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Jaime Casassus, Freddy Higuera.

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Jaime Casassus

Pontificia Universidad Catolica de Chile

Freddy Higuera

Universidad Catolica del Norte

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PRELIMINARY VERSION

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Abstract

We build an equilibrium model to disentangle industry-specific from business cycle effects of oil on stock returns. We consider oil as an input factor for production and also as a macro variable. We estimate the model for 13 industries, including the oil industry. Our results suggest that the value of all non-oil industries decreases with an oil price shock. This result is explained by the effect of oil on the price-dividend ratios of the industries, in particular, by the significant negative effect of oil on their growth opportunities. The high persistence of the real oil price shocks makes these effects to be long-lived. The effect of oil on the current cash-flows is negative but small. This explains why the oil price shocks can produce such a significant effects on the US financial market despite the low US economy's oil intensity. The conditional expected portfolio returns decrease with the oil price because of the negative effect of oil on the market price of risk and interest rates. Moreover, industries with higher systematic risk have expected returns that are more affected by the oil price. We find that most of the systematic risk of the firms is explained by their output rather than by effect of oil on the cash-flows.

Keywords: Oil price, business cycle, asset pricing, time-varying risk premia, industry stock returns, conditional CAPM.

JEL Classification: Q43, E44, D24, D92, G12.

1 Introduction

There is a strong linkage between the oil price and the business cycle. For example, Hamilton (2008) documents that nine out of the last ten recessions in the United States were preceded by an increase in oil prices. Furthermore, a recent but meaningful fact, is that the business cycle plays a crucial role in determining the equity risk premia (e.g., Lettau and Ludvigson, 2001a; Cooper and Priestley, 2009). We combine both stylized facts in addition to the fact that oil is an important factor for production, to study the relationship between oil prices and stock returns. In particular, we present a model with multiple transmission channels from the oil price to the firm that allows us to quantify the effect of each mechanism for different industry portfolios.

The effect of an oil shock on a firm may be decomposed into three categories depending on the level at which it works: business cycle, sectoral and individual levels. At the macro level, if oil is a good predictor for the business cycle, it should have some forecasting power for equity returns. Indeed, the empirical work of Casassus and Higuera (2011) tests this hypothesis and finds that the stock market excess returns are significantly affected by oil price changes. Bakshi, Panayotov, and Skoulakis (2011) finds a similar result using as a predictor the Baltic Dry Index, a shipping activity variable that is tied to economic activity and to energy prices. Also, a significant oil shock generally produces inflationary pressures, which generates shifts in the inflation expectations of the agents and contractionary monetary policies. Therefore, oil price increases could have an important impact on the financing cost of the firm (i.e., on the interest rates), which can cause significant reductions in the firm's growth opportunities and present value of its cash flows.

The sectoral effect of an oil shock operates through changes in the output demand and in the prices of raw materials and input factors, such as labor. These mechanisms vary across the different economic sectors. For example, firms in a durable sector experience important reductions in their demands with an oil shock, whereas firms in other sectors may face even positive demand shocks (e.g., precious metals industry, according to Kilian and Park, 2009). Also, the effect of oil on the employment rate is increasing in the intensity of capital utilization, energy intensity and product durability (e.g., Davis and Haltiwanger, 2001). Moreover, since oil is itself an input factor for most firms, potential substitution effects in the productive processes will cause the prices of other inputs to be affected.

At an individual level, if the impact of an oil shock depends on the firm's decisions, then the capacity to absorb these shocks becomes relevant. For example, oil price shocks can trigger firms' decisions related to energy efficiency, which have long run effects and can also influence the growth opportunities of the firms. Both the sectoral and individual effects determine the impact of oil on variables such as the firm's production costs, sales revenues, cash flows, dividends and growth opportunities. The interaction of these effects with the macroeconomic ones determines the final

impact of oil on the firm's value. Finally, it is difficult to know a priori whether or not these oil price impacts on stock returns are purely systematic, i.e. priced by the agents in the economy. Some of the above-mentioned effects could impact the expected stock returns while others could simply be part of the idiosyncratic risk component.

We propose an equilibrium asset-pricing model that allows us to disentangle and quantify both industry-specific from business cycle impacts of the oil shocks on the stock price. The price of oil follows an exogenous stochastic process. For convenience, an exogenous pricing kernel is assumed to incorporate the macroeconomic effects of the oil price shocks in a simple way. In particular, we allow both the real risk-free interest rate and the market risk premium to be a function of the oil price. The industry-specific effects of the oil price acts through the current and future cash flows of the firm. Each industry is represented by a production technology that uses oil as an input factor. The effect of oil on the sales revenues depends on the oil elasticity of output (i.e., the oil intensity). To consider the effect of oil on the growth opportunities of the firm we assume that the expected sales growth rate depends on the oil price. The traditional supply-side transmission mechanism of the oil shocks is also considered by including the firm's oil expenditure in the production costs. Furthermore, a demand-side transmission channel of the oil shocks is included by assuming that the sales growth rate and the oil price can be correlated.

Based on the intuition from the Gordon model (i.e., Gordon, 1959), we analyze the effect of oil of each industry portfolio by studying its effect on the current dividend, on the dividend growth rate and on the expected return of the portfolio. We also study the impact of oil on the price and price-dividend ratio and realized returns of the portfolios. To quantify these effects we present the oil price elasticities for each of these components. The relationship between oil prices and expected returns depends on: 1) the sensitivity of the real interest rate to the oil price, 2) the sensitivity of the market risk premium to the oil price and 3) quantity of systematic risk (i.e., the CAPM beta of the industry). The first two components affect all stocks in a similar way; however, the latter depends on industry-specific characteristics, such as the oil intensity of the firm's cash flows. The model provides closed-form expressions for the firm's optimal dividend and the dividend growth rate, however, a log-linearization is needed to obtain the price-dividend ratio of the portfolios.

We estimate the model with maximum likelihood using Kenneth French's industry portfolios returns from April 1983 to December 2010, along with market returns, crude oil prices and risk-free rates. According to our estimates, an oil price increase of 10% reduces on average the value of the non-oil industry portfolios by 1.8%, and increases the value of the oil industry portfolio by 1.5%. The result for the non-oil portfolios is explained because the average negative effect of a 10% rise of the oil price on the expected dividend growth rates (-1.1%) dominates the negative effect on the expected return (-0.8%). Consistent with the low oil intensities observed in the data, we find that the average effect of oil on the current dividend is negative but less economically

significant (-0.4%). These results combined with the high-persistence of the oil shocks may explain why oil produces such a significant effect on the US financial market despite its low intensity in the economy.

With respect to the expected portfolio returns, our estimates suggest that both the real interest rate and the market risk premium are negatively affected by the oil price, therefore both macroeconomic transmission channels work in the same direction. This explains the aggregate negative effect of oil on the conditional returns of the non-oil industries. We also find that industries with more systematic risk are have a higher oil price elasticity of the expected returns. In our model the market beta of the industry is a linear combination of the oil market beta, the industry output market beta the market beta of another macro variable related to the interest rates. We find that oil increases the portfolio's systematic risk, because both the oil market beta and its weight in the portfolio's beta are negative. Conversely, for the oil industry this effect of oil act in an opposite directions because its weight for oil price's market beta is positive.

Overall, the most relevant transmission channel are the macroeconomic ones for all industry portfolios. In particular, a time-varying market risk premium due to oil price changes, is the most influential effect of oil price changes on expected returns. On the other side, the idiosyncratic effects of oil price shocks on industry portfolio returns are negative for most industries.

The rest structure of the paper is as follows. The following section reviews the related literature. Section 3 presents the partial equilibrium model and its basic implications. Section 4 proposes an approximate solution for our model and shows the main theoretical results and predictions of our model. Section 5 contains the empirical methodology and aspects related to the estimation of model. Section 6 presents the oil price elasticities and Section 7 analyzes the industry portfolio returns. Finally, Section 8 concludes.

2 Related literature

Our paper is motivated by a large literature that relates the oil price with both the business-cycle and the financial markets. The former became a mainstream topic with the empirical work of Hamilton (1983) that shows that the oil price changes strongly Granger-cause the GNP growth rate and the unemployment rate in the United States. He uses a bivariate vector autoregression approach (VAR) and Sims's (1980) six-variable VAR with quarterly data from 1948 to 1980, and finds that an oil price increase is followed by four successive quarters of lower real GNP growth rates.¹ The most common transmission channels of the oil shocks to the real economy are: inflation, terms of trade (Huntington, 2007) and the utilization rate of capital (Finn, 2000).

¹ Jones, Leiby, and Paik (2004) provide a recent survey of this literature.

Subsequent studies note that this relationship weakens when data after 1980 is included, a period that coincides with the loss of market control by the OPEC (e.g., Mork, 1989; Lee, Ni, and Ratti, 1995; Hooker, 1996). This turned attention to possible non-linear relationships between the variables. Some economic mechanisms that can generate an asymmetric impact of an oil price shock are: the monetary policy (Ferderer, 1996; Bernanke, Gertler, and Watson, 1997; Hamilton and Herrera, 2004; Balke, Brown, and Yucel, 2002; Leduc and Sill, 2004), imperfect intersectoral mobility of factors (Lee and Ni, 2002; Lilien, 1982; Hamilton, 1988; Davis and Haltiwanger, 2001), irreversibility of investment (Bernanke, 1983; Dhawan and Jeske, 2008), salary rigidities (Lee, Ni, and Ratti, 1995) and interest rates (Balke, Brown, and Yucel, 2002). Kliesen (2008) obtains a significant economic impact of oil in an extended regression that includes the Chicago Fed National Activity Index (CFNAI), which is the first principal component of 85 monthly indicators of real economic activity.

Recently, Kilian (2009) proposes a novel methodology which allows to identify and disentangle demand from supply shocks in the global crude oil market. He finds that oil price shocks have been driven mainly by demand shocks (shocks to global aggregate demand and shocks to precautionary demand), rather than by oil supply shocks. Oil supply disruptions cause only temporary declines in real GDP and have a non-significant effect on prices. Also, positive aggregate demand shocks tend to raise prices and initially have a positive net effect on the economy; however they become recessionary after a while. Lastly, positive precautionary demand shocks lower real GDP and raise consumer prices. On the contrary, Kilian (2008) reports strong evidence that the exogenous supply shocks (although not all of them) did cause a significant impact on the GDP growth of G-7 countries. The empirical evidence strongly supports the existence of an economically and statistically significant linkage between oil price shocks and the business cycle.

Contrary to what happens on the macro side, the relationship between the oil shocks and the financial markets has received much less attention. Jones and Kaul (1996) find that the oil price shocks produce a significant and rational effect in the stock markets in the United States and Canada, but evidence of overreaction is found for United Kingdom and Japan. Huang, Masulis, and Stoll (1996) test for Granger-causality from oil futures returns to stock returns and find a significant relation only for oil companies. Using a VAR model with oil price shocks and US stock returns, Sadorsky (1999) finds that oil shocks affect market returns, but not the other way around. On the theoretical side, Wei (2003) builds a general equilibrium model to analyze the impact of an oil price shock on the firm's value, which faces the problem of irreversible investment. Nevertheless, his model predicts a little impact of an oil shock and it is not able to explain the massive market decline in 1974. In a related contemporaneous work, Chiang, Hughen, and Sagi (2012) use crude oil futures and oil-related stock returns to estimate a reduced form model for crude oil prices. They show the oil factors extracted from oil-related data contain relevant information for explaining stock returns.

In a recent study, Driesprong, Jacobsen, and Maat (2008) find that oil price changes have a significant forecasting power for the stock market returns of developed countries, although this conclusion is not so strong for emerging markets. They argue that the origin of this predictability is caused by an initial underestimation of the impacts of oil price shocks by agents (underreaction to oil price changes is less pronounced in oil-related sectors), which then it is slowly corrected over time. Park and Ratti (2008) report evidence that oil price shocks have a significant negative impact on real stock returns of net importer countries. They find that positive oil price shocks are followed by short interest rate increases in almost all countries in the sample, including the US. Moreover, when linear oil price shocks are assumed, they find no evidence of asymmetry in the impacts of positive and negative oil price shocks. Kilian and Park (2009) apply the methodology of Kilian (2009) to evaluate the impact of the resulting oil shocks on US real stock returns. Their results show that supply, global aggregate demand and precautionary demand shocks account for 6%, 5% and 11% of the long run variation in real market stock returns, respectively. Furthermore, sectoral level evidence suggests that oil market shocks are transmitted to the economy as demand-side shocks rather than through production costs, as is commonly believed. Apergis and Miller (2009) employ a slightly different methodology to do the same decomposition of oil shocks as in Kilian (2009), but for a sample of G-7 countries and Australia. In contrast to the findings in Kilian and Park (2009), they conclude that oil shocks have a negligible, although significant statistically, economic impact on the stock returns.

Most of the studies mentioned above use aggregate data, therefore can only account for the macroeconomic effects of the oil shocks on the financial markets. One of the few exceptions is Kilian and Park's (2009) who reveal that the sensitivities of the macro effects of oil vary considerably across industries. It is very important to use disaggregated data to better understand the relationship between the oil price and the financial market and to study how the macroeconomic and sectoral effects of oil interact to produce the response observed in data.

3 The model

This section presents an asset-pricing model with an infinite-horizon manufacturing firm that is a price taker in the oil market and maximizes the present value of its cash flows. The model considers both an exogenous pricing kernel and an exogenous oil price process. These features allows us to impose directly the macroeconomic and industry-specific relationships between the oil price and the firm discussed in the previous sections.

3.1 The stock price

We develop the model for a representative firm in a real economy that uses oil to produce an output good. Let the stock price of firm i , P_t^i , be the present value of the cash flows generated by the firm:

$$P_t^i = \sup_{\{q_u^i \in \Psi\}} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\int_t^\infty \frac{\Lambda_u}{\Lambda_t} D^i(q_u^i) du \right] \quad (1)$$

where Λ_u is the pricing kernel or stochastic discount factor and $D^i(q_u^i)$ is the firm's cash flow that depends on the demand for oil for production purposes, q_u^i .

3.2 Pricing kernel dynamics

The stochastic discount factor follows the standard equilibrium dynamics:

$$\frac{d\Lambda_t}{\Lambda_t} = -r_t^f dt - \lambda_t dZ_{\Lambda,t} \quad (2)$$

where r_t^f is the real risk-free interest rate, λ_t is the market price of risk and $Z_{\Lambda,t}$ is a standard Brownian motion that captures the systematic risk in the economy.

The real interest rate is assumed to be a function of the real oil price, S_t , and a latent variable, y_t , that captures other macro effects not related to the oil price:

$$r_t^f = \alpha_0 + \alpha_S \log(S_t) + \alpha_y y_t \quad (3)$$

The dependence of the real interest rate on the oil price occurs because oil can affect both the inflation rate and the nominal interest rate. These effects can act in opposite directions if the monetary authority follows a contractionary policy that reacts to inflationary pressures caused by an increase in the oil price.²

We assume that the market price of risk is also an affine function of the state variables:

$$\lambda_t = \theta_0 + \theta_S \log(S_t) + \theta_y y_t \quad (4)$$

Here θ_S represents the effect of oil on the market price of risk, a transmission channel that is consistent with recent empirical studies that document that energy-related variables have a significant forecasting power for market excess returns.³ Moreover, we expect a negative θ_S consistent with the negative annual cumulative impact of oil price shocks on equity risk premium

² See Bernanke, Gertler, and Watson (1997), Hamilton and Herrera (2004) and Leduc and Sill (2004) for a discussion about monetary policy and the oil price.

³ See for example, Casassus and Higuera (2011) and Bakshi, Panayotov, and Skoulakis (2011).

of 2.1% reported by Casassus and Higuera (2011). We also allow that other macro variables that affect the interest rates may also affect the market price of risk.

Our setting can be interpreted also as a conditional Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) that considers the oil price and the latent variable y_t as conditioning variables (see Cochrane, 2005).⁴

3.3 State variable dynamics

We assume that the real oil price follows a one-factor mean-reverting process as in Model 1 of Schwartz (1997):⁵

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \kappa_S(\bar{s} - \log(S_t))dt + \sigma_S \left(\rho_S dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2} dZ_{S,t} \right) \quad (5)$$

where $\kappa_S > 0$ is the speed of mean-reversion parameter, \bar{s} is a parameter associated to the long-run mean of the real spot price, σ_S is the volatility of the oil price shocks and ρ_S represents the instantaneous correlation between the oil price returns and the pricing kernel. Therefore, ρ_S captures any possible systematic risk in oil returns. $Z_{S,t}$ is a standard Brownian motion that represents the idiosyncratic shocks to the oil price and is independent of $Z_{\Lambda,t}$.

The latent variable is assumed to follow a standard Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process with zero unconditional mean and unit instantaneous standard deviation:

$$dy_t = -\kappa_y y_t dt + \left(\rho_y dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \sqrt{1 - \rho_y^2} dZ_{y,t} \right) \quad (6)$$

where $\kappa_y > 0$ is the speed of mean-reversion parameter, and ρ_y is the instantaneous correlation between the shocks in y_t and the pricing kernel. The standard Brownian motion $Z_{y,t}$ represents the idiosyncratic shocks to y_t and is independent of the other Brownian motions in the model.

