

The Risk and Return from Factors

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Abstract

The ability to identify which factors best capture systematic return covariation is central to applications of multifactor pricing models. This paper uses a common data set to evaluate the performance of various proposed factors in capturing return comovements. Factors associated with the market, size, past return, book-to-market, and dividend yield help explain return comovement on an out-of-sample basis (although they are not necessarily associated with large premiums in average returns). Except for the default premium and the term premium, macroeconomic factors perform poorly. We document regularities in the behavior of the more important factors, and confirm their influence in the Japanese and U.K. markets as well.

I. Introduction

This paper seeks to identify which factors are important for driving the common variation in stock returns. We evaluate all the major factors that have been suggested in the existing empirical literature. Unlike earlier research that has been concerned with the determinants of expected returns, however, our main interest lies more in specifying the sources of return covariation regardless of whether they are priced or not. The identification of the sources of comovement and, hence, sources of portfolio risk, is an important issue for theoretical and applied reasons.

If the common shared variation in asset returns can be traced to a small set of underlying pervasive forces, then these factors serve as candidates for the sources of priced risk. Much recent theoretical research builds on this notion to develop equilibrium characterizations of the cross-section of average returns (examples include Connor (1984), Ross (1976), Sharpe (1977)). In practice, factor models

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are also widely used to predict future returns or the cost of capital (Fama and French (1997), Rosenberg and Marathe (1979)).

The popularity of factor models has also grown within the investment management industry. They are widely used for portfolio risk optimization (Elton, Gruber, and Urich (1978), Rosenberg (1974)). Insofar as money managers have great difficulty in producing consistently superior returns, they should at least build portfolios that have desirable risk characteristics. Other areas where factor models have received widespread use include performance evaluation (Elton, Gruber, Das, and Hlavka (1993), Grinblatt and Titman (1994)) and performance attribution (BARRA (1990)). More recently, Sharpe (1992) uses the returns on various asset classes as factors to analyze investment managers' styles (see also Roll (1995) for a different approach).

From the standpoint of both the academic researcher and the investment practitioner, therefore, it is crucial to be able to identify which factors best capture the systematic components of stock return variation. Unfortunately, asset-pricing theory generally provides little guidance on this issue (or on the magnitude of the premiums for factor risks). As a result, it has proven to be extremely difficult to verify empirically the implications of asset-pricing models (Black (1993), Chan and Lakonishok (1993), Fama and French (1996b)).

Accordingly, there has been a proliferation of research that attempts to identify the factors driving stock returns. Different sets of empirical factors have been suggested in the literature (see, for example, Chen (1983), Chen, Roll, and Ross (1986), Connor and Korajczyk (1988), Fama and French (1993), Ferson and Harvey (1991), Lehmann and Modest (1988), Roll and Ross (1980), Shanken and Weinstein (1990), Sharpe (1982)). These different ways of identifying the factors are, of course, not necessarily logically inconsistent.

A central empirical issue, therefore, is which factors best account for the common movements in returns. This issue motivates what we do in this paper. The goal is to develop a parsimonious set of observable variables that do a good job in capturing the systematic components of stock return covariances. The results help provide some guidance for researchers and practitioners who want to use factor models. As in Fama and French (1993), each of our proxy factors is the return on a zero investment strategy that goes long in stocks that have high values of an attribute (such as market capitalization) and short in stocks with low values of the attribute. By varying our choice of attribute, we can mimic the behavior of the different factors that have been suggested in previous research. Examining the behavior of the mimicking portfolios' returns helps us evaluate and interpret the underlying factors. If we find that a mimicking portfolio exhibits large return volatility, then this is consistent with the underlying factor contributing a substantial common component to return movements. As another example, seeing how the mimicking portfolio returns vary across different states of the world yields clues as to why the factor matters for portfolio risk and return. Finally, in many cases, the portfolio returns are directly related to the relative performance of specific styles of investing, such as value strategies vs. growth strategies. In such instances, the behavior of returns on the factor-mimicking portfolio (over market cycles, for example) serves as a yardstick to assess managers who follow these different styles of investing.

Our approach differs in emphasis from previous work in one key respect. Earlier research models the behavior of expected returns, while we are more concerned with the sources of systematic return comovement. The factors that drive comovement may not necessarily coincide with the factors that explain well the behavior of expected returns. Specifically, there may be factors that account for substantial return comovement, but that are not priced (see, for example, Constantinides (1980)). Although these nonpriced factors do not determine average returns, they are nonetheless important for investors who wish to control portfolio risk. For example, small stocks, on average, have not had higher returns than large stocks in recent years. This suggests that, on an *ex ante* basis, there may not be any premium earned on small stocks. Yet, small stocks and large stocks do not move in tandem. Accordingly, an investor holding small stocks may experience large deviations from the performance of a broad market index such as the S&P 500, regardless of the return expected. Accordingly, we do not want to handicap ourselves by examining only variables that have been found in previous research to generate reliably non-zero premiums in stock returns. Nonetheless, our results serve as a starting point for identifying which sources of risk are likely to be important for expected returns. It is hard to believe that a factor that has low explanatory power for the comovement in stock returns, for example, would require a large premium.

The list of candidates for factors is a long one, so a sensible process of elimination is essential. One approach is to extract the principal components from the data and apply formal statistical tests to discriminate between the factors. This is not our preferred approach for several reasons. While the principal components would obviously do well on an in-sample basis, how they fare on an out-of-sample basis is very much open to question. More importantly, there is no economic interpretation to such purely statistical factors. For these reasons, statistical factors have not been widely embraced by researchers and practitioners. In contrast, one reason for the popularity of the Fama-French (1993) three-factor model is that the factors are readily interpretable. As a result, this paper looks at a variety of prespecified factors in addition to statistical factors.

At the other extreme, we could confront all the different pre-specified factors in a multivariate framework and select the most important. This procedure would also have its pitfalls. In many cases, the variables are highly correlated, making any inferences in a multivariate approach about the relative importance of the factors unreliable. Another drawback is the possibility of overfitting. When many factors are used together, it is relatively easier to capture the behavior of a particular sample, but the results may not generalize beyond that sample.

Given these considerations, our preferred approach is to evaluate each factor separately by itself. When we take the variables one at a time, it is possible that a factor may appear to be unimportant by itself but it may assume a more prominent role when evaluated jointly with others. We would treat a factor that behaves in such fashion with suspicion, however. As a check on the robustness of our results, we also evaluate a subset of our factors in a multivariate context. As one partial safeguard against data-snooping, we also replicate our analysis with data on the two largest equity markets outside the U.S., namely Japan and the U.K. For both the domestic and foreign data, all of our tests are predictive in

nature. We measure stock characteristics over one period of time, and evaluate whether these characteristics are associated with return comovement in a disjoint subsequent period.

