess return on the index between January 1824 and August 1825 is only 1%. Also, there is only a mild fall in the prices of the financial firms at the end of 1825. Thus, one might suspect that the returns on a small set of financial companies fail to convey much of the information about overall equity returns in that period. After 1834, the Smith and Cole data expand to include a portfolio of up to 27 railroad stocks, which were among the most important industrial companies during much of the nineteenth century. Noting other properties of the Smith and Cole index prior to 1834, Schwert (1989) also excludes the data up to that point.

The short-term risk-free return series is based on the data constructed by Siegel (1992). From 1926 until 1999, the returns on a one-month Treasury security are obtained from CRSP. For 1920 through 1925, the rates on three-month Treasuries are taken from Homer (1963). Prior to 1920, short-term Treasury securities in their current form were non-existent. As a result, most of the data on U.S. short-term interest rates prior to 1920 are based on commercial paper rates quoted in Macaulay (1938). As Siegel demonstrates, however, commercial paper in the 19th century was subject to a high and variable risk premium, which appears to render a raw series of returns on commercial paper a poor proxy for a risk-free rate of return. In order to remove the risk premium on commercial paper, Siegel constructs a synthetic “riskless” short-term interest rate series by assuming that the average term premiums on long-term high-grade securities were the same in the United States as in the United Kingdom. Monthly returns are derived from Siegel’s annual series using linear interpolation, treating his values as corresponding to the last month of the year. Given that the volatility of the annual series over this period is substantially lower than that of annual equity returns, we suspect that the problems induced by this simplification are relatively small.

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12 We thank Jeremy Siegel for providing these data.
13 For the period 1857 through 1919, Macaulay uses prime two-month and three-month commercial paper. For 1831 through 1856, he uses data from Bigelow (1862) on commercial paper with maturity varying between three and six months.
14 In the nineteenth century, the capital markets in the United Kingdom were far more developed than those in the United States. Siegel motivates his assumption about the equality of the average term premiums by noting that real returns on long-term bonds in the U.K. and in the U.S. have behaved similarly over the past two centuries.
B. Structural Breaks

Recall that the framework proposed here includes $K$ transition regimes (TRs), separated from the stable regimes (SRs) by $2K$ changepoints, or structural breaks. This framework will sometimes be referred to as a framework “with TRs.” For comparison, we also consider a case “with no TRs,” which can be viewed as special case of our framework in which all TRs have zero length. In this latter specification, the beginning and ending points of each TR collapse into one, so there are only $K$ structural breaks.

Figure 1 displays, for each month from January 1834 through June 1999, the posterior probability that one of $K = 15$ TRs begins in that month. We sometimes refer to this probability as the “posterior break probability”. The figure contains four plots. The first plot corresponds to a specification with TRs, no mean-variance link ($\nu = 0$), and $\sigma_{\Delta} = 2\%$. The sample contains 20 months in which the posterior break probability exceeds 10%. There is an 83% probability of a TR beginning between May and October of 1940, and a 60% probability between July and November of 1873. More recently, there is a 74% probability of a TR beginning between December 1991 and April 1992, a 23% probability between November 1994 and February 1995, and a 20% probability between April and August of 1996. An almost identical plot is obtained in the framework with $\nu = 10$ and $\sigma_{\Delta} = 3\%$, which is later referred to as “benchmark prior beliefs.”

The second plot corresponds to the same specification as the first plot but with return volatility constrained to be equal across the SRs. Fewer TRs are identified than in the first plot, which implies, perhaps not surprisingly, that changes in volatility are an important source of structural changes in the return distribution. Nevertheless, even with constant volatility, the specification with TRs can clearly identify several changepoints. For example, June 1932 and March 1933 both receive a 100% posterior break probability. The cumulative equity excess return in the two months following June 1932 is 82%. Those months are followed by several more with negative or low returns, and this pattern leads to the identification of June 1932 as the probable beginning of a TR. Similarly, the cumulative equity excess return in the three months following March 1933 is 90%, followed by lower returns thereafter, so March 1933 is identified as the beginning of a TR. In contrast, the specification with constant volatility and no TRs is unable to identify any structural changes: all posterior break probabilities in the third plot are below 1.8%. Not surprisingly, changes in the
expected return are very hard to detect without additional stochastic structure. Finally, the fourth plot, which corresponds to the framework with TRs, a mean-variance link ($\nu = 10$), and $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$, shows that the presence of the link also helps identify the TRs.

All the results in the paper are reported for $K = 15$. This choice is motivated by comparing the plots of the posterior break probabilities for different $K$’s in specifications with $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$ and no mean-variance link. We find that the plot with $K = 20$ looks very similar to our first plot in Figure 1 with $K = 15$. The $K = 20$ framework identifies the same structural changes as the $K = 15$ framework, and the five additional TRs receive a low posterior probability. Therefore, increasing the number of TRs is unlikely to lead to substantial differences in the estimates of the premium. At the same time, the plot with $K = 10$ looks sufficiently different from the $K = 15$ plot that it cannot justify reducing the number of TRs from 15 to 10.