3.4 Firm's cash flows

We assume that the cash flows of the firm take the following functional form:

$$D^i(X_t^i, q_t^i, S_t) = X_t^i (q_t^i)^{\gamma^i} - S_t q_t^i \quad \text{for } 0 < \gamma^i < 1 \quad (7)$$

where q_t^i is the demand for oil, γ^i is the oil intensity of the firm and X_t^i is an exogenous variable representing the non-oil determinants of the firm's cash flows. The marginal cost of oil is the price

⁴ Some related literature to this approach are Santos and Veronesi (2006) that develop a conditional CAPM on the labor income to consumption ratio, and Lettau and Ludvigson (2001b) that uses the consumption-wealth ratio (cay) as the conditioning variable.

⁵ The oil price process can be extended to consider multiple factors as in Casassus and Collin-Dufresne (2005), but we prefer to use a one factor model to keep the solution tractable.

of oil, S_t , and is the same for all firms. To concentrate on the effect of oil on the cash flows, we make the simplifying assumption that the firm only chooses its demand for oil. We also assume that the firm has a fully-flexible technology with respect to oil (i.e., there are no adjustment costs). The Cobb-Douglas form of the sales implies that the productivity of oil is higher for those firms with higher oil intensity, γ^i . Therefore, firms with higher γ^i 's demand more oil than those firms with lower γ^i 's.

In the rest of the paper we refer to the first component of the cash flows in equation (7) as the sales of the firm and to X_t^i as the output variable, however, it is clear that X_t^i captures not only the output price and the productivity of the firm, but also the effect of other inputs on the cash flows. Moreover, our model does not explicitly consider investment and a capital production factor, however, a time-varying expected growth rate of X_t^i could account for these issues in a reduced-form way.⁶ Indeed, better investment opportunities will be represented by higher output growth rate, and viceversa. Also, if we assume that X_t^i changes only because of changes in the investment opportunities, then we will be able to disentangle the cash flows generated by current assets from those expected from future investments.

The output variable is governed by the following geometric Brownian process:

$$\frac{dX_t^i}{X_t^i} = (\mu_0^i + \mu_S^i \log(S_t))dt + \sigma_X^i \left(\rho_X^i dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \frac{\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2}} dZ_{S,t} + \sqrt{1 - \rho_X^i{}^2 - \frac{(\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i)^2}{1 - \rho_S^2}} dZ_{X,t}^i \right) \quad (8)$$

We assume that the drift of the output growth rate is affine in the log oil price, allowing the growth opportunities to depend on the oil price. If $\mu_S^i < 0$ then the growth opportunities of the firm decrease with the oil price. The parameter σ_X^i is the volatility of the output growth rate, and ρ_X^i and ρ_{XS}^i represent the correlations of this variable with the pricing kernel and the oil price shocks, respectively. In particular, ρ_X^i determines how the systematic shocks are transmitted to the firm's sales, so firms that are more sensitive to the business cycle will have a higher correlation (e.g., firms whose output corresponds to durable consumption goods sector). This variable can be also interpreted as a measure of demand cyclicality since it quantifies the comovement between the output growth and the aggregate economic growth. The correlation ρ_{XS}^i has two sources: one due to the systematic risk factor ($dZ_{\Lambda,t}$) and another one due to the idiosyncratic oil price shocks ($dZ_{S,t}$). The inclusion of both μ_S^i and ρ_{XS}^i is based on the sectoral evidence from Kilian and Park (2009) that suggests that oil shocks propagate through the demand for the firm's output by consumers rather than through its production costs. Finally, $Z_{X,t}^i$ is a standard Brownian motion that represents the idiosyncratic shocks to X_t^i .

Although the final impact of oil in the cash flows must be evaluated considering that the firm reacts by changing its demand for oil, it is important to highlight that oil impacts both sales and

⁶ This occurs because the output growth rate is directly related to the growth rates of the sales and cash flows of the firm.

production costs of the firm. Furthermore, today's oil price impacts current cash flows and also expected future cash flows through the persistence of the oil shocks and the growth opportunities represented by the expected output growth rate. A third mechanism that related oil to the cash flows is that an unexpected shock to the oil price could also generate an unexpected change in the output growth rate, and therefore, an unexpected change in the future cash flow of the firm.

3.5 Firm's equilibrium

The representative firm optimally demands oil in every period to maximize its market value in equation (1), subject to the dynamics of the state variables that drive the macroeconomic variables, its production costs and its sales revenue in equations (4) to (8). It is important to note that the stock price is not a function of Λ_t , because in the discount process the relevant information is contained in the discount factor $\frac{\Lambda_u}{\Lambda_t}$ which, given its geometric nature, is independent on the level of Λ_t .

It is straightforward to verify that the value function satisfies the following Hamilton-Jacobi-Bellman (HJB) equation:

$$0 = \max_{\{q_t^i\}} \{D^i(X_t^i, q_t^i, S_t)\Lambda_t dt + \mathbb{E}_t[d(\Lambda_t P^i(S_t, y_t, X_t^i))]\} \quad (9)$$

subject to

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[\Lambda_T P^i(S_T, y_T, X_T^i)] = 0 \quad (10)$$

where the transversality condition in equation (10) rules out any possible asset-price bubble. The solution of this optimization problem is considered in the next section.

4 Solution and theoretical results

This section shows the solution of the firm's optimization problem. First we obtain the optimal demand for oil and the cash flows of the firm. Then, we exploit a property of our model to express the resulting partial differential equation (PDE) as a function of the price-dividend ratio. This new PDE is approximated and solved using the log-linear expansion for dividend-price ratio developed by Campbell and Viceira (2002). Finally, we show some theoretical results and the main predictions of our model.

4.1 Optimal demand for oil

The representative firm chooses the optimal demand for oil q_t^i based on the rule that is presented in the following proposition.

Proposition 1 *The optimal demand for oil and cash flows of the firm are given by:*

$$q_t^{i*} = \left(\frac{\gamma^i X_t^i}{S_t} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i}} \quad (11)$$

$$D_t^{i*} = D^i(X_t^i, S_t) = \left(\frac{(\gamma^i)^{\gamma^i} X_t^i}{S_t^{\gamma^i}} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i}} (1 - \gamma^i) = \frac{1 - \gamma^i}{\gamma^i} q_t^{i*} S_t \quad (12)$$

Moreover, the optimal growth rate of the cash flows is

$$\frac{dD_t^{i*}}{D_t^{i*}} = \left(\frac{\gamma^i (s_t - \bar{s}) \kappa_S + \mu_0^i + \mu_S^i s_t}{1 - \gamma^i} + \zeta^i \right) dt + \zeta_\Lambda^i dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \zeta_S^i dZ_{S,t} + \zeta_X^i dZ_{X,t} \quad (13)$$

where $s_t = \log(S_t)$ and

$$\zeta^i = \frac{\gamma^i (\sigma_S^2 - 2\sigma_S \sigma_X^i \rho_{XS}^i + \sigma_X^{i2})}{2(1 - \gamma^i)^2}, \quad \zeta_\Lambda^i = \frac{\sigma_X^i \rho_X^i - \gamma^i \sigma_S \rho_S}{1 - \gamma^i},$$

$$\zeta_S^i = \frac{(\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i) \sigma_X^i}{(1 - \gamma^i) \sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2}} - \frac{\gamma^i \sigma_S \sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2}}{1 - \gamma^i}, \quad \zeta_X^i = \sqrt{1 - \rho_X^{i2}} - \frac{(\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i)^2}{1 - \rho_S^2} \frac{\sigma_X^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \quad (14)$$

Proof See Appendix A.1. \square

The proposition shows that the optimal demand for oil, q_t^{i*} , is increasing in the output variable X_t^i and decreasing in the oil price S_t . That is, a shock to X_t^i increases the marginal benefit of oil and, therefore, the demand for oil. In contrast, the firm reduces its oil demand when the marginal cost of oil increases. Moreover, ceteris paribus, firms with higher γ^i will demand more oil because this input is more productive.

Equation (12) shows that the optimal cash flow is also increasing in X_t^i and decreasing in S_t . The oil price elasticity of the cash flow, i.e., the percentage change in the current cash flow caused by a percentage change in oil price is given by:

$$E_{D,S}^i = \frac{\partial \log(D_t^{i*})}{\partial s_t} = -\frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \quad (15)$$

This elasticity is always negative and depends only on the oil intensity. As expected, the cash flows of industries with higher oil intensities will be more affected by an increase in the oil price.

To understand the effect of oil on the growth opportunities of the firm we can derive from equation (13) the oil price elasticity of the cash-flows growth rate. This elasticity measures the percentage change in the annualized expected cash flows growth rate due to a percentage change in the oil price and is given by:

$$E_{g,S}^i = \frac{\partial \frac{1}{dt} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\frac{dD_t^{i*}}{D_t^{i*}} \right]}{\partial s_t} = \frac{\gamma^i \kappa_S + \mu_S^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \quad (16)$$

This equation confirms that the sensitivity of the growth opportunities to the oil price, μ_S^i , is a key determinant of the cash flows growth rate of the firm. Also, the speed of mean reversion of the oil price, κ_S , has a positive effect on the growth rate, because the higher this parameter, the less persistent is the oil shock and, therefore, the oil price will decrease faster towards its long-term mean increasing net periods cash flow. This effect is amplified by the oil intensity in the cash flows, γ^i .

4.2 Price-Dividend ratio

We assume that the all cash flows are paid as dividends to the shareholders, therefore, equation (12) also represents the dividends of the firm. Let the price-dividend ratio of the stock be:

$$H_t^i = H^i(s_t, y_t) = \frac{P^i(e_t^s, y_t, X_t^i)}{D^i(X_t^i, e_t^s)} \quad (17)$$

Note that in our model, the shocks to the output variable are permanent (see equation (8)), therefore, they affect the current and future dividends in the same proportion, implying that the price of the stock is also amplified by the magnitude of the shock. This means that even if the price and the dividend are functions of X_t^i , the price-dividend ratio will be unaffected by this variable.⁷

By replacing in equation (9) both the stock price P_t^i from the equation above and the optimal dividend from equation (12), and doing some algebra yields the following PDE for the price-dividend ratio H_t^i :

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = & (H_t^i)^{-1} - r_t^f - \frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} (\kappa_S (\bar{s} - s_t) - \lambda_t \sigma_S \rho_S) + \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} (\mu_0^i + \mu_S^i s_t - \lambda_t \sigma_X^i \rho_X^i) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1 - \gamma^i)^2} \sigma_S^2 \\ & - \frac{\gamma^i}{(1 - \gamma^i)^2} \rho_{X_S}^i \sigma_S \sigma_X^i + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1 - \gamma^i)^2} \sigma_X^i{}^2 + \frac{H_{s,t}^i}{H_t^i} \left(\kappa_S (\bar{s} - s_t) - \lambda_t \sigma_S \rho_S - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1 + \gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \sigma_S^2 + \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} \sigma_S \sigma_X^i \rho_{X_S}^i \right) \\ & - \frac{H_{y,t}^i}{H_t^i} \left(\kappa_y y_t + \lambda_t \rho_y + \frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \sigma_S \rho_S \rho_y - \frac{\sigma_X^i \rho_y \rho_X^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{H_{ss,t}^i}{H_t^i} \sigma_S^2 + \frac{H_{sy,t}^i}{H_t^i} \sigma_S \rho_S \rho_y + \frac{1}{2} \frac{H_{yy,t}^i}{H_t^i} \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

⁷ The price-dividend ratio is independent of the level of the output variable, but it is affected by the parameters that determine the dynamics of X_t^i .

To our knowledge, there is no exact solution for equation (18), however, Campbell and Viceira (2002) obtain an approximated solution for a similar equation using a simple log-linearization technique.⁸ Their approach is based on the discrete-time approximation of the price-dividend ratio of Campbell and Shiller (1988). We follow this approach and pursue log-linear approximation around the unconditional mean of the logarithm of price-dividend ratio, $\mathbb{E}[p_t^i - d_t^{i*}]$. This approach gives the following result:

$$(H_t^i)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\exp(p_t^i - d_t^{i*})} \approx h_0^i - h_1^i \log(H_t^i) \quad (19)$$

where p_t^i is the logarithm of P_t^i , d_t^{i*} is the logarithm of D_t^{i*} , $h_0^i = h_1^i(1 - \log(h_1^i))$ and $h_1^i = \exp(-\mathbb{E}[p_t^i - d_t^{i*}])$. After replacing the first term of equation (18), i.e. $(H_t^i)^{-1}$, with its approximation shown in equation (19), we find that the new approximated HJB equation have a close form solution that is presented in the following proposition.

Proposition 2 *The approximated price-dividend ratio of the firm is an exponential affine function given by*

$$H^i(s_t, y_t) = \exp(a^i + b^i s_t + c^i y_t) \quad (20)$$

where a^i , b^i and c^i are constant coefficients that depend on the parameters of the model and are presented in the appendix.

Proof See Appendix A.2. \square

The price-dividend ratio varies with the state variables S_t and y_t . Also, the associated constant coefficients depends on the parameters of the dynamics of the state variables, the interest rate, the market price of risk, the firm's cash flows and the parameter of log-linear approximation h_1^i . Moreover, from equation (20) we can derive the oil price elasticity of the price-dividend ratio of the stock:

$$E_{H,S}^i = \frac{\partial \log(H_t^i)}{\partial s_t} = b^i \quad (21)$$

That is, the parameter b^i measures the percentage change in price-dividend ratio due to a percentage change in oil price, holding everything else constant.

⁸ In equation (5.20) of Campbell and Viceira (2002) H_t^i is the wealth-consumption ratio and it is a function of the real interest rate. In their case, they have a non-homogeneous ODE whose associated homogeneous equation belongs to the degenerate hypergeometric equation family. Polyanin and Zaitsev (1995) shows an exact solution for that equation, but it is too complex to allow for any economic intuition. We would have the same type of solution if the latent variable y_t were constant.

4.3 Stock returns

Using equation (17) along with the results in Propositions 1 and 2 we are able to derive an expression for the stock price, which can be used to obtain the instantaneous stock return. Let G_t^i be the gain process for an investor who has a long position on the stock. The return for the investor is:

$$\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} = \frac{dP_t^i}{P_t^i} + \frac{D_t^{i*}}{P_t^i} dt \quad (22)$$

The following proposition shows the expression for the stock return.

Proposition 3 *The conditional stock return is given by:*

$$\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} = (r_t^f + \eta_\Lambda^i \lambda_t) dt + \eta_\Lambda^i dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \eta_S^i dZ_{S,t} + \eta_y^i dZ_{y,t} + \eta_X^i dZ_{X,t} \quad (23)$$

where,

$$\eta_\Lambda^i = \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \right) \sigma_S \rho_S + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} \sigma_X^i \rho_X^i \quad (24)$$

$$\eta_S^i = \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \right) \sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2} \sigma_S + \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} \frac{\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2}} \sigma_X^i \quad (25)$$

$$\eta_y^i = c^i \sqrt{1 - \rho_y^2} \quad (26)$$

$$\eta_X^i = \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} \sqrt{1 - \rho_X^i{}^2 - \frac{(\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i)^2}{1 - \rho_S^2}} \sigma_X^i \quad (27)$$

Proof See Appendix A.3. \square

Equation (23) shows that the stock return has two components: a conditional expected return and the weighted sum of the shocks considered in the model. The conditional expected stock return is the sum of the instantaneous risk-free rate and a time-varying risk premium that is given by the (negative) covariance between the pricing kernel and the stock return. Also, the quantity of risk η_Λ^i is constant, therefore, the conditional expected stock return is an affine function of the state variables s_t and y_t through the varying interest rate and market price of risk.

The different shocks that influence the stock return come from the relationships between the state variables and the two components of the stock price: the price-dividend ratio and the dividends or cash flows (i.e., $P_t^i = H_t^i D_t^{i*}$). These components have both systematic and non-systematic risks. For example, the impact of the systematic shock $dZ_{\Lambda,t}$ on the stock return, which is the only component of the risk that is priced by the agents, comes from the correlations between the systematic risks of the state variables with H_t^i and D_t^{i*} . Indeed, in the first term of η_Λ^i

in equation (24), b^i and $-\frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}$ measure the impact of the systematic oil shocks on the dynamics of the price-dividend ratio and the cash flows, respectively. The same interpretation applies to the other components of the systematic term η_Λ^i .

The remaining shocks account for the non-systematic risk of the stock return. These risks are not priced, therefore, they don't affect the expected stock return. The idiosyncratic oil shock, $dZ_{S,t}$, affects both the price-dividend ratio and the dividend, and its associated coefficient (η_S^i) captures the oil-related idiosyncratic risk of the stock return. The first term of η_S^i in equation (25) shows the direct impact of the idiosyncratic oil shock on H_t^i and D_t^{i*} , while the second term measures its impact through the output growth rate which can also be correlated with the idiosyncratic oil shock. This last term shows that the demand-side effect of oil on the cash-flows also impacts the stock returns. Finally, the other idiosyncratic shocks $dZ_{y,t}$ and $dZ_{X,t}^i$ affect the stock return through their impact on the dynamics of the price-dividend ratio and cash flows, respectively.⁹

4.4 Oil price and expected stock returns

The conditional expected return of stock i is affine on the log oil price and the macro variable, and is given by:¹⁰

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} \right] &= (r_t^f + \eta_\Lambda^i \lambda_t) dt \\ &= (\alpha_0 + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_0 + (\alpha_S + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_S) s_t + (\alpha_y + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_y) y_t) dt \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

From the equation above we can derive the oil price elasticity of the expected stock return, which measures the percentage change in the expected stock return due to a percentage change in the oil price:

$$\begin{aligned} E_{r,S}^i &= \frac{\partial \frac{1}{dt} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} \right]}{\partial s_t} = \alpha_S + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_S \\ &= \alpha_S + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_S \rho_S + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_X^i \rho_X^i \right) \theta_S \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

This equation shows that the response of the expected stock return to oil price changes varies across the firms.