Our main findings can be summarized as follows. A small set of factor-mimicking portfolios do a good job in capturing the covariation in stock returns. There is a strong influence from an overall market factor, but there are, in addition, common movements in returns associated with size, past return, book-to-market, and dividend yield. With the exceptions of the default premium and the term premium, our macroeconomic factors do a poor job in explaining return covariation. The covariation in returns associated with the factors is not limited to January only and, comfortably, the same factors appear to be at work in the Japanese and U.K. markets as well. We also document systematic regularities in the behavior of some of the more important factors. For example, the mimicking portfolio returns for the fundamental factors such as book-to-market are large and positive at the beginning of the year, but are relatively low at the end of the year. On the other hand, the momentum factor performs poorly at the beginning of the year and does well at year-end. Returns on the dividend-yield factor are notably high in down-market months.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the sample and methodology. Section III briefly summarizes the behavior of each factor-mimicking portfolio. The relative importance of the factors is evaluated in Section IV. Section V provides several checks on the robustness of our results. Section VI concludes.

II. Sample and Methodology

A. Sample

We infer the behavior of underlying factors from the returns on all domestic companies listed on the New York and American stock exchanges, as found on the CRSP files. We only consider common equity issues, so closed-end funds, investment trusts, and units are excluded. The factor returns data extend from January 1968 to December 1993. Accounting data for these issues are extracted from the Annual Compustat files.

B. Identifying the Factors

We select candidates for factors from variables that have been used in earlier empirical studies. In particular, we focus on five sets of empirical factors. Our factors are based on: accounting characteristics (what we label fundamental factors), past return (technical factors), macroeconomic variates (macroeconomic factors), factors extracted via principal component analysis (statistical factors), and the return on a market index (the market factor). Together, these make up all the major possible candidates that have appeared in the literature.

1. Fundamental Factors

An extensive literature documents the predictive power of accounting-based characteristics for future returns (Chan, Hamao, and Lakonishok (1991), Fama and French (1992), Jaffe, Keim, and Westerfield (1989), Keim and Stambaugh (1986), Lakonishok, Shleifer, and Vishny (1994)). This literature motivates our selection of the following variables.

BM is the ratio of book value to market value of common equity. CP is the ratio of cash flow (earnings plus depreciation) to market value of equity. DP is the ratio of dividends to market value of equity. EP is the ratio of earnings to market value of equity. A full description of the definitions and sources of all the variables is contained in Appendix A. In each case we exclude a firm if it has a zero or negative value for the particular accounting ratio. When we analyze CP, we also exclude all financial firms (firms belonging to one-digit SIC industry code 6), given the difficulty in interpreting this ratio for financial firms. Finally, we also use SIZE, the market value of equity. In cases where a firm has multiple issues of common equity, we define market value as the total value across all the issues.

2. Technical Factors

This set of factors is inspired by earlier findings that a firm's past return helps to predict future returns (Chan, Jegadeesh, and Lakonishok (1996), Chopra, Lakonishok, and Ritter (1992), DeBondt and Thaler (1985), Jegadeesh and Titman (1993), Rosenberg, Reid, and Lanstein (1984)).

The technical factors are thus based on a stock's past rate of return over several non-overlapping horizons. $R(-7, -1)$ is a stock's rate of return beginning seven months and ending one month before the start of the test period. The last month's return is skipped to avoid potentially confounding effects from the bid-ask bounce. $R(-60, -12)$ is the rate of return beginning five years and ending one year before the test period. This variable is intended to capture the stock's long-run prior performance, excluding the more recent period. $R(-1, 0)$ is the rate of return in the month immediately before the start of the test period.

3. Macroeconomic Factors

It is natural to think that stock returns reflect the state of the economy, so various measures of macro-economic conditions serve as the basis for our third set of factors. The first variable is DIP, the growth rate of monthly industrial production. DEF is a measure of the default premium, measured as the difference between the monthly return on a high-yield bond index and the return on long-term government bonds. RTB is the real interest rate (the return on one-month Treasury bills less the relative change in the monthly CPI). TERM reflects the maturity premium, the difference between the return on long-term government bonds and the one-month Treasury bill return. SLOPE captures the slope of the yield curve (the difference between the yield on long-term government bonds and the yield on Treasury bills). DEI is the change in monthly expected inflation. We fit a time-series model (an integrated first order moving average process) to monthly relative changes in the CPI, and the forecasts from the model serve as measured expected inflation. Fama and Gibbons (1984) use a similar forecast-

ing model. The forecast errors form the basis of our last macroeconomic factor, unanticipated inflation UI. Various subsets of similar macroeconomic variates have been used in earlier studies (Chen, Roll, and Ross (1986), Fama and French (1989), (1993), Ferson and Harvey (1991), Shanken and Weinstein (1990)).¹

4. Statistical Factors

As an alternative to pre-specifying the factors, statistical factors can be extracted from historical returns. We use the asymptotic principal components technique of Connor and Korajczyk (1988) to generate factor scores, based on all eligible stocks' returns over the 60 months immediately prior to the test period.

5. Market Factor

In the traditional CAPM, the factor is the return on the market portfolio. We use two measures of market return: EWM, the return on the equally-weighted CRSP index, and VWM, the return on the value-weighted CRSP index.

C. Constructing Mimicking Portfolios

We construct portfolios whose returns mimic the factors in the following predictive fashion, inspired by the work of Fama and French (1993). At each portfolio formation date, we sort all eligible stocks by a particular attribute, and assign each stock to a portfolio on the basis of its rank.² In the case of the fundamental factors, the attribute is directly observable and may be, for example, firm size or the ratio of book value to market value of equity. For the accounting-based attributes, we form portfolios at the end of April each year, and assume that there is a four-month delay between the end of a firm's fiscal year and the public release of accounting information. We form five portfolios, so the stocks with the lowest and highest values of the attribute are assigned to Portfolios 1 and 5, respectively. The quintile breakpoints are always obtained from the distribution of attributes for NYSE issues only. In each of the subsequent 12 months, we compute the return on each quintile portfolio, where stocks are equally weighted in a portfolio. The mimicking portfolio return for the factor is then calculated each month as the difference between the return on the highest-ranked and the lowest-ranked portfolio.

When the attribute is firm size, for instance, the spread in return picks up the difference between the behavior of returns on large and small firms. Fama and French (1993) argue that the spreads in returns reflect differences in patterns of underlying profitability so, in this sense, the return spread proxies for a common factor related to firm size. By analogy, the return spread associated with each of the other attributes isolates the effect of a pervasive factor. Since the quintile

¹ Some of the variables representing the macroeconomic factors are cleaner measures of overall economic conditions than others. For example, the interest rates and returns underlying TERM, DEF, and SLOPE are cleanly observed in the financial marketplace. On the other hand DIP, for instance, is subject to seasonal adjustment, data revisions, and is not available on a timely basis.

² An alternative procedure would be to form portfolios on the basis of multi-way sorts using several different attributes at the same time. Given the number of attributes and their correlations, however, the resulting portfolios would not contain many stocks and, hence, their returns would contain a large idiosyncratic component.

portfolios are generally large, diversified portfolios, the effects of firm-specific returns are reduced. Moreover, examining the difference between the returns on two portfolios of stocks helps to isolate the impact of the relevant factor while mitigating the effect of other common factors (such as the market). While we are assuming that the level of a stock's attribute (such as book-to-market) is correlated with its loading on a factor, our procedure is silent as to why the factor is important (either because of financial distress or behavioral considerations, for instance).