C. The Equity Premium Over Time

C.1. Benchmark Prior Beliefs

As argued earlier, it seems reasonable to believe that extremely large shifts in the equity premium are unlikely and that, to at least some extent, the premium is related to equity volatility. This subsection presents results that reflect moderately informative prior beliefs along these lines. The following subsections report the results for various other prior beliefs to demonstrate the role of economically motivated priors in estimating the premium.

Recall that the relation between the mean and the volatility of equity excess returns is established by specifying the parameter $\nu$ in the informative prior on $\psi_i$, defined in equation (11). Here we specify $\nu = 10$, which implies a plausible intermediate degree of the mean-variance link: there is a 10% prior probability that the price of risk in any SR is less than half its prior mean (the overall sample value), and there is a 10% probability that the price of risk is more than 1.6 times its prior mean. Also recall that prior beliefs about the magnitudes of changes in the premium during TRs are specified by choosing the value of $\sigma_\Delta$, the prior standard deviation of the shift in the premium. Here we choose $\sigma_\Delta = 3\%$, whereby we assign only about 5% prior probability to the event that the annualized premium could shift by more than 6% during a TR. Note that, with a prior belief in a mean-variance link, one should not specify too small a value for $\sigma_\Delta$. Since data suggest that equity volatility changes substantially over time, a belief that the premium is linked with volatility implies a belief
that the premium changes over time as well. A prior specifying a nontrivial mean-variance association should not simultaneously be too restrictive about shifts in the premium.

Figure 2 plots the evolution of the posterior mean (solid) and posterior standard deviation (dotted) of the equity premium $\mu^t$ over time. The estimated equity premium has been fairly stable between January 1834 and June 1999. The annualized premium fluctuates between 3.9% in January 1849 and 6% in April 1934, with a downward trend since the mid-1930s. It is interesting that, although $\sigma_\Delta = 3\%$ allows for fairly large shifts in the premium, the evolution of the premium is rather smooth. Over the last decade, the premium decreased by 0.5% to its current level of about 4.8%. Although this decrease is perhaps not large in absolute terms, it is the most dramatic decrease in the premium over the last 165 years. The posterior standard deviation associated with the estimate of the current premium is about 1.4%.

Note that the decrease in the premium is not due to low recent returns, since the average equity excess return in the 1990s is about twice the long-run sample mean of 5.71%. Rather, our framework suggests that a significant portion of the recent run-up in stock prices occurred during TRs, so those high returns are consistent with a drop in the premium. Previous studies that identify a recent decrease in the premium rely on parametric relations between stock returns and other variables, such as dividend-price ratios, earnings-price ratios, etc. This paper identifies the decrease based only on a simple model for equity excess returns and economically motivated prior information.

C.2. The Effect of Beliefs About Magnitudes of Changes in the Premium

A simple example can illustrate the effect of informative prior beliefs about the magnitude of potential shifts in the premium. A common empirical tradition in finance is to estimate the equity premium using data beginning in January 1926, the starting date for widely used datasets produced by CRSP and Ibbotson Associates. Given the availability of the earlier data, using just the post-1925 data is equivalent to specifying a structural break in December 1925 and having noninformative priors about $\Delta$ and $\psi$. Table I reports posterior moments obtained using the same 1834–1999 excess-return series as before but in a model with only a single break, exogenously specified at December 1925. To isolate the effect of an informative prior on $\Delta$, no association between the premium and the volatility is imposed (i.e., $\nu = 0$). With a non-informative prior ($\sigma_\Delta = \infty$), the data before the break are discarded, and the equity premium for the post-1925 period has a posterior mean of 8.36%, similar to standard
textbook values.\textsuperscript{15} With an informative prior on $\Delta$, the data before the break are useful in estimating the post-break premium. Because the posterior mean of the premium in the 1834–1925 subperiod is only 3.64\% with noninformative priors, specifying an informative prior for $\Delta$ lowers the mean of the post-1925 equity premium compared to the 8.36\% produced with the noninformative prior. The mean equity premium is lower by 1\% with $\sigma_\Delta = 4\%$ and by 2\% with $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$. Therefore, the common practice of using the average post-1925 excess return overstates the equity premium if one believes that large shifts in the premium are unlikely. At the same time, simply averaging the data beginning in 1834 produces too low an estimate, unless one believes that a shift in the premium did not occur. These two extreme approaches essentially correspond to the cases in Table I for $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$ and $\sigma_\Delta = 0$.

The premium estimate with $\sigma_\Delta = 0$ is 5.22\%, which is slightly below the simple arithmetic average of the excess returns over the entire sample, 5.71\%. The difference arises essentially because the sample averages from the two subperiods are weighted by the reciprocals of the subperiod volatilities, in addition to the lengths of the subperiods (the weights applied in computing the arithmetic average). The mean return is estimated with less precision in the more volatile second subperiod (the volatility is 18.93\% vs. 15.16\% in the first subperiod), so the higher average return from that subperiod is given less weight (much as in weighted least squares). Also note that the premium’s posterior standard deviation with $\sigma_\Delta = 0$ is 1.27\%, less than the 1.53\% and 2.19\% obtained for the two subperiods when $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$. Naturally, posterior uncertainty about the equity premium is lower when inference is based on data from the entire 165-year sample as opposed to just a subperiod. To sum up, $\sigma_\Delta$ plays an important role in this simple example with one fixed structural break.

Prior beliefs about $\Delta$ are also important in our framework with uncertainty about the locations of the 15 TRs. Figure 3 displays the equity premium estimated with $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$ (solid) and $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$ (dashed). As in the previous example, no association between the premium and the volatility is imposed in order to isolate the effect of an informative prior on $\Delta$. The figure contains three plots. The first plot corresponds to the scenario in which the structural breaks are fixed at their estimates. The breaks are fixed at the highest posterior probability locations from the framework with no TRs and $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$, except that clusters of adjacent months with high break probabilities are treated as one break. The second plot also corresponds to the scenario with no TRs, but the uncertainty about the locations of the 15 breaks is incorporated. The third plot incorporates both TRs and break uncertainty. In all three plots, there are substantial differences between the premium estimates for $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$

\textsuperscript{15}For example, at several places in their popular text, Brealey and Meyers (1996) use an equity premium of 8.4\%, which they report is an estimate based on the 1926–1994 period (p. 145).
and \( \sigma_\Delta = \infty \). For example, the estimates for \( \sigma_\Delta = 2\% \) are much less variable over time. Also, the estimates of the current premium for \( \sigma_\Delta = \infty \) in all three plots are implausibly high, between 19\% and 28\% per year, mostly due to the high recent returns. In contrast, with \( \sigma_\Delta = 2\% \), the current premium is estimated between 5.9\% and 6.6\%. Also note that a lower \( \sigma_\Delta \) reduces the posterior uncertainty associated with the estimate of the current premium. Table II shows that the posterior standard deviation of the current premium with \( \sigma_\Delta = \infty \) is huge, 10.18\%, because the current premium is estimated only based on the data since the last structural break (whose location is uncertain). With \( \sigma_\Delta = 2\% \), the posterior standard deviation is much smaller, 1.73\%, as a result of incorporating the earlier data. These examples demonstrate that informative prior beliefs about magnitudes of changes in the premium have a big impact on the premium estimates.

Comparison of the first two plots in Figure 3 reveals the importance of the uncertainty about the locations of the 15 structural breaks. The second plot, which incorporates the uncertainty, produces a smoother pattern of the premiums over time than the first plot, which ignores the uncertainty by conditioning on the break estimates.

C.3. The Effect of Beliefs About the Premium’s Association with Volatility

As demonstrated in the previous subsection, the data before a structural break are relevant for estimating the current equity premium if one believes that extremely large shifts in the premium are unlikely. The data before a break can also be relevant if one believes that, across SRs, the equity premium has at least some degree of positive association with stock-market volatility. For example, if the equity volatility in the last SR is low by historical standards, a prior belief in a link between the equity premium and volatility leads to an inference that the equity premium in the last SR is also low. Of course, such inference relies on data before the most recent break.

Figure 4 plots the equity premium estimated with different degrees of the mean-variance link. To isolate the effect of the link, the prior on \( \Delta \) is noninformative (\( \sigma_\Delta = \infty \)). The solid line plots the premium estimated with a moderate link as in section II.C.1 (\( \nu = 10 \)), the dashed line plots the premium for a perfect link (\( \nu = \infty \); the prior spiked at \( \psi_i = 1 \)), and the dotted line plots the premium estimated with no mean-variance link (\( \nu = 0 \)). The figure reveals that the effect of the link on the premium estimates is substantial. For example, in the period of high volatility in the 1930s, the premium estimates with a perfect link are more than double the estimates with no link. The current premium is estimated to be 4.3\% with a
perfect link, 6.4% with a moderate link ($\nu = 10$), and 27.7% with no link. The lower current premium in the presence of the link is due to the fact that the equity volatility in the 1990s has been 12.8%, less than the 17% volatility in the overall sample. These results clearly indicate that volatility can exert a strong effect on the estimate of the equity premium.

Also note that the link reduces the posterior uncertainty associated with the current premium estimate, as shown in Table II. Whereas the posterior standard deviation of the current premium is 10.18% when $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$ and no link is imposed, it drops to 2.27% with the moderate link and to 1.08% with a perfect link. Strengthening the link increases the precision of the current premium estimate for two reasons. First, it is well known that monthly data are more informative about volatilities than about means, especially for subperiods of modest length. A prior that links the mean to the volatility and is mildly informative about the price of risk allows us to learn about the mean from the volatility. The second reason is the relatively low volatility in the 1990s. To see the basic point clearly, assume that $\sigma_i^2$ is known with certainty and that

$$\mu_i = \gamma \sigma_i^2, \quad i = 1, \ldots, K + 1,$$

which is the perfect volatility link ($\nu = \infty$). Then

$$\text{Std} \{ \mu_i | x, q \} = \sigma_i^2 \text{Std} \{ \gamma | x, q \},$$

where “Std” denotes standard deviation. In this simplified setting, the posterior standard deviation of the equity premium in a given SR is proportional to that regime’s equity variance, so a low-variance regime yields a lower standard deviation of the equity premium. To a rough approximation, the same reasoning applies to an imperfect but positive link.

### C.4. The Effect of the Transition Regimes

Figure 5 plots the equity premium estimated in the specifications with TRs (solid) and without TRs (dashed). In both cases, there is no volatility link and $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$. The effect of adding TRs is smaller than the previously observed effects of changing $\sigma_\Delta$ and $\nu$, but it is still significant. For example, with no TRs, the equity premium rises from 6.2% to 6.6% in the 1990s, due to high recent returns. With TRs, however, the premium drops from 6.5% to 5.9% over the last five years, because much of the recent price increase is attributed to TRs during which the premium decreases. The inclusion of TRs in the statistical model is therefore not only theoretically appealing but also empirically important.
III. Conclusions

A long history of aggregate stock returns contains information about the current equity premium even if the historical distribution of returns has experienced structural breaks. This study estimates the equity premium using a framework that combines the information in the entire return history with economically motivated prior beliefs. Our estimates also incorporate uncertainty about the timing of breaks.

Several economic considerations enter the specification of priors. First, changes in the equity premium are unlikely to be extreme. With an economically reasonable (i.e., finite) prior variance for shifts in the premium, equity returns before suspected breaks are still somewhat informative about the current premium. Second, across subperiods separated by structural breaks, it seems reasonable to believe that the equity premium is positively associated to at least some degree with equity volatility. We introduce a flexible prior that avoids specifying a parametric relation between the premium and volatility but allows information about the price of risk from earlier subperiods to be used in estimating the current premium. Third, shifts in the equity premium are likely to be accompanied by contemporaneous price changes in the opposite direction. We incorporate this prior belief by introducing “transition” regimes between the “stable” regimes, where the latter have the usual interpretation associated with subperiods separated by structural breaks. Within a transition regime, our prior favors a negative relation between the equity return and the change in the premium between the previous and subsequent stable regimes.

Estimates of the equity premium based on reasonable priors fluctuate between 3.9 and 6.0 percent over the period from January 1834 through June 1999. The estimated premium rises through much of the nineteenth century and the first few decades of the twentieth century, but it declines fairly steadily after the 1930’s except for a brief period in the mid 1970’s. The estimated premium exhibits its sharpest decline of the entire period, to 4.8%, during the decade of the 1990’s. We find that economically sensible priors are important in estimating the equity premium as well as in identifying the most likely dates at which breaks occurred. They also enable the current equity premium to be estimated with almost as much precision as what one would attribute to an estimate based on the long-sample average when potential breaks are ignored.
Appendix

Prior Means for the Transition-Regime Parameters.

This part of the appendix uses the results in Campbell (1991) in an empirical Bayes approach to specify sensible prior means for the TR parameters $b_j$ and $\sigma^2_{j,j+1}$. (These prior means are denoted as $\bar{b}$ and $\alpha$ in (6) and (7).) Campbell’s framework does not correspond exactly to ours. He models expected returns as linear functions of predetermined state variables, whereas no such dependence is modeled here. Also, his expected returns can change in any period, whereas ours can change only during TRs. Despite these differences, the underlying economics is the same in both frameworks, so we believe that his results are to some extent useful also in our framework. We use those results to center our mildly informative prior beliefs about $b_j$ and $\sigma_{j,j+1}$.

Campbell decomposes unexpected aggregate stock returns $(x_t - E_{t-1}x_t)$ into changes in the expectations of future dividend growth ($\eta_{d,t}$) and changes in expected future stock returns ($\eta_{h,t}$):

$$x_t - E_{t-1}(x_t) = \eta_{d,t} - \eta_{h,t}. \quad (A.1)$$

He defines

$$\eta_{h,t} = (E_t - E_{t-1}) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \rho^k x_{t+k}, \quad (A.2)$$

where $\rho$ is a number a little smaller than one, here assumed equal to one for simplicity, and $(E_t - E_{t-1})$ denotes the change in expectation of the quantity it precedes. Consider a transition regime $TR_j$ such that the equity premium at time $t - 1$ is $E_{t-1}(x_{t+k}) = \mu_j$, and at time $t$, $E_t(x_{t+k}) = \mu_{j+1}$, for each period $t + k$ that belongs to the next SR.\footnote{Formally, our framework requires the TRs to be at least one period long. Letting the premium jump in a single step essentially eliminates the TR. Nevertheless, such a specification simplifies the exposition of our informal argument leading to a useful approximate prior relation between $\eta_{h,t}$ and $\Delta_{(t)}$.} That is, for $k \geq 1$,

$$(E_t - E_{t-1})x_{t+k} = \begin{cases} \Delta_j & \text{if } t + k \in SR_{j+1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \quad (A.3)$$

The basic idea is to relate $\eta_{h,t}$ to $\Delta_j$ by controlling for the expected durations of the stable and transition regimes. Let $Pr_k = \text{Prob}(t + k \in SR_{j+1}) = p_{2j+1,2j+1}^{k-1}$. As explained in section I.B.1, $p_{2j+1,2j+1}$ denotes the transition probability of staying in the $(j + 1)$-st SR (which is regime $(2j + 1)$ overall.) The value of $\eta_{h,t}$ that reflects the expected duration of
the stable regime is

$$\eta_{h,t} = \Delta_j \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} Pr_k = \Delta_j \frac{1}{1 - p_{2j+1,2j+1}}$$

$$= \Delta_j E(d_{SR}|p_{2j+1,2j+1}), \quad t \in TR_j, \quad j = 1, \ldots, K.$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.4)

The last equality is taken from section I.B.1. In order to obtain a useful approximate prior relation between \(\eta_{h,t}\) and \(\eta_{j}\), we replace the prior conditional expectation of the SR duration with an unconditional expectation. The intuition of the argument leading to (A.4) holds also for a multi-period TR, with an adjustment for the length of the TR. Treating all \(\eta_{h,t}\)'s in the same TR equally, we divide (A.4) by the expected duration of the TR:

$$\eta_{h,t} = \Delta_j \frac{E(d_{SR})}{E(d_{TR})}, \quad t \in TR_j, \quad j = 1, \ldots, K.$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.5)

Denote \(\bar{d} = \frac{E(d_{SR})}{E(d_{TR})}\). Also denote \(\Delta(t) = \Delta_j\), for all \(t \in TR_j\) and \(j = 1, \ldots, K\). Then

$$\eta_{h,t} = \Delta(t) \bar{d}, \quad t \in TR,$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.6)

where \(TR\) denotes the union of all \(TR_j, j = 1, \ldots, K\).

A priori, all the \(b_j\)'s are viewed alike, \(b_j = b, j = 1, \ldots, K\).\(^{17}\) Based on the definition of \(b_j\) in (4) and given \(\Delta\), the value of \(b\) can be viewed as the slope coefficient in a regression of TR equity returns \(x_t\) on \(\Delta(t)\):

$$b = \frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, \Delta(t))}{\text{Var}(\Delta(t))}, \quad t \in TR.$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.7)

Combining (A.6) and (A.7),

$$b = \frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, \Delta(t))}{\text{Var}(\Delta(t))} = \frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, \eta_{h,t}/\bar{d})}{\text{Var}(\eta_{h,t}/\bar{d})} = \bar{d} \frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, \eta_{h,t})}{\text{Var}(\eta_{h,t})}, \quad t \in TR.$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.8)

Campbell’s empirical decomposition of the variance of the U.S. equity returns in 1927–1988 yields \(\text{Var}(\eta_d) = 0.369\sigma_R^2\), \(\text{Var}(\eta_h) = 0.285\sigma_R^2\), and \(-2\text{Cov}(\eta_d, \eta_h) = 0.346\sigma_R^2\), where \(\sigma_R^2\) denotes the total variance of the unexpected stock returns. Using these results, taken from the first line of Table II in Campbell (1991), it follows from (A.1) that

$$\frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, \eta_h)}{\text{Var}(\eta_h)} = \frac{\text{Cov}(\eta_d, \eta_h)}{\text{Var}(\eta_h)} - 1 = -1.607.$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.9)

\(^{17}\)Of course, in the posterior, the \(b_j\)'s are likely to be different from each other.

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As described in section I.B.1, the prior expected durations of the SR and TR are 113 and 12 months, respectively, so \( \bar{d} = \frac{113}{12} \). Plugging these values into (A.8) gives a prior mean for \( b \) of

\[
\bar{b} = -1.607 \bar{d} = -15.13.
\]  

(A.10)

Next, we determine a prior mean of the TR variance. The fitted returns from the regression of \( x_t \) on \( \Delta(t) \) considered in (A.7) can be viewed as the mean returns in each TR. Therefore, the TR variance can be thought of as the residual variance from that regression. Since \( \Delta(t) \) is approximately proportional to \( \eta_{h,t} \) (see (A.6)), this variance is approximately the same as the residual variance \( \sigma^2_{\epsilon} \) from the regression of \( x_t \) on \( \eta_{h,t} \) across the TRs. Hence,

\[
\sigma^2_{\epsilon} = \text{Var}(x_t) - \left( \frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, \eta_{h,t})}{\text{Var}(\eta_{h,t})} \right)^2 \text{Var}(\eta_{h,t}) = 0.264\sigma^2_R.
\]  

(A.11)

We take \( \sigma_R = 16.94\% \) per year, the unconditional volatility of \( x_t \) in the overall sample. This choice yields \( \sigma^2_{\epsilon} = 0.000634 \), which we use for \( \alpha^2 \), the prior mean of the TR variance.