Figures 1 to 6 show the effect of the different macroeconomic and industry-specific parameters

⁹ Note from equations (12) and (20) that the macro variable y_t affect the price-dividend ratio, but not the cash flows. Conversely, the output variable affect the cash flows of the firm, but not its price-dividend ratio.

¹⁰ Hereafter, we use the label i for the stock to make more evident the distinction between macroeconomic and firm parameters.

of the model on the relation between the oil price and the expected stock return.¹¹ We first study the macroeconomic mechanisms of oil on the expected returns, i.e., the effect of oil through the market price of risk and the real interest rate. Figure 1 shows the market price of risk effect of oil on the stock returns. The effect of θ_s on the expected stock returns is twofold. It has a direct impact through the market price of risk and it has an indirect effect through the parameters b^i and c^i that affect the quantity of risk η_Λ^i . The figure evidences that θ_s is a key determinant in the linkage between oil price and the stock returns, and that the sign of the oil price elasticity of the expected return is mostly driven by the sign of this parameter. If $\theta_s < 0$, an increase in the oil price reduces the market price of risk and, therefore, the expected stock return by affecting negatively the future economic growth of the economy. Figure 2 shows the interest rate effect of oil in the stock return relationship. For our estimates, the impact of an oil price shock is decreasing on the parameter α_s , that is, for negative values of α_s a raise in the oil price has a stronger impacts than for positive values of this parameter. If $\alpha_s < 0$, a positive oil shock decreases the real risk-free rate, by increasing the inflation rate (in net terms), which in turn reduces the real returns of all risky assets. The figure also shows that this effect is less significant than previous one implying that the most influential macroeconomic transmission channel of oil on the conditional expected stock return works through the market price of risk.

Now we analyze the industry-specific oil-effects on the expected stock returns. Figure 3 illustrates how an oil price shock affects the expected stock return for different levels of oil intensity, γ^i . The impact of an oil price change is an increasing function of the oil intensity, i.e., firms with higher γ^i 's demand more oil, hence, oil is more important in their cash flows. Consequently, these firms are more affected by the oil shocks. Figure 4 shows the relationship between the expected stock return and the oil price for different output volatilities. As expected, the impact of an oil shock is increasing in σ_x^i , i.e., firms that face more volatile output are more risky and more vulnerable to oil price changes. Figure 5 presents the impact of the oil price for three distinct levels of systematic risk of the firm's output represented by the correlation between the pricing kernel and the output growth rate, ρ_x^i . This correlation measures the cyclicity of the firm's business. The figure shows that firms with higher cyclicity tend to be more negatively affected by oil price increases because an oil shock is a bad signal about the future economic growth. A classical example of this type of firms are those who produce durable consumption goods. Finally, Figure 6 shows how the oil price affects the expected stock return for different levels of growth opportunities parameter μ_s^i . Firms whose growth opportunities are more sensitive to oil will exhibit expected returns that are more sensitive to this variable, however, this effect is minor compared to the others discussed above.

¹¹ The default parameters used are those reported in Table 3 Panel A. The industry-specific parameters are obtained as an average of the estimates in Panel B of Table 3, while the comparative values of these parameters are based on minimum and maximum values in this table. For the latent variable we assume that $y_t = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} E_t[y_T] = 0$.

Overall, Figures 3 to 6 suggest that the output volatility, σ_X^i , is the most important industry-specific parameter in the relationship between the conditional expected stock return and the oil price. This result comes from the risk premia transmission channel of oil, which impacts to expected stock returns through the covariance term $\sigma_X^i \rho_X^i$. The effects of the oil intensity and growth opportunities of the firm, which operate through the current and future cash flows, respectively, are less relevant for the risk premia and discount rate transmission channel. However, we would expect the growth opportunities parameter, μ_S^i , to have a significant effect for longer-horizon stock returns.

4.5 Decomposition of the systematic risk

In a CAPM framework the market portfolio is efficient and is perfectly correlated with the pricing kernel.¹² Therefore, we assume that the instantaneous return on the market portfolio is defined as:

$$\frac{dG_t^m}{G_t^m} = (r_t^f + \sigma_m \lambda_t) dt + \sigma_m dZ_{\Lambda,t} \quad (30)$$

where σ_m is the volatility of the market portfolio return. Using equation (30), it is straightforward to show that equation (23) can be expressed in a standard CAPM form:

$$\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} = (r_t^f + \beta^i \lambda_t^m) dt + \eta_{\Lambda}^i dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \eta_S^i dZ_{S,t} + \eta_y^i dZ_{y,t} + \eta_X^i dZ_{X,t} \quad (31)$$

where $\lambda_t^m = \sigma_m \lambda_t$ is the excess return on the of market portfolio. The CAPM beta of the stock i with respect to market portfolio is given by:

$$\beta^i = \frac{\text{Cov}_t \left(\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i}, \frac{dG_t^m}{G_t^m} \right)}{\text{Var}_t \left(\frac{dG_t^m}{G_t^m} \right)} = \frac{\eta_{\Lambda}^i}{\sigma_m} \quad (32)$$

The market betas are constant, because the instantaneous stock returns in the model are Gaussian. The beta of a stock can be expressed as a linear combination of the oil market beta β_S , the latent variable beta β_y , and the output variable market beta β_X^i :

$$\begin{aligned} \beta^i &= \frac{1}{\sigma_m} \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \right) \sigma_S \rho_S + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} \sigma_X^i \rho_X^i \right) \\ &= \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1 - \gamma^i} \right) \beta_S + c^i \beta_y + \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^i} \beta_X^i \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

Equation (33) shows that the systematic risk of the stock comes from several sources. The market betas of the macroeconomic state variables S_t and y_t constitute common sources of systematic risk

¹² To be more precise, the correlation between the market returns and the changes in the pricing kernel is-1.

for all stocks. However, the weights of these betas depend on the firm's idiosyncratic characteristics, therefore, the systematic shocks of the macroeconomic variables affect each firm differently. The stock's market beta also depends on the output variable market beta, which affects the expected stock return through the systematic risk of the cash flows.

4.6 Time-varying expected stock return and predictability

Changes in the oil price produce macroeconomic effects which are reflected in the real interest rate and market price of risk. These systematic effects affect all industries and their magnitude depend on the persistence of the oil shocks.¹³ After an oil shock, the conditional expected portfolio returns change for all the industries. As time goes by, the interest rate, market price of risk and, therefore, the conditional expected returns go back gradually to their values before oil price shock. Because the conditional expected return of a portfolio is affine on the log spot price and the latent variable y_t , it inherits the mean-reverting behavior of these variables. The following proposition formalizes this result and shows that the conditional expected stock return and the log oil price follow a multivariate mean-reverting Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process:

Proposition 4 *The join process followed by the annualized conditional expected stock return and the log oil price is*

$$dJ_t^i = C^i(\mu + \xi(C^i)^{-1}J_t^i)dt + C^i\Sigma_J dZ_{J,t} \quad (34)$$

where

$$J_t^i = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{r}_t^i - (\alpha_0 + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_0) \\ s_t \end{pmatrix} \quad (35)$$

$$\bar{r}_t^i = \frac{1}{dt} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} \right] \quad (36)$$

$$C^i = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_S + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_S & \alpha_y + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_y \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (37)$$

$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{s}\kappa_S - \sigma_S^2/2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (38)$$

$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} -\kappa_S & 0 \\ 0 & -\kappa_y \end{pmatrix} \quad (39)$$

$$\Sigma_J = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_S \rho_S & \sigma_S \sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2} & 0 \\ \rho_y & 0 & \sqrt{1 - \rho_y^2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (40)$$

¹³ Recall that the log real oil price follows a mean-reverting process and its long-run mean is $\bar{s} - \frac{\sigma_S^2}{2\kappa_S}$.

$$dZ_{J,t} = \begin{pmatrix} dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\ dZ_{S,t} \\ dZ_{y,t} \end{pmatrix} \quad (41)$$

Proof See Appendix A.4. \square

Equation (34) is equivalent to the bivariate equation (7.1.28) of Campbell, Lo, and MacKinlay (1996), but in continuous time. Consistently with their analysis, the positive serial correlation in expected returns appears in realized stock returns. Therefore, a positive oil shock has two simultaneous effects: it changes future expected returns (see equation (34)) and it directly affects realized stock returns (see equation (23)). The sign of the first effect depends on the sign of $\alpha_S + \eta_{\Lambda}^i \theta_S$, while the second one inherits the sign of η_S^i . The sign and the magnitude of the autocorrelation in realized stock returns, if there exists, will depend on the signs and forces of these two effects caused by oil price shocks. The proposition also verifies that the realized stock returns are predictable by the log oil price according to equation (23).

5 Empirical implementation

We use four datasets for the estimation of the model: stock market returns, industry portfolio returns, crude oil prices and risk-free rates. These series are deflated using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for all urban consumers from the US Bureau of Labor Statistics. We have 333 monthly observations from April 1983 to December 2010 for each one of the variables in the datasets. Our proxy for the market portfolio is the value weighted CRSP index (CRSP-VW), from which we obtained the log-returns. Crude oil prices are proxied by the closest-to-maturity crude oil futures. These series are from the New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX) and were obtained from the US Energy Information Administration (EIA) website. For the nominal risk-free rate, we use the one-month Treasury bill rate (from Ibbotson Associates) that is available from Kenneth French's web page.

Stock returns consist of monthly log-returns on the 17 industry sorted portfolios from Kenneth French's web site.¹⁴ These portfolios are formed on the basis of four-digit SIC (Standard Industrial Classification) code. We use industry portfolios for the following reasons. First, we prefer to use portfolios of firms because individual stock returns are too noisy. Second, if we use individual securities the estimation technique would become extremely demanding in computational terms. Third, the usage of portfolios grouped by a different criterion such as size or b/m is useless,

¹⁴ We are aware that our model does not include both debt and taxes while return data available for us are being affected by these factors. However, we have no reliable information that allows us to correct these effects in the data.

because our model is built to capture the industry-specific characteristics. In other words, only in the industry portfolios the idiosyncratic shocks that survive are of similar nature. Finally, to correctly identify the technological parameter γ^i from data we require that the aggregation is done using firms whose production functions are reasonable alike. We give more details about the calibration of γ^i in the next section.

5.1 Calibrating the oil intensity γ^i

The oil intensity of each industry, γ^i , is a critical parameter for the predictions of our model, therefore, it need to be estimated as accurate as possible. Fortunately, given the Cobb-Douglas assumption for the sales of the firm it is straightforward to calibrate γ^i from the data. Indeed, using equation (11) we observe that γ^i is the ratio of oil expenditure to sales revenue (hereafter, OESR ratio):

$$\gamma^i = \frac{S_t q_t^{i*}}{X_t^i (q_t^{i*})^{\gamma^i}} \quad (42)$$

We calibrate this parameter using data from the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) of the EIA.¹⁵ In particular, we calculate the OESR ratio for all the surveyed industries using Tables 1.2, 3.2, 6.1 and 7.2 that are available for 1994, 1998, 2002 and 2006. Oil expenditure in million dollars is proxied by the total energy expenditure, which is obtained multiplying the Consumption of First Use Energy for All Purposes (Table 1.2) by the Average Prices of Purchased Energy Sources (Table 7.2). On the other hand, sales revenue in billion dollars is computed dividing the Energy Consumption as a Fuel (Table 3.2) by the Ratio of Fuel Consumption to Value of Shipments (Table 6.1). Then, we obtain the OESR ratio for each industry code.

A direct matching between industry portfolios and OESR ratios is only available for 1994. For this year, the MECS Tables were built using SIC codes, so for each industry code we assign a portfolio tag matching this code with the corresponding range of SIC codes from the portfolio definition (industry definitions file). For example, SIC code 2011 (Meat Packing Plants) is assigned to “Food” portfolio, because the range of SIC codes 2010-2019 (Meat products) belong to this portfolio. After each industry code in the MECS Tables was associated to a portfolio tag, the parameter γ^i of each portfolio is computed as a simple average of the OESR ratios with the same portfolio tag.

For the other years the MECS Tables were built using NAICS (North American Industry Classification System) codes. We use the correspondence tables between both classification systems, provided by US Census Bureau, for matching the portfolios with the OESR ratios.¹⁶ For the data from 1998 we use the “1997 NAICS to 1987 SIC” concordances, while for the other

¹⁵ <http://www.eia.gov/emeu/mecs/mecs2006/2006tables.html>

¹⁶ <http://www.census.gov/eos/www/naics/concordances/concordances.html>

years we use the “2002 NAICS to 1987 SIC” concordances. The correspondence tables provide full compatibility between six-digits NAICS codes and four-digits SIC codes, however industry codes in MECS Tables include NAICS codes with three to six digits. To face this problem we first assign the OESR ratios of NAICS codes with three/four/five digits to all NAICS codes starting with those three/four/five digits in the correspondence table. Then, when a NAICS code in the correspondence table has associated more than one OESR ratio, we kept the ratio assignation for the NAICS code with more digits. For example, the NAICS code 311221 (Wet Corn Milling) is included in MECS Tables, therefore it has a direct OESR ratio, while it also shares with others the ratios of the NAICS codes 3112 (Grain and Oilseed Milling) and 311 (Food). In this case clearly prevails the six-digits code assignation. However, for NAICS code 311222 (Soybean Processing), which is not in MECS Tables, we assign the OESR ratio belonging to NAICS code 3112. After this procedure, we do the portfolio matching and calculate the OESR using the SIC codes in the correspondence table in the same way as for the year 1994.

We use the procedure described above to calculate the OESR of 9 portfolios for 1994 and 13 portfolios for the other years. We drop the portfolio “Other” because it is not representative of any particular industry. Our estimate of γ^i is given by the average of the time series. The result of this calibration exercise is shown in Table 1. In general, as expected, the OESR ratios are low and only exceed the 10% for the portfolios “Oil” and “Chems”.

5.2 Statistical summary

In this section we present a brief summary statistics of the time series used in our study: the monthly real log-returns on the CRSP-VW (r_t^m), the logarithm of the real price of crude oil one-month maturity futures (s_t), the one-month real Treasury bill rate (r_t^f) and the monthly real log-returns on the industry portfolios (r_t^P), where r_t^P is a vector of size 13.

Table 2 describes the summary statistics for the macroeconomic variables (Panel A) and for the industry portfolio returns (Panel B). In our sample, the average month market excess return is 0.46% and the average real oil price is approx \$20 dollars per barrel at April 1983 prices. Panel B of Table 2 shows that the portfolio with highest average return is “Food”, while the one with the lowest average return is “Steel”. Also, “Machn” is the portfolio whose returns are more correlated with the market portfolio returns, with a coefficient of 0.87, while “Oil” has the lowest correlation with the market portfolio.

5.3 Model estimation

We estimate our model by Maximum Likelihood (ML). The likelihood function is obtained in closed-form due to the log-linear approximation and the Gaussian nature of the equations that

estimate. The empirical model consists of the following relationships: market returns, industry portfolio returns, log oil prices and risk-free interest rates. All these variables can be expressed as linear functions of the following vector of state variables:

$$V_t := \begin{pmatrix} s_t \\ y_t \end{pmatrix} \quad (43)$$

where the log oil spot price, s_t , is assumed to be observable and y_t is the macro latent variable.¹⁷ The natural candidate to back-out y_t is the interest rate because of its affine structure on V_t (see equation (3)). Therefore, we can use the following linear transformation to connect the observable with the unobservable variables:

$$\begin{pmatrix} s_t \\ r_t^f \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \alpha_0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \alpha_s & \alpha_y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_t \\ y_t \end{pmatrix}$$

$$W_t = A + B V_t \quad (44)$$

Following Chen and Scott (1993), Pearson and Sun (1994) and Fisher and Gilles (1996), and assuming that the variables in W_t are observed without error, we are able to pin down V_t . We also include the realized returns from the market and P industry portfolios, which enhance W_t to a vector of $P + 3$ observable random variables:¹⁸

$$Y_{t+1} = \begin{pmatrix} r_t^m \\ r_t^P \\ W_{t+1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (45)$$

Here, r_t^m and r_t^P are the one-month return for the market and industry portfolios, respectively. Finally, recall that the solution of the model requires a log-linear approximation of dividend-price ratio, therefore, a value for the parameter h_1^i in equation (19) needs to be calibrated (see also equations (A8)-(A9)). We calibrate h_1^i using the methodology of Ang and Bekaert (2007) with the log price-dividend ratio from CRSP-VW. In our sample, the average value of the log price-dividend ratio is 3.777, implying a calibrated value of $h_1^i = 0.023$.

¹⁷ Appendix B.1 derives the dynamics and the first two conditional and unconditional moments of V_t in matrix form. Appendix B.2 presents the market log-return and its conditional and unconditional moments, along with its covariance with the vector of state variables. Finally, Appendix B.3 shows the log-returns on P industry portfolios and their first two moments and covariances with the state variables.

¹⁸ Appendix B.4 derives the first two conditional and unconditional moments of W_t , as well as its covariance with V_t . Appendix B.5 shows the conditional and unconditional cross-moments of the variables in Y_{t+1} . Finally, Appendix B.6 contains all the details about the log-likelihood function.

5.4 MLE Estimates

Table 3 shows the maximum likelihood estimates and significance of the macroeconomic parameters (Panel A) and the portfolio parameters (Panel B).

Panel A of Table 3 shows that the impact of the real oil price on the real risk-free interest rate is negative ($\alpha_s = -0.007$) and significant at the 10% level (t-stat = -1.75). This result confirms the significant effect of the oil price shocks in the real economy and can be understood as an underreaction of the monetary authority with respect to the oil shocks. Indeed, it is likely that due to inflationary pressures caused by an oil price increase the monetary authority increases the nominal short-term interest rate. However, a negative effect of an oil shock in the real interest rate, suggest that the inflation rate increases even more than the nominal interest rate. Moreover, this negative effect implies that the conditional expected real stock return is negatively affected by an oil shock (see equation (29)). Also, the significant estimate of $\alpha_y = 0.162$ reveals that, as expected, there are other economic forces driving the real interest rate.

The estimate of the market price of risk parameter θ_s is also negative (-0.445) and highly significant. The fact that an increase in the oil price causes a reduction in the aggregate risk premia confirms that positive oil price shocks precede economic recessions. In fact, both business-cycle channels of oil, interest rate and market price of risk, work in the same direction. Therefore, both channels are responsible for a negative relationship between the conditional expected stock return and the oil price. Also, a negative sign of θ_s explains the negative slope in Figure 1, while the negative sign of α_s makes this slope more steep (see Figure 2), increasing the sensitivity of expected stock returns to oil price shocks. Furthermore, the negative and highly significant estimate of θ_y evidences the existence of factors that have at the same time a positive effect in the real interest rate and a negative effect on market price of risk.

The mean reversion parameters κ_s and κ_y , are both positive and statistically significant. However, the different magnitudes suggest that oil shocks are much more persistent than the shocks to the latent variable y_t . Also, the estimate of the correlation parameter ρ_s is negative but insignificant, meaning that the oil price is mainly driven by idiosyncratic shocks. This evidence suggests that the oil price is an exogenous variable for US economy, which is consistent with the assumption that this variable is governed by an exogenous process.¹⁹ On the other hand, changes in the latent variable y_t are strongly positively correlated with the pricing kernel, which captures the negative correlation observed in data between stock market return and risk-free rate (see Table 2 Panel A) and also the negative correlation between current consumption and interest rates.

¹⁹ A causality relationship from the US consumption to the oil price would be consistent with a negative correlation between oil price changes and pricing kernel (i.e., $\rho_s > 0$), because a drop in consumption would cause simultaneously an decrease in the oil price and an increase in the pricing kernel.

The results from Panel B of Table 3 motivate the following general observations. First, none of the estimates of ρ_{XS}^i is significant implying that oil and output shocks are not correlated for any industry. Second, there are no counter-cyclical industries in our sample because all industries have output growth rates that are negatively correlated with the pricing kernel (i.e., $\rho_X^i > 0$ for all industries). Third, our results are in line with those reported by Kilian and Park (2009), because they strongly support the hypothesis of the demand-side transmission channel of oil price changes, i.e., oil price affects negatively the output growth rate of all non-oil industries in our sample ($\mu_S^i < 0$). This coefficient is also negative for oil industry, however, it is only significant at the 10% level.

The oil industry is the one with both the lowest output volatility ($\sigma_X^i = 0.145$) and the least cyclicity in the sample (i.e., the lowest ρ_X^i). This industry is also the one with the least affected growth opportunities by crude oil price (i.e. it has the lowest $|\mu_S^i|$ and it is insignificant). This occurs because for the oil industry, oil has two effect on the growth opportunities that net each other. A higher oil price is a negative macroeconomic signal for the growth opportunities of all industries, however, for this specific industry it also means a higher output price in the future. On the other side, the most volatile is the steel industry ($\sigma_X^i = 0.276$) and the most cyclical is the machinery industry ($\rho_X^i = 0.826$), evidence that is consistent with the high volatility and cyclicity of US investment growth. Finally, the machinery industry is also the one whose expected output growth is most sensitive to the oil price ($\mu_S^i = -0.145$). That is, its growth opportunities are the most affected by an oil price increase. Again this evidence gives strong support to the demand-side effects of oil price, because oil intensity in this industry barely reaches 0.8%.

It is worth noting that our results are in line with those studies supporting the predictive power of oil for future economic growth in US economy. An oil price increase today will be followed by slower economic activity, so more (less) cyclical industries should see their growth opportunities more (less) negatively affected. Consequently, the correlation between the estimates of ρ_X^i and μ_S^i for all industries is -0.88 .

6 Sensitivity of the industry portfolios to oil price

Using the intuition from the Gordon model, we study the effect of oil on the stock prices by analyzing its effect on the cash flows or dividends, on the their expected growth rates, and on the discount rates. Furthermore, our model allow us to decompose the oil impacts into short- and long-term effects. The current dividend accounts for the short-term effect of oil, while the price-dividend ratio of the stock accounts for its long-term effect.

6.1 Current dividend and oil price

Table 4 presents that the oil price elasticity of the current cash flows or dividend are negative for all industries, although their values are very small. This was expected because these elasticities depend only on the oil intensities, which are generally low. The table shows that an oil price increase of 10% reduces the dividends of most industries by less than 1%. Only for the oil and chemical industries these figures are higher, but still the effect is minor (-1.9% and -1.4%, respectively). The average effect of oil on the current dividend is negative but less economically significant (-0.4%). Thus, the short- and most obvious effect of oil on the stock price is very small, as highlighted by some macroeconomic studies (e.g. Barsky and Kilian, 2004). However, to see the overall effect of oil the impact on the future discount rates and growth opportunities must be considered. The next section covers this topic.

6.2 Price-dividend ratio and oil price

Table 4 presents a very different picture for the long-term effect of oil. The oil price elasticities of the price-dividend ratio varies across industries, but are negative and economically significant for most industries. For example, an oil price increase of 10% causes a reduction of 2.4% in dividend-price ratio of the construction portfolio and a decrease of 2.6% in the machinery portfolio. For the chemical industry this elasticity is zero, while for the oil industry it is positive and significant ($E_{H,S}^i = 0.34$).

What drives this significant effect of oil in the price-dividend ratios? The last two columns of Table 4 presents the oil price elasticities of the dividend growth rates and expected portfolio returns and shed some light to answer this question. The table shows that the oil price affects negatively the dividend growth rates and discount rates of all industries, however, the impact on the dividend growth rates dominates explaining the negative effect of oil on the dividend-price ratios. For the non-oil portfolios the average negative effect of a 10% rise in the oil price on the expected dividend growth rates is -1.1%, while the average negative effect on the expected return is -0.8%. For the oil industry the price-dividend ratio is increasing in the oil price because its dividend growth rate has the lowest sensitivity to oil price. Furthermore, we can infer from the table that the price-dividend ratio of the chemical industry is not sensitive to the oil price, because the dividend growth rate and the discount rate effects cancel out. However, in contrast to the prediction of the original Gordon model, the elasticity of the price-dividend ratio can not be fully explained by the elasticities of the dividend growth rate and discount rate. In our model the dividend growth rate and the expected return vary over time and their dynamics are driven by the persistence of both the oil price and the macro variable, effects that are considered in the stock price but not directly in the instantaneous elasticities shown in Table 4.

A key determinant in the elasticity of the price-dividend ratio is the sensitivity of the output growth rate to the oil price, μ_s^i . In fact, in our sample the correlation between b^i and μ_s^i is 0.88, implying that industries whose growth opportunities are more affected by oil prices, have also the higher elasticity of the price-dividend ratio.²⁰ Another important parameter is the volatility of the output of each industry. In general, the higher the volatility, the higher the sensitivity of price-dividend ratio of that industry to the oil price. In this case, the mechanism works through the effect of oil in the discount rate. Industries with higher output volatilities have expected returns that are more sensitive to the oil price. On the other hand, the oil intensity and the demand cyclicalities play minor role in the long-term effect of oil.

Finally, the total impact of oil on the market value of an industry portfolio can be calculated from the effects of oil on both the price-dividend ratio and the dividends of the portfolio. Table 4 also shows the oil price elasticity of the market value of the portfolio which is labeled as $E_{P,S}^i$. In general, the effect of oil on the value of the portfolios are negative and economically significant for all non-oil industries. For example, an oil price increase of 10% reduces the value of construction portfolio by 3%. The only industry that increases its value with an oil shock is the oil industry. The value of this portfolio grows by 1.5% after a rise of 10% in oil price.

6.3 Out-of-sample test for the market price-dividend ratio

A direct implication of equation (20) is that log price-dividend ratio (H_t^i) can be expressed as an affine function of s_t and y_t , that is:

$$h_t^i = \log(H_t^i) = a^i + b^i s_t + c^i y_t \quad (46)$$

We can use this equation to conduct an out-of-sample test of our model. Unfortunately, a time series of the latent variable y_t cannot be obtained without using our parameter estimates, so we prefer to discard this variable to avoid doubts about our out-of-sample comparison. We run an OLS time-series regression for the market log price-dividend ratio on the log oil price, and compare the estimates with those predicted by our model. We use the time series of the log price-dividend ratio on the CRSP-VW Index described in Section 5.3.²¹

The results of this test are shown in Table 5 and suggest that our model correctly captures the empirical relationship between the aggregate price-dividend ratio and the oil price. Note that the market price-dividend ratio series were not included in the estimation of our model, therefore, this

²⁰ Recall from equation (21) that the oil price elasticity of the price-dividend ratio is b^i .

²¹ We calibrate our model for an average industry, which is defined by the average values of γ^i , σ_x^i , ρ_x^i and μ_s^i in our sample. The parameter μ_0^i is needed for calibrating the parameter a^i , but it is not identifiable from our empirical technique because it is not present in the stock returns. Therefore, we use that $\log(h_1^i) = -a^i[\mu_0^i] - b^i(\bar{s} - \sigma_s^2/2\kappa_s)$ to pin down this parameter.

is a purely out-of-sample result. Consistent with the theoretical prediction, the OLS estimates evidence that s_t has a negative and significant impact on h_t^i . Moreover, the magnitudes of the OLS estimate of b^i (-0.131) and the one predicted for the average industry (-0.122) are similar. The overall fit of the time-series regression, measured by the statistic R^2 , is 2.3% which is reasonable for a study based on monthly frequency data.

7 Oil price and industry portfolio returns

In this section we study the effect of the oil price in both the expected returns and the realized returns of the industry portfolios. Our estimates suggest that the oil shocks are mostly idiosyncratic, therefore, we will assume that the oil price changes because of a change in $dZ_{s,t}$.

7.1 Conditional expected returns and oil price

This section complements the results in Section 4.4 with the specific impact of oil on each industry portfolio. The systematic effects of oil act through the macroeconomic variables: an increase of one standard deviation in the log real oil price ($\sigma_s = 0.289$) produces a decrease of 0.2% in the risk-free rate and a decrease of 0.129 in the market price of risk. However, the overall effect on the expected portfolio return depends on the specific features of each industry portfolio.

Equation (29) shows that the oil price elasticity of the expected return depends on the quantity of systematic risk, η_Λ^i . Table 6 shows that the estimates of η_Λ^i are positive for the 13 industry portfolios, therefore, the relationship between the oil price and the conditional expected stock returns is unambiguously negative. This implies that industries that carry a higher systematic risk are those whose expected return are more affected by the oil price. The most sensitive industry to the oil price is the steel industry ($\eta_\Lambda^i = 0.231$) and the less sensitive is the oil industry ($\eta_\Lambda^i = 0.107$). Figure 7 shows the relationship between oil and the expected returns for these industries and also for the average industry. The parameter η_Λ^i captures the industry-specific issues and is responsible of the different slopes in the plot. As explained before, η_Λ^i and, therefore, the elasticity of the expected return, are highly sensitive to the volatility and cyclical of the industry's output. The steel and oil industries confirm this prediction, because the former has the highest volatility ($\sigma_X^i = 0.276$) and is cyclical ($\rho_X^i = 0.787$), while the latter has the lowest volatility and cyclical ($\sigma_X^i = 0.145$ and $\rho_X^i = 0.630$).

We can also understand the systematic effects of oil by studying the CAPM beta of each portfolio (see equations (32) and (33)). The beta of an industry is equal to η_Λ^i divided by the standard deviation of market portfolio return (σ_m). Equation (33) shows that the industry portfolio's beta

is a weighted average of the market betas of the state variables. Table 7 presents the beta decomposition for the different industries. The main result is that the betas of the industries are mostly explained by the output betas, β_X^i (see the last two columns of the table). This is consistent with the fact that the volatility and cyclicalities of the output are by far the most important factors in determining the systematic risk of the portfolios.²² Another interesting result is that for all non-oil industries the weights on the oil beta are also negative. These negative weights arise from the negative impact of oil on the price-dividend ratio (with weight $b^i < 0$) and current dividend (with weight $-\frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} < 0$). The negative beta of oil ($\beta_S = -0.087$) suggests that the aggregate effect of oil on the systematic risks of the industries are positive, however, it explains a very little fraction (less than 2%) of the industries betas. Finally, in line with our previous results, the steel and oil industries have the highest and lowest systematic risks, respectively. The large difference in the β_X^i (1.343 versus 0.563) explains the differences in the systematic risk of both industry portfolios (1.430 versus 0.663).

A fact that deserves special attention is the positive weight for β_S that is present in the market beta of the oil portfolio. This result is consistent with the fact that the oil industry is the only one that increases its value with an oil price shock.²³ The oil industry is the only industry whose growth opportunities are not significantly impacted by the oil price and, therefore the effect of lower discount rates dominates the decrease in the future dividends. Interestingly, the negative beta of oil implies that the oil industry has a lower systematic risk, although this has only a minor impact on the total systematic risk of the portfolio. This result is important for CAPM-based portfolio management, because it suggests that to reduce the systematic risk of portfolio is more efficient to take long positions in crude oil futures than to invest in oil-related stocks.

In summary, our estimates suggest that the partial effect of oil on the conditional expected returns of industry portfolios depends critically on the output betas (β_X^i).

7.2 Idiosyncratic effects of oil price shocks and stock returns

The idiosyncratic risks of a stock are important to understand the dynamics of the stock returns. In our oil-based model the idiosyncratic oil shocks have also a direct impact on the realized industry portfolio returns and its weight depends on the parameter η_S^i (see equation (23)).

Table 8 shows the decomposition of η_S^i in two sources, one associated to the oil price and the other to the output variable, because an idiosyncratic oil shock affects the dynamics of these two variables. The first effect is negative for all non-oil industries because an idiosyncratic shock

²² Indeed, by definition the industry-specific parameter β_X^i is increasing in σ_X^i and ρ_X^i , since $\beta_X^i = \frac{\sigma_X^i \rho_X^i}{\sigma_m}$.

²³ Probably, this is a consequence of the higher flexibility of this industry to transfer oil price increases to the future sales prices, along with a low price-demand elasticity.

decreases the market value of those portfolios. This effect is positive for the oil industry. The second effect is always positive and is driven by the positive correlation between the oil and the output variable of each industry, although this last effect is not statistically significant because it depends on parameters $\rho_{x_s}^i$ and ρ_s (see Table 3). The overall effect an idiosyncratic oil shock in the realized returns varies across industries and can be positive or negative depending on the strength of the two components discussed above.

7.3 Dynamic effects of oil price shocks on stock returns

Bringing all together, an idiosyncratic oil price shocks cause an immediate impact on the realized stock return. This effect can be positive or negative depending on the industry. This increase in the oil price produces a negative effect on the expected returns of all industries through both the interest rate and the market price of risk. These effects are long-live because of the high persistence in real oil price. Gradually, the oil effect will disappear and macro variable will increase towards their long-run means.

Figure 8 shows the impact over time of an idiosyncratic oil shock on the conditional expected portfolio returns of the oil industry, the steel industry and the average industry. We simulate an increase of one standard deviation in log real oil price ($\sigma_s = 0.289$) in period $t = 0$, assuming that both state variables are at their unconditional means before the shock ($t = -1$), that is $s_{-1} = 3.140$ and $Y_{-1} = 0$. The figure shows that initially the conditional expected return on all industries fall and, as expected from Section 7.1, the most impacted industry is steel industry. The conditional expected return decreases by 3.2%, 2.3% and 1.6% for the steel, average and oil industries, respectively.

Driesprong, Jacobsen, and Maat (2008) report a significant forecasting power of the lagged log return on oil price for stock returns using monthly data. They find a negative relationship between the conditional expected stock returns and the crude oil returns. In their industry portfolio analysis they comment the following: “effect is weaker in the sectors in which the effect of an oil price change is easiest to assess” and “Predictability tends to be strong, however, in the non-oil-related sectors”. Our model reproduces their results, however it provides an alternative explanation for the same empirical facts. In our model, the oil price effects on the oil industry are weaker than on the other industries, because of its low output market beta, while in the non-oil-related sectors the impact of oil price changes is larger since these industries have more volatile and cyclical sales incomes.

As can be seen from Figure 8, after an oil shock, the mean-reversion in log oil price comes into play and increase the real interest rate and the market price of risk over time. The conditional expected portfolio returns increase at longer horizons and the speed depends on persistence of the

oil shocks. The mean-reverting process produces an U-shaped pattern in expected stock returns, with these last ones declining until the 13th month and rising later. This dynamics is consistent with the empirical evidence reported by Casassus and Higuera (2011), who show that the partial effect of the fourth quarterly lag of oil futures returns has a highly significant impact on the conditional expected stock market return. Finally, it is worth noting that from equation (34) we see that the future expected stock returns are increasing in s_t , however the speed of mean-reversion parameter associated to this variable is very small, which is also evident from Figure 8.

8 Conclusions

In this paper we present a partial equilibrium model that allows us to disentangle the multiple effects of the oil price on the industry portfolios. Our model takes into account that oil shocks are transmitted through business-cycle and industry-specific channels. Macroeconomic channels have been widely documented previously and are associated to the risk-free interest rate and the market price of risk. The less studied industry-specific channels can be decomposed into those affecting the current (i.e., oil intensity and oil demand) and future cash-flows (i.e., growth opportunities).

We derive the asset pricing implications of the model and study the oil price elasticities of the current dividend, of the dividend growth rate and of the expected return of the portfolio. We find that on average, the non-oil industries decrease their value by 1.8% after an oil price increase of 10%. This effect is dominated by the negative effect of oil on the growth opportunities of the industries. Oil has also a minor negative effect on the current dividend of the firms, which is consistent with the low intensity of oil in the economy.

We also study the effect of oil on expected and realized stock returns. The macroeconomic effect of oil on the market price of risk is negative and highly significant, implying a negative linkage between oil and expected returns. We also find that firms whose expected returns are more sensitive to the oil price are those who have a higher systematic risk. However, we find that most of the systematic risk of the firms is explained by the systematic risk of their output rather than by effect of oil. The effect of oil on the realized stock returns can have either sign, but depend on the effect of oil on the value of the portfolio and its correlation with the output of the industry.

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Appendix

A Proofs

This appendix contains the proofs of Propositions 1 to 4.

A.1 Proof of Proposition 1

To obtain the result of Proposition 1, first equation (7) is substituted into the HJB equation (9). Then, we apply Itô's Lemma to the second term in the HJB equation and take conditional expectations:

$$\begin{aligned}
0 = \max_{\{q_t^i\}} & \left\{ X_t^i (q_t^i)^{\gamma^i} - S_t q_t^i - P_t^i r_t^f + P_{s,t}^i S_t (\kappa_s (\bar{s} - \log(S_t)) - \lambda_t \sigma_s \rho_s) - P_{y,t}^i (\kappa_y y_t + \lambda_t \rho_y) \right. \\
& + P_{x,t}^i X_t^i (\mu_0^i + \mu_s^i \log(S_t) - \lambda_t \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i) + \frac{1}{2} P_{ss,t}^i S_t^2 \sigma_s^2 + P_{sy,t}^i S_t \sigma_s \rho_s \rho_y \\
& \left. + P_{sx,t}^i S_t X_t^i \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i + \frac{1}{2} P_{y,t}^i + P_{yx,t}^i X_t^i \sigma_x^i \rho_y \rho_x^i + \frac{1}{2} P_{xx,t}^i X_t^i{}^2 \sigma_x^i{}^2 \right\} \quad (A1)
\end{aligned}$$

subject to

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_t[\Lambda_T P^i(S_T, y_T, X_T^i)] = 0$$

The first result of Proposition 1 arises from the first order condition of this optimization problem, while the second one from substituting the optimal oil demand in equation (7).

Expressing result in equation (12) as:

$$D_t^{i*} = \exp\left(\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \log(X_t^i) - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} s_t\right) (\gamma^i)^{\frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}} (1-\gamma^i) \quad (A2)$$

Finally, dividend's growth rate results from applying Itô's lemma to equation (A2).

A.2 Proof of Proposition 2

Substituting (19) in equation (18) produces:

$$\begin{aligned}
0 = & h_0^i - h_1^i \log(H_t^i) - r_t^f - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} (\kappa_s (\bar{s} - s_t) - \lambda_t \sigma_s \rho_s) + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} (\mu_0^i + \mu_s^i s_t - \lambda_t \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_s^2 \\
& - \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_x^i{}^2 + \frac{H_{s,t}^i}{H_t^i} \left(\kappa_s (\bar{s} - s_t) - \lambda_t \sigma_s \rho_s - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s^2 + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i \right) \\
& - \frac{H_{y,t}^i}{H_t^i} \left(\kappa_y y_t + \lambda_t \rho_y + \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s \rho_s \rho_y - \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_y \rho_x^i \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{H_{ss,t}^i}{H_t^i} \sigma_s^2 + \frac{H_{sy,t}^i}{H_t^i} \sigma_s \rho_s \rho_y + \frac{1}{2} \frac{H_{yy,t}^i}{H_t^i} \quad (A3)
\end{aligned}$$

We guess the following exponential affine solution for the price-dividend ratio:

$$H^i(s_t, y_t) = \exp(a^i + b^i s_t + c^i y_t) \quad (A4)$$

and replace it in equation (A3). After substituting r_t^f and λ_t from equations (3) and (4), and collecting terms that are linear on s_t and y_t , we obtain the following system of linear equations for the unknown

constants a^i , b^i and c^i :

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= h_0^i - \alpha_0 - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}(\kappa_s \bar{s} - \theta_0 \sigma_s \rho_s) + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i}(\mu_0^i - \theta_0 \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_s^2 - \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_x^i{}^2 - a^i h_1^i + b^i \left(\kappa_s \bar{s} - \theta_0 \sigma_s \rho_s - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s^2 + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i \right) \\
&\quad - c^i \rho_y \left(\theta_0 + \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s \rho_s - \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) + \frac{1}{2} b^i{}^2 \sigma_s^2 + b^i c^i \sigma_s \rho_s \rho_y + \frac{1}{2} c^i{}^2
\end{aligned} \tag{A5}$$

$$0 = \alpha_s - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \kappa_s - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \theta_s \sigma_s \rho_s - \frac{\mu_s^i}{1-\gamma^i} + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \theta_s \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i + b^i (h_1^i + \kappa_s + \theta_s \sigma_s \rho_s) + c^i \theta_s \rho_y \tag{A6}$$

$$0 = \alpha_y - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \theta_y \sigma_s \rho_s + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \theta_y \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i + b^i \theta_y \sigma_s \rho_s + c^i (h_1^i + \kappa_y + \theta_y \rho_y) \tag{A7}$$

From equations (A6) and (A7) we obtain b^i and c^i :

$$\begin{aligned}
b^i &= -((\alpha_s(1-\gamma^i) - \gamma^i \kappa_s - \mu_s^i)(h_1^i + \kappa_y + \theta_y \rho_y) + \theta_s((h_1^i + \kappa_y)(\sigma_x^i \rho_x^i - \gamma^i \sigma_s \rho_s) \\
&\quad - \alpha_y \rho_y(1-\gamma^i)))/((1-\gamma^i)((h_1^i + \kappa_s)(h_1^i + \kappa_y + \theta_y \rho_y) + \theta_s \sigma_s \rho_s (h_1^i + \kappa_y)))
\end{aligned} \tag{A8}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
c^i &= -(\theta_y \sigma_s \rho_s (\mu_s^i - \alpha_s(1-\gamma^i) - \gamma^i h_1^i) + \alpha_y(1-\gamma^i)(h_1^i + \kappa_s + \theta_s \sigma_s \rho_s) \\
&\quad + \theta_y \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i (h_1^i + \kappa_s))/((1-\gamma^i)((h_1^i + \kappa_s)(h_1^i + \kappa_y + \theta_y \rho_y) + \theta_s \sigma_s \rho_s (h_1^i + \kappa_y)))
\end{aligned} \tag{A9}$$

while a^i is obtained from equation (A5) after replacing the solution in equations (A8) and (A9). This completes the proof of Proposition 2.

A.3 Proof of Proposition 3

We obtain the price of the stock from equations (17), (12) and (20):

$$\begin{aligned}
P_t^i &= H^i(s_t, y_t) D^i(X_t^i, S_t) \\
&= \exp(a^i + b^i s_t + c^i y_t) \left(\frac{(\gamma^i)^{\gamma^i} X_t^i}{S_t^{\gamma^i}} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i}} (1-\gamma^i) \\
&= \exp\left(a^i + \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}\right) s_t + c^i y_t + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \log(X_t^i)\right) (\gamma^i)^{\frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}} (1-\gamma^i)
\end{aligned} \tag{A10}$$

Applying Itô's Lemma and dividing by P_t^i yields:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dP_t^i}{P_t^i} &= \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \left(\kappa_s (\bar{s} - s_t) - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_s^2 \right) - c^i \kappa_y y_t + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \left(\mu_0^i + \mu_s^i s_t - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_x^i{}^2 \right) + \right. \\
&\quad \frac{1}{2} \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right)^2 \sigma_s^2 + \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) c^i \sigma_s \rho_s \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i + \frac{1}{2} c^i{}^2 + \\
&\quad \left. c^i \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_y \rho_x^i + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_x^i{}^2 \right) dt + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \rho_s + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) dZ_{\Lambda, t} \\
&\quad + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \sqrt{1-\rho_s^2} + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \frac{\rho_{xs}^i - \rho_s \rho_x^i}{\sqrt{1-\rho_s^2}} \right) dZ_{s, t} + c^i \sqrt{1-\rho_y^2} dZ_{y, t} + \\
&\quad \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \sqrt{1-\rho_x^i{}^2 - \frac{(\rho_{xs}^i - \rho_s \rho_x^i)^2}{1-\rho_s^2}} dZ_{x, t}
\end{aligned} \tag{A11}$$

Also, from equation (19) the approximated dividend-price ratio is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{D_t^{i*}}{P_t^i} &= h_0^i - h_1^i \log(H_t^i) = h_0^i - h_1^i (a^i + b^i s_t + c^i y_t) \\
&= \alpha_0 + \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} (\kappa_s \bar{s} - \theta_0 \sigma_s \rho_s) - \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} (\mu_0^i - \theta_0 \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_s^2 + \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma^i}{(1-\gamma^i)^2} \sigma_x^i{}^2 - b^i \left(\kappa_s \bar{s} - \theta_0 \sigma_s \rho_s - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1+\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s^2 + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s \sigma_x^i \rho_{xs}^i \right) - b^i c^i \sigma_s \rho_s \rho_y \\
&\quad + c^i \rho_y \left(\theta_0 + \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_s \rho_s - \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) - \frac{1}{2} b^i{}^2 \sigma_s^2 - \frac{1}{2} c^i{}^2 - b^i h_1^i s_t - c^i h_1^i y_t
\end{aligned} \tag{A12}$$

where the term $a^i h_1^i$ is substituted from equation (A5).

Replacing (A11) and (A12) in equation (22) yields:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} &= \left(\alpha_0 - \left(\kappa_s \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) + b^i h_1^i - \frac{\mu_s^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) s_t - c^i (\kappa_y + h_1^i) y_t + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \rho_s \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) \theta_0 \right) dt + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \rho_s + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\
&\quad + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \sqrt{1-\rho_s^2} + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \frac{\rho_{xs}^i - \rho_s \rho_x^i}{\sqrt{1-\rho_s^2}} \right) dZ_{s,t} + c^i \sqrt{1-\rho_y^2} dZ_{y,t} \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \sqrt{1-\rho_x^i{}^2 - \frac{(\rho_{xs}^i - \rho_s \rho_x^i)^2}{1-\rho_s^2}} dZ_{x,t}
\end{aligned} \tag{A13}$$

Then, using equations (A8) and (A9) it is easy to see that:

$$-\left(\kappa_s \left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) + b^i h_1^i - \frac{\mu_s^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) = \alpha_s + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \rho_s + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) \theta_s \tag{A14}$$

$$-c^i (\kappa_y + h_1^i) = \alpha_y + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_s \rho_s + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_x^i \rho_x^i \right) \theta_y \tag{A15}$$

Finally, replacing (A14) and (A15) in equation (A13) and using the definitions of r_t^f and λ_t in equations (3) and (4), gives the result in Proposition 3.

A.4 Proof of Proposition 4

Taking the conditional expectation to equation (23) and annualizing the return gives:

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{r}_t^i &= r_t^f + \eta_\Lambda^i \lambda_t \\
&= \alpha_0 + \alpha_s s_t + \alpha_y y_t + \eta_\Lambda^i (\theta_0 + \theta_s s_t + \theta_y y_t) \\
&= \left(\alpha_0 + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_0 \right) + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_s + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_s & \alpha_y + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_t \\ y_t \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned} \tag{A16}$$

$$\bar{r}_t^i = \left(\alpha_0 + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_0 \right) + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_s + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_s & \alpha_y + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_y \end{bmatrix} V_t \tag{A17}$$

Let's define the following bivariate vector:

$$\begin{aligned}
J_t^i &= \begin{pmatrix} \bar{r}_t^i - (\alpha_0 + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_0) \\ s_t \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_s + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_s & \alpha_y + \eta_\Lambda^i \theta_y \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} V_t
\end{aligned}$$

$$J_t^i = C^i V_t \quad (\text{A18})$$

Applying Itô's Lemma:

$$\begin{aligned} dJ_t^i &= C^i dV_t \\ &= C^i ((\mu + \xi V_t) dt + \Sigma_j dZ_{j,t}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A19})$$

So, substituting by $V_t = (C^i)^{-1} J_t^i$ and reordering terms gives the result in Proposition 4.

B MLE estimation

This appendix contains all the details about the estimation of the model.

B.1 State variables

The dynamics of the state variables is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} ds_t \\ dy_t \end{pmatrix} &= \left(\begin{pmatrix} \bar{s}\kappa_S - \sigma_S^2/2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -\kappa_S & 0 \\ 0 & -\kappa_y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_t \\ y_t \end{pmatrix} \right) dt + \\ &\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_S \rho_S & \sigma_S \sqrt{1 - \rho_S^2} & 0 & 0'_P \\ \rho_y & 0 & \sqrt{1 - \rho_y^2} & 0'_P \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\ dZ_{S,t} \\ dZ_{y,t} \\ dZ_{X,t}^P \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B1})$$

where P is the number of industry portfolios included and $dZ_{X,t}^P$ is defined as:

$$dZ_{X,t}^P = [dZ_{X,t}^i]_P \quad (\text{B2})$$

That can be written, using matrix notation, as:

$$dV_t = (\mu + \xi V_t) dt + \Sigma dZ_t \quad (\text{B3})$$

where,

$$dZ_t = \begin{pmatrix} dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\ dZ_{S,t} \\ dZ_{y,t} \\ dZ_{X,t}^P \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{B4})$$

It is well known that the SDE in equation (B3) has the following solution:²⁴

$$V_{t+\tau} = U\Phi(\tau)U^{-1}V_t + U\Lambda^{-1}[\Phi(\tau) - I_n]U^{-1}\mu + U\Phi(\tau)\int_0^\tau \Phi(s)^{-1}U^{-1}\Sigma dZ_{t+s} \quad (\text{B5})$$

where $N = 2$, $\xi = U\Lambda U^{-1}$, U is the matrix whose columns are the N eigenvectors of ξ , Λ is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues of ξ (π_i ; $i = 1, \dots, N$) and $\Phi(\tau) = \text{diag}[\exp(\pi_i \tau)]_N$.

Thus, the conditional moments of $V_{t+\tau}$ are given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_t [V_{t+\tau}] &= U\Phi(\tau)U^{-1}V_t + U\Lambda^{-1}[\Phi(\tau) - I_n]U^{-1}\mu \\ \text{Var}_t (V_{t+\tau}) &= \mathbb{E}_t \left([V_{t+\tau} - \mathbb{E}_t (V_{t+\tau})] [V_{t+\tau} - \mathbb{E}_t (V_{t+\tau})]' \right) \\ &= U \left[\frac{v_{i,j} (\exp((\pi_i + \pi_j)\tau) - 1)}{\pi_i + \pi_j} \right]_{N \times N} U' \\ &= U(\Upsilon \circ \Psi(\tau))U' \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B6})$$

²⁴ See for example, Ahn, Dittmar, and Gallant (2002).

where, \circ is the Hadamard product and matrices Υ and $\Psi(\tau)$ are defined as:

$$\Upsilon = [v_{i,j}]_{N \times N} := U^{-1} \Sigma \Sigma' U'^{-1} \quad (\text{B8})$$

$$\Psi(\tau) = \left[\psi_{i,j}(\tau) := \frac{\exp((\pi_i + \pi_j)\tau) - 1}{\pi_i + \pi_j} \right]_{N \times N} \quad (\text{B9})$$

To obtain the unconditional moments we take the limit $\tau \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\mathbb{E}[V_t] = -U \Lambda^{-1} U^{-1} \mu = -\xi^{-1} \mu \quad (\text{B10})$$

$$\text{Var}(V_t) = U (\Upsilon \circ \Omega) U' \quad (\text{B11})$$

where the matrix Ω is given by:

$$\Omega = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \Psi(\tau) = \left[\omega_{i,j} := -\frac{1}{\pi_i + \pi_j} \right]_{N \times N} \quad (\text{B12})$$

B.2 Market return

The instantaneous return on the market portfolio in our model is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dG_t^m}{G_t^m} &= (r_t^f + \sigma_m \lambda_t) dt + \sigma_m dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\ &= (\alpha_0 + \alpha_S s_t + \alpha_y y_t + \sigma_m (\theta_0 + \theta_S s_t + \theta_y y_t)) dt + \sigma_m dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\ \frac{dG_t^m}{G_t^m} &= (\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 + (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' V_t) dt + \sigma_m dZ_{\Lambda,t} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B13})$$

where $\alpha_V = [\alpha_S \ \alpha_y]'$ and $\theta_V = [\theta_S \ \theta_y]'$. The instantaneous log-return on the market portfolio is:

$$dg_t^m = \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 + (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' V_t \right) dt + \sigma_m dZ_{\Lambda,t} \quad (\text{B14})$$

where $g_t^m := \log(G_t^m)$. We define the log-return on the market portfolio between $t + \tau$ and $t + \tau + h$ as:

$$\begin{aligned} r_{t+\tau,h}^m := g_{t+\tau+h}^m - g_{t+\tau}^m &= \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 \right) h + \int_0^h (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' V_{t+\tau+s} ds \\ &\quad + \int_0^h \sigma_m dZ_{\Lambda,t+\tau+s} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B15})$$

The conditional moments of $r_{t+\tau,h}^m$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_t [r_{t+\tau,h}^m] &= \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 \right) h + \int_0^h (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' \mathbb{E}_t [V_{t+\tau+s}] ds \\ &= \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 - (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h + \\ &\quad (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' U \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(\tau + h) - \Phi(\tau)] U^{-1} V_t + \\ &\quad (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' U \Lambda^{-2} [\Phi(\tau + h) - \Phi(\tau)] U^{-1} \mu \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B16})$$

$$\text{Var}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}^m) = \sigma_m^2 h \quad (\text{B17})$$

To obtain the unconditional moments we take the limit $\tau \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\mathbb{E} (r_{t,h}^m) = \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 - (\alpha_V + \sigma_m \theta_V)' \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h \quad (\text{B18})$$

$$\text{Var} (r_{t,h}^m) = \sigma_m^2 h \quad (\text{B19})$$

After some calculations, we obtain the following expression for the conditional covariance between $r_{t+\tau,h}^m$ and $V_{t+\tau+h}$:

$$\text{Cov}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}^m, V_{t+\tau+h}) = \sigma_m \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0'_{P+2} \end{bmatrix} \Sigma' U'^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U' \quad (\text{B20})$$

Since this expression is independent of τ , it is also the unconditional covariance between $r_{t+\tau,h}^m$ and $V_{t+\tau+h}$.

B.3 Industry portfolio log-returns

The instantaneous return on portfolio i is:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dG_t^i}{G_t^i} &= \left(\alpha_0 + \alpha_S s_t + \alpha_y y_t + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_S \rho_S + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_X^i \rho_X^i \right) (\theta_0 + \theta_S s_t + \theta_y y_t) \right) dt \\
&\quad + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sigma_S \rho_S + c^i \rho_y + \frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \sigma_X^i \rho_X^i \right) dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \left(\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i} \right) \sqrt{1-\rho_S^2} \sigma_S \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{(\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i) \sigma_X^i}{(1-\gamma^i) \sqrt{1-\rho_S^2}} \right) dZ_{S,t} + c^i \sqrt{1-\rho_y^2} dZ_{y,t} + \sqrt{1-\rho_X^i{}^2 - \frac{(\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i)^2}{1-\rho_S^2}} \frac{\sigma_X^i}{1-\gamma^i} dZ_{X,t} \\
&= \left(\alpha_0 + \alpha_S s_t + \alpha_y y_t + \eta_{\Lambda}^i (\theta_0 + \theta_S s_t + \theta_y y_t) \right) dt + \eta_{\Lambda}^i dZ_{\Lambda,t} + \eta_S^i dZ_{S,t} + \eta_y^i dZ_{y,t} + \eta_X^i dZ_{X,t} \\
&= \left(\nu^i + \varphi^{i'} V_t \right) dt + \eta^{i'} dZ_t^i
\end{aligned} \tag{B21}$$

where $\nu^i := \alpha_0 + \eta_{\Lambda}^i \theta_0$ and the vectors φ^i , η^i y dZ_t^i are defined as follow:

$$\varphi^i := \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_S + \eta_{\Lambda}^i \theta_S \\ \alpha_y + \eta_{\Lambda}^i \theta_y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \eta^i := \begin{pmatrix} \eta_{\Lambda}^i \\ \eta_S^i \\ \eta_y^i \\ \eta_X^i \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad dZ_t^i := \begin{pmatrix} dZ_{\Lambda,t} \\ dZ_{S,t} \\ dZ_{y,t} \\ dZ_{X,t} \end{pmatrix} \tag{B22}$$

We can present the instantaneous return on the P portfolios in matrix form as follows:

$$\frac{dG_t}{G_t} = (\nu + \varphi V_t) dt + \eta dZ_t \tag{B23}$$

where

$$\nu = [\nu^i]_P = \begin{pmatrix} \nu^1 \\ \vdots \\ \nu^P \end{pmatrix}, \quad \varphi = [\varphi_j^i]_{P \times 2} = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi^{1'} \\ \vdots \\ \varphi^{P'} \end{pmatrix} \tag{B24}$$

$$\eta = [\eta_j^i]_{P \times (P+3)} = \begin{pmatrix} \eta_{\Lambda} & \eta_S & \eta_y & \text{diag} [\eta_X^i]_P \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_k = [\eta_k^i]_P = \begin{pmatrix} \eta_k^1 \\ \vdots \\ \eta_k^P \end{pmatrix}; \quad k = \Lambda, S, y. \tag{B25}$$

Then, applying Itô's Lemma to $g_t := \log(G_t)$ yields:

$$\begin{aligned}
dg_t &= \frac{dG_t}{G_t} - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1} \left[\frac{dG_t}{G_t} \frac{dG_t}{G_t}' \right] \\
&= \left(\nu + \varphi V_t - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1} [\eta \eta'] \right) dt + \eta dZ_t
\end{aligned} \tag{B26}$$

As before, we define the log-return between $t + \tau$ and $t + \tau + h$, $r_{t+\tau,h}$ as:

$$r_{t+\tau,h} := g_{t+\tau+h} - g_{t+\tau} = \left(\nu - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1} [\eta \eta'] \right) h + \int_0^h \varphi V_{t+\tau+s} ds + \int_0^h \eta dZ_{t+\tau+s} \tag{B27}$$

From the previous expression it is straightforward to obtain the conditional moments of $r_{t+\tau,h}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}_t [r_{t+\tau,h}] &= \left(\nu - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1} [\eta \eta'] \right) h + \int_0^h \varphi \mathbb{E}_t [V_{t+\tau+s}] ds \\
&= \left(\nu - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1} [\eta \eta'] - \varphi \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h + \varphi U \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(\tau+h) - \Phi(\tau)] U^{-1} V_t + \\
&\quad \varphi U \Lambda^{-2} [\Phi(\tau+h) - \Phi(\tau)] U^{-1} \mu
\end{aligned} \tag{B28}$$

$$\text{Var}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}) = \eta \eta' h \quad (\text{B29})$$

To obtain the unconditional moments we take the limit $\tau \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\mathbb{E} (r_{t,h}) = \left(\nu - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1} [\eta \eta'] - \varphi \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h \quad (\text{B30})$$

$$\text{Var} (r_{t,h}) = \eta \eta' h \quad (\text{B31})$$

After some calculations, we obtain the following expression for the conditional covariance between $r_{t+\tau,h}$ and $V_{t+\tau+h}$:

$$\text{Cov}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}, V_{t+\tau+h}) = \eta \Sigma' U'^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U' \quad (\text{B32})$$

Since this expression is independent of τ , it is also the unconditional covariance between $r_{t+\tau,h}^m$ and $V_{t+\tau+h}$.

B.4 Variables observed without error

The conditional and unconditional moments of the vector $W_{t+\tau+h}$ are given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_t [W_{t+\tau+h}] &= A + B \mathbb{E}_t [V_{t+\tau+h}] \\ &= A + B (U \Phi(\tau+h) U^{-1} V_t + U \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(\tau+h) - I_n] U^{-1} \mu) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B33})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}_t (W_{t+\tau+h}) &= \mathbb{E}_t \left([W_{t+\tau+h} - \mathbb{E}_t (W_{t+\tau+h})] [W_{t+\tau+h} - \mathbb{E}_t (W_{t+\tau+h})]' \right) \\ &= B \text{Var}_t (V_{t+\tau+h}) B' \\ &= B U (\Upsilon \circ \Psi(\tau+h)) U' B' \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B34})$$

$$\mathbb{E} (W_{t+h}) = A - B U \Lambda^{-1} U^{-1} \mu = A - B \xi^{-1} \mu \quad (\text{B35})$$

$$\text{Var} (W_{t+h}) = B U (\Upsilon \circ \Omega) U' B' \quad (\text{B36})$$

Moreover, the conditional and unconditional covariances between $W_{t+\tau+h}$ and $V_{t+\tau+h}$ are simply:

$$\text{Cov}_t (W_{t+\tau+h}, V_{t+\tau+h}) = B U (\Upsilon \circ \Psi(\tau+h)) U' \quad (\text{B37})$$

$$\text{Cov} (W_{t+h}, V_{t+h}) = B U (\Upsilon \circ \Omega) U' \quad (\text{B38})$$

B.5 Cross-moments

The conditional covariance between $r_{t+\tau,h}^m$ and $r_{t+\tau,h}$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}^m, r_{t+\tau,h}) &= \mathbb{E}_t \left([r_{t+\tau,h}^m - \mathbb{E}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}^m)] [r_{t+\tau,h} - \mathbb{E}_t (r_{t+\tau,h})]' \right) \\ &= \sigma_m \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0'_{P+2} \end{bmatrix} \eta' h \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B39})$$

while the conditional covariance between $r_{t+\tau,h}^m$ and $W_{t+\tau+h}$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}^m, W_{t+\tau+h}) &= \mathbb{E}_t \left([r_{t+\tau,h}^m - \mathbb{E}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}^m)] [W_{t+\tau+h} - \mathbb{E}_t (W_{t+\tau+h})]' \right) \\ &= \sigma_m \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0'_{P+2} \end{bmatrix} \Sigma' U'^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U' B' \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B40})$$

and finally, the conditional covariance of $r_{t+\tau,h}$ with $W_{t+\tau+h}$ result in:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}_t (r_{t+\tau,h}, W_{t+\tau+h}) &= \mathbb{E}_t \left([r_{t+\tau,h} - \mathbb{E}_t (r_{t+\tau,h})] [W_{t+\tau+h} - \mathbb{E}_t (W_{t+\tau+h})]' \right) \\ &= \eta \Sigma' U'^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U' B' \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B41})$$

As before, since these expressions are independent of τ , they correspond also to the unconditional covariances.

B.6 Log-likelihood function

For a sample of T monthly observations the log-likelihood function of the vector Y_{t+1} is:

$$L = -\frac{T(P+3)}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \log(|\text{Var}_t(Y_{t+1})|) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} (Y_{t+1} - \mathbb{E}_t(Y_{t+1}))' \text{Var}_t(Y_{t+1})^{-1} (Y_{t+1} - \mathbb{E}_t(Y_{t+1})) \quad (\text{B42})$$

where the conditional mean of Y_{t+1} results from the equations (B16), (B18), (B28), (B30), (44), (B33) and (B35) evaluated in $N = 3$, $\tau = 0$ and $h = 1/12$:

$$\mathbb{E}_t[Y_{t+1}] = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}_t[r_t^m] \\ \mathbb{E}_t[r_t^P] \\ \mathbb{E}_t[W_{t+1}] \end{pmatrix}; t = 1, \dots, T-1 \quad (\text{B43})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_t] = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}[r_t^m] \\ \mathbb{E}[r_t^P] \\ \mathbb{E}[W_{t+1}] \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{B44})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_t[r_t^m] &= \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 - (\alpha_v + \sigma_m \theta_v)' \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h + \\ &\quad (\alpha_v + \sigma_m \theta_v)' U \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U^{-1} V_t + \\ &\quad (\alpha_v + \sigma_m \theta_v)' U \Lambda^{-2} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U^{-1} \mu \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B45})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_t[r_t^P] &= \left(\nu - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1}[\eta \eta'] - \varphi \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h + \varphi U \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U^{-1} V_t \\ &\quad + \varphi U \Lambda^{-2} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U^{-1} \mu \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B46})$$

$$\mathbb{E}_t[W_{t+1}] = A + B (U \Phi(h) U^{-1} V_t + U \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U^{-1} \mu) \quad (\text{B47})$$

$$V_t = B^{-1} (W_t - A) \quad (\text{B48})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[r_t^m] = \left(\alpha_0 + \sigma_m \theta_0 - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_m^2 - (\alpha_v + \sigma_m \theta_v)' \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h \quad (\text{B49})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[r_t^P] = \left(\nu - \frac{1}{2} \text{diag}^{-1}[\eta \eta'] - \varphi \xi^{-1} \mu \right) h \quad (\text{B50})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[W_{t+1}] = A - B \xi^{-1} \mu \quad (\text{B51})$$

Similarly, conditional variance of Y_{t+1} is obtained from the equations (B17), (B19), (B29), (B31), (B34), (B36), (B39), (B40) and (B41):

$$\text{Var}_t(Y_{t+1}) = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Var}_t(r_t^m) & \text{Cov}_t(r_t^m, r_t^P) & \text{Cov}_t(r_t^m, W_{t+1}) \\ \text{Cov}_t(r_t^m, r_t^P)' & \text{Var}_t(r_t^P) & \text{Cov}_t(r_t^P, W_{t+1}) \\ \text{Cov}_t(r_t^m, W_{t+1})' & \text{Cov}_t(r_t^P, W_{t+1})' & \text{Var}_t(W_{t+1}) \end{pmatrix}; t = 1, \dots, T-1 \quad (\text{B52})$$

$$\text{Var}_t(r_t^m) = \sigma_m^2 h \quad (\text{B53})$$

$$\text{Var}_t(r_t^P) = \eta \eta' h \quad (\text{B54})$$

$$\text{Var}_t(W_{t+1}) = B U (\Upsilon \circ \Psi(h)) U' B' \quad (\text{B55})$$

$$\text{Cov}_t(r_t^m, r_t^P) = \sigma_m [1 \ 0'_{P+2}] \eta' h \quad (\text{B56})$$

$$\text{Cov}_t(r_t^m, W_{t+1}) = \sigma_m [1 \ 0'_{P+2}] \Sigma' U'^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U' B' \quad (\text{B57})$$

$$\text{Cov}_t(r_t^P, W_{t+1}) = \eta \Sigma' U'^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} [\Phi(h) - I_n] U' B' \quad (\text{B58})$$

The unconditional covariances are the same as the conditional covariances because these are independent of t .

Table 1: **Calibration of the parameter γ^i**

The table shows the estimates of the oil intensity γ^i for 13 out of the 17 French's industry portfolio. The portfolio "Other" was discarded because it is not representative of any particular industry. This calibration was done with information from the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) of the EIA. The last column has the average of the time series.

Name	Portfolio	Years				Average
	Description	1994	1998	2002	2006	
Food	Food	0.045	0.013	0.018	0.025	0.025
Oil	Oil and Petroleum Products	0.149	0.217	0.153	0.105	0.156
Clths	Textiles, Apparel & Footware	0.021	0.013	0.016	0.017	0.017
Durbl	Consumer Durables	0.016	0.014	0.013	0.014	0.014
Chems	Chemicals	0.125	0.103	0.127	0.142	0.124
Cnsum	Drugs, Soap, Prfums, Tobacco		0.038	0.033	0.038	0.036
Cnstr	Construction and Construction Materials	0.108	0.035	0.033	0.041	0.054
Steel	Steel Works Etc	0.074	0.060	0.054	0.044	0.058
FabPr	Fabricated Products		0.016	0.017	0.017	0.017
Machn	Machinery and Business Equipment	0.005	0.008	0.009	0.010	0.008
Cars	Automobiles	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.007	0.006
Trans	Transportation		0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007
Rtail	Retail Stores		0.011	0.014	0.017	0.014
Total		9	13	13	13	13

Table 2: Statistical summary, 1983M04-2010M12

All variables are expressed in real terms and sampled at a monthly frequency. Panel A shows the statistics for macroeconomic variables. r_t^m is the log-return on the CRSP-VW, s_t is the logarithm of the crude oil 1-month maturity futures, r_t^f is the Treasury bill rate. Panel B reports the statistics for the log-returns on the 13 industry portfolios in Table 1.

Panel A: Macroeconomic variables

	r_t^m	s_t	r_t^f
Average	0.006	2.896	0.001
Standard deviation	0.047	0.437	0.003

Correlation matrix			
	r_t^m	s_t	r_t^f
r_t^m	1.000		
s_t	-0.078	1.000	
r_t^f	-0.097	-0.093	1.000

Panel B: Portfolio returns

Portfolio	Average	Standard deviation	Correlation with r_t^m
Food	0.009	0.045	0.672
Oil	0.008	0.053	0.607
Clths	0.005	0.065	0.794
Durbl	0.003	0.059	0.839
Chems	0.007	0.059	0.812
Cnsum	0.008	0.047	0.682
Cnstr	0.006	0.062	0.849
Steel	0.003	0.084	0.807
FabPr	0.006	0.057	0.811
Machn	0.005	0.075	0.867
Cars	0.005	0.069	0.769
Trans	0.006	0.056	0.818
Rtail	0.007	0.055	0.810

Table 3: Parameter estimates, 1983M04-2010M12

Maximum likelihood estimates of the model parameters. Panel A reports the estimates for the global parameters, while Panel B presents the estimates for the parameters of each portfolio.

Panel A: Global parameters

Parameter	Estimate	t-stat
σ_m	0.162	26.04
α_0	0.037	3.18
α_S	-0.007	-1.75
α_y	0.162	19.31
θ_0	1.692	4.02
θ_S	-0.445	-3.46
θ_y	-0.878	-7.87
\bar{s}	3.476	9.10
κ_S	0.124	2.30
σ_S	0.289	25.81
ρ_S	-0.049	-1.48
κ_y	8.146	7.90
ρ_y	-0.169	-3.20
Log-likelihood	9829.848	

Panel B: Portfolio parameters

Portfolio	σ_x^i		ρ_x^i		ρ_{xS}^i		μ_S^i	
	Estimate	t-stat	Estimate	t-stat	Estimate	t-stat	Estimate	t-stat
Food	0.153	25.68	0.670	22.07	0.052	0.92	-0.067	-4.53
Oil	0.145	25.70	0.630	19.08	0.020	1.07	-0.024	-1.75
Clths	0.222	25.29	0.789	34.51	0.108	1.53	-0.117	-4.54
Durbl	0.204	19.75	0.810	20.47	0.200	1.26	-0.111	-3.86
Chems	0.182	21.12	0.789	22.59	0.183	1.31	-0.086	-4.02
Cnsum	0.156	25.75	0.680	23.11	0.053	1.37	-0.071	-4.43
Cnstr	0.206	16.10	0.816	15.20	0.239	1.25	-0.123	-3.92
Steel	0.276	22.25	0.787	24.25	0.153	1.07	-0.118	-3.64
FabPr	0.195	22.60	0.797	24.13	0.130	0.79	-0.098	-4.41
Machn	0.265	13.94	0.826	13.27	0.254	1.14	-0.145	-3.07
Cars	0.238	24.98	0.761	28.93	0.115	1.30	-0.119	-4.70
Trans	0.193	22.64	0.800	26.07	0.158	1.18	-0.102	-3.77
Rtail	0.187	22.16	0.809	23.04	0.106	0.47	-0.103	-3.09

Table 4: **Oil price elasticities**

$E_{D,S}^i$ is the oil price-dividend elasticity (equation (15)), $E_{H,S}^i$ is the oil price-price-dividend ratio elasticity (equation (21)), $E_{P,S}^i$ is the oil price-value elasticity ($E_{D,S}^i + E_{H,S}^i$), $E_{g,S}^i$ is the oil price-expected dividend growth elasticity (equation (16)) and $E_{r,S}^i$ is the oil price-expected stock return elasticity (equation (29)).

Portfolio	$E_{D,S}^i$	$E_{H,S}^i$	$E_{P,S}^i$	$E_{g,S}^i$	$E_{r,S}^i$
Food	-0.03	-0.08	-0.10	-0.07	-0.05
Oil	-0.19	0.34	0.15	-0.01	-0.05
Clths	-0.02	-0.20	-0.22	-0.12	-0.09
Durbl	-0.01	-0.19	-0.21	-0.11	-0.08
Chems	-0.14	0.00	-0.14	-0.08	-0.08
Cnsum	-0.04	-0.08	-0.12	-0.07	-0.06
Cnstr	-0.06	-0.24	-0.30	-0.12	-0.09
Steel	-0.06	-0.05	-0.11	-0.12	-0.11
FabPr	-0.02	-0.13	-0.15	-0.10	-0.08
Machn	-0.01	-0.26	-0.27	-0.15	-0.11
Cars	-0.01	-0.20	-0.21	-0.12	-0.09
Trans	-0.01	-0.17	-0.18	-0.10	-0.08
Rtail	-0.01	-0.18	-0.19	-0.10	-0.08

Table 5: **Out-of-sample test for log price-dividend ratio, 1983M04-2010M12**

Relationship between log price-dividend ratio and log oil price, given that the latent variable y_t is at its unconditional mean. Column “Model” reports equation (46), given $y_t = 0$, calibrated for an average industry, which is defined by the average values of γ^i , σ_X^i , ρ_X^i and μ_S^i in our sample. Parameter μ_0^i was calculated using that $\log(h_1^i) = -a^i(\mu_0^i) - b^i \times (\bar{s} - \sigma_S^2/2\kappa)$. Column “OLS” presents the estimation of the same relationship by ordinary least squares assuming that H_t^i is observed with measurement errors, which we assume to be iid normal.

Dependent variable is the log price-dividend ratio on the CRSP-VW Index.

	Model	OLS
Constant	4.161	4.155 (30.17)
s_t	-0.122	-0.131 (-2.78)
R^2		0.023

Table 6: **Sensitivities of industry portfolio returns with respect to the different shocks**

The table shows the estimates of the η parameters in equation (23).

Portfolio	η_{Λ}^i	η_S^i	η_y^i	η_X^i
Food	0.108	-0.016	-0.008	0.116
Oil	0.107	0.052	-0.008	0.133
Clths	0.181	-0.030	0.000	0.135
Durbl	0.171	-0.010	-0.001	0.111
Chems	0.167	0.006	-0.002	0.119
Cnsum	0.113	-0.021	-0.007	0.118
Cnstr	0.182	-0.025	0.000	0.110
Steel	0.231	0.024	0.005	0.172
FabPr	0.161	-0.009	-0.002	0.115
Machn	0.224	0.000	0.004	0.129
Cars	0.185	-0.023	0.000	0.151
Trans	0.158	-0.012	-0.003	0.110
Rtail	0.157	-0.028	-0.003	0.108

Table 7: **Systematic risk decomposition**

The table shows decomposition of the industry portfolios market beta in the market betas of the state variables according to equation (33). $\beta_S = -0.087$ and $\beta_y = -1.045$.

Portfolio	$b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}$	c^i	$\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i}$	β_X^i	$\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}\right)\beta_S$	$c^i\beta_y$	$\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i}\beta_X^i$	β^i
Food	-0.102	-0.008	1.026	0.632	0.009	0.009	0.648	0.666
Oil	0.150	-0.008	1.185	0.563	-0.013	0.009	0.667	0.663
Clths	-0.218	0.000	1.017	1.081	0.019	0.000	1.100	1.119
Durbl	-0.208	-0.001	1.015	1.020	0.018	0.002	1.035	1.055
Chems	-0.139	-0.002	1.142	0.890	0.012	0.002	1.016	1.030
Cnsum	-0.120	-0.008	1.038	0.657	0.010	0.008	0.682	0.701
Cnstr	-0.300	0.000	1.058	1.039	0.026	0.000	1.099	1.125
Steel	-0.113	0.005	1.062	1.343	0.010	-0.005	1.426	1.430
FabPr	-0.147	-0.002	1.017	0.963	0.013	0.003	0.979	0.995
Machn	-0.272	0.004	1.008	1.354	0.024	-0.004	1.365	1.385
Cars	-0.207	0.000	1.006	1.121	0.018	0.000	1.128	1.145
Trans	-0.176	-0.003	1.007	0.954	0.015	0.003	0.961	0.979
Rtail	-0.192	-0.003	1.014	0.936	0.017	0.003	0.949	0.969

Table 8: **Sensitivity of industry portfolio returns to oil price shocks**

The table shows the decomposition of parameter η_S^i according to the right hand of equation (25).

Portfolio	$\left(b^i - \frac{\gamma^i}{1-\gamma^i}\right) \sqrt{1-\rho_S^2} \sigma_S$	$\frac{1}{1-\gamma^i} \frac{\rho_{XS}^i - \rho_S \rho_X^i}{\sqrt{1-\rho_S^2}} \sigma_X^i$	η_S^i
Food	-0.029	0.013	-0.016
Oil	0.043	0.009	0.052
Clths	-0.063	0.033	-0.030
Durbl	-0.060	0.050	-0.010
Chems	-0.040	0.046	0.006
Cnsum	-0.035	0.014	-0.021
Cnstr	-0.086	0.061	-0.025
Steel	-0.033	0.056	0.024
FabPr	-0.043	0.034	-0.009
Machn	-0.078	0.079	0.000
Cars	-0.060	0.036	-0.023
Trans	-0.051	0.038	-0.012
Rtail	-0.055	0.028	-0.028

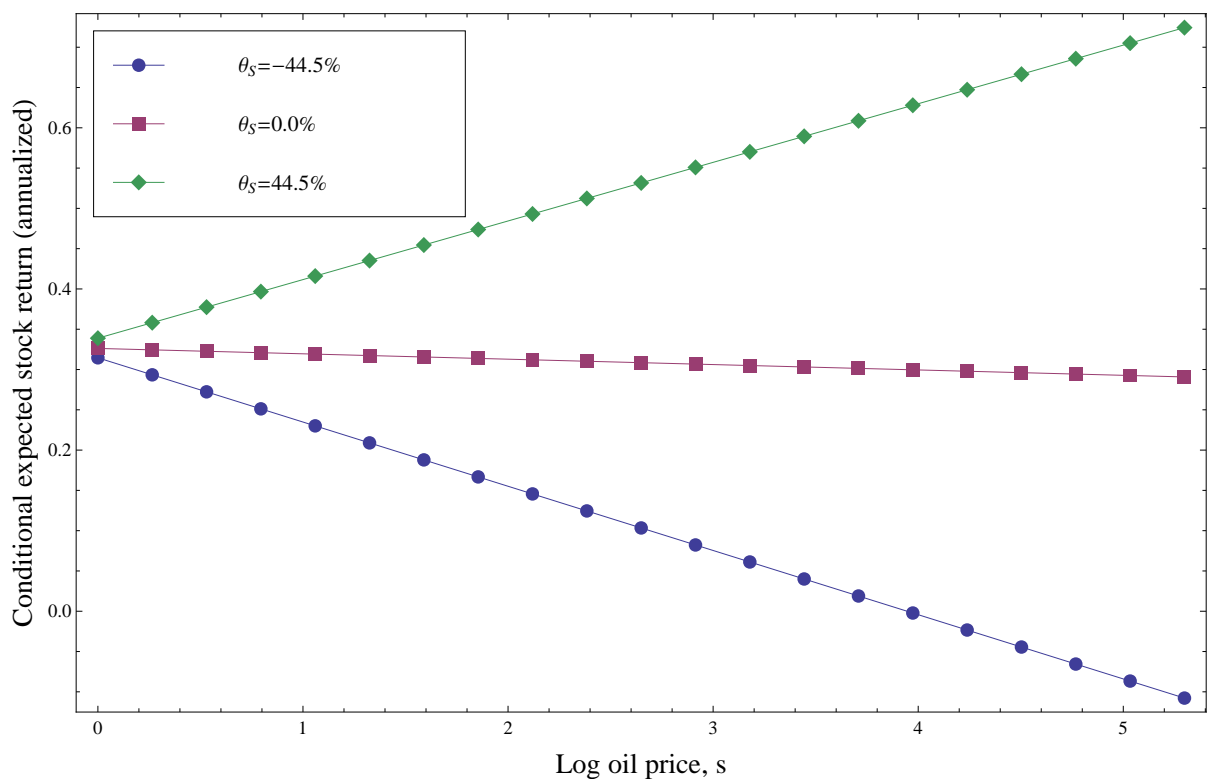


Figure 1: Conditional expected stock return and log stock price.

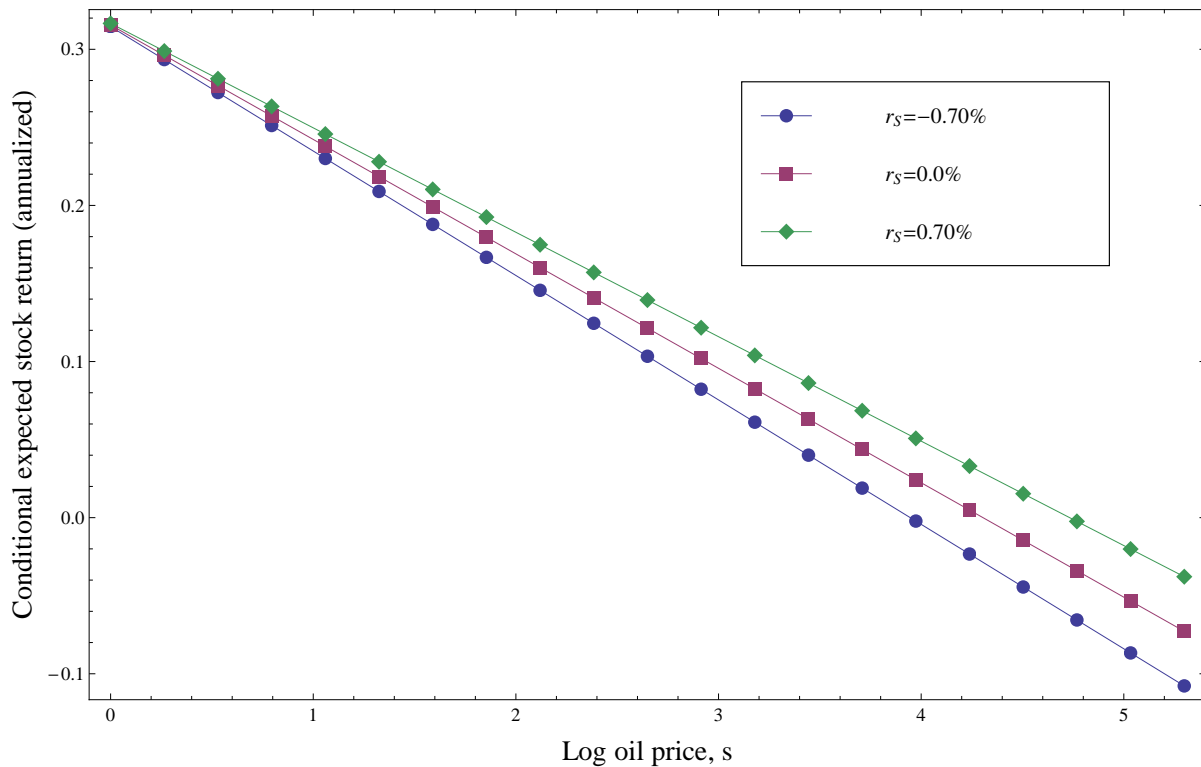


Figure 2: Conditional expected stock return and log oil price.

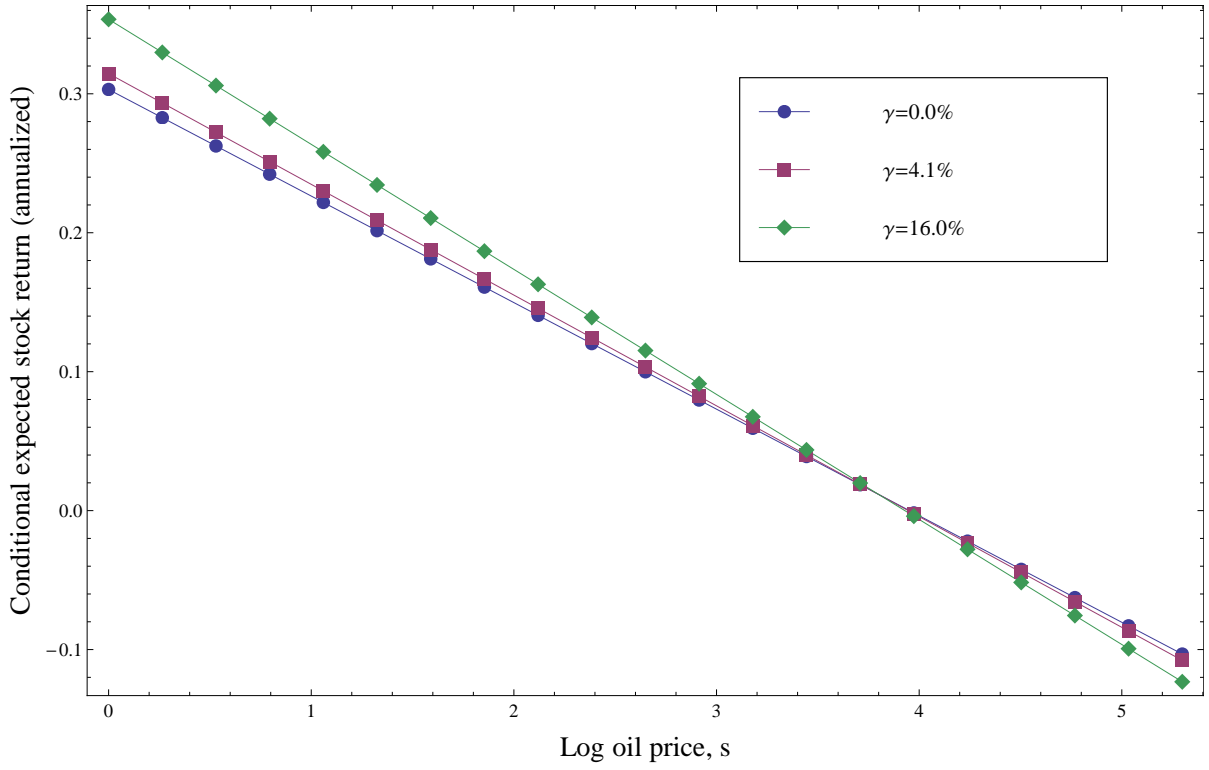


Figure 3: Conditional expected stock return and log oil price.

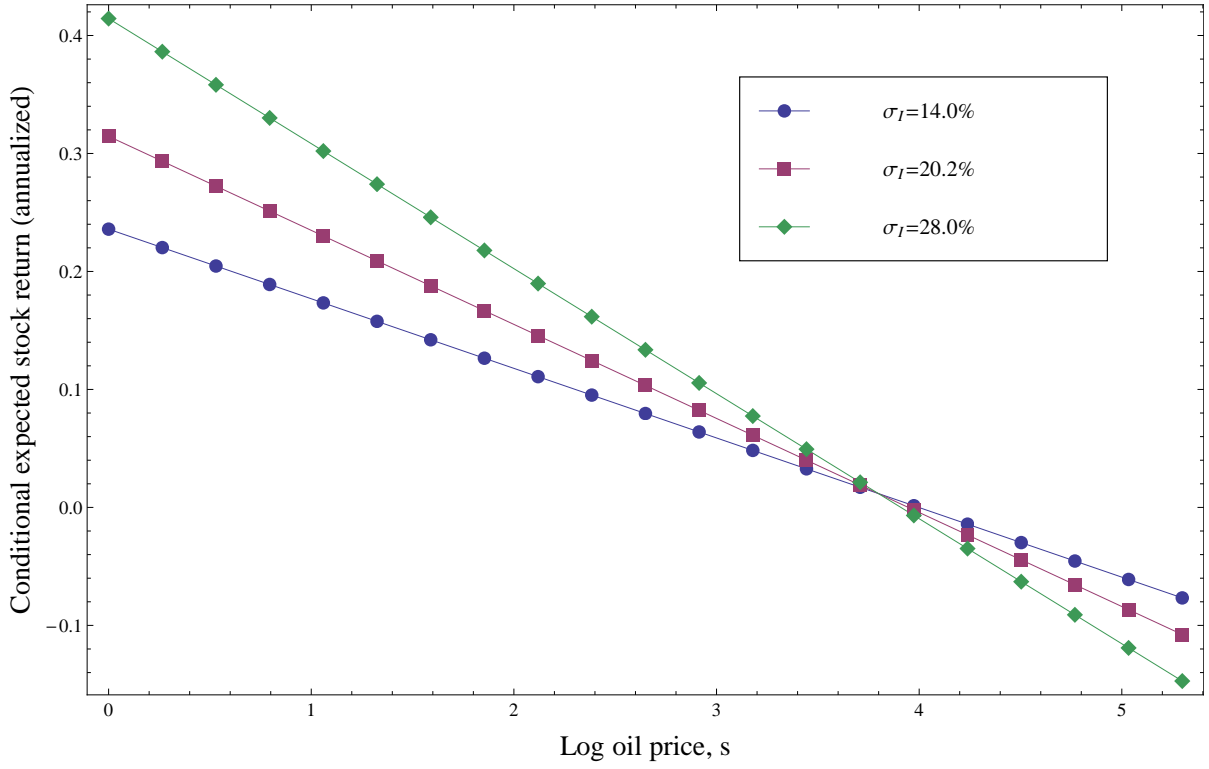


Figure 4: Conditional expected stock return and log oil price.

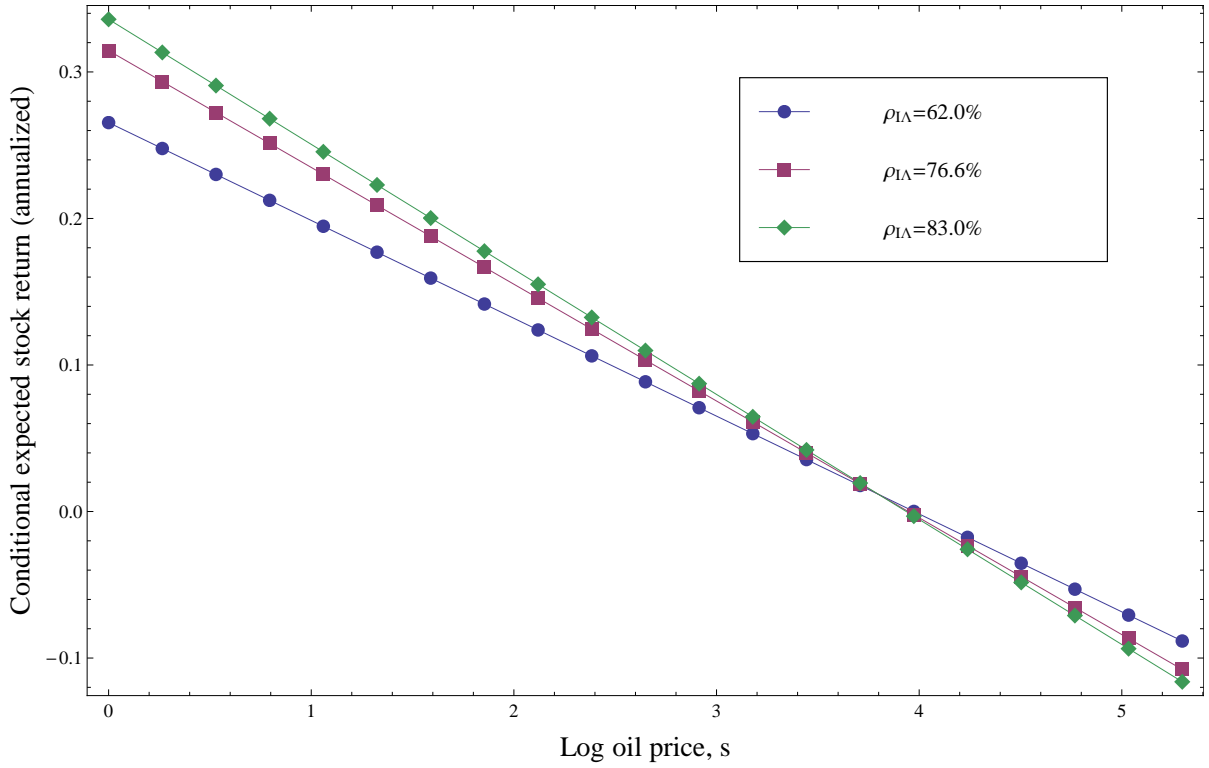


Figure 5: Conditional expected stock return and log oil price.

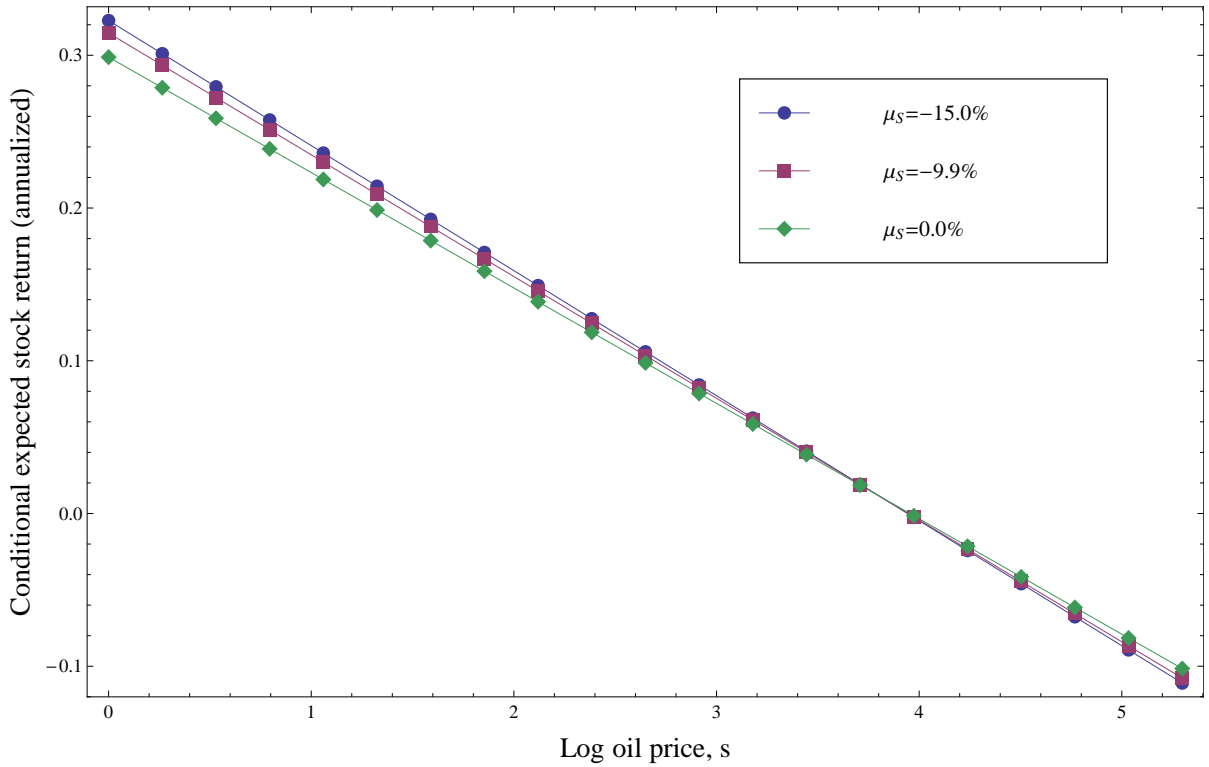


Figure 6: Conditional expected stock return and log oil price.

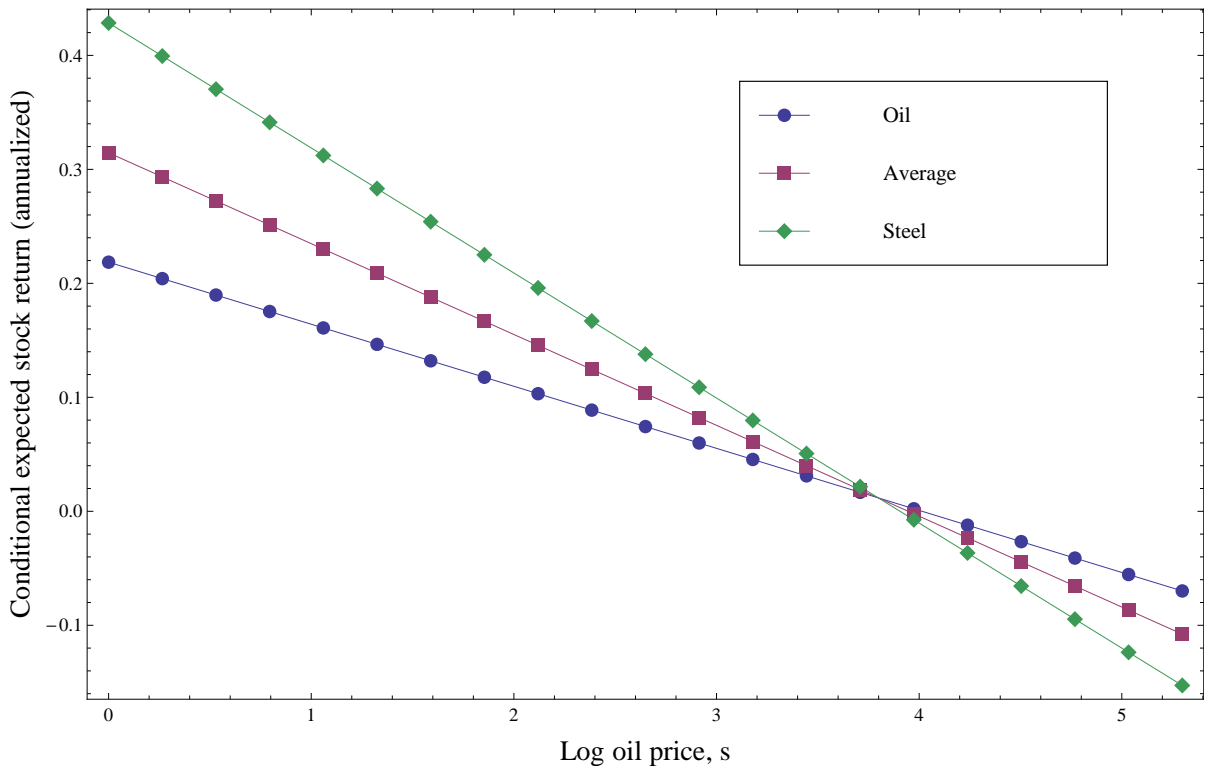


Figure 7: Conditional expected stock return and log oil price.

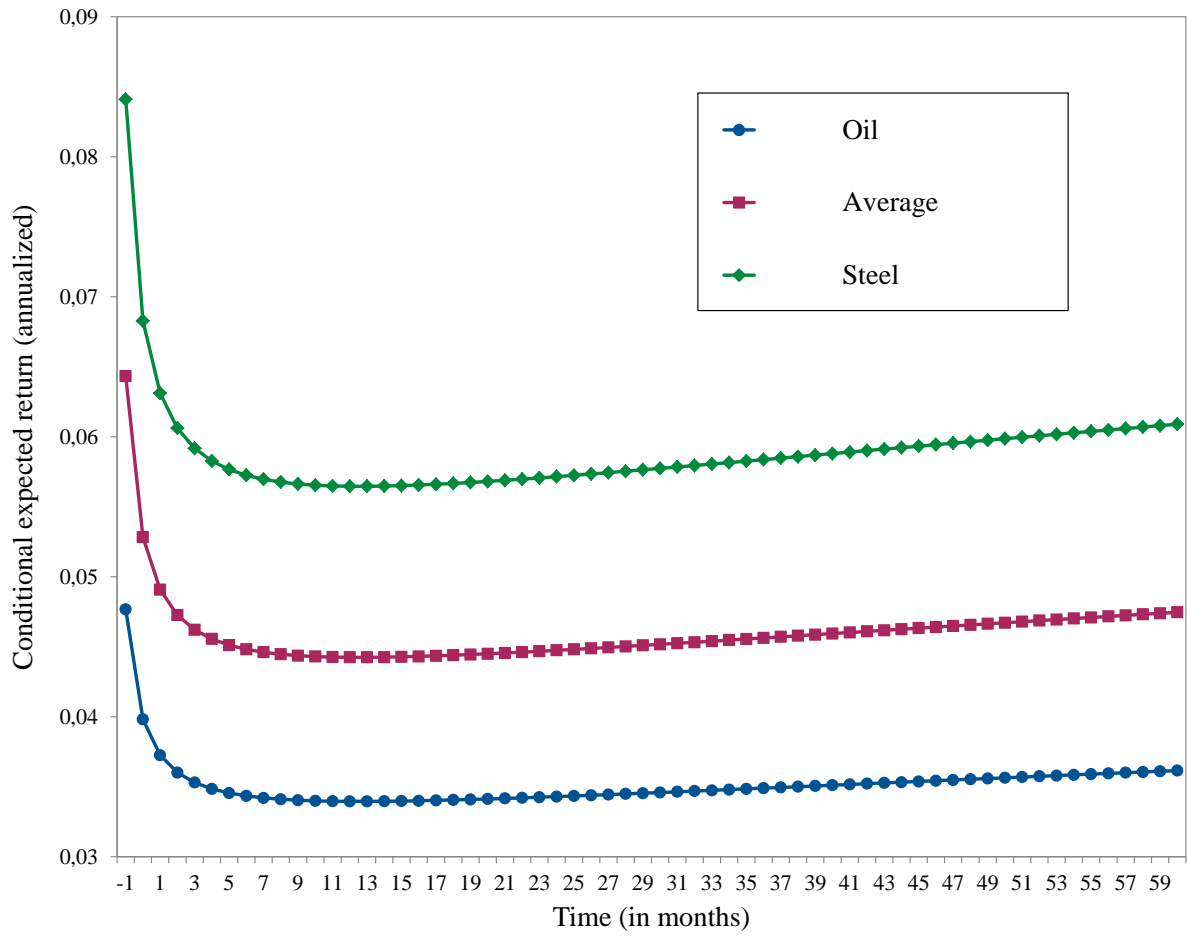


Figure 8: Conditional Expected return and log oil price shock at different horizons.