In the case of the technical factors, each stock's attribute (past return) is also directly observable. The predictive power of past returns varies with the forecast horizon, so we reform the portfolios at different intervals, depending on the attribute. When the attribute is $R(-7, -1)$, portfolios are reformed every six months beginning in April of each year; when the attribute is $R(-60, -12)$, portfolios are reformed each April; and when the attribute is the past month's return $R(-1, 0)$, the portfolios are reformed every month.

For the remaining factors, the relevant attribute is a stock's loading on the factor. The loading is estimated from a regression using the most recent past 60 months of data prior to the portfolio formation date. Returns in excess of the monthly Treasury bill rate are regressed on the factor. This factor may be either a macroeconomic variate (in the case of the macroeconomic factors), a principal component (for the statistical factors),³ or the return on a market index (for the market factors). For the macroeconomic factors, we include the excess return on the CRSP value-weighted market portfolio as an explanatory variable along with the particular macroeconomic variate in order to control for market-wide movements in stock prices. The regression slope on the pre-specified factor serves as the attribute on which stocks are ranked and assigned to portfolios; the remainder of the procedure is as above for the fundamental factors.

Note that, in all cases, the accounting characteristics or factor sensitivities are measured over a pre-formation period. The mimicking portfolios' returns, on the other hand, are measured over a disjoint test period, so we are assessing how the factors perform in a predictive fashion. In this sense, our work also sheds light on the out-of-sample profitability of different simple investment strategies applied to a common set of data.

³The principal components are subject to one ambiguity in their interpretation. In particular, it would not matter for a stock's return if we reversed the sign of a principal component, since this would just reverse the sign of the stock's loading on the factor. This does not necessarily pose a problem if the principal components were estimated over the entire sample period, since this would be equivalent to choosing one particular normalization of the factors. In our predictive framework, however, we revise our estimated principal components and reestimate the loadings from the past five years as we reform our mimicking portfolios annually. The estimates based on two successive five-year estimation periods need not be based on the same normalization, however. To continue the earlier example, the sign of a factor could be positive in one period (so a stock's loading on this factor may place it in the highest-ranked portfolio) and the reverse in the next (so the same stock may be placed in the lowest-ranked portfolio). To ensure that there is uniformity across time in our interpretation of the mimicking portfolios, we impose an extra requirement when we construct the statistical factor portfolios. Specifically, each year we normalize the return on the mimicking portfolio for PC1 by requiring it to be positively correlated with the return on the equally-weighted CRSP index. Similarly, we normalize the return on the mimicking portfolio for PC2 by requiring it to have a positive correlation with the return on the value-weighted CRSP index.

D. Evaluating the Importance of Factors

Given the time series of returns on the mimicking portfolios, we report their means, standard deviations, and selected percentiles. Since our focus is on the determinants of the common variation in returns rather than the pricing of risk, the primary statistic of interest in what follows is the standard deviation of the mimicking portfolio returns. Suppose, for example, that we form a zero investment strategy with long positions in a large number of randomly selected stocks, offset by short positions in the same number of stocks, also picked at random. Since the stocks are selected at random, the resulting portfolio has virtually zero net exposure to factor risk. The variance of the portfolio return reflects only the idiosyncratic component, and this should be very small, since the portfolio contains many stocks. The standard deviation of the return spread associated with a random selection strategy thus provides a benchmark for the magnitude of the standard deviation statistics from the factor-mimicking portfolios.

Conversely, suppose we sort by stocks' loadings on a particular factor (or an attribute that is correlated with the loading). Buying stocks with high loadings and shorting stocks with low loadings produces a portfolio with heightened exposure to that factor. The amount of factor risk is captured by the volatility of the spread in returns between the long and short positions. We would thus expect that a factor that has a strong pervasive influence on stock returns would have a large standard deviation in its associated spread, relative to the benchmark.

III. Behavior of Mimicking Portfolio Returns

A. Correlations between Mimicking Portfolio Returns

Given the number of candidates for factors, our approach must necessarily be selective. The correlations between the returns of the different mimicking portfolios provide one way to narrow the field. If the returns on several factors are highly correlated with each other, then it is likely that they are picking up similar influences. Other things equal, then, not much information is likely to be lost if we select factors that are not highly mutually correlated.

In Appendix B, we analyze the correlations between the returns on the factor-mimicking portfolios. All in all, the correlations are suggestive of the overlap in ways of measuring the sources of covariation. In the present context, they suggest that it is important to narrow the list of factors in order to avoid such unnecessary overlap. More generally, the correlations underscore the difficulty in pinpointing the reward for bearing a particular kind of risk when risk is multidimensional.

B. Mean Returns of Mimicking Portfolios

While our primary interest lies in the volatilities of the mimicking portfolios' returns, we set the stage by reporting what may be more familiar quantities, namely their mean returns. The behavior of the factor returns plays a key role in performance evaluation and attribution. For instance, an investment manager may tilt a portfolio toward stocks with certain attributes such as low-capitalization stocks. In this case, the performance of the portfolio is heavily influenced by the

behavior of the factor related to firm size. We also document regularities in the factors' behavior that are associated with the turn-of-the-year and with up- and down-market conditions. Since an investment style that keys on some factor will tend to inherit these patterns, the results provide some help in understanding various investment strategies.

The second column of Table 1 reports the mean return on each of the factor-mimicking portfolios. In general, the return spreads are consistent with the findings of prior research. It bears repeating, however, that a low return premium on a factor does not necessarily imply that it is unimportant for return covariation.

Prior empirical research suggests that the behavior of stock returns may be different around the turn of the year. This seasonal pattern has achieved notoriety as the "January effect" in the financial press. Table 1 examines which, if any, of our mimicking portfolios pick up this seasonal pattern by reporting mean returns for selected months of the year.

In general most, but not all, of our portfolios experience large average returns in January. The January seasonal component is most pronounced for the fundamental and technical factors. We find, as other authors have, that the return spread between large and small firms in January is very large (-8.54% per month) and favors small firms. Stocks with high book-to-market ratios substantially outperform glamour stocks with low book-to-market ratios by 6.46% , on average, in January. The spreads on the other fundamental factors are smaller but still noteworthy.

The returns on the technical portfolios also stand out in January. In particular, stocks that have done poorly in the past realize high returns in January (as noted by DeBondt and Thaler (1985) and Jegadeesh and Titman (1993)). For example, the average January return spread for stocks ranked by momentum is -5.61% .

Of the macroeconomic factors, only DEF and TERM have large mean January returns (4.03% and -2.99% , respectively). This can at least partly be explained by the correlation between these factors and SIZE (see Table B1 in Appendix B). The average factor return corresponding to industrial production, DIP, however, does not differ notably across months.

January is kind to the relation between market betas and average returns in Panels D and E. The average return difference between high-beta and low-beta stocks is negative or almost zero across all months (-0.20% and 0.05% , using the value-weighted or equally-weighted market index, respectively). In January, however, the return spread across the beta-sorted portfolios is 4.22% when the value-weighted market index is used, and 6.97% when the equally-weighted market index is used. These results parallel those of Tinic and West (1984). Similarly, the sort using betas with respect to the first principal component PC1 yields a large average return spread (7.29%) in January.

It is intriguing to speculate as to what underlying forces the mimicking portfolios are picking up in January. It might be argued, on the face of the evidence, that sensitivity to underlying macroeconomic conditions, as reflected in industrial production growth, inflation, or ex ante yields, do not seem to explain these seasonal fluctuations. An alternative story suggests investors' portfolio rebalancing behavior at the turn of the year as the explanation (Lakonishok, Shleifer, Thaler,

TABLE 1
Mean Returns on Factor-Mimicking Portfolios

The average return across all months for each factor-mimicking portfolio is reported in the second column. Mean returns are also calculated over selected months of the year, and reported in the third to fifth columns. In columns six and seven, mean returns are calculated over all up-market months (when the return on the CRSP value-weighted index exceeds the T-bill rate) and over all down-market months (when the return on the CRSP value-weighted index is less than the T-bill rate). The factor-mimicking portfolios are constructed from eligible domestic primary NYSE and Amex stocks. Stocks are ranked by either a fundamental characteristic (Panel A), or past return (Panel B), or sensitivity to a macroeconomic variable (Panel C), or sensitivity to a principal component (Panel D), or sensitivity to a market index (Panel E). Based on its rank, each stock is assigned to one of five portfolios. Stocks are equally weighted in a portfolio, and the assignment uses quintile breakpoints based on NYSE issues only. The realization of the factor is measured as the difference each month between the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked highest and the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked lowest. Statistics are calculated over the period May 1968 to December 1993.

Attribute	All Months	January	February to November	December	Up-Market Months	Down-Market Months
<i>Panel A. Fundamental Factors</i>						
BM	0.0059	0.0646	0.0017	-0.0083	-0.0007	0.0137
CP	0.0055	0.0344	0.0039	-0.0050	-0.0012	0.0135
DP	0.0008	0.0173	0.0003	-0.0099	-0.0168	0.0219
EP	0.0036	0.0207	0.0023	-0.0003	-0.0023	0.0106
SIZE	-0.0034	-0.0854	0.0027	0.0140	-0.0090	0.0035
<i>Panel B. Technical Factors</i>						
$R(-7, -1)$	0.0064	-0.0561	0.0108	0.0226	0.0053	0.0077
$R(-60, -12)$	-0.0046	-0.0640	-0.0005	0.0110	-0.0013	-0.0086
$R(-1, 0)$	-0.0179	-0.0722	-0.0130	-0.0142	-0.0222	-0.0127
<i>Panel C. Macroeconomic Factors</i>						
DIP	-0.0025	-0.0031	-0.0022	-0.0041	-0.0027	-0.0023
DEF	0.0019	0.0403	-0.0012	-0.0025	0.0074	-0.0045
RTB	0.0012	0.0104	0.0002	0.0028	0.0034	-0.0014
TERM	-0.0005	-0.0299	0.0023	-0.0007	-0.0099	0.0107
SLOPE	0.0011	0.0144	-0.0002	0.0012	0.0017	0.0004
DEI	-0.0017	-0.0141	-0.0004	-0.0020	-0.0035	0.0005
UI	-0.0010	-0.0086	0.0001	-0.0042	-0.0036	0.0022
<i>Panel D. Statistical Factors</i>						
PC1	0.0002	0.0729	-0.0060	-0.0071	0.0208	-0.0244
PC2	-0.0063	-0.0160	-0.0065	0.0047	0.0050	-0.0199
PC3	-0.0014	-0.0137	-0.0012	0.0078	-0.0035	0.0010
PC4	0.0024	0.0061	0.0020	0.0031	0.0031	0.0016
<i>Panel E. Market Factor</i>						
VWM	-0.0020	0.0422	-0.0065	0.0001	0.0212	-0.0299
EWM	0.0005	0.0697	-0.0055	-0.0054	0.0245	-0.0284

In Panel A, portfolios are formed at the end of April each year based on the following variables: 1) BM, book value of common equity relative to market value; 2) CP, cash flow (earnings plus depreciation) relative to market value; 3) DP, dividends relative to market value of equity; 4) EP, earnings relative to market value of equity; and 5) SIZE, market value of common equity. In Panel B, the variables used for ranking stocks are: 6) $R(-7, -1)$, the stock's rate of return beginning seven months and ending one month before portfolio formation; 7) $R(-60, -12)$, the stock's rate of return beginning five years and ending one year before portfolio formation; and 8) $R(-1, 0)$, the stock's rate of return beginning one month before and ending as of the portfolio formation date. For classification 6), portfolios are formed every six months, while for classification 7), portfolios are formed every year and for 8), portfolios are formed every month. In Panels C to E, the ranking variable is a stock's sensitivity to a pre-specified factor, and portfolios are formed at the end of April each year. For each stock, the sensitivity is measured as the slope coefficient on the factor from a regression using the past 60 monthly observations of excess return (over the Treasury bill rate). In Panel C, the factor is: 9) DIP, the monthly growth rate of industrial production; 10) DEF, the default premium, measured as the difference between the monthly return on a high-yield bond index and the return on long-term government bonds; 11) RTB, the inflation-adjusted interest rate on one-month Treasury bills; 12) TERM, the term premium, measured as the difference between the return on long-term government bonds and the one-month Treasury bill rate; 13) SLOPE, the yield curve slope, measured as the difference between the yield on long-term government bonds and the yield on Treasury bills; 14) DEI, the change in expected inflation, generated from a time-series model for monthly percent changes in the CPI; 15) UI, unexpected inflation, measured as the difference between realized percent changes in the CPI and the predicted value from a time-series model. In Panel D, the factors are the first four principal components (PC1 to PC4) extracted from the past 60 months of past excess returns for all stocks available as of the portfolio formation date, using the method of Connor and Korajczyk (1988). In Panel E, the factor is either the value-weighted or the equally-weighted CRSP index of NYSE and Amex stocks (VWM and EWM, respectively).

and Vishny (1991)). Specifically, the seasonal pattern reflects “window-dressing” behavior at year-end on the part of institutional investors who prefer larger, more successful companies and move away from more controversial stocks. As the new calendar year starts with a clean slate, these shifts in holdings are reversed. In this light, it is noteworthy that the spread on SIZE moves in favor of large firms toward the end of the year. The mean spread in December is 1.40%. Similarly, close to the year-end, there is some underperformance of out-of-favor stocks, such as stocks with high book-to-market ratios (the average return spread is -0.83% in December). Small firms and out-of-favor stocks undergo a strong recovery in January. The behavior of the technical factor returns also lends support to the portfolio rebalancing hypothesis. Specifically, stocks with poor past performance as captured by $R(-7, -1)$ or $R(-60, -12)$ continue to do poorly around the close of the year. In December, the average return spread for these two technical factors is positive (2.26% and 1.10%, respectively). At the beginning of the year, however, poor past performers have relatively higher returns, as indicated by the negative return spreads (-5.61 and -6.40% in January for $R(-7, -1)$ and $R(-60, -12)$, respectively).

It must be acknowledged, of course, that with as many portfolios as we do, spurious seasonal patterns are quite possible. Further, the return on one mimicking portfolio has some correlation with the other portfolios’ returns (see Table B1), so their behavior should not be considered as independent corroborating pieces of evidence.

In the last two columns of Table 1, we condition on whether, during a given month, the return on the CRSP value-weighted market index is above or below the Treasury bill rate (we refer to such months as “up-market” and “down-market” months, respectively). We then average returns on each factor-mimicking portfolio across all up-market months and down-market months separately.

Investment styles that key on the fundamental factors BM, CP, DP, EP, and SIZE are all fairly defensive, in the sense that their returns are notably higher in down-markets than in up-markets. As a case in point, the return spread for book-to-market BM is very close to zero in the up-market months but climbs to 1.37% per month across the down-market months. This behavior cannot be explained by differences between the market betas of stocks with high and low book-to-market ratios. The spread for SIZE also varies across up- and down-market months, although the difference is less lop-sided. The performance of the dividend yield factor DP is especially striking. In up-market months stocks with high dividend yields underperform stocks with low dividend yields by 1.68%. The tables are turned in down-market months, however, when high yield stocks outperform by 2.19%. These patterns in DP and SIZE are consistent with the conventional wisdom that large stocks, or stocks with high dividend yields, are “safe” investments that tend to benefit more from a “flight to quality” in poor market conditions. The patterns are also consistent with the attention that these factors receive from investors.

IV. Uncovering the Sources of Common Covariation

A. Fundamental and Technical Factors

Table 2 reports standard deviations and selected percentiles of the returns on the portfolios that mimic the fundamental and technical factors. As a starting point, consider the return spreads that are induced by randomly grouping stocks into quintile portfolios (Panel C). Given the method of selection, the volatility of the return spread reflects only the residual component. This amounts to 0.79% per month.

In contrast, the volatilities associated with the other portfolios are much higher. There is an extensive literature documenting differences between the return on large and small stocks, indicating that firm size is a force driving stock returns. Table 2 confirms that the SIZE factor portfolio has the largest standard deviation of return, 5.11%. The volatility of the BM portfolio is 3.79% per month. Somewhat surprisingly, the spread DP associated with dividend yield has a standard deviation that is almost as high (3.72%). The relatively low mean spreads for the SIZE and DP portfolios (−0.34% and 0.08%, respectively, from Table 1) highlight the fact that a variable that induces strong patterns of comovement need not be associated with a large premium in return. Of the fundamental characteristics, CP and EP have the lowest standard deviation of returns. It may be the case that errors in measuring true earnings, as well as transitory fluctuations in underlying earnings, blur the association between earnings-price or cash-flow price ratios and the true factor loadings. For example, a low EP for a stock may be a reflection of either depressed earnings, or high future growth opportunities.

The technical variables deliver return spreads that have roughly the same, if not higher, volatility than book-to-market does: the standard deviations of the $R(-7, -1)$ and $R(-60, -12)$ portfolios are about 4.2%, while the portfolio based on prior one-month reversals $R(-1, 0)$ has a standard deviation of 3.75%. Our result for the $R(-7, -1)$ portfolio is consistent with Fama and French's (1996a) finding that an additional factor, based on the results of Jegadeesh and Titman (1993), may help to explain the cross-section of average returns.

While the mean returns tabulated in Table 1 are readily interpretable, it may be more difficult to get a similar grasp of the standard deviation statistics in Table 2. One aid is to interpret each standard deviation as the tracking error of a managed portfolio. It is common practice to require an investment manager to track a benchmark. For example, an index fund manager may be required to track a market index. The standard deviation of the difference between the managed portfolio's return and the benchmark return is a measure of how closely the manager comes to the targeted result. Take, for example, the return volatility associated with SIZE. To appreciate the magnitude of this number (5.11% per month), imagine an investment manager holding a portfolio of small stocks who is compared to a benchmark that mainly comprises large stocks. A tracking error as large as 5.11% per month would be a source of great concern indeed. In the same vein, the standard deviations of the other factor-mimicking portfolios are large from an economic standpoint.

TABLE 2
Summary Statistics for Returns on Mimicking Portfolios for Fundamental and Technical Factors

Attribute	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Fifth Percentile	25th Percentile	Median	75th Percentile	95th Percentile	Maximum	First-Order Autocorrelation
<u>Panel A. Fundamental Factors</u>									
BM	0.0379	-0.1238	-0.0415	-0.0179	0.0039	0.0238	0.0644	0.1866	0.12
CP	0.0297	-0.1103	-0.0360	-0.0143	0.0026	0.0233	0.0528	0.1319	0.12
DP	0.0372	-0.1264	-0.0610	-0.0197	0.0009	0.0230	0.0621	0.1429	0.14
EP	0.0269	-0.0970	-0.0374	-0.0127	0.0036	0.0190	0.0464	0.1168	0.12
SIZE	0.0511	-0.2862	-0.0857	-0.0230	0.0007	0.0259	0.0724	0.1455	0.10
<u>Panel B. Technical Factors</u>									
$R(-7, -1)$	0.0416	-0.2331	-0.0573	-0.0061	0.0127	0.0305	0.0573	0.1116	0.04
$R(-60, -12)$	0.0415	-0.2858	-0.0676	-0.0198	-0.0013	0.0165	0.0520	0.1171	0.14
$R(-1, 0)$	0.0375	-0.3025	-0.0692	-0.0319	-0.0132	0.0024	0.0248	0.0636	0.04
<u>Panel C. Random Assignment</u>									
Random Assignment	0.0079	-0.0232	-0.0127	-0.0053	0.0003	0.0050	0.0125	0.0245	-0.05

Portfolios are constructed from eligible domestic primary NYSE and Amex stocks to mimic the behavior of a factor. Stocks are ranked by either a fundamental characteristic (Panel A) or past return (Panel B) or randomly (Panel C), and assigned to one of five portfolios. Stocks are equally weighted in a portfolio and, in Panels A and B, the assignment uses quintile breakpoints based on NYSE issues only. The realization of the factor is measured as the difference each month between the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked highest and the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked lowest. In Panel A, portfolios are formed at the end of April each year based on the following variables: 1) BM, book value of common equity relative to market value; 2) CP, cash flow (earnings plus depreciation) relative to market value; 3) DP, dividends relative to market value of equity; 4) EP, earnings relative to market value of equity; and 5) SIZE, market value of common equity. In Panel B, the variables used for ranking stocks are: 6) $R(-7, -1)$, the stock's rate of return beginning seven months and ending one month before portfolio formation; 7) $R(-60, -12)$, the stock's rate of return beginning five years and ending one year before portfolio formation; and 8) $R(-1, 0)$, the stock's rate of return beginning one month before and ending as of the portfolio formation date. For classification 6), portfolios are formed every six months, while for classification 7), portfolios are formed every year and for 8), portfolios are formed every month. Statistics and percentiles are presented for the distribution of monthly returns on the mimicking portfolios from May 1968 to December 1993.

As another aid in interpretation, Table 2 also reports selected percentiles of the distribution of returns for each portfolio. The percentiles give some feel for the magnitude of return differences that arise from taking large exposures to a particular factor. In 5% of months, for instance, there is a potential underperformance of at least 7.24% from concentrating on small firms as opposed to large firms. A portfolio manager may not get the opportunity to recover from a loss of this magnitude. Put another way, exposure to the size factor gives rise to a 10% chance of gains or losses in excess of 7% per month. In comparison, a strategy of random stock selection gives rise to a 10% chance of gains or losses of only about 1.3%. When evaluated this way in terms of the range between the upper and lower fifth percentile of the return spreads, the most important factor continues to be SIZE, with a difference of 15.81% between the upper and lower fifth percentiles. DP, $R(-7, -1)$, and $R(-60, -12)$ all have similar ranges (about 12%), while the range for BM is 10.59%. Our ordering of the factors' importance by their standard deviations is thus quite robust.

B. Interpreting the Fundamental and Technical Factors

Our list of fundamental attributes such as size and book-to-market borrows from an extensive literature that finds that these variables predict the cross-section of returns. Our results complement this literature by documenting that these and related fundamental factors capture the covariation in returns. In other words, the attributes help to partition stocks into disjoint groups (such as large stocks vs. small stocks), where the return on one group tends to behave in a systematically different way from another group's return. The underlying reason for this difference poses a difficult problem that is beyond the scope of this paper. Differences related to the book-to-market attribute, for example, could reflect either financial distress or investor sentiment concerning out-of-favor vs. glamour stocks. The difference between large and small stocks could reflect patterns of profitability similar to Fama and French (1995). The issue remains far from resolved, however. As an aside, we offer up the following piece of evidence. We apply one widely used risk analysis model (BARRA (1990)) to account for numerous possible differences between large and small firms, including industry composition, book-to-market ratios, betas, and exposure to currency fluctuations. We find that these adjustments barely affect the standard deviation of the return spread between large and small firms.⁴

The technical factors are perhaps the most difficult to interpret. The momentum factor, for example, is based on a stock's return over the interval from seven months before to one month before portfolio formation. Our results for the momentum factor suggest that stocks that have experienced similar levels of past returns subsequently also tend to behave similarly. Yet this conclusion provides little further insight in isolating the underlying economic reasons for such comovement. In other words, the success of this factor in forming distinct stock

⁴We used the Russell 2000 index as a small-firm portfolio and the Russell 1000, which comprises larger firms, as the benchmark. The BARRA E2 model was then used to decompose the risk of the small-firm portfolio relative to the benchmark. Of all the risk indexes and industry indexes in the model, the dominant influence on the portfolio's volatility relative to the benchmark is the size risk index.

groupings may only reflect the unremarkable idea that similar stocks have had similar returns in the past. From this standpoint, a stock's rate of return over any other past six-month interval would be just as informative. For example, a mimicking portfolio could be formed by ranking and grouping stocks on the basis of the return beginning 19 months and ending 13 months before portfolio formation. The resulting portfolio has a large standard deviation (3.33% per month) that is comparable with the momentum factor.

C. Macroeconomic, Statistical, and Market Factors

Table 3 extends the analysis to the portfolios mimicking the macroeconomic, statistical, and market factors. The macroeconomic factor portfolios generally have quite similar standard deviations. Of these, the two most important turn out to be the bond market factors suggested by Fama and French (1993), TERM and DEF. Their standard deviations are 3.39% and 2.97%, respectively.

Since the macroeconomic factor portfolios are far more volatile than the portfolio formed by random assignment (0.79% from Panel C in Table 2), it may be tempting to conclude that the macroeconomic variables can account for return covariation. This would be a premature conclusion, however, for the following reason. Consider two stocks that have experienced similar past behavior in their returns. When each return series is regressed against a third variable to estimate factor loadings, the two stocks are likely to have similar loadings, regardless of whether the third variable corresponds to a true factor. Grouping stocks by estimated loadings thus picks up stocks that are alike with respect to past returns, and is thus very different from random selection. In this respect, the volatility induced by random portfolio selection is too lenient a benchmark.⁵

To guard against erroneous inferences on this account, we develop an alternative set of benchmarks as follows. We take the original time series of realizations for each macroeconomic variate (for example, industrial production growth), and randomly resample without replacement from this series. We then proceed as before and estimate the sensitivity of each stock's historical returns to the reshuffled macroeconomic variable. Mimicking portfolios are formed from stocks ranked

⁵Suppose the loadings are estimated from the regression,

$$r_t = \delta + \gamma z_t + \nu_t,$$

where z_t need not be the true factor. The least squares estimate of γ is

$$\hat{\gamma} = \sum \frac{(z_t - \bar{z})}{\sum (z_t - \bar{z})^2} r_t = \sum w_t r_t,$$

where $w_t = (z_t - \bar{z}) / (\sum (z_t - \bar{z})^2)$. For two stocks i and j , the covariance between the estimated loadings $\text{cov}(\hat{\gamma}_i, \hat{\gamma}_j)$ is, conditional on the history of past z_t ,

$$\text{cov}(\hat{\gamma}_i, \hat{\gamma}_j) = \text{cov}\left(\sum w_t r_{it}, \sum w_t r_{jt}\right) = \sum_s \sum_t w_s w_t \text{cov}(r_{is}, r_{js}).$$

Grouping stocks with similar estimated loadings thus tends to group stocks on the basis of the covariances between their historical returns. To the extent that these covariances are informative of the underlying factor structure, the portfolio of stocks with similar estimated loadings will still have some shared patterns of return variation on an out-of-sample basis, regardless of whether the explanatory variable z_t is a true factor.

TABLE 3
Summary Statistics for Returns on Mimicking Portfolios for Macroeconomic and Statistical Factors

Attribute	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Fifth Percentile	25th Percentile	Median	75th Percentile	95th Percentile	Maximum	First-Order Autocorrelation
<i>Panel A. Macroeconomic Factors</i>									
DIP	0.0201	-0.1145	-0.0320	-0.0153	-0.0027	0.0105	0.0309	0.0605	0.11
DEF	0.0297	-0.1140	-0.0314	-0.0151	-0.0013	0.0177	0.0511	0.2353	0.16
RTB	0.0253	-0.1425	-0.0321	-0.0137	-0.0005	0.0132	0.0423	0.1172	0.11
TERM	0.0339	-0.1423	-0.0593	-0.0188	0.0024	0.0207	0.0484	0.1234	0.22
SLOPE	0.0237	-0.0929	-0.0329	-0.0114	0.0000	0.0110	0.0342	0.1602	0.13
DEI	0.0175	-0.0525	-0.0367	-0.0105	0.0001	0.0079	0.0243	0.0571	0.09
UI	0.0227	-0.0989	-0.0357	-0.0125	0.0012	0.0119	0.0289	0.0479	0.07
<i>Panel B. Statistical Factors</i>									
PC1	0.0578	-0.1901	-0.0819	-0.0360	-0.0040	0.0269	0.0928	0.3054	0.20
PC2	0.0350	-0.2213	-0.0587	-0.0272	-0.0059	0.0135	0.0493	0.1466	0.14
PC3	0.0276	-0.1081	-0.0447	-0.0149	-0.0009	0.0124	0.0407	0.1016	0.07
PC4	0.0222	-0.1231	-0.0314	-0.0095	0.0023	0.0152	0.0359	0.1362	-0.09
<i>Panel C. Market Factor</i>									
WMM	0.0469	-0.1379	-0.0700	-0.0301	-0.0080	0.0229	0.0679	0.1986	0.17
EWMM	0.0570	-0.1721	-0.0759	-0.0361	-0.0034	0.0308	0.0869	0.2965	0.20
<i>Panel D. Randomized Factors</i>									
DIP Shuffled	0.0180	-0.0710	-0.0324	-0.0108	-0.0006	0.0108	0.0249	0.0605	0.13
TERM Shuffled	0.0217	-0.1467	-0.0287	-0.0098	0.0008	0.0108	0.0359	0.0612	0.03

Portfolios are constructed from eligible domestic primary NYSE and Amex stocks to mimic the behavior of a factor. In Panel A, the factor is prespecified to be a macroeconomic variable: 1) DIP, the monthly growth rate of industrial production; 2) DEF, the default premium, measured as the difference between the monthly return on a high-yield bond index and the return on long-term government bonds; 3) RTB, the inflation-adjusted interest rate on one-month Treasury bills; 4) TERM, the term premium, measured as the difference between the return on long-term government bonds and the one-month Treasury bill rate; 5) SLOPE, the yield curve slope, measured as the difference between the yield on long-term government bonds and the yield on Treasury bills; 6) DEI, change in expected inflation, generated from a time-series model for monthly percent changes in the CPI; 7) UI, unexpected inflation, measured as the difference between realized percent changes in the CPI and the predicted value from a time-series model. In Panel B, the factors are measured as the first four principal components (PC1 to PC4) extracted from the past 60 months of excess returns for all stocks available as of the portfolio formation date, using the method of Connor and Korajczyk (1998). In Panel C, the factor is prespecified to be either the value-weighted or the equally-weighted CRSP index of NYSE and Amex stocks (WMM and EWM, respectively). In Panel D, the factor is obtained by shuffling the sequence of observations on monthly growth in industrial production, or on the term premium. Portfolios are formed at the end of April each year. For each stock, a regression is estimated using the past 60 monthly observations of its excess return (over the Treasury bill rate) on the corresponding factor. Stocks are ranked by the slope coefficient on the factor from this regression and assigned to one of five portfolios. Stocks are equally weighted in a portfolio, and the assignment uses quintile breakpoints based on NYSE issues only. The realization of the factor is measured as the difference each month between the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked highest and the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked lowest. Statistics are presented for the monthly returns on the mimicking portfolios from May 1968 to December 1993.

by the estimated loadings. By scrambling the original macroeconomic series, we break up any structure that may have been present, so there should be no relation between past returns and this pseudo-factor. Instead, the only reason why stocks have similar loadings is because they share similar past histories of returns. Accordingly, the standard deviation of returns on the mimicking portfolios serve as baseline measures of the importance of the macroeconomic, statistical, and market factors (for which loadings must be estimated from past data). Two of these benchmarks, based on loadings with respect to the reshuffled series on industrial production growth and the term premium (DIP and TERM, respectively) are presented in the last panel of Table 3.

The shuffled pseudo-factor series generate portfolios with higher standard deviations than the portfolio formed by random assignment. For example, the portfolio standard deviations associated with the scrambled DIP series is 1.80%, and 2.17% for the scrambled TERM series. The results are qualitatively similar for portfolios formed from loadings on the other shuffled macroeconomic series or loadings on series of randomly generated numbers. DEF and TERM still survive this more meaningful comparison. However, most of the other macroeconomic variables in Panel A look considerably less impressive.

With the exception of the term premium and the default premium, then, the macroeconomic factors generally make a poor showing. Put more bluntly, in most cases, they are as useful as a randomly generated series of numbers in picking up return covariation. We are at a loss to explain this poor performance. One possibility is that measurement errors in the estimation of individual securities' sensitivities to the macroeconomic variates yield very noisy mimicking portfolios.

Panel B of Table 3 documents the performance of the portfolios that mimic the statistical factors. Since the returns on the statistical and market factor portfolios are closely associated, they generally yield similar results. The volatilities of PC1 (5.78%) and PC2 (3.50%) are both large relative to the benchmarks. Sorting stocks on their betas with respect to either the value-weighted index (VWM) or the equal-weighted index (EWM) also induces large return volatilities (4.69 and 5.70%, respectively).

Beyond the first two or three principal components, the remaining statistical factors are generally not important. There has been much debate in the literature as to the number of factors that drive stock returns. The appropriate number of factors ranges from one (Trzcinka (1986)) to five (Roll and Ross (1980)) and there may be as many as 15 (Korajczyk and Viallet (1989)) or even more (Dhrymes, Friend, and Gultekin (1984)). Our evidence tends to come down on the side of those who find a relatively small number of statistical factors. On an in-sample basis, a statistical factor model will tend to snoop the data and uncover seemingly many dimensions in the behavior of returns. A distinctive feature of our approach, however, is that we evaluate the out-of-sample performance of the factors, so we are less likely to be led astray on this account.

In sum, our results indicate that stocks with similar levels of certain attributes tend to share strong common variation in their returns. Among the different categories of attributes, a stock's sensitivity to overall market movements (as proxied by a market index or a principal component) appears to be foremost. Past return, as well as fundamental attributes such as firm size, book-to-market ratio,

and dividend yield, are also associated with common influences on returns. With the exceptions of the default premium and the term premium, macroeconomic variables do not help to explain return covariation.

V. Robustness Checks

A. Seasonality

Table 4 checks for seasonal patterns in the standard deviations of the mimicking portfolio returns. Finding that the factors explain covariation not only in January but in other months of the year would provide an extra degree of reassurance in our results. The standard deviations tend to be somewhat higher in January. This may be a reflection of the generally higher mean returns in that month, which make it easier to pick up variations in the spread. Nonetheless, the non-January volatilities are still sizable (relative to the benchmarks of random assignment, or loadings with respect to a shuffled pseudo-factor). In the case of SIZE, for example, the standard deviation is 7.50% in January, and between 3.51% and 5.35% in the other months. Regardless of whether a factor receives compensation in average returns, exposure to the factor creates volatility in all months. The common variation documented earlier is not driven by returns in January.

B. A Multivariate Approach to Estimating Mimicking Portfolio Returns

The results in Section IV help to reduce the dimensionality of the covariance structure of returns. However, our procedure in that section for evaluating the importance of the different factors considers each variable separately. To the extent that the attributes are correlated, our individual comparisons may overstate the importance of a factor. Variation in the difference between the returns on stocks with high and low values of book-to-market, for instance, may be confounded with variation in the return difference between small and large stocks. A more disturbing possibility is that an attribute does not necessarily reflect exposure to a pervasive economic force, but may be a convenient omnibus measure of alikeness (a related argument is made by Daniel and Titman (1997)). Stocks that belong to the same industry, for example, may share similar values of an attribute. As an illustration, as of 1995, three industries account for roughly 60% of the market value of stocks ranked in the top quintile by book-to-market: utilities (26%), insurance companies (25%), and depository institutions (11%). Indeed, one common way of identifying stocks that are alike is in terms of industry classification. As a robustness check on our conclusions as to the importance of the different factors, therefore, we use a multivariate model to confront our different attributes with each other and also with industry classification.

Specifically, we estimate the factor-mimicking portfolio returns in month t from the following regression,

$$(1) \quad r_{it} - r_{ft} = \gamma_{0t} + \sum_{j=1}^K \gamma_{jt} X_{ijt} + \sum_{n=1}^L \delta_{nt} Z_{int} + \epsilon_{it}.$$

TABLE 4
Standard Deviation of Returns on Mimicking Portfolios by Month

The standard deviation of returns for each factor-mimicking portfolio is calculated over selected months of the year. The factor-mimicking portfolios are constructed from eligible domestic primary NYSE and Amex stocks. Stocks are ranked by either a fundamental characteristic (Panel A), or past return (Panel B), or sensitivity to a macroeconomic variable (Panel C), or sensitivity to a principal component (Panel D), or sensitivity to a market index (Panel E). Based on its rank, each stock is assigned to one of five portfolios. Stocks are equally weighted in a portfolio, and the assignment uses quintile breakpoints based on NYSE issues only. The realization of the factor is measured as the difference each month between the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked highest and the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked lowest. Statistics are calculated over the period May 1968 to December 1993.

Attribute	January	February	March	April to September	October	November	December
<i>Panel A. Fundamental Factors</i>							
BM	0.0554	0.0443	0.0234	0.0262	0.0313	0.0347	0.0299
CP	0.0417	0.0377	0.0204	0.0241	0.0353	0.0268	0.0216
DP	0.0355	0.0381	0.0356	0.0350	0.0537	0.0379	0.0285
EP	0.0364	0.0319	0.0212	0.0233	0.0371	0.0251	0.0203
SIZE	0.0750	0.0535	0.0404	0.0351	0.0466	0.0413	0.0447
<i>Panel B. Technical Factors</i>							
$R(-7, -1)$	0.0727	0.0449	0.0342	0.0281	0.0358	0.0323	0.0413
$R(-60, -12)$	0.0738	0.0461	0.0292	0.0284	0.0352	0.0282	0.0361
$R(-1, 0)$	0.0777	0.0284	0.0269	0.0235	0.0344	0.0347	0.0296
<i>Panel C. Macroeconomic Factors</i>							
DIP	0.0297	0.0208	0.0177	0.0200	0.0167	0.0176	0.0155
DEF	0.0497	0.0275	0.0245	0.0219	0.0354	0.0210	0.0221
RTB	0.0543	0.0232	0.0129	0.0204	0.0213	0.0228	0.0254
TERM	0.0465	0.0328	0.0283	0.0294	0.0414	0.0294	0.0269
SLOPE	0.0486	0.0219	0.0131	0.0192	0.0194	0.0305	0.0161
DEI	0.0207	0.0127	0.0134	0.0165	0.0187	0.0229	0.0167
UI	0.0450	0.0240	0.0162	0.0179	0.0178	0.0210	0.0261
<i>Panel D. Statistical Factors</i>							
PC1	0.0866	0.0594	0.0455	0.0458	0.0655	0.0493	0.0408
PC2	0.0656	0.0338	0.0357	0.0289	0.0280	0.0443	0.0211
PC3	0.0496	0.0228	0.0262	0.0224	0.0210	0.0323	0.0290
PC4	0.0460	0.0214	0.0215	0.0170	0.0214	0.0192	0.0216
<i>Panel E. Market Factor</i>							
VWM	0.0707	0.0407	0.0409	0.0409	0.0508	0.0453	0.0326
EWM	0.0871	0.0559	0.0475	0.0454	0.0635	0.0518	0.0385
<i>Panel F. Benchmarks</i>							
Random Assignment	0.0098	0.0083	0.0079	0.0074	0.0073	0.0061	0.0097
Shuffled DIP	0.0289	0.0149	0.0177	0.0153	0.0194	0.0198	0.0178
Shuffled TERM	0.0424	0.0215	0.0231	0.0164	0.0285	0.0130	0.0194

In Panel A, portfolios are formed at the end of April each year based on the following variables: 1) BM, book value of common equity relative to market value; 2) CP, cash flow (earnings plus depreciation) relative to market value; 3) DP, dividends relative to market value of equity; 4) EP, earnings relative to market value of equity; and 5) SIZE, market value of common equity. In Panel B, the variables used for ranking stocks are: 6) $R(-7, -1)$, the stock's rate of return beginning seven months and ending one month before portfolio formation; 7) $R(-60, -12)$, the stock's rate of return beginning five years and ending one year before portfolio formation; and 8) $R(-1, 0)$, the stock's rate of return beginning one month before and ending as of the portfolio formation date. For classification 6), portfolios are formed every six months, while for classification 7), portfolios are formed every year and for 8), portfolios are formed every month. In Panels C to E, the ranking variable is a stock's sensitivity to a pre-specified factor, and portfolios are formed at the end of April each year. For each stock, the sensitivity is measured as the slope coefficient on the factor from a regression using the past 60 monthly observations of excess return (over the Treasury bill rate). In Panel C, the factor is: 9) DIP, the monthly growth rate of industrial production; 10) DEF, the default premium, measured as the difference between the monthly return on a high-yield bond index and the return on long-term government bonds; 11) RTB, the inflation-adjusted interest rate on one-month Treasury bills; 12) TERM, the term premium, measured as the difference between the return on long-term government bonds and the one-month Treasury bill rate; 13) SLOPE, the yield curve slope, measured as the difference between the yield on long-term government bonds and the yield on Treasury bills; 14) DEI, the change in expected inflation, generated from a time-series model for monthly percent changes in the CPI; 15) UI, unexpected inflation, measured as the difference between realized percent changes in the CPI and the predicted value from a time-series model. In Panel D, the factors are the first four principal components (PC1 to PC4) extracted from the past 60 months of past excess returns for all stocks available as of the portfolio formation date, using the method of Connor and Korajczyk (1988). In Panel E, the factor is either the value-weighted or the equally-weighted CRSP index of NYSE and Amex stocks (VWM and EWM, respectively).

Here, $r_{it} - r_{ft}$ is the excess return over the T-bill rate in month t for stock i , X_{ijt} is the j th attribute for stock i at the beginning of the month, Z_{int} is a dummy variable taking the value of 1 if the stock falls in industry $n = 1, \dots, L$ and zero otherwise, and ϵ_{it} is a residual term. Each coefficient γ_{jt} for $j = 1, \dots, K$ represents the return on one of the K factors, taking into account any commonality arising from industry affiliation. We adopt the industry classification used by Fama and French (1997).⁶

We use equation (1) to verify that the factors deemed important in Tables 2 and 3 continue to be important when they are evaluated simultaneously. Specifically, the main items of interest for us are the standard deviation of the time series of estimated coefficients. If a factor return γ_j associated with the attribute X_j has a large standard deviation, then it contributes a large component to the common variation in returns. In some cases, however, the attributes X_{ijt} are highly correlated. The resulting multicollinearity tends to inflate the sