

Equity Risk Premia and the VIX Term Structure

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Abstract

In many asset pricing models, the equity market's expected return is a time-invariant linear function of its conditional variance, which can be estimated from options markets. However, I show that when the relation between conditional means and variances is state-dependent, an observer requires the combined information in multiple variance horizons to distinguish among the states and thereby reveal the equity risk premium. Empirically, I show that while the VIX by itself has little predictive power for future S&P 500 returns, the VIX term structure predicts next-quarter S&P 500 returns with a 5.2% adjusted R^2 .

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1. Introduction

There is mounting theoretical and empirical evidence of time variation in equity market risk premia. These time variations are important both for economists studying asset pricing and for market participants making portfolio allocation decisions. However, their use is limited without an ex-ante observable measure of expected returns.

In many popular asset pricing models, risk premia can be inferred ex-ante as long as the variance of future returns conditional on all available information is observable, for example from options prices. In Campbell and Cochrane (1999) and Bansal and Yaron (2004), conditional expected returns are an approximately linear, time-invariant, function of conditional variance. These models therefore predict that the time-series of equity risk premia and conditional equity variance are almost perfectly correlated, meaning that no other variable predicts future equity returns incremental to conditional variance. Similarly, recent models of variance risk premia and their connection with equity returns, in Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011), predict that expected returns are a time-invariant linear function of return variance and the variance risk premia. Therefore, these models also predict excess equity returns should be strongly predictable by measures of conditional variance.

However, the data do not support these hypothesis. To quote Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009), “a significant time-invariant expected return-volatility tradeoff type relationship has largely proven elusive.” Conditional variance measures, whether constructed from option-implied volatilities or time-series models, have economically and statistically weak predictive power for future index returns.

In this paper, I argue that the expected return-conditional variance relation predicted by theory is weak in the data because its nature changes every period. I show in a very general model that expected returns are indeed related to conditional variance linearly, but that the coefficients in this relation may change over time. In particular, the period-by-period shape

of the variance-mean relation is determined by two economically meaningful quantities: the regression coefficient of that period's equity return on the stochastic discount factor (SDF beta), and the variance of the part of returns orthogonal to the SDF (unpriced risk). The aforementioned asset pricing models assume these two quantities are essentially constant. However, when the market's SDF beta and unpriced risk change over time, expected excess-returns are no longer a time-invariant linear function of conditional variance.

Furthermore, I provide evidence that when risk premia are not easily inferred from conditional variance, an observer who is unaware of the marginal investor's preferences can estimate equity risk premia using conditional variances at multiple horizons. In a stochastic volatility model where the SDF beta and unpriced risk are mean-reverting state variables, I show that the shape of the variance term structure allows an observer to decompose volatility into its constituent factors by relying on differences in their persistence. As a result, risk premia in the model are an affine function of the variance term structure.

I apply this technique to the S&P 500 index, which has liquid options markets for many different strikes and times to expiration. Following the methodology used to calculate the CBOE's volatility index (VIX), I compute model-free implied volatility estimates at many horizons, and show that the variance term structure can indeed dramatically improve index return predictability. I find that the VIX term structure predicts future S&P 500 returns, incrementally to any single VIX horizon, for holding periods from one month to one year. For example, the combined term structure predicts next-quarter excess log returns on the S&P 500 with a 5.2% adjusted R^2 and joint significance at the 1% level. The return predictability is incremental to the "volatility risk premia" factor (Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011)), the aggregate dividend yield (e.g. Cochrane (2008) or Campbell and Shiller (1988)), the net payout yield (Boudoukh et al. (2007)), and the Cochrane Piazzesi factor from bond pricing (Cochrane and Piazzesi (2005)).

The majority of the incremental return predictability comes from the fourth principal component of the VIX term structure, and not the first three ("level," "slope," and "curva-

ture”) principal components. The factor has a “lightning bolt” shape, with loadings that slope downwards over the first three VIX horizons, jump up sharply, and then slope down again across the final three VIX horizons. It exhibits much less persistence than the VIX level, mitigating concerns over the small-sample predictive bias discussed in Stambaugh (1999). Finally, both the fourth principal component and risk premia fitted from the VIX term structure spike upwards around times of financial turmoil: the Asian financial crises (1997), the LTCM collapse (1998), and in the later portion of the recent financial crises (2008-2009).

The exact linear combination of conditional variance horizons that reveals risk premia in my model depends on the model’s parametrization. Therefore, the principal component of the variance term structure that predicts future index returns also depends on the parametrization. I show that a reasonable calibration of my model matches the regression coefficients, as well as other relevant moments, observed in the data. Moreover, I show that as long as the different state variables have different persistences, the combined information in the VIX term structure provides an ex-ante measure of equity risk premia.

I discuss the paper’s relation to prior research in Section 2, detail the model of priced and unpriced risks in the variance term structure in Section 3, show empirical results pertaining to the S&P 500 in Section 4, and conclude in Section 5.

2. Relation to Prior Research

Two recent papers, Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011), study the relation between variance risk premia and equity risk premia. Empirically, both show that the difference between end-of-month VIX^2 and an estimate of statistical-measure variance positively predicts future index returns. Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) uses past realized variance as a proxy for future statistical-measure variance, and Drechsler and Yaron (2011) uses predicted future variance from a time-series model. In both papers, the evidence for return predictability is statistically and economically strong from 1990-2007. I show that the return predictability continues in the additional 2008-2010 years in my sample.

Both papers postulate that this return predictability arises because the time-series of the variance risk premia ($\text{Var}_t^{\mathbb{Q}}(R) - \text{Var}_t^{\mathbb{P}}(R)$) and the equity risk premia are positively correlated. Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) derives this correlation in a discrete-time model with time variation in both consumption volatility and the volatility of consumption volatility. They show that the variance risk premium captures time variation in the volatility of consumption volatility, which is also correlated with the time variation in risk premia. Drechsler and Yaron (2011) derives the positive correlation between equity and variance risk premia in broader setting that incorporates the long-run risk dynamics in Bansal and Yaron (2004) and so can simultaneously match the magnitudes of the equity risk premia and volatility risk premia we observe in the data, all while assuming a reasonable level of risk aversion. In their model, the variance risk premia comes from a drift difference in the consumption volatility process between \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{P} , and from priced jump risk.

Both the Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and the Drechsler and Yaron (2011) models predict no incremental role for the VIX term structure in capturing risk premia. The reason is that both models have two priced factors: the variance risk premia and the traditional risk-return relation (when conditional return volatility is high, expected returns are high). The first can be captured empirically by using the variance differences described above. The second is much simpler to implement empirically: a single VIX horizon should reveal the current conditional variance. For this reason, both Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011) predict a much stronger VIX-return relation than the one observed in the data, and no role for multiple VIX horizons. In my multifactor volatility model, the nature of the variance-return relation varies across states, meaning there is a role for multiple VIX horizons in extracting risk premia.

Mixon (2007) shows that the expectations hypothesis fails for the term structure of Black-Scholes implied volatility, namely that the “forward” implied volatilities embedded in the term structure are not one-for-one predictors of future realized “spot” implied volatilities. In untabulated results, I replicate the failure of the expectations hypothesis for the new model-

free VIX (as opposed to the old Black-Scholes based VXO used in Mixon (2007)) term structure. Prior research also shows theoretically and empirically that VIX term structure can be used to price VIX futures and options (e.g. Sepp (2008), and Zhu and Zhang (2007)).

Duan and Yeh (2011) fits a fairly general single-factor stochastic volatility model to the observed S&P 500 index return and VIX term structure processes using a particle-filter based estimation. By contrast, I use a multifactor volatility model to study the relation between the VIX term structure and equity risk premium (rather than contemporaneous returns) and calibrate the model to match empirical moments rather than structurally estimating it.

To my knowledge, the only multifactor model of index volatility is in Christoffersen, Heston, and Jacobs (2009), which extends the Heston (1993) model by allowing the volatility process be the sum of two square-root processes. The two-factor volatility model is able to capture the relative independence of the level and slope of the “smirk” observed in implied volatilities and therefore dramatically improve the upon the option pricing compared to Heston (1993). I augment their analysis by adding a time-varying SDF beta, looking at different times-to-expiration rather than different strike prices, and examining the economic relation between variance and expected returns.

My central argument, that the VIX term structure allows an observer to distinguish among components of the VIX that have different prices and persistences, has an analogue in the bond return predictability literature. If the short-rate process is composed of multiple factors with different pricing and persistences, like the volatility process in my model, the shape of the yield curve could be used to distinguish between different short-rate factors and thereby better estimate bond risk premia. The bond risk premia literature (Dai and Singleton (2002), Cochrane and Piazzesi (2005), Cochrane and Piazzesi (2008), and the references therein) provides theoretical and empirical evidence that the shape yield of the curve reveals bond risk premia when there are multiple factors.

There is a fundamental distinction, however, between the VIX term structure predicting equity index returns and the bond term structure predicting excess bond returns. In bond

markets, the predicted returns are for the same asset whose yields determine the term structure. In this paper, I use the term structure of option-implied variance to predict the returns of the underlying asset, relying on the economic connection between conditional variance and equity risk premia. The equivalent analysis for the treasury yield curve would examine the relation between bond risk premia and the term structure of bond return variance implied by bond options.

3. Model

The driving intuition in my model is that if the relation between conditional variance and risk premia is state-dependent, examining market expectations of volatility at multiple horizons allows an otherwise uninformed observer to distinguish between states and better estimate risk premia.

I begin by illustrating the relation between variance and returns with two minimal assumptions: no arbitrage, and the existence of a conditionally riskless asset. Together these assumptions imply that there exists a stochastic discount factor (SDF) \tilde{M}_{t+1} that prices any traded asset i with gross return $\tilde{R}_{i,t+1}$ as follows:

$$E_t(\tilde{R}_{i,t+1}) - R_{f,t} = -\text{cov}_t(\tilde{R}_{i,t+1}, \tilde{M}_{t+1})R_{f,t} \quad (1)$$

where $R_{f,t}$ is the gross risk-free rate at time t . I drop the subscript i hereafter for brevity.

Now define α_t , β_t , and $\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}$ so that:

$$\tilde{R}_{t+1} = \alpha_t - \beta_t \tilde{M}_{t+1} + \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1} \quad (2)$$

$$\beta_t = \frac{-\text{cov}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}, \tilde{M}_{t+1})}{\text{var}_t(\tilde{M}_{t+1})} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{cov}_t(\tilde{M}_{t+1}, \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}) = 0 \quad (4)$$

With this sign convention, assets with a positive β_t have a negative correlation with the SDF

and are therefore subject to systematic risk. Note that $\alpha_t - \beta_t \tilde{M}_{t+1}$ is the projection of \tilde{R}_{t+1} onto \tilde{M}_{t+1} , and that equation (2) is *not* a time-series regression because the coefficients α_t and β_t may be different in each period.

Combining equations (1) and (3), and computing the variance of \tilde{R}_{t+1} from equation (2) gives:

$$E_t(\tilde{R}_{i,t+1}) - R_{f,t} = \beta_t \text{var}_t(\tilde{M}_{t+1}) R_{f,t} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{var}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) = \beta_t^2 \text{var}_t(\tilde{M}_{t+1}) + \text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}) \quad (6)$$

The reason for manipulating the basic pricing equation into equations (5) and (6) is that these equations express both the conditional mean and variance of future returns as simple functions of three economically meaningful variables. The first, **SDF variance** $\text{var}_t(\tilde{m}_{t+1})$, is an economy-wide variable, while the second, **SDF beta** β_t , is asset-specific. Both are reflected in risk premia (equation (5)) as well as return variance (equation (6)). The final variable is the residual variance $\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1})$, which is also asset-specific and only impacts the return variance but not the mean of returns, and so I call it **unpriced risk**.

To help interpret the SDF variance, SDF beta, and unpriced risk in what follows, I discuss the meaning of each in the context the asset pricing literature. The conditional SDF variance $\text{var}_t(\tilde{M}_{t+1})$ is the variance of investor's marginal utility of consumption in the next period. Changes in the volatility of marginal utility could be due to changes in the volatility of consumption growth (as in Bansal and Yaron (2004)), or to changes in the risk aversion of the marginal investor (as in Campbell and Cochrane (1999)). In this framework, both effects are absorbed into the SDF variance and impact expected returns and conditional variances for all traded assets.

The best analogies for the SDF beta β_t and the unpriced variance $\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1})$ come from the CAPM. The asset-specific SDF beta β_t serves the same role as the asset-specific "market beta" in the a period-by-period CAPM: it measures the exposure to priced risk for a specific

asset. Similarly, what I call unpriced risk is analogous to “idiosyncratic volatility” in the CAPM. Both are orthogonal to what investor’s care about: market returns in the CAPM and the more general SDF \tilde{M}_t in this framework. If the CAPM holds period-by-period, the market portfolio is perfectly correlated with the SDF, implying that it has no unpriced risk. Other traded assets and portfolios, however, could have time variation in both β_t and $\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1})$.