### Drawing from the Posterior Distribution.

In order to obtain draws of the parameter vector \( \theta \) from its joint posterior distribution, we use a block-at-a-time version of the Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm. Repeated draws of model parameters from their full conditional distributions form a Markov chain. Beyond a burn-in stage, the elements in the chain are draws from the joint posterior distribution.

The changepoints \( q \) are drawn using a technique developed by Chib (1998). The parameter vector \( \theta \) is augmented with a latent state variable indicating the regime from which each observation has been drawn. Conditional on the current draw of \( \theta \), Chib’s algorithm draws the state variable, which uniquely determines \( q \). One substantial advantage of this technique is that each draw of \( q \) requires only two passes through the data, regardless of the number of changepoints. This fact enables us to obtain the posterior distribution of as many as 30 changepoints \( (K = 15) \), as well as to integrate out the uncertainty about the changepoint locations in estimating the equity premium. For more details, see Chib (1998).

To implement the MH algorithm, we first perform the change of variables \( \lambda \equiv 1/\gamma \) and \( \phi_k^2 \equiv 1/\psi_k \). Full conditional posteriors of the model parameters are then obtained by

\[\text{The algorithm is introduced by Metropolis et al. (1953) and generalized by Hastings (1970). See Chib and Greenberg (1995) for a detailed description of the algorithm.}\]
incorporating the change of variables and rearranging the joint posterior, a product of the prior in (18) and the likelihood function in (19):

\[
\bar{\mu} \mid \sim N \left( \frac{\mu l'}{V^{-1}_\mu l}, \frac{1}{\mu l'} \right), \quad \bar{\mu} > 0 \quad (A.12)
\]

\[
\phi_i^2 \mid \sim \nu + \sum_{t=q_{i-1}+1}^{q_i} \frac{(x_{t} - \mu_i)^2}{\lambda_{\mu_i}}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, K + 1 \quad (A.13)
\]

\[
\lambda \mid \sim \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K+1} \sum_{t=q_{i-1}+1}^{q_i} (x_{t} - \mu_i)^2}{\frac{1}{\phi_i^2} + \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} l_{2i-1}}, \quad (A.14)
\]

\[
\sigma_{j,j+1}^2 \mid \sim \frac{(\eta - 2)\alpha^2 + \sum_{t=q_{j-1}+1}^{q_j} (x_{t} - \frac{\mu_j + \mu_{j+1}}{2} + b_j \Delta_j))^2}{\chi_{\eta + l_{2j}}^2} \quad j = 1, \ldots, K \quad (A.15)
\]

\[
b_j \mid \sim N(m_{b_j}, v_{b_j}), \quad j = 1, \ldots, K, \quad (A.16)
\]

where

\[
m_{b_j} = \frac{\bar{b} + \Delta_j l_{2j}}{\sigma_b^2} \left( \sum_{t=q_{j-1}+1}^{q_j} x_{t} \frac{l_{2j}}{l_{2j}} - \frac{\mu_j + \mu_{j+1}}{2} \right)
\]

\[
v_{b_j} = \frac{1}{\sigma_b^2} \frac{\Delta_j l_{2j}}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2}
\]

The full conditional posterior of each element of the transition matrix \( P \) is

\[
p_{k,k} \mid \sim \text{Beta}(a_k + n_{kk}, c_k + 1), \quad (A.17)
\]

where \( n_{kk} \) is the number of one-step transitions of the latent state variable from regime \( k \) to regime \( k \). The full conditional posterior distribution of \( \mu \) can be shown to be equal to

\[
p(\mu \mid \cdot) \propto \left( \prod_{i=1}^{K+1} \frac{1}{\mu_i l_{2i-1}^2} \right) \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \mu - \bar{\mu} l' \right)^l V^{-1} \left( \mu - \bar{\mu} l \right) \right. \right.
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} \sum_{t=q_{i-1}+1}^{q_i} \frac{(x_{t} - \mu_i)^2}{\lambda_{\mu_i}^2} + \sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{t=q_{j-1}+1}^{q_j} \frac{(x_{t} - \frac{\mu_j + \mu_{j+1}}{2} + b_j \Delta_j)^2}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2} \left. \right] \right\}, \quad \mu > 0
\]

\[
\propto \left( \prod_{i=1}^{K+1} \frac{1}{\mu_i l_{2i-1}^2} \right) \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \mu' \left( V^{-1}_\mu + D_1 + D_2 \right) \mu \right. \right.
\]

\[
- 2\mu' \left( V^{-1}_\mu \bar{\mu} + w + g \right) + d' x \right\}, \quad \mu > 0, \quad (A.18)
\]

where \( d \) is a \((K + 1)\)-vector whose \( i \)-th element is

\[
d_i = \frac{l_{2i-1}}{\lambda \mu_i \phi_i^2}, \quad (A.19)
\]

\[
24
\]
$w$ is a $(K+1)$-vector whose $i$-th element is

$$w_i = -\frac{l_{2i-1}}{2\lambda \phi_i^2}; \quad (A.20)$$

$x^2$ is a $(K+1)$-vector whose $i$-th element is

$$x_i^2 = \frac{1}{l_{2i-1}} \sum_{t=q_{2i-2}+1}^{q_{2i-1}} x_t^2; \quad (A.21)$$

$$D_1 = \begin{pmatrix}
    z_{1,1} & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & z_{2,1} + z_{1,2} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & z_{2,2} + z_{1,3} & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
    \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & z_{2,K-1} + z_{1,K} & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & z_{2,K}
\end{pmatrix}; \quad (A.22)$$

$$D_2 = \begin{pmatrix}
    0 & -z_{3,1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
    -z_{3,1} & 0 & -z_{3,2} & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & -z_{3,2} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
    \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & -z_{3,K} \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & -z_{3,K} & 0
\end{pmatrix}; \quad (A.23)$$

$$g = \begin{pmatrix}
    z_{4,1} \\
    z_{5,1} + z_{4,2} \\
    z_{5,2} + z_{4,3} \\
    \vdots \\
    z_{5,K-1} + z_{4,K} \\
    z_{5,K}
\end{pmatrix}; \quad (A.24)$$

and, for $j = 1, \ldots, K$,

$$z_{1,j} = \frac{l_{2j}(b_j - \frac{1}{2})^2}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2}; \quad (A.25)$$

$$z_{2,j} = \frac{l_{2j}(b_j + \frac{1}{2})^2}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2}; \quad (A.26)$$

$$z_{3,j} = \frac{l_{2j}(b_j - \frac{1}{2})(b_j + \frac{1}{2})}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2}; \quad (A.27)$$

$$z_{4,j} = -\frac{l_{2j}(b_j - \frac{1}{2})}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2} x_{2j}; \quad (A.28)$$

$$z_{5,j} = \frac{l_{2j}(b_j + \frac{1}{2})}{\sigma_{j,j+1}^2} x_{2j}; \quad (A.29)$$

$$x_{2j} = \frac{1}{l_{2j}} \sum_{t=q_{2j-1}+1}^{q_{2j}} x_t. \quad (A.30)$$
Each of the full conditional distributions, except for that of $\mu$ in (A.18), corresponds to a well known density, so draws from those densities are easily generated. In order to draw $\mu$, a candidate value is drawn from a proposal density and accepted with a probability that ensures convergence of the chain to the target distribution. If a candidate draw is not accepted, the previous draw is retained. The proposal density for $\mu$ is a piecewise linear approximation to the target density. We use a two-pass grid method to draw from the proposal density. In the first pass, we use an equally spaced grid (with $f_1 = 40$ gridpoints) to fit a piecewise linear cdf $P_1(\mu|\cdot)$ corresponding to $p(\mu|\cdot)$. The second-pass grid is created by taking $P_1^{-1}(\frac{f_1}{f_2}|\cdot)$, for $f = 1, \ldots, f_2$, where $f_2$ determines the fineness of the second-pass grid (we use $f_2 = 25$ gridpoints). In both grids, we also add a few gridpoints in the tails of the support, to prevent undersampling. The second grid increases the accuracy of the procedure by putting more grid points in the regions of greater mass. Through the second-pass grid, we then refit the piecewise linear cdf, denoted as $P_2(\mu|\cdot)$, and use the inverse cdf method to draw $\mu$. That is, we generate a standard uniform variate $u$ and take $\mu$ as $P_2^{-1}(u|\cdot)$. The second-pass grid is a very good approximation to the target density, since the rate at which the proposal draws are accepted is over 95%. Note that our two-pass grid procedure can in principle be used to make draws from virtually any distribution whose integrating constant is unknown. The procedure is marginally feasible in terms of computation time even with a highly dimensional parameter space (here, $\mu$ has $K+1 = 16$ elements).

For each posterior draw of $\mu$, a draw of $\mu_{(j)}$ is constructed as $(\mu_j + \mu_{j+1})/2$ for $j = 1, \ldots, K$. The posterior moments of $\mu$ and $\mu_{(j)}$, as well as the posterior probabilities that a particular month belongs in a given regime, are estimated using 40,000 posterior draws, obtained by retaining every 15th draw from a chain of 600,000 draws beyond the first 6,000 draws. For each set of prior parameters, we run two independent Markov chains, with two different seeds in the random number generator. Such an exercise is used to assess the precision of our results. In all cases, the premium estimates produced by the two independent chains are very close, almost always within less than 10bp (annualized). Minor exceptions with somewhat larger deviations occasionally occur in some cases that are less interesting a priori (e.g., no mean-variance link and $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$), but the overall precision of our results is satisfactory. The reported premium estimate in each month is obtained by averaging the premiums obtained from the two independent chains.
The table reports posterior moments of the equity premium (in percent per annum) in a model with a single structural break specified at December 1925. The equity premium is defined as the expected rate of return on the aggregate stock-market portfolio in excess of the short-term interest rate, and $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ denote the equity premiums before and after the break. The break is associated with a shift in the equity premium given by $\Delta = \mu_2 - \mu_1$. The prior standard deviation of $\Delta$ is $\sigma_\Delta$ (annualized in the table).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\sigma_\Delta$ (%)</th>
<th>Posterior Mean 1834–1925</th>
<th>Posterior Mean 1926–1999</th>
<th>Posterior Std Dev 1834–1925</th>
<th>Posterior Std Dev 1926–1999</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\infty$</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table II
Posterior Uncertainty about the Current Premium

The table reports posterior standard deviations of the current equity premium, as of June 1999, in percent per annum. The equity premium is defined as the expected rate of return on the aggregate stock-market portfolio in excess of the short-term interest rate. The sample period is split into $2K + 1$ regimes, $K + 1$ of which are stable regimes (SRs), separated from each other by $K$ transition regimes (TRs). Throughout, $K = 15$. The equity premium in the $i$-th SR is denoted by $\mu_i$. The $j$-th TR is associated with a shift in the equity premium given by $\Delta_j = \mu_{j+1} - \mu_j$. In the framework “with no TRs”, the beginning and ending points of TRs coincide. For $j = 1, \ldots, K$, the prior standard deviation of $\Delta_j$ is $\sigma_\Delta$ (annualized in the table). The standard deviation (volatility) of the excess stock return in the $i$-th SR is denoted by $\sigma_i$. In each SR ($i = 1, \ldots, K + 1$), the relation between the equity premium and variance is given by $\mu_i = \psi_i \gamma \sigma_i^2$, where the prior for each $\psi_i$ is a gamma distribution with parameters $\nu/2$ and $2/\nu$.

A. No prior association between $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\sigma_\Delta = 2$</th>
<th>$\sigma_\Delta = \infty$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With TRs</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>10.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No TRs</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>10.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No TRs, fixed breaks</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>9.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. With TRs and a prior association between $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\sigma_\Delta = 3$</th>
<th>$\sigma_\Delta = \infty$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\nu = 10$ (moderate)</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\nu = \infty$ (perfect)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Posterior break probabilities. The figure plots, for each month, the posterior probability that one of 15 stable regimes in the return distribution ends in that month. (The 16th stable regime is assumed to continue through the last month of the sample.) The first plot corresponds to the specification with transition regimes (TRs), no mean-variance link, and $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$, the second plot to the same specification as the first plot but with constant return volatility across stable regimes, the third plot to the same specification as the second plot but with no TRs, and the fourth plot to the specification with TRs, with the mean-variance link ($\nu = 10$), and $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$. 
Figure 2. Equity premium with benchmark priors. The solid line plots, for each month, the posterior mean of the equity premium $\mu_t$ obtained using the specification with transition regimes, $\sigma_\Delta = 3\%$, and $\nu = 10$. The dotted line plots the posterior standard deviation of $\mu_t$ in each month.
Figure 3. Equity premiums for different $\sigma_\Delta$’s. The figure plots, for each month, the posterior mean of the equity premium $\mu^t$ obtained in specifications with no mean-variance link. The first plot arises from a specification with no transition regimes (TRs) and fixed breaks, the second from a specification that accounts for break uncertainty but has no TRs, and the third from a specification that includes TRs and accounts for break uncertainty. The solid line corresponds to $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$ and the dashed line to $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$, where $\sigma_\Delta$ is the prior standard deviation of the shift in the equity premium at a structural break.
Figure 4. Equity premiums for different degrees of a mean-variance association. The figure plots, for each month, the posterior mean of the equity premium $\mu_t$ obtained in specifications with transition regimes and $\sigma_\Delta = \infty$. The solid line corresponds to a moderate prior mean-variance association ($\nu = 10$), the dashed line to a perfect link ($\nu = \infty$), and the dotted line to no link ($\nu = 0$).
Figure 5. **Equity premiums with and without transition regimes.** The figure plots, for each month, the posterior mean of the equity premium $\mu^t$ obtained in specifications with $\sigma_\Delta = 2\%$ and no mean-variance link. The solid line corresponds to the specification with transition regimes (TRs), and the dashed line to the one without TRs.


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