Theorem 1 illustrates the general relation between conditional variance and the conditional risk premium.

Theorem 1. *Assuming no arbitrage, for any risky asset with returns \tilde{R}_{t+1} and any SDF \tilde{M}_{t+1} that prices \tilde{R}_{t+1} , we have:*

$$E_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) - R_{f,t} = A_{0,t} + A_{1,t} \text{var}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) \quad (7)$$

where $A_{0,t} = -\frac{\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1})R_{f,t}}{\beta_t}$, $A_{1,t} = \frac{R_{f,t}}{\beta_t}$, and the other variables are defined above.

Proof. Manipulating equations (5) and (6) yields:

$$E_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) - R_{f,t} = (\text{var}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) - \text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1})) \frac{1}{\beta_t} R_{f,t} \quad (8)$$

Equation (7) abbreviates this using the $A_{0,t}$ and $A_{1,t}$ notation. □

Note that Theorem 1 holds regardless of the time horizon, investor preferences, and for all types of assets. The only necessary assumptions are that there is a riskless asset, and that there is no arbitrage. In fact, equation (7) simplifies to the original pricing equation (1) with enough substitution. However, equation (7) is a useful representation because theoretical models often provide some structure for $A_{0,t}$ and $A_{1,t}$, from which we can use equation (7) to find ex-ante observable expected return estimates using ex-ante conditional variance estimates. The remainder of this section discusses different specifications for $A_{0,t}$ and $A_{1,t}$.

Theorem 1 examines a special case where both the SDF beta and unpriced risk are

constant across time. This occurs when, while risk premia may be changing each period through changes in the SDF variance, the relation between \tilde{M}_{t+1} and \tilde{R}_{t+1} has the same slope and residual variance in each period. I show that this implies *all* time variation in risk premia can be captured by a time-invariant linear function of conditional variance. Moreover, I show the converse: if risk premia for any asset are a linear function of conditional variance, it implies that the asset has constant SDF beta and constant unpriced risk.

Corollary 1. *Assuming the risk-free rate is fixed at $R_{f,t} = R_f$, and there is no arbitrage, the following two statements are equivalent:*

1. *Unpriced risk is fixed at $\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ and the SDF beta is fixed at $\beta_t = \beta$.*
2. *There exist constants A_0 and A_1 such that $E_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) - R_f = A_0 + A_1 \text{var}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1})$ in every period t .*

Proof. Suppose $\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ and $\beta_t = \beta$. Plugging these values into $A_{0,t}$ and $A_{t,1}$ yields constant coefficients, meaning Theorem 1 implies $E_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) - R_{f,t} = A_0 + A_1 \text{var}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1})$ in each period where $A_0 = -\frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 R_f}{\beta}$ $A_1 = \frac{R_f}{\beta}$.

Now suppose we have constants A_0 and A_1 such that $E_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}) - R_{f,t} = A_0 + A_1 \text{var}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1})$ in every period. This implies that unpriced risk and SDF beta are constant over time, because if they were not, equation (7) would imply time-varying coefficients in the relation between risk premia and variance, a contradiction. \square

The statements in Theorem (1) may seem quite restrictive, but they are met or nearly met in many modern asset pricing models. Both Campbell and Cochrane (1999) and Bansal and Yaron (2004), for example, predict that nearly all of the time-variation in equity risk premia is captured by a linear function of conditional return variance (see Appendix A for details). The reason is that both assume equity markets provide a claim to dividends whose growth has constant correlation with consumption growth. This means that both the unpriced risk $\text{var}_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1})$, and the SDF beta β_t , are nearly constant across different states of the model. As a result, both models imply that a time invariant linear function conditional

variance captures nearly all the variation in risk premia, meaning that conditional variance should predict future market returns and that nothing else should have significant predictive power incremental to conditional variance. A similar result applies in the models of variance risk premia in Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011); both models predict a strong linear relation between conditional variance and future returns in addition to the relation between variance risk premia and future returns.

Empirically, as detailed in Section 4, the relation between realized returns and conditional variance is weak. Moreover, there appears to be several other variables that capture risk premia better than conditional variances, namely the variance risk premia, the price-dividend ratio, and the variance term structure. These results suggest that the market's SDF beta and unpriced variance change over time. In the next subsection, I impose some structure of the state variables that govern the variance-return relation, and show how the variance term structure can be combined to provide an observable measure of ex-ante risk premia when conditional variance alone is not enough.

3.1. A three-factor model of variance and risk premia

I present a dynamic, discrete time, discrete state model of the relation between risk premia and the variance term structure. I focus here on the simplest possible framework that conveys my results. A more realistic continuous time, continuous state, version of the model in the Appendix C produces qualitatively identical conclusions.

In each period, the stochastic discount factor \tilde{M}_{t+1} and the simple equity return \tilde{R}_{t+1} each take one of two values:

$$\tilde{M}_{t+1} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{R_f} + \sigma_{M,t} & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{R_f} - \sigma_{M,t} & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases} \quad \tilde{R}_{t+1} = \begin{cases} \mu_t + \sigma_{R,t} & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \\ \mu_t - \sigma_{R,t} & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

where R_f is the risk-free rate, constant over time to focus my results on the term structure of variance and not interest rates, $\sigma_{M,t}$ is the standard deviation of \tilde{M}_{t+1} , μ_t is the expected equity return, and $\sigma_{R,t}$ is the standard deviation of returns. The SDF and return innovations

have correlation ρ_t , which implies that:

$$\mathbb{P}(\tilde{R}_{t+1} \text{ high} | \tilde{M}_{t+1} \text{ high}) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \rho_t)$$

There are three state variables in the model: SDF variance $\sigma_{M,t}^2$, SDF beta β_t , and unpriced risk $\sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2$. The distributional parameters depend on the state variables as follows:

$$\sigma_{R,t}^2 = \beta_t^2 \sigma_{M,t}^2 + \sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2 \quad (9)$$

$$\rho_t = -\beta_t \frac{\sigma_{M,t}}{\sigma_{R,t}} \quad (10)$$

$$\mu_t - R_f = -\text{Cov}(\tilde{M}_{t+1}, \tilde{R}_{t+1})R_f = \beta_t \sigma_{M,t}^2 R_f \quad (11)$$

The first two equations (9) and (10) are definitions, while equation (11) is the basic pricing result. These definitions ensure that the general intuition developed above applies here. Equations (9) and (11) are exactly equations (5) and (6) above, while equation (10) assures that β_t is the regression coefficient $-\frac{\text{cov}_t(\tilde{R}_{t+1}, \tilde{M}_{t+1})}{\text{var}(\tilde{M}_{t+1})}$. As in the above, assets with negative SDF correlation ($\rho_t < 0$) have positive β_t and positive risk premia.

Each state variable has two possible values, $\sigma_{M,t}^2 \in \{\sigma_{M,L}^2, \sigma_{M,H}^2\}$, $\beta_t \in \{\beta_L, \beta_H\}$, and $\sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2 \in \{\sigma_{\epsilon,L}^2, \sigma_{\epsilon,H}^2\}$. Each also has a transition probability matrix that specifies its distribution over next-period states for each current-period state. These transition probability matrices are determined entirely by the three persistence parameters ρ_{σ_m} , ρ_β , and ρ_{σ_ϵ} . In each case, the persistence parameter is the period-to-period correlation in the state variable. For example, the transition probability matrix for β_t can be summarized by:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(\beta_{t+1} = \beta_t) &= \frac{1}{2}(1 + \rho_\beta) \\ \mathbb{P}(\beta_{t+1} \neq \beta_t) &= \frac{1}{2}(1 - \rho_\beta) \end{aligned}$$

The state transitions are uncorrelated with transitions in the other state variables, the asset's

return, and the SDF. Such correlations exist in the data, as evidenced by the fact that return variance tends to go up when markets go down (the so-called “leverage effect”). A version of this model with state innovations correlated with the SDF generates the leverage effect, but adds complexity without changing the relation between variance term structure and risk premia.

3.1.1 Observing risk premia in the model

While the marginal investor knows their preferences and the distribution of asset values, and can therefore compute the three volatility states $\sigma_{M,t}^2$, β_t , and $\sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2$, I study the problem of an outside observer hoping to infer the state using traded asset prices. For such an observer, the equity price reveals nothing about the volatility state. Observing past returns could reveal the *past* volatility of returns $\sigma_{R,t-1}^2$ but neither the state variables that compose $\sigma_{R,t-1}^2$ nor the current volatility of returns $\sigma_{R,t}^2$.

To assist the observer, I assume that variance swaps on the underlying asset are traded for multiple horizons. As shown in Carr and Madan (1998), in the absence of jumps the strike of a variance swap $IV_{t,T}$ at time t expiring at time $t + T$ is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 IV_{t,T} &= \frac{1}{T} E_t^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[\int_t^{t+T} v_s^R ds \right] \text{ (continuous time)} \\
 IV_{t,T} &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} E_t^{\mathbb{Q}} (\sigma_{R,t+s}^2) \text{ (discrete time)}
 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

The integrand v_s^R is the quadratic variation of $\log(S_t)$ evaluated at $t = s$, and the expectation is under the risk-neutral measure \mathbb{Q} . The second equation is the discrete analogue of the first, and can be computed easily in the model using the state transition probabilities, together with return variance in each state as specified by equation (9). Because the state innovations are uncorrelated with the SDF, expected future variance is the same under the risk-neutral measure \mathbb{Q} as it is under the statistical measure \mathbb{P} . If the state innovation was correlated with the SDF innovation, the expected future variance state could be computed using the

state transition probabilities under \mathbb{Q} .

As discussed in more detail in Section 4, without data on variance swap pricing an observer can still compute $IV_{t,T}$ from the time t price of call and put options expiring at time $t + T$ at enough different strike prices. The square of the CBOE's VIX index is exactly such a computation, as are the model-free implied variance estimates discussed in Britten-Jones and Neuberger (2000), Jiang and Tian (2005), and elsewhere.

I show that the combined information in $IV_{t,T}$ at many different horizons T can completely reveal the volatility state $(\sigma_{M,t}^2, \beta_t, \sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2)$, and therefore reveal any time variation in the equity risk premia. Intuitively, the reason is that when the different components of volatility have different persistences, many different volatility states could produce the same $IV_{t,T}$ for a single T , but each volatility state produces a unique shape of the $IV_{t,T}$ term structure. This intuition can be seen clearly in Figure 1, which shows the VIX term structure in each of the eight different states of the world¹, as well as the annualized equity premia. Due to the array of possible SDF betas and unpriced risk, the equity risk premia is a non-linear, non-monotonic, function of conditional variance for any single horizon. However, each state of the world is easily identifiable from the shape of the term structure.

Theorem 2 shows more formally that risk premia are a linear function of the VIX term structure in the model.

Theorem 2. *If each state variable has a different persistence (ρ_{σ_M} , ρ_{β} , and $\rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}$ are all different), the equity risk premium is an affine function of the implied variance term structure:*

$$\mu_t - R_f = \beta_t \sigma_{M,t}^2 R_f = A_0 + A_1 IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}}$$

where $IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}}$ is a 4×1 vector of implied variances at four different horizons $\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}$ on date t , A_0 is a constant, and A_1 is 1×4 vector of constants.

¹Each of the three state variables can take one of two values, making a total of eight states for the model.

Proof. Define state vector:

$$z_t = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{M,t}^2 & \beta_t^2 & \sigma_{M,t}^2 \beta_t^2 & \sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2 \end{bmatrix}'$$

Note that both the equity risk premium $\mu_t - R_f$ and the implied variance $IV_{t,T}$ are affine functions of this state vector:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_t - R_f &= b_0 + b_1 z_t \\ IV_{t,T} &= c_{0,T} + c_{1,T} z_t \\ \Rightarrow IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}} &= C_0 + C_1 z_t \end{aligned}$$

The constants b_0 and $c_{0,T}$, as well as the 1x4 vectors of constants b_1 and $c_{1,T}$, are functions of model parameters but not the state variables, as detailed in Appendix B. The 4x1 vector C_0 and the 4x4 matrix C_1 are the four different $c_{0,T}$ and $c_{1,T}$ stacked on top of each other.

Assuming C_1 is invertible, we now have that:

$$\begin{aligned} z_t &= C_1^{-1} (IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}} - C_0) \\ \Rightarrow \mu_t - R_f &= b_0 + b_1 C_1^{-1} (IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}} - C_0) \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Equation (13) shows that the equity risk premia is an affine function of the implied variance term structure whenever C_1 is invertible, which I show in Appendix B holds exactly when the three persistences ρ_{σ_M} , ρ_{β} , and $\rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}$ are all different from each other. \square

Theorem 2 shows that an affine function of the VIX term structure reveals equity risk premia because each different VIX horizon loads differently on the underlying state variables, allowing the state variables to be inverted given enough different VIX horizons. The same procedure would work for any set of four assets whose prices were each a different affine function the state variables, allowing the matrix C_1 to be inverted. Theorem 2 also predicts

that all variation in expected returns are captured by an affine function of the VIX term structure, meaning that the VIX term structure (and nothing else) should predict future equity returns in a linear regression.

3.1.2 *Calibrated Model*

I present sample moments for a specific calibration of my model in order to illustrate that the regression coefficients relating the VIX term structure to future index returns, as described in Section 4, can arise in my relatively simple model. I calibrate the model to data on the S&P 500 by matching the moments listed in Table 1. The unit of time is one month, and I use the VIX term structure as described in Section 4 as a measure of the risk-neutral expected return variation. I show that the calibrated model is capable of generating weak return predictability for a single variance horizon and strong return predictability for multiple variance horizons, with coefficients closely matching those in the data.

The first four moments in Table 1 are the unconditional mean of the one-month VIX and the standard deviations of the VIX at three different horizons. I calculate the unconditional mean VIX level under the statistical measure to match the data, but the model VIX itself is a risk-neutral expectation of future diffusion, as described above. The longer-horizon VIX are less volatile in both the model and the data because volatility mean reverts, meaning that the short-horizon VIX is normally farther from the long-run mean than the long-horizon VIX. The calibrated model matches these four moments fairly well, although the longer horizon VIX are more volatile in the data than the model.

The next two moments are the mean and variance of monthly excess returns. In the model, expected returns and statistical variance are given by equations (11) and (9), respectively. The calibrated model matches the unconditional risk premium quite closely. However, returns in the calibrated model are too volatile under the statistical measure. In the model, there is no difference between statistical and risk-neutral volatility, and so it cannot replicate the dramatic difference between average VIX_1^2 and realized return variance (variance risk premia) observed in the data. If the model were extended to allow correlation between

the SDF and innovations in the volatility states, there would be a positive variance risk premia.

The next moment is the correlation between the one-month VIX and the one-month VIX one month ago, which is determined in the model by the combined persistence of the three different volatility measures. The calibrated model produces a 0.758 correlation, while the correlation in the data is 0.805.

Moments labelled (8)-(12) in Table 1 are regression coefficients from a single regression of the simple excess return $R_{t+1} - R_{f,t}$ on a constant and $VIX_{1,t}$; and a multiple regression of $R_{t+1} - R_{f,t}$ on a constant, $VIX_{1,t}^2$, $VIX_{3,t}^2$, $VIX_{6,t}^2$, and $VIX_{12,t}^2$. The calibrated model matches the weakly positive single regression slope coefficient, as well as the “lightning bolt” shape of the multiple regression coefficients². I match coefficients with only four of the six VIX horizons because, as shown in Theorem 2, any four VIX horizons completely reveals the risk premia in the model, meaning a regression with more than four horizons is not identified.

Table 1 also presents the model parameters used in calibration. In order to match the remarkable volatility in the VIX index observed in my 1996-2010 sample, the spread between high and low parameter values is quite large. For example, the SDF variance is 0.06 in its high state and 0.01 in its low state. The persistence parameters are primarily responsible for the regression coefficients in the multi-VIX regression. A calibration with persistences 0.95 for SDF beta, 0.85 for SDF variance, and 0.55 for unpriced risk produces approximately the regression coefficients observed in the data. A different persistence combination would produce different regression coefficients, but as long as the state variables each have different persistences, the VIX term structure provides incremental return predictability beyond a single VIX horizon.

²The coefficients used in this calibration do not exactly match those in Table 3 because they pertain to regressions with simple returns, rather than log returns, on the left-hand side.

4. Empirical Results

In order to study the relation between conditional variances and risk premia, I need an empirical measure of conditional variance. I use an option-based measure, rather than a forecast from a time-series volatility model, because options markets are able to incorporate all public information about future variances. Time-series volatility models, on the other hand, can only incorporate conditioning variables that are both observable and incorporated into the model, making them inherently backward-looking. The drawback of the option-implied variance measure is that it produces risk-neutral rather than statistical variances, an issue I return to later.

I compute the VIX term structure by replicating the CBOE's VIX calculation³, but with longer horizons than 30 days. The VIX calculation is based on the model-free implied volatility measure originating from Breeden and Litzenberger (1978). Assuming the availability of options at every strike price, the VIX is defined by:

$$\text{VIX}^2 \equiv \frac{2e^{rT}}{T} \left\{ \int_0^{F_t} \frac{1}{K^2} \text{put}_T(K) dK + \int_{F_t}^{\infty} \frac{1}{K^2} \text{call}_T(K) dK \right\} \quad (14)$$

where $\text{put}_T(K)$ and $\text{call}_T(K)$ are the prices at time 0 of puts and calls expiring at time T with strike price K . As shown in Neuberger (1994) and Carr and Madan (1998), if the S&P 500 follows a diffusion process $dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma_t S_t dZ_t$ under the risk-neutral measure, VIX^2 equals the risk-neutral expectation of average future instantaneous variance $\mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[\int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt \right]$.

An alternate option-implied variance measure is the SVIX from Martin (2011), which is defined by:

$$\text{SVIX}^2 \equiv \frac{2e^{rT}}{T} \left\{ \int_0^{F_t} \frac{1}{S_0^2} \text{put}_T(K) dK + \int_{F_t}^{\infty} \frac{1}{S_0^2} \text{call}_T(K) dK \right\} \quad (15)$$

Equation (15) uses the same notation as equation (14) with the addition of S_0 , the price

³See www.cboe.com/micro/vix/vixwhite.pdf for more details.

of the underlying at time 0. Martin (2011) shows that the SVIX measures the risk-neutral variance of simple returns from time 0 to time T , and unlike the VIX its interpretation is robust to the presence of jumps. The $SVIX^2$ and VIX^2 turn out to be very highly correlated in the data, with the VIX^2 exceeding the $SVIX^2$ significantly only during periods of crisis like the fall of 2008. My empirical results employ the widely-followed VIX but are qualitatively identical when using SVIX.

The standard approach to estimating the VIX equation (14) empirically, used by the CBOE to compute the VIX, discretizes the integral at the available strike prices and truncates it at the smallest and largest available strike prices. Jiang and Tian (2005) discusses each as a potential source for estimation error and, using simulated data, conclude that the number of strikes available for S&P 500 index options is sufficient to compute the one-month VIX. However, at longer horizons, options are less liquid and the range of plausible index values is larger. For that reason, Figure 2 presents the numeric integrals used to compute the twelve-month VIX on the first day of my sample, likely to be the worst day/horizon pair in my analysis. The twelve-month VIX is the linear interpolation of the VIX estimates on the two nearest expiration dates in the data, computed as the area under the two curves in Figure 2. While there is clearly some truncation error, especially for the range of strikes above 700, it looks to be only a small percentage of the total area under each curve. Critically, since equation (14) relies heavily on out-of-the-money put options with low K and high $\frac{1}{K^2}$, liquidity in options markets tilts heavily towards exactly these options.

The results in Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011) indicate that past realized volatility, controlling for the forward-looking VIX, negatively predicts future index returns. To examine the incremental predictive power of the VIX term structure, I therefore need to control for realized volatility in my regressions. For a measure of realized volatility, I follow Drechsler and Yaron (2011) and use intraday S&P 500 futures data provided by tickdata.com. More specifically, I compute a time series of five-minute

returns for S&P 500 futures and estimate the variation of log returns from $t - 1$ to t using:

$$\hat{RV} = \sum_{j=1}^n \left[\log \left(R_{t-1+\frac{j}{n}} \right) \right]^2$$

Intraday data at five-minute intervals has the advantage of more accurately estimating return variation than coarser daily data, but has the disadvantage that it requires accurate intraday prices. As discussed in Drechsler and Yaron (2011), the S&P 500 index level can often have stale prices in intraday data because it is the aggregation of 500 different prices, and not traded directly. S&P 500 futures, by contrast, are a single actively-traded asset, making stale prices much less likely.

Using closing option quotes for S&P 500 index options and risk-free rates available from 1996 through 2010 via OptionMetrics, I compute the VIX term structure and a rolling estimate of past one-month return variation at the close of markets each day. Occasionally in my sample period, there were option expiries on the last trading day of the quarter in addition to the normal third Saturday of every month. I remove these observations because they generally did not have nearly the volume or range of strike prices offered by the normal expiration dates. I also remove a handful day/expiration date pairs which appear to have missing data in OptionMetrics, as well as a few individual option prices that are clearly data errors.

Table 2 presents some descriptive statistics for the VIX term structure, including VIX_T^2 for $T = 1, 2, 3, 6, 9,$ and 12 months. These horizons were chosen to represent the approximate times-to-expiration available at any given time for index options. The first thing to note is that, on the median day, the term structure is upwards sloping from $T = 1$ to $T = 6$ and then about flat out until $T = 12$. There is, however, some variability in the shape of the term structure, for example the interquartile range of $\frac{VIX_6^2}{VIX_1^2}$ is 0.95 to 1.31. Finally, the entire VIX term structure tends to be much higher than past realized volatility, though in some rare cases this relation can reverse.

Figure 3 plots the evolution of the term structure over my 1996-2010 sample. The primary thing to notice is that the term structure is downward sloping when VIX_1^2 is particularly high, and upward sloping when VIX_1^2 is particularly low. This suggests that investors assume some mean reversion in volatility will bring it “towards normal” over the next year. Another salient feature of the VIX term structure visible in Figure 3 is that while the different VIX horizons are strongly correlated with one another, there are changes in the exact shape of the term structure beyond its level and slope.

Table 3 illustrates the predictive power of the VIX term structure for future returns. The dependent variable is future S&P 500 index returns, inclusive of dividends, starting at the close of markets one day after the observation of the VIX term structure. The one day gap is important because options markets close 15 minutes later than equity markets. The independent variables are the option-implied variances at different horizons, as measured by VIX_T^2 . These are scaled to be monthly variances in order to match the time period used for the model in Section 3.

Panel A shows that, by itself, the one-month VIX has no predictive power for future one- and three-month returns, statistically insignificant power for future six-month returns, and some predictive power for one-year returns. Adding the full VIX term structure ($VIX_2^2 \dots VIX_{12}^2$) dramatically increases the return predictability, adding 1.99%, 5.16%, 6.60%, and 3.73% in incremental R^2 for the one-, three-, six-, and twelve-month horizons, respectively. I reject the null hypothesis that the five longer horizon VIX all have coefficients equal to zero with p values 0.1%, 0.1%, and 0.4% for the three-, six-, and twelve-month horizons. I cannot reject the null for next-month returns. The intermediate rows, which only include VIX_1^2 , VIX_6^2 , and VIX_{12}^2 , demonstrate that the addition of two longer-horizon VIX provides much, but not all, of the incremental predictive power gained by the VIX term structure.

Panel B repeats the analysis in Panel A but with past realized variance RV (defined above) as an additional regressor. As demonstrated in Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011), the difference between VIX_1^2 and RV predicts future index

returns quite well. However, at all horizons the predictive power of the VIX term structure is incremental to the predictability afforded by VIX_1^2 and RV. I can reject the null hypothesis that the coefficients on VIX_T^2 are all zero for $T \geq 2$ after controlling for VIX_1^2 and RV with p -values of 0.3%, 0.1%, and 0.3% for the three-, six-, and twelve-month horizons. As in Panel A, I cannot reject the null for one-month returns. At all horizons there is also a substantial increase in R^2 upon the addition of the VIX term structure.

Finally, Panel C shows that the VIX term structure predicts returns incrementally to three predictors established in prior research. The first is the dividend yield, measured as the log of the prior year's total market-wide dividends scaled by the current total market capitalization, as in Cochrane (2008). The second is the net payout yield, which is $\log(0.1 + \frac{\text{dividends} + \text{net repurchases}}{\text{market cap}})$, where net repurchases are the total value of share repurchases less share issuances in the prior year, as in Boudoukh et al. (2007). The third and final is the bond risk premia factor from Cochrane and Piazzesi (2005), which predicts equity market returns as well as excess bond returns. The first two measures are available monthly on Michael Roberts' website, and the I generate the third from the code available on John Cochrane's website. The results in Panel C indicate that the VIX term structure predicts returns incrementally to these three extant predictors, with p values of 0.1%, 0.0%, and 0.6% for the three-, six-, and twelve-month horizons and a similar pattern of coefficients to Panel B. Each of the R^2 are much higher in Panel C than Panels A and B, as expected given the high R^2 associated with the net payout yield in Boudoukh et al. (2007).

A natural question is whether results in Table 3 are driven by the use of a risk-neutral, rather than statistical, conditional variance measure. Section 3 argues that risk premia can be inferred from the term structure of statistical (not risk-neutral) variance. The VIX captures both the statistical variance, as desired in the model, and the variance risk premia. I cannot rule out the possibility that the term structure of the variance risk premia (and not the statistical variance) is what predicts returns. However, the variance risk premia models in Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011) predict an

incremental role for return predictability from a single horizon, not the full term structure, of the variance risk premia.

The regressions in Table 3 indicate that something in the VIX term structure reflects time variation in risk premia, however interpreting the regression coefficients is difficult because of the colinearity of the right hand side variables. For this reason, I perform principal components analysis and assess the role of each orthogonal factor in predicting future index returns. Table 4 presents the results. As observed in bond markets, the first three principal components have patterns that can be described as the level, slope, and curvature of the term structure. Also similar to bond markets (see Cochrane and Piazzesi (2005)), I find that a significant portion of return predictability comes from principal components other than the level, slope, and curvature.

The fourth principal component (PC4) provides return predictability consistently across return horizons from one month to twelve months. PC4 has a “lightning bolt” shape, sloping from positive down to negative over the first three expirations, then back to positive at the six-month expiration and sloping down again through the twelve-month expiration. Table 5 shows that the return predictability associated with PC4 is statistically significant even if I remove the financial crisis of 2008-2009 from the sample⁴. Because the level factor was extremely high in late 2008, the relation between the first principal component (“level”) and future returns substantially changes with the removal of the financial crises. The level factor predicts returns more strongly for shorter horizons but less strongly for longer horizons without the financial crisis in the sample.

Figure 4 plots PC4 alongside the fitted next-quarter expected return from the regression in Panel A of Table 3 that includes all six VIX horizons. Each plot is a rolling average over the prior month to facilitate visual interpretation. The figure shows that PC4 is highly correlated with the fitted expected return, indicating that most of the incremental predictive for future returns demonstrated in Table 3 comes from PC4. Moreover, both fitted expected

⁴I remove days in my sample between October 1st, 2008 and July 1st, 2009, approximately the period in which the one-month VIX was extraordinarily high.

returns and the PC4 are quickly mean reverting⁵, suggesting that the VIX term structure captures shorter-run risk premia, for example premia arising from liquidity risk or short-term order imbalances.

Figure 4 also highlights the periods in my sample with abnormally high uncertainty, as defined in Bloom (2009)⁶. Both PC4 and the fitted expected return spiked up at times in my sample intuitively associated with financial market turmoil. For example, the Asian crisis (November 1997), LTCM's collapse (September-October 1998), and the later stages of the recent financial crisis (October 2008-June 2009) were all accompanied by upward moves in the PC4 and fitted expected returns. However, the uncertainty events not pertaining directly to the health of financial markets, the 9/11 terrorist attacks and the defaults of Worldcom and Enron, were not accompanied by spikes in PC4 of fitted expected returns.

Panel B of Tables 4 and 5 show the principal components analysis repeated with past realized volatility as one of the time series. I find that RV fits right into the level factor, loading positively along with all the VIX_T^2 horizons in the first principal component. The second PC reflects the difference between the VIX and RV, loading negatively on RV and positively on the VIX_T^2 for $T \geq 2$, with increasing weight on the longer horizons. This PC is strongly correlated with VIX_1^2 -RV (correlation 76%, result untabulated), and improves upon its return predictability. However, the old fourth principal component remains essentially unchanged in the new fifth principal component, meaning it is orthogonal to the improved VIX_T^2 -RV factor and predicts returns incrementally to it.

As discussed in the Section 3, the incremental predictive power of small differences in the VIX term structure arises from the different factors that compose volatility having different persistences. When the VIX is high it could be that the SDF is particularly volatile, the index has an abnormally high SDF beta, unpriced risk is high, or some combination thereof. By looking at the exact timing of the mean reversion implied by the VIX term structure, an

⁵PC4 has a monthly AR(1) coefficient of 0.39.

⁶I include each period from the list in Bloom (2009) occurring in my sample with the exception of the second Gulf War in 2003, which did not appear to have a big effect on index option markets.

observer can distinguish among these possibilities, and therefore more accurately estimate the equity risk premium.

5. Conclusion

The tradeoff between risk and return is a fundamental concept in finance. However, quoting Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009): “a significant time-invariant expected return-volatility tradeoff type relationship has largely proven elusive.” I argue that even for broad market indices, the expected return-volatility tradeoff is complicated by time variation in the relation between returns and the stochastic discount factor. I show under minimal assumptions that assets with constant SDF beta and constant unpriced risk have a time-invariant linear relation between variance and returns. In a reduced-form model with a state-dependent variance-return relation, I show that the combined information in multiple VIX horizons can distinguish between priced and unpriced risk and, therefore, provide much better estimates of expected returns.

Empirically, I show that the VIX term structure dramatically improves the predictive power of the VIX and the variance risk premium for future S&P 500 returns. Adding the remainder of the VIX term structure to a regression of next-quarter S&P 500 returns on VIX_1^2 and past realized variance increases the adjusted R^2 from 4.8% to 8.9%. In the same regression, I reject the null hypothesis of zero coefficients on the entire VIX term structure with p -value 0.3%. Most of the return predictability comes from the fourth principal component of the term structure, which significantly predicts returns at horizons from one month to one year throughout the 1996-2010 sample period. Collectively, the evidence in this paper indicates that multiple factors, with different prices and persistences, combine to form the volatility of equity returns, and that an observer can distinguish between these factors using the VIX term structure.

Appendix A: Conditional means and variances in prior models

In this appendix, I show that risk premia are an approximately linear function of conditional variance in two popular asset pricing models, Bansal and Yaron (2004) and Campbell and Cochrane (1999).

1.1. Bansal and Yaron (2004)

In the Appendix of Bansal and Yaron (2004), they provide the following expressions for the conditional means and variance of future log returns in their model in (equations (A13) and (A14) in Bansal and Yaron (2004)):

$$\text{var}_t(r_{m,t+1}) = (\beta_{m,e}^2 + \varphi_d^2)\sigma_t^2 + \beta_{m,w}^2\sigma_w^2 \quad (16)$$

$$E_t(r_{m,t+1} - r_{f,t}) = (\beta_{m,e}\lambda_{m,e})\sigma_t^2 + \beta_{m,w}\lambda_{m,w}\sigma_w^2 - 0.5\text{var}_t(r_{m,t+1}) \quad (17)$$

Bansal and Yaron (2004) contains exact definitions and interpretation for each of these parameters, but the important point here is that there is only one variable on the right-hand sides that moves over time: the consumption growth volatility σ_t . Solving (16) for σ_t and then substituting into (17) yields:

$$E_t(r_{m,t+1} - r_{f,t}) = a_0 + a_1\text{var}_t(r_{m,t+1}) \quad (18)$$

$$a_0 \equiv \beta_{m,w}\sigma_w^2 \left(\lambda_{m,w} - \frac{\beta_{m,e}\lambda_{m,e}\beta_{m,w}}{\beta_{m,e}^2 + \varphi_d^2} \right)$$

$$a_1 \equiv \left(\frac{\beta_{m,e}\lambda_{m,e}}{\beta_{m,e}^2 + \varphi_d^2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

1.2. Campbell and Cochrane (1999)

The only state variable in Campbell and Cochrane (1999) is the surplus consumption ratio $(C - X)/C$. Figures 5 and 6 in Campbell and Cochrane (1999), reproduced in Appendix Figure 1, show that the shape of the Sharpe Ratio as a function of surplus consumption is nearly identical to the shape of the conditional standard deviation. Dividing the conditional Sharpe Ratio by the conditional standard deviation yields the ratio of equity risk premia to conditional variance, so the similarity of the plots in Figures 5 and 6 suggest that this ratio is close to constant across states in the Campbell and Cochrane (1999) model.

Appendix Figure 1 shows the relation between conditional variance and risk premia in Campbell and Cochrane (1999) for both the consumption claim and the dividend claim. For both assets, the relation is nearly linear, indicating that equity risk premia are almost perfectly correlated with conditional variance in the model. Note that the dividend claim is to the right of the consumption claim in this plot because of the additional variance in dividend growth that is independent of the SDF, and therefore has no bearing on expected returns.

Appendix Figure 1: Risk premia and variances in Campbell and Cochrane (1999).

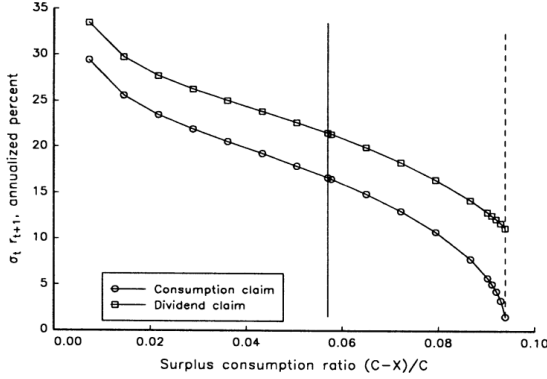


FIG. 5.—Conditional standard deviations of returns as functions of the surplus consumption ratio.

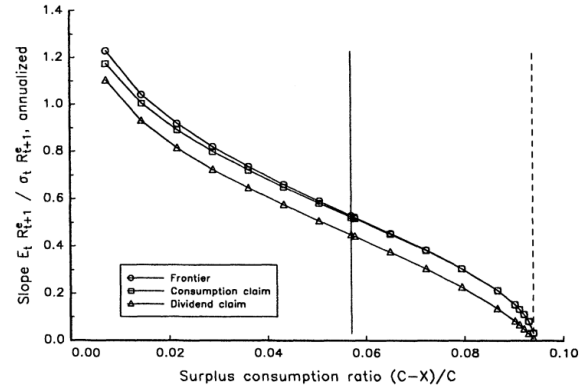
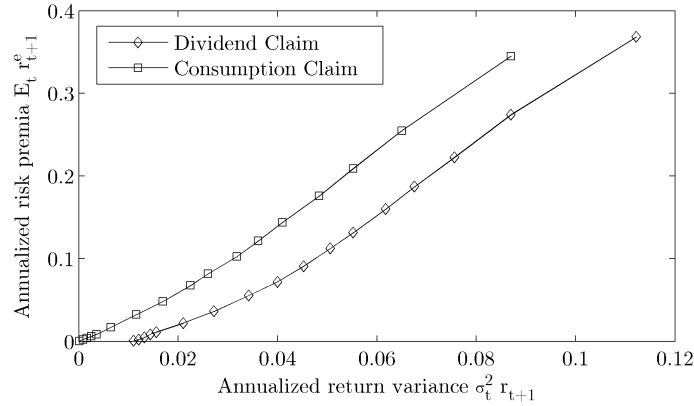


FIG. 6.—Sharpe ratios as functions of the surplus consumption ratio



Appendix B: Details of Proofs

In this section, I provide a more detailed proof of the affine relation between the implied variance term structure and equity risk premia in my model (Theorem 2 in Section 3).

Theorem 2. *If each state variable has a different persistence (ρ_{σ_M} , ρ_β , and ρ_{σ_ϵ} are all different), the equity risk premium is an affine function of the implied variance term structure:*

$$\mu_t - R_f = \beta_t \sigma_{M,t}^2 R_f = A_0 + A_1 IV_{t, \{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}}$$

where $IV_{t, \{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}}$ is a 4×1 vector of implied variances at four different horizons $\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}$ on date t , A_0 is a constant, and A_1 is 1×4 vector of constants.

Proof. Define state vector:

$$z_t = [\sigma_{M,t}^2 \quad \beta_t^2 \quad \sigma_{M,t}^2 \beta_t^2 \quad \sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2]'$$

The equity risk premium $\mu_t - R_f$ is an affine function of the state vector z_t since:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_t - R_f &= \beta_t \sigma_{M,t}^2 R_f \\ &= \left(\frac{\beta_t^2 + \beta_H \beta_L}{\beta_H + \beta_L} \right) \sigma_{M,t}^2 R_f \\ &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{R_f \beta_H \beta_L}{\beta_H + \beta_L} & 0 & \frac{R_f}{\beta_H + \beta_L} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{b_1} z_t\end{aligned}$$

The second line relies on the discreteness of β_t , which implies that $\beta_t = \frac{\beta_t^2 + \beta_H \beta_L}{\beta_H + \beta_L}$. This equation does not hold for continuous β_t . However, Theorem 2 is not an artifact of the discreteness. As discussed in Appendix C, the same result holds in the continuous case but requires 6 horizons of the VIX term structure rather than 4.

The implied variance measure $IV_{t,T}$ is also an affine function of the state vector z_t . Starting from the definition in Equation (12):

$$IV_{t,T} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} E_t^{\mathbb{Q}}(\sigma_{R,t+s}^2)$$

Since the variance states are independent of the SDF and each other, we have that:

$$E_t^{\mathbb{Q}}(\sigma_{R,t+s}^2) = E_t(\beta_{t+s}^2) E_t(\sigma_{M,t+s}^2) + E_t(\sigma_{\epsilon,t+s}^2)$$

Since each state variable is an AR(1), we have:

$$\begin{aligned}E_t(\sigma_{M,t+s}^2) &= \overline{\sigma_M^2} + \rho_{\sigma_M}^s (\sigma_{M,t}^2 - \overline{\sigma_M^2}) \\ E_t(\beta_{t+s}^2) &= \overline{\beta^2} + \rho_{\beta}^s (\beta_t^2 - \overline{\beta^2}) \\ E_t(\sigma_{\epsilon,t+s}^2) &= \overline{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} + \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}^s (\sigma_{\epsilon,t}^2 - \overline{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2})\end{aligned}$$

where $\overline{\sigma_M^2}$, $\overline{\beta^2}$, and $\overline{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}$ are unconditional means. Putting these together yields:

$$\begin{aligned}E_t^{\mathbb{Q}}(\sigma_{R,t+s}^2) &= d_0(s) + d_1(s) z_t \\ d_0(s) &= \overline{\beta^2} (1 - \rho_{\beta}^s) \overline{\sigma_M^2} (1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^s) + \overline{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} (1 - \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}^s) \\ d_1(s) &= \begin{bmatrix} \overline{\beta^2} \rho_{\sigma_M}^s (1 - \rho_{\beta}^s) & \overline{\sigma_M^2} \rho_{\beta}^s (1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^s) & \rho_{\sigma_M}^s \rho_{\beta}^s & \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}^s \end{bmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow IV_{t,T} &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} d_0(s) + \left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} d_1(s) \right) z_t = c_0(T) + c_1(T) z_t\end{aligned}$$

These coefficients can be summed using the geometric series summation $\sum_{s=0}^{T-1} a\rho^s = a\frac{1-\rho^T}{1-\rho}$:

$$c_0(T) = \frac{1}{T} \left(\frac{\beta^2 \sigma_M^2}{\beta^2 \sigma_M^2} \left(1 - \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}} - \frac{1 - \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\beta}} + \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^T \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M} \rho_{\beta}} \right) + \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \left(1 - \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}} \right) \right)$$

$$c_1(T) = \frac{1}{T} \left[\beta^2 \left(\frac{1 - \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\beta}} - \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^T \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M} \rho_{\beta}} \right) \quad \sigma_M^2 \left(\frac{1 - \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\beta}} - \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^T \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M} \rho_{\beta}} \right) \quad \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M}^T \rho_{\beta}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_M} \rho_{\beta}} \quad \frac{1 - \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}^T}{1 - \rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}} \right]$$

The implied variance term structure $IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}}$ is also an affine function of z_t :

$$IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_0(T_1) \\ c_0(T_2) \\ c_0(T_3) \\ c_0(T_4) \end{bmatrix}}_{C_0} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_1(T_1) \\ c_1(T_2) \\ c_1(T_3) \\ c_1(T_4) \end{bmatrix}}_{C_1} z_t$$

As long as the VIX term structure is composed of four different horizons, and the three persistences ρ_{σ_M} , ρ_{β} , and $\rho_{\sigma_{\epsilon}}$ are all different, C_1 is invertible since each column of C_1 changes at a different rate with respect to T , the only thing changing across rows of C_1 . Therefore, the risk premia can be computed from the implied variance term structure as follows:

$$z_t = C_1^{-1} (IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}} - C_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_t - R_f = b_1 C_1^{-1} (IV_{t,\{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4\}} - C_0) \quad (19)$$

□

Appendix C: Continuous version of the model

This appendix contains a continuous-time, continuous-state, analogue to the model in Section 3. The intuition and main results are identical, indicating that the stark discreteness in the main model is not driving any of the results.

The following differential equation governs the stochastic discount factor (SDF) m_t :

$$\frac{dm_t}{m_t} = -r_t dt + \sqrt{v_t^m} dB_t^m \quad (20)$$

where r_t is the risk-free rate process, which I fix at r to keep the focus away from the term structure of interest rates, and $\sqrt{v_t^m}$ is the SDF's diffusion process, which follows the square-root process used in Heston (1993) and Cox, Ingersoll, and Ross (1985):

$$dv_t^m = \kappa_{v_m} (\theta_{v_m} - v_t^m) dt + \sigma_{v_m} \sqrt{v_t^m} dB_t^{v_m} \quad (21)$$

The parameter κ_{v_m} represents the extent of mean reversion in v_t^m , with higher values resulting in more mean reversion and therefore less persistence. The parameters θ_{v_m} and σ_{v_m} allow the unconditional mean and variance of v_t^m to be any non-negative number. The Brownian

motion $B_t^{v_m}$ has correlation $\rho_{v_m, m}$ with the SDF.⁷ In the data, we observe that innovations in the VIX and the equity market have a strong negative correlation (the so-called leverage effect), which suggests a positive correlation $\rho_{v_m, m} > 0$ between innovations in m and v_m .

There is also a traded asset with value S_t , which is also correlated with innovations in m_t , as dictated by the process:

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu_t dt + \sqrt{v_t^R} \left(\rho_{S,t} dB_t^m + \sqrt{1 - \rho_{S,t}^2} dB_t^\epsilon \right) \quad (22)$$

$$= \mu_t dt - \beta_t \sqrt{v_t^m} dB_t^m + \sqrt{v_t^\epsilon} dB_t^\epsilon \quad (23)$$

Where v_t^R is the diffusion of $\log(S_t)$, $\beta_t = -\rho_{s,t} \sqrt{\frac{v_t^R}{v_t^m}}$, and $v_t^\epsilon = v_t^R - \beta_t^2 v_t^m$. I proceed with (23) because it isolates the SDF diffusion $\sqrt{v_t^m}$, which is already specified by Equation (21). Since the returns of procyclical risky assets are negatively correlated with the SDF, ρ_t is negative for these assets and β_t is positive.

Since m_t is a stochastic discount factor, no arbitrage implies that:

$$\mu_t = r + \beta_t v_t^m. \quad (24)$$

The three state variables have the following interpretations: v_t^m is the variance of the SDF, β_t is the SDF beta, and v_t^ϵ the variance of the part of returns orthogonal to the SDF, or unpriced risk. These three quantities are discussed in more detail throughout the paper.

Both β_t and v_t^ϵ also follow square-root processes:

$$d\beta_t = \kappa_\beta (\theta_\beta - \beta_t) dt + \sigma_\beta \sqrt{\beta_t} dB_t^\beta \quad (25)$$

$$dv_t^\epsilon = \kappa_{v_\epsilon} (\theta_{v_\epsilon} - v_t^\epsilon) dt + \sigma_{v_\epsilon} \sqrt{v_t^\epsilon} dB_t^{v_\epsilon} \quad (26)$$

These parallel v_t^m with the exception that they are uncorrelated with the SDF. In reality, innovations in both the SDF beta and unpriced risk could be correlated with the SDF, but by ignoring these correlations I can use the pairwise independence of $(v_t^m, \beta_t, v_t^\epsilon)$ to compute many cross-moments like $E_t(\beta_T^2 v_T)$ that would otherwise be intractable. Additionally, while the correlation between the SDF and volatility generates the leverage effect and volatility risk premium in the model, it has little effect on the incremental value of the volatility term structure in identifying risk premia.

Appendix Table 1 summarizes the ten exogenous parameters and five state variables of the model. Two of the state variables, the SDF level m_t and asset price level S_t , have no impact on the distribution of future log returns. The other three state variables are all stationary and Markov, allowing the computation of both conditional and unconditional moments.

3.1. Risk and Return in the Model

While the marginal investor knows their preferences and the distribution of asset values, and can therefore compute the three volatility states v_t^m , β_t , and v_t^ϵ , I study the problem of an outsider observer that tries to infer the state using traded asset prices. For such an observer,

⁷Formally, $dB_t^{v_m} = \rho_{v_m, m} dB_t^m + \sqrt{1 - \rho_{v_m, m}^2} dB_t^{\epsilon, v_m}$ where B_t^{ϵ, v_m} is an independent Brownian motion.

Appendix Table 1: Summary of Model Notation

State variables		Exogenous Parameters	
m_t	Level of SDF	θ_{v_m}	Mean of v_m
S_t	Level of asset value	θ_β	Mean of β
v_t^m	Price of risk	θ_{v_ϵ}	Mean of v_ϵ
β_t	Quantity of priced risk	κ_{v_m}	Mean reversion of v_m
v_t^ϵ	Quantity of unpriced risk	κ_β	Mean reversion of β
		κ_{v_ϵ}	Mean reversion of v_ϵ
		σ_{v_m}	Volatility of v_m
		σ_β	Volatility of β
		σ_{v_ϵ}	Volatility of v_ϵ
		$\rho_{v_m, m}$	Correlation of v_m and m

the current underlying price S_t reveals nothing about the volatility state. Observing the path of S_t prior to t in enough detail could, hypothetically, reveal the *total* return diffusion $v_t^R = \beta_t^2 v_t^m + v_t^\epsilon$ but could not discriminate between priced and unpriced risks.

As in the text, I assist the observer by assuming there is a variance swap traded on the underlying asset. As shown in Martin (2011) and the references therein, in the absence of jumps the strike of a variance swap $IV_{t,T}$ at time t expiring at time $t + T$ is the risk-neutral expected quadratic variation of $\log(S_T)$, or:

$$IV_{t,T} = E_t^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[\int_t^{t+T} v_s^R ds \right] = \int_t^{t+T} E_t^{\mathbb{Q}} [\beta_s v_s^m + v_s^\epsilon] ds$$

I show that the combined information in $IV_{t,T}$ at many different horizons T can completely reveal the volatility state $(v_t^m, \beta_t, v_t^\epsilon)$, and therefore reveal any time variation in the equity risk premia. Intuitively, the reason is that if the different components of volatility have different persistences, many different volatility states could produce the same $IV_{t,T}$ for a single T , but each volatility state produces a unique shape of the $IV_{t,T}$ term structure. Mathematically, this arises because each $IV_{t,T}$ is an affine function of an augmented state vector Z_t , where Z_t is:

$$Z_t = [v_t^m \quad \beta_t \quad v_t^\epsilon \quad \beta_t^2 \quad \beta_t v_t^m \quad \beta_t^2 v_t^m]'$$

The coefficients in the affine function mapping Z_t to $IV_{t,T}$ vary with T , meaning that with enough different T , $\{IV_{t,T}\}$ can be inverted to reveal Z_t .

More specifically, given $IV_{t,T}$ at six different horizons, I can compute any other affine function of $B \cdot Z_t$ as follows. First, note that $IV_{t,T} = A_0(T) + A_1(T) \cdot Z_t$ for functions

$A_0 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $A_1 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^6$. This implies:

$$\begin{aligned} w_t &= A_0 + A_1 z_t \\ \Rightarrow z_t &= A_1^{-1}(w_t - A_0) \\ \Rightarrow B \cdot z_t &= BA_1^{-1}(w_t - A_0) \end{aligned}$$

where w_t is a 6x1 column vector formed by stacking all six $IV_{t,T}$, A_0 is a 6x1 matrix of all the $A_0(T)$, and A_1 is a 6x6 matrix of all the $A_1(T)$. The conditional moments take the form $C_0 + C_1 Z_t$ for some constant C_0 and vector of constants C_1 . The unconditional moments take the form $C_0 + C_1 E(Z_t)$, where $E(Z_t)$ is the unconditional expected state.

The instantaneous equity risk premium is the drift of the return process, namely $r + \beta_t v_t^m$. Computing the expected simple return of the next T periods is tricky because the stochastic differential equation governing S_t has S_t in both the drift and diffusion terms. However, a simple application of Ito's lemma reveals that:

$$d(\log(S_t)) = (r + \beta_t v_t^m - v_t^R) dt - \beta_t v_t^m dB_t^m + v_t^\epsilon dB_t^\epsilon$$

where $v_t^R = \beta_t^2 v_t^m + v_t^\epsilon$ is the total return diffusion. From this, I compute the expected excess log return:

$$\begin{aligned} E_t \left(\log \left(\frac{S_{t+T}}{S_t} \right) \right) - rT &= E_t (\log(S_{t+T})) - \log(S_t) - rT \\ &= \int_t^{t+T} E_t (\beta_s v_s^m - v_s^R) ds \end{aligned}$$

The log risk premium is the integral of expected future drifts $\beta_s v_s^m - v_s^R$ conditional upon time t information. Like the other moments, the closed form for the expected log return is affine in Z_t .

The critical assumption that makes it possible to compute these moments in closed form is the independence of V_t and β_t . By computing the moments in closed form, as opposed to simulating them, I am able to fit the model as described below.

3.2. Matching Moments

I calibrate the model to data on the S&P 500 by matching the moments listed in Appendix Table 2. The unit of time is one month, and use the VIX term structure as described in Section 4 as a proxy for the risk-neutral expected quadratic variation. I show that the unrestricted model is capable of generating weak return predictability for a single variance horizon and strong return predictability for multiple variance horizons with a single parametrization. However, if one of the three volatility components is restricted to being constant, the incremental predictive power of multiple variance horizons is dramatically reduced.

The first four moments are unconditional means and standard deviations of the VIX at different horizons. These unconditional means are under the statistical measure, so they can match the data, but the model VIX itself is a risk-neutral expectation of future diffusion. The longer-horizon VIX are less volatile because volatility mean reverts, meaning that the

Appendix Table 2: Data and Calibrated Model Moments

	Moment	Empirical	Calibrated Model
(1)	Mean(VIX_1^2)	4.72E-03	4.44E-03
(2)	Std(VIX_1^2)	4.69E-03	4.80E-03
(3)	Std(VIX_6^2)	3.32E-03	3.57E-03
(4)	Std(VIX_{12}^2)	2.87E-03	2.64E-03
(5)	Mean($\log(R_1 - R_f)$)	4.67E-03	4.03E-03
(6)	Var($\log(R_1 - R_f)$)	3.66E-03	4.43E-03
(7)	corr($VIX_{1,t}^2, VIX_{1,t+1}^2$)	0.783	0.866
(8)	Single regression constans	0.005	0.001
(9)	Single regression VIX_1^2 coefficient	0.045	0.627
(10)	Multiple regression constant	-0.007	0.006
(11)	Multiple regression VIX_1^2 coefficient	-11.80	-27.72
(12)	Multiple regression VIX_6^2 coefficient	36.31	39.77
(13)	Multiple regression VIX_{12}^2 coefficient	-22.13	-12.34

short horizon VIX is always farther from the long-run mean than the long horizon VIX. The calibrated model matches these four moments very closely.

The next two moments are the mean and variation of monthly excess log returns. In the model, the instantaneous drift is $\beta_t v_t^m$ but the average one-period return is more complicated because of the mean reversion in both β and v^m . As discussed above, for the S_t process described in Equation (20), the moments of log returns are substantially more tractable than the moments of simple returns. The variation of monthly excess log returns is defined as the statistical-measure analogue of the one period VIX:

$$\text{Var}(R_1) = E \left(\int_0^1 \beta_t^2 v_t^m + v_t^\epsilon dt \right) \quad (27)$$

which can be computed identically to $IV_{t,T}$ but without the adjustment to the drift of v_t^m necessary under the risk-neutral measure.

Log returns in the calibrated model are too volatile under the statistical measure. The model cannot replicate the dramatic difference between average VIX_1^2 and realized return variance observed in the data, and so it winds up with VIX_1^2 slightly too small on average and $\text{Var}(\log(R - R_f))$ much too high. The meager variance risk premia there is in the model comes from the correlation between m_t and v_t^m . The Bollerslev, Tauchen, and Zhou (2009) and Drechsler and Yaron (2011) models that directly address the variance risk premium use a volatility of volatility process or asset price jumps to create a larger variance risk premium.

The seventh moment is the correlation between the 1 month VIX and the 1 month VIX 1 month ago. This moment is determined in the model by the combined persistence of the three different volatility measures. The calibrated model that fits the other moments has slightly too much persistence (or, equivalently, not enough mean version).

Moments (8)-(13) are regression coefficients from a single regression of $\log(R_{t+1}) - \log R_{f,t+1}$

on a constant and $VIX_{1,t}$; and a multiple regression of $\log(R_{t+1}) - \log(R_{f,t+1})$ on a constant, $VIX_{1,t}$, $VIX_{6,t}$, and $VIX_{12,t}$. The calibrated model matches the nearly 0 intercepts, weakly positive single regression slope coefficient, as well as the tent shape of the multiple regression coefficients. However, the single regression slope coefficient is considerably higher in the calibrated model than the data.

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Figure 1: Model Equity Risk Premia and the VIX Term Structure

Figure 1 shows the VIX term structure, and corresponding equity risk premia, in each possible state of the world in my calibrated model. The VIX term structure is presented as an annualized standard deviation. The equity risk premia, presented to the left of each curve, are also annualized. The model and its calibration are described in Section 4 and Table 1.

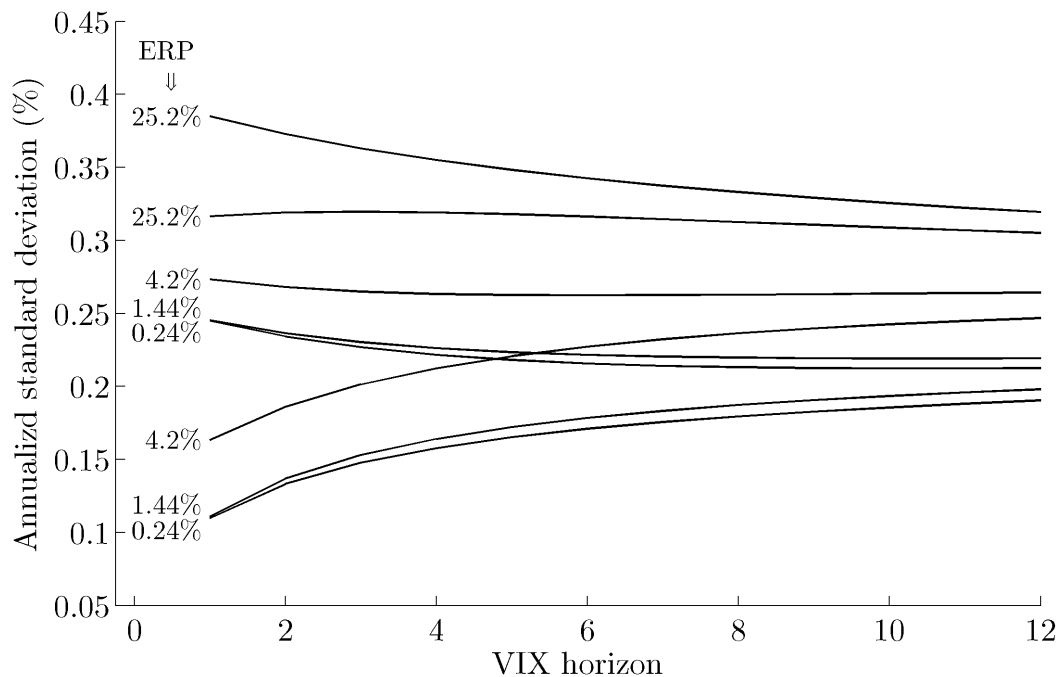


Figure 2: Functions integrated to compute VIX_{12}^2 on January 2nd, 1996.

Figure 2 presents the functions integrated when computing the twelve-month VIX^2 on the first day in my sample, January 2nd, 1996. Each function is the integrand of equation (14) in Section 4 of the paper. As described in the text, these functions are numerically integrated across the range of available strike prices, and interpolated to estimate the twelve-month VIX^2 .

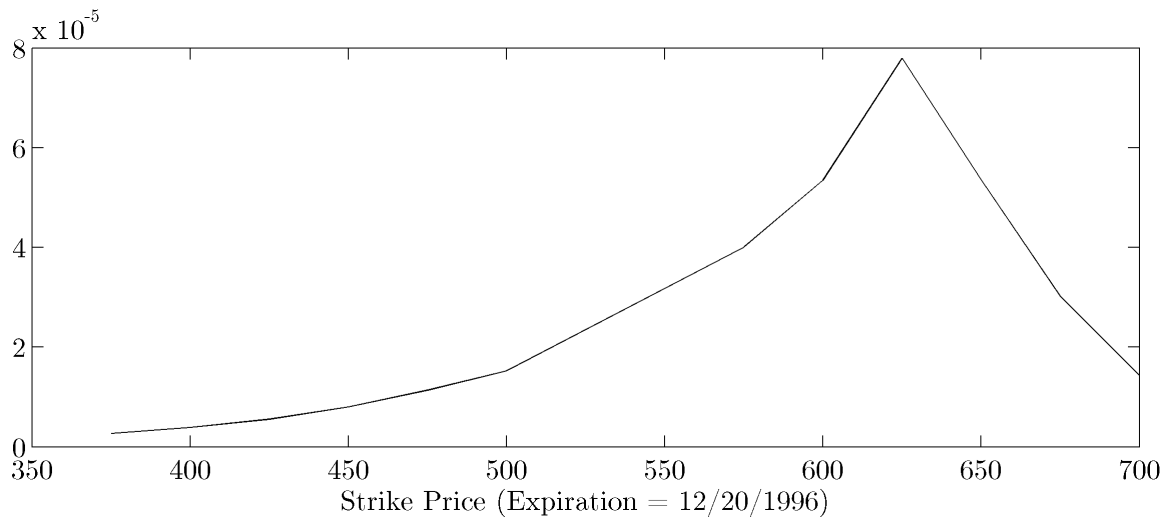
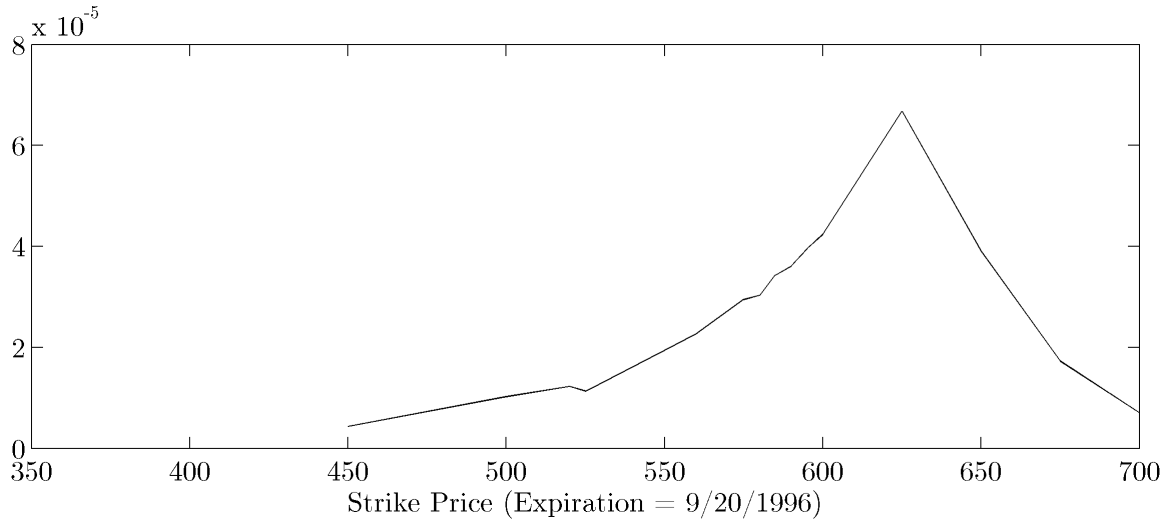


Figure 3: Time Series of the Term Structure

I compute the VIX term structure using the same procedure as the publicized VIX but with longer times-to-expiration than one month. The term structure includes VIX at one-, two-, three-, six-, nine-, and twelve-month horizons, and is computed daily throughout my 1996-2010 sample. This figure presents the rolling average over the prior month to ease visual interpretation.

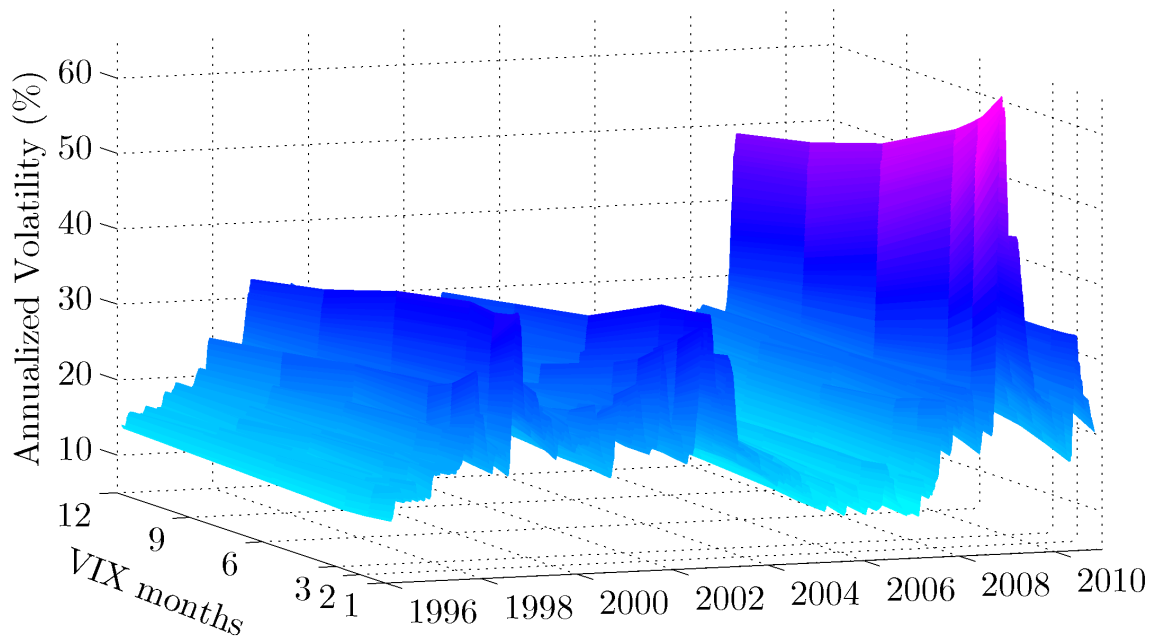


Figure 4: Return predictability factors in the VIX term structure

This figure presents two return-predicting factors that emerge from the VIX term structure. The first is the fourth principal component (PC4) of the term structure as detailed in Table 4, and the second is a fitted value from the regression in Table 3 of realized next-quarter excess log S&P 500 index returns on the six VIX² horizons. Both time series are computed each day in my 1996-2010 sample, then smoothed using the average over the prior month to ease visual interpretation. The shaded areas represent high volatility events identified in Bloom (2009): 1 is the Asian Financial Crisis (Nov 1997), 2 is the LTCM crisis (Sep-Oct 1998), 3 is the September 11th terrorist attacks (Sep 2001), 4 is the Worldcom and Enron bankruptcies (Jul-Oct 2002) and 5 is the recent financial crisis (Oct 2008-Jun 2009).

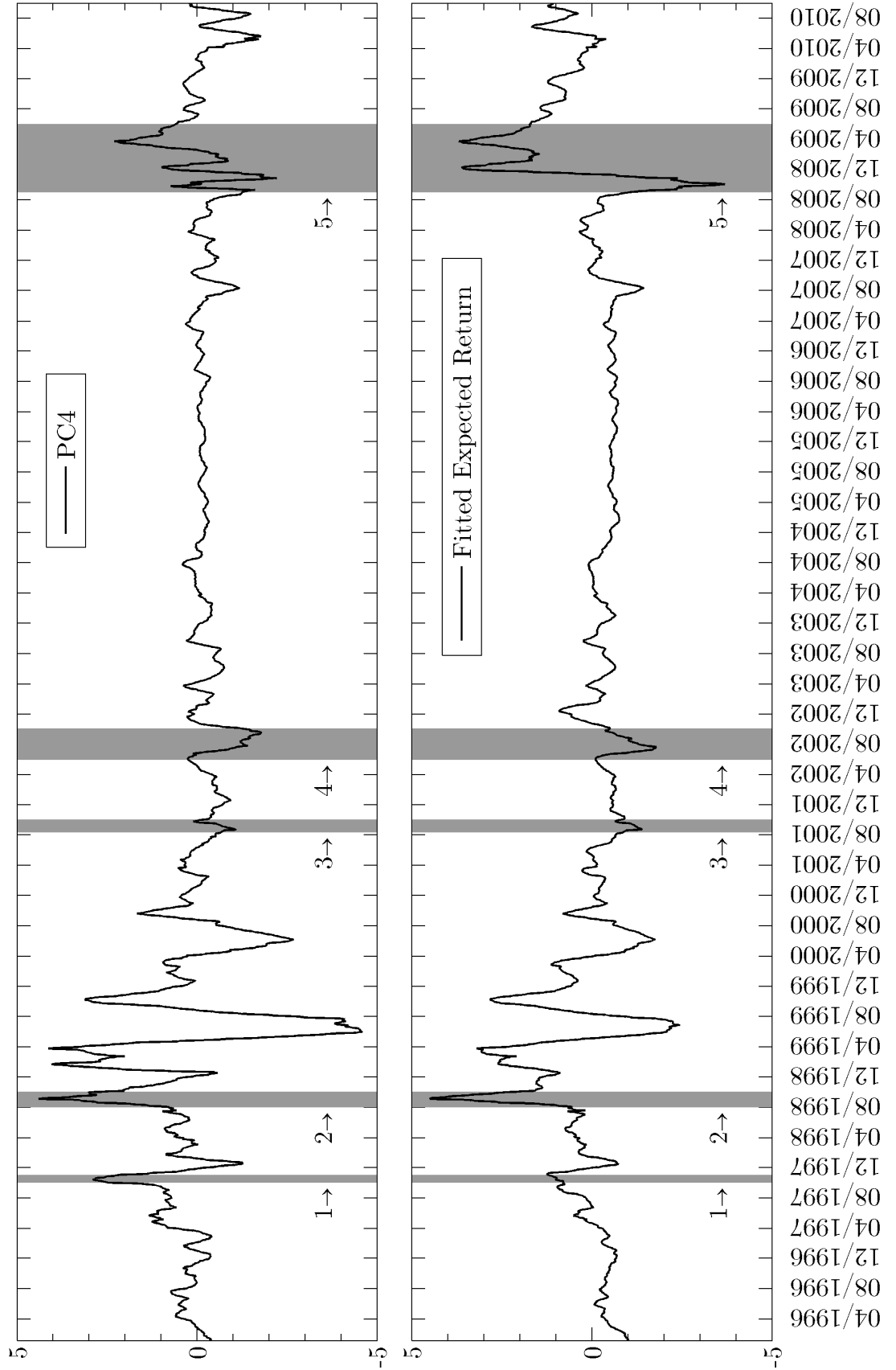


Table 1: Data and Calibrated Model Moments

This table presents model-calibrated and data estimated moments pertaining to the VIX term structure and its relation to the equity risk premia, as well as the model parameters used in calibration. All moments are annualized. The VIX moments are computed in my 1996-2010 sample, while the mean and standard deviation of excess market returns are from a longer 1926-2010 sample. The regression coefficient moments come from two different regressions. The “VIX₁² alone” coefficient comes from a regression of future excess equity returns on the 1-month VIX₁², while the other four coefficients come from a regression of future excess equity returns on one-, three-, six-, and twelve-month VIX². The model parameters, given on the right hand side, are defined in the text.

	Moment	Empirical Model	
(1)	Mean(VIX ₁)	22.12%	23.12%
(2)	Std(VIX ₁)	8.76%	9.15%
(3)	Std(VIX ₆)	7.07%	5.75%
(4)	Std(VIX ₁₂)	6.45%	4.53%
(5)	Mean($R - R_f$)	7.56%	7.77%
(6)	Std($R - R_f$)	18.60%	23.12%
(7)	corr(VIX _{1,t} , VIX _{1,t+1})	0.805	0.758
(8)	VIX ₁ ² alone coefficient	0.540	1.942
(9)	VIX ₁ ² coefficient	-2.10	-3.69
(10)	VIX ₃ ² coefficient	-7.02	-5.75
(11)	VIX ₆ ² coefficient	21.26	29.79
(12)	VIX ₁₂ ² coefficient	-11.45	-18.86

Parameter	Value
β^H	-0.35
β^L	-0.02
$\sigma_{M,H}^2$	0.06
$\sigma_{M,L}^2$	0.01
$\sigma_{\epsilon,H}^2$	0.005
$\sigma_{\epsilon,L}^2$	0.001
ρ_β	0.95
ρ_{V_m}	0.85
ρ_{V_ϵ}	0.55

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Term Structure

I compute the VIX term structure using the same procedure as the publicized VIX but with longer times-to-expiration than one month. For example, VIX_2 is the interpolated two-month model-free implied volatility. RV is a rolling measure of past realized return variance, estimated using intraday S&P 500 futures returns at 5-minute intervals over the prior month. The sample is daily from 1996 through 2010. I each VIX_T to get variances. Below are the time-series percentiles of the VIX term structure, scaled by VIX_1^2 .

	$\frac{RV}{VIX_1^2}$	$\frac{VIX_2^2}{VIX_1^2}$	$\frac{VIX_3^2}{VIX_1^2}$	$\frac{VIX_6^2}{VIX_1^2}$	$\frac{VIX_9^2}{VIX_1^2}$	$\frac{VIX_{12}^2}{VIX_1^2}$
Minimum	0.17	0.66	0.36	0.39	0.30	0.23
5th percentile	0.38	0.87	0.79	0.72	0.64	0.60
25th percentile	0.52	0.98	0.96	0.95	0.91	0.88
Median	0.65	1.04	1.07	1.12	1.10	1.11
75th percentile	0.81	1.10	1.18	1.31	1.35	1.41
95th percentile	1.24	1.20	1.34	1.58	1.70	1.80
Maximum	2.96	1.54	1.73	2.10	2.31	2.69

Table 3: Return Prediction Regressions

The dependent variable in each of these regressions is future S&P 500 index returns for one of four different horizons. Each return period begins 2 days after the regressors are observed to account for the non-synchronous market closing times for options and stocks. The regressors are the variance term structure $VIX_1^2 \dots VIX_{12}^2$ as defined in Table 1, and a constant (not reported). Panel B also includes RV, past realized variance computed using log S&P 500 futures returns at 5-minute intervals over the prior month. Panel C also controls for three other return predictors from the literature: dividend yield, net payout yield, and the Cochrane Piazzesi factor (coefficients not reported). The last two columns show the adjusted R^2 and a χ^2 statistic for the joint significance of the variance term structure. Below the coefficients and χ^2 statistics are p -values. Significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels are denoted by *, **, and ***. The sample is daily from 1996-2010. Standard errors are adjusted using Newey-West with lags equal to one-and-a-half times the return horizon.

Panel A: Without Past Realized Variance								
Return Horizon	VIX_1^2	VIX_2^2	VIX_3^2	VIX_6^2	VIX_9^2	VIX_{12}^2	Adj. R^2	χ^2
1 mo.	0.17 (86.2%)	-	-	-	-	-	0.00%	-
	-4.42 (12.3%)	-	-	15.41* (7.8%)	-	-10.68* (9.8%)	1.50%	3.19 (36.3%)
	1.65 (79.7%)	-9.64 (28.0%)	-2.21 (72.5%)	22.57* (5.7%)	1.28 (89.3%)	-13.01** (3.7%)	1.99%	7.63 (26.6%)
3 mo.	0.55 (83.2%)	-	-	-	-	-	0.06%	-
	-11.83*** (0.1%)	-	-	36.54** (2.9%)	-	-22.32 (13.1%)	4.01%	11.60*** (0.9%)
	3.68 (57.5%)	-25.79*** (0.5%)	-0.61 (94.5%)	38.90* (8.4%)	24.05 (13.0%)	-36.69*** (0.1%)	5.22%	21.85*** (0.1%)
6 mo.	4.04 (10.1%)	-	-	-	-	-	1.94%	-
	-17.59*** (0.0%)	-	-	57.22** (1.3%)	-	-30.56 (20.1%)	7.69%	21.59*** (0.0%)
	2.93 (76.6%)	-34.30** (3.5%)	-1.01 (93.2%)	63.03** (4.8%)	27.72 (22.9%)	-47.83* (6.3%)	8.54%	23.21*** (0.1%)
12 mo.	8.22** (1.2%)	-	-	-	-	-	3.68%	-
	-13.85** (1.4%)	-	-	67.78** (1.0%)	-	-43.19 (16.1%)	6.08%	13.64*** (0.3%)
	-0.57 (97.3%)	-21.11 (49.0%)	7.93 (65.2%)	18.66 (60.3%)	94.45** (1.5%)	-86.38** (3.7%)	7.41%	19.17*** (0.4%)

Table 3: Return Prediction Regressions, continued.

Panel B: With Past Realized Variance									
Return Horizon	RV	VIX ₁ ²	VIX ₂ ²	VIX ₃ ²	VIX ₆ ²	VIX ₉ ²	VIX ₁₂ ²	Adj. R^2	χ^2
1 mo.	-2.88** (1.3%)	3.09** (4.2%)	-	-	-	-	-	1.62%	-
	-2.81*** (0.5%)	-1.21 (62.1%)	-	-	15.57* (7.4%)	-	-11.58* (7.4%)	2.99%	3.27 (19.5%)
	-2.83*** (0.5%)	4.14 (51.7%)	-8.05 (41.4%)	-3.23 (60.8%)	24.62** (4.0%)	-2.08 (82.5%)	-12.38** (4.3%)	3.46%	6.65 (24.8%)
3 mo.	-8.41*** (0.0%)	9.07*** (0.6%)	-	-	-	-	-	4.84%	-
	-7.87*** (0.0%)	-2.85 (45.8%)	-	-	36.97** (2.4%)	-	-24.84* (8.4%)	8.04%	7.24** (2.7%)
	-7.60*** (0.0%)	10.40 (15.4%)	-21.50** (2.5%)	-3.35 (69.2%)	44.43** (4.6%)	15.00 (37.8%)	-35.01*** (0.2%)	8.90%	17.65*** (0.3%)
6 mo.	-9.57*** (0.0%)	13.74*** (0.0%)	-	-	-	-	-	4.60%	-
	-7.98*** (0.0%)	-8.49* (6.1%)	-	-	57.66** (1.2%)	-	-33.11 (16.3%)	9.46%	19.60*** (0.0%)
	-7.63*** (0.0%)	9.67 (30.8%)	-30.00* (7.3%)	-3.76 (75.9%)	68.58** (3.5%)	18.64 (39.3%)	-46.14* (5.9%)	10.12%	20.96*** (0.1%)
12 mo.	-10.70*** (0.5%)	19.06*** (0.1%)	-	-	-	-	-	5.20%	-
	-9.77** (1.2%)	-2.71 (73.5%)	-	-	68.32*** (1.0%)	-	-46.32 (12.8%)	7.28%	10.22*** (0.6%)
	-8.50** (2.2%)	6.94 (64.5%)	-16.32 (60.4%)	4.86 (76.8%)	24.84 (47.6%)	84.34** (2.1%)	-84.50** (3.7%)	8.30%	18.16*** (0.3%)

Table 3: Return Prediction Regressions, continued.

Panel C: With Past Realized Variance, Dividend Yield, Net Payout Yield, and CP Factor									
Return Horizon	RV	VIX ₁ ²	VIX ₂ ²	VIX ₃ ²	VIX ₆ ²	VIX ₉ ²	VIX ₁₂ ²	Adj. R^2	χ^2
1 mo.	-2.95** (1.9%)	2.65* (8.4%)	-	-	-	-	-	3.33%	-
	-3.04*** (0.5%)	-1.10 (66.3%)	-	-	15.52* (6.5%)	-	-13.64** (3.5%)	4.84%	4.80* (9.1%)
	-3.19*** (0.4%)	4.17 (54.9%)	-7.83 (45.8%)	-3.86 (53.9%)	31.47*** (0.8%)	-11.12 (27.0%)	-10.90 (10.9%)	5.70%	8.19 (14.6%)
3 mo.	-8.63*** (0.0%)	7.87** (1.6%)	-	-	-	-	-	10.08%	-
	-8.56*** (0.0%)	-2.34 (56.4%)	-	-	39.34** (2.3%)	-	-30.43** (3.6%)	13.04%	5.36* (6.8%)
	-8.59*** (0.0%)	10.88 (17.4%)	-21.88** (2.7%)	-4.46 (63.3%)	61.15*** (0.3%)	-7.20 (69.6%)	-31.49** (1.2%)	14.02%	21.42*** (0.1%)
6 mo.	-9.87*** (0.0%)	11.18*** (0.2%)	-	-	-	-	-	13.73%	-
	-9.11*** (0.0%)	-7.82* (9.4%)	-	-	62.61** (1.3%)	-	-43.98* (8.2%)	17.35%	17.62*** (0.0%)
	-9.38*** (0.0%)	10.25 (29.5%)	-30.65** (2.2%)	-6.15 (53.5%)	102.26*** (0.2%)	-25.56 (31.1%)	-39.05 (11.3%)	18.40%	36.49*** (0.0%)
12 mo.	-8.53** (2.3%)	12.47** (4.6%)	-	-	-	-	-	21.90%	-
	-9.10*** (0.6%)	-6.00 (27.3%)	-	-	83.36*** (0.8%)	-	-69.55** (3.9%)	24.54%	10.08*** (0.7%)
	-9.15** (0.6%)	6.05 (66.6%)	-22.14 (39.6%)	-0.23 (98.7%)	102.84*** (0.8%)	-9.50 (73.8%)	-68.93* (6.3%)	24.65%	16.50*** (0.6%)

Table 4: Principal Components (Full Sample)

Panel A presents principal components analysis for the VIX term structure without past realized variance, Panel B with past realized variance RV . The first block of both panels shows the coefficients defining each principal component. The second block gives the fraction of term structure variance explained by each principal component. The remaining blocks shows the coefficients, p -values, and incremental R^2 from standardized regressions of future index returns on the principal components at different horizons. The sample is daily from 1996 through 2010. Standard errors are adjusted using Newey-West with lags equal to one-and-a-half times the return horizon.

Panel A: Without past realized volatility						
	“Level”	“Slope”	“Curve”			
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5	PC6
VIX_1^2	0.51	0.60	-0.53	0.07	-0.27	-0.15
VIX_2^2	0.47	0.24	0.25	-0.11	0.75	0.30
VIX_3^2	0.43	0.00	0.67	-0.34	-0.43	-0.26
VIX_6^2	0.37	-0.30	0.09	0.61	-0.30	0.55
VIX_9^2	0.33	-0.44	-0.10	0.37	0.30	-0.68
VIX_{12}^2	0.30	-0.54	-0.44	-0.60	-0.05	0.22
% of var:	95.47%	4.09%	0.25%	0.08%	0.06%	0.05%
Next Month’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.03	-0.05	0.03	0.12**	-0.05	0.02
p -value	(70.3%)	(45.1%)	(68.1%)	(1.3%)	(20.9%)	(64.4%)
Adj. R^2	0.1%	0.3%	0.1%	1.4%	0.3%	0.1%
Next Quarter’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.06	-0.13**	0.05	0.17***	-0.06*	-0.03
p -value	(55.4%)	(4.7%)	(47.9%)	(0.1%)	(8.3%)	(60.5%)
Adj. R^2	0.4%	1.7%	0.2%	2.7%	0.3%	0.1%
Next Six Month’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.18***	-0.16*	0.05	0.15**	-0.06*	-0.01
p -value	(0.9%)	(5.2%)	(40.3%)	(2.4%)	(5.5%)	(85.5%)
Adj. R^2	3.4%	2.5%	0.2%	2.3%	0.3%	0.0%
Next Year’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.21**	-0.05	0.07	0.12*	0.01	-0.08**
p -value	(2.5%)	(57.9%)	(16.4%)	(7.3%)	(81.1%)	(3.3%)
Adj. R^2	4.6%	0.3%	0.5%	1.5%	0.0%	0.6%

Table 4: Principal Components, continued.

Panel B: With past realized volatility							
	“Level”	“BTZ”	“Slope B”	“Curve”			
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5	PC6	PC7
RV	0.48	-0.74	-0.46	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01
VIX ₁ ²	0.46	-0.10	0.62	0.55	0.07	0.27	0.13
VIX ₂ ²	0.41	0.07	0.32	-0.24	-0.11	-0.75	-0.30
VIX ₃ ²	0.38	0.19	0.13	-0.66	-0.34	0.43	0.26
VIX ₆ ²	0.32	0.31	-0.17	-0.10	0.61	0.30	-0.56
VIX ₉ ²	0.28	0.37	-0.29	0.10	0.37	-0.29	0.69
VIX ₁₂ ²	0.26	0.40	-0.41	0.43	-0.60	0.04	-0.22
% of var:	91.23%	6.80%	1.65%	0.19%	0.06%	0.04%	0.03%
Next Month’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.01	0.12	0.06	-0.01	0.12**	0.05	-0.04
<i>p</i> -value	(87.6%)	(11.9%)	(12.8%)	(81.7%)	(1.5%)	(22.0%)	(44.1%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.0%	1.4%	0.4%	0.0%	1.4%	0.3%	0.2%
Next Quarter’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.03	0.23***	0.07	-0.03	0.16***	0.06*	0.00
<i>p</i> -value	(70.2%)	(0.0%)	(14.1%)	(69.1%)	(0.0%)	(5.3%)	(99.7%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.1%	5.3%	0.6%	0.1%	2.7%	0.4%	0.0%
Next Six Month’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.16**	0.22***	0.01	-0.03	0.15**	0.06**	-0.01
<i>p</i> -value	(1.3%)	(0.1%)	(86.6%)	(54.0%)	(2.1%)	(3.9%)	(82.8%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	2.4%	5.1%	0.0%	0.1%	2.3%	0.3%	0.0%
Next Year’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.20**	0.14*	0.06	-0.06	0.12*	0.00	0.07*
<i>p</i> -value	(3.9%)	(9.1%)	(41.6%)	(21.4%)	(7.0%)	(88.2%)	(5.0%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	3.8%	2.0%	0.4%	0.3%	1.6%	0.0%	0.4%

Table 5: Principal Components (No 2008-2009 Financial Crisis)

Panel A presents principal components analysis for the VIX term structure without past realized variance, Panel B with past realized variance RV . The first block of both panels shows the coefficients defining each principal component. The second block gives the fraction of term structure variance explained by each principal component. The remaining blocks shows the coefficients, p -values, and incremental R^2 from standardized regressions of future index returns on the principal components at different horizons. The sample is daily from 1996 through 2010, excluding the October 2008-June 2009 period of market turmoil. Standard errors are adjusted using Newey-West with lags equal to one-and-a-half times the return horizon.

Panel A: Without past realized volatility						
	“Level”	“Slope”	“Curve”			
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5	PC6
VIX_1^2	0.51	0.60	-0.53	0.07	-0.27	-0.15
VIX_2^2	0.47	0.24	0.25	-0.11	0.75	0.30
VIX_3^2	0.43	0.00	0.67	-0.34	-0.43	-0.26
VIX_6^2	0.37	-0.30	0.09	0.61	-0.30	0.55
VIX_9^2	0.33	-0.44	-0.10	0.37	0.30	-0.68
VIX_{12}^2	0.30	-0.54	-0.44	-0.60	-0.05	0.22
% of var:	95.47%	4.09%	0.25%	0.08%	0.06%	0.05%
Next Month’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.09	-0.01	0.04	0.11**	-0.01	0.04
p -value	(22.5%)	(87.2%)	(64.4%)	(3.8%)	(73.8%)	(52.7%)
Adj. R^2	0.9%	0.0%	0.1%	1.4%	0.1%	0.1%
Next Quarter’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.13*	-0.05	0.10	0.15***	-0.02	-0.01
p -value	(9.2%)	(58.9%)	(12.5%)	(0.5%)	(49.9%)	(79.0%)
Adj. R^2	2.3%	0.1%	0.7%	2.3%	0.2%	0.0%
Next Six Month’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.07	-0.09	0.05	0.15*	-0.06	0.00
p -value	(42.6%)	(35.0%)	(39.3%)	(5.9%)	(11.1%)	(95.1%)
Adj. R^2	1.2%	0.6%	0.1%	2.1%	0.4%	0.0%
Next Year’s Return Regressions:						
Coeff	0.01	-0.04	0.08	0.12	-0.01	-0.07
p -value	(95.7%)	(71.5%)	(13.3%)	(11.2%)	(80.0%)	(14.4%)
Adj. R^2	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	1.4%	0.0%	0.5%

Table 5: Principal Components (no 2008), continued.

Panel B: With past realized volatility							
	“Level”	“BTZ”	“Slope B”	“Curve”			
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5	PC6	PC7
VOL ²	0.48	-0.74	-0.46	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01
VIX ₁ ²	0.46	-0.10	0.62	0.55	0.07	0.27	0.13
VIX ₂ ²	0.41	0.07	0.32	-0.24	-0.11	-0.75	-0.30
VIX ₃ ²	0.38	0.19	0.13	-0.66	-0.34	0.43	0.26
VIX ₆ ²	0.32	0.31	-0.17	-0.10	0.61	0.30	-0.56
VIX ₉ ²	0.28	0.37	-0.29	0.10	0.37	-0.29	0.69
VIX ₁₂ ²	0.26	0.40	-0.41	0.43	-0.60	0.04	-0.22
% of var:	91.23%	6.80%	1.65%	0.19%	0.06%	0.04%	0.03%
Next Month’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.05	-0.08	0.05	-0.03	0.11**	0.02	-0.05
<i>p</i> -value	(57.4%)	(40.8%)	(25.0%)	(68.7%)	(3.8%)	(70.5%)	(44.2%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.8%	0.5%	0.3%	0.1%	1.4%	0.1%	0.02%
Next Quarter’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.06	0.17**	0.10	-0.08	0.15***	0.03	-0.01
<i>p</i> -value	(50.4%)	(4.8%)	(11.6%)	(16.0%)	(0.0%)	(40.2%)	(88.3%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	1.7%	2.2%	1.0%	0.5%	2.3%	0.2%	0.0%
Next Six Month’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	0.01	0.18**	0.05	-0.04	0.15**	0.06*	-0.02
<i>p</i> -value	(93.3%)	(3.0%)	(49.0%)	(46.0%)	(4.7%)	(5.8%)	(62.7%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.8%	2.3%	0.2%	0.0%	2.1%	0.5%	0.0%
Next Year’s Return Regressions:							
Coeff	-0.07	0.16*	0.11	-0.06	0.12*	0.02	0.04
<i>p</i> -value	(63.1%)	(6.9%)	(22.7%)	(22.1%)	(9.0%)	(65.8%)	(32.0%)
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.0%	1.1%	1.2%	0.4%	1.4%	0.0%	0.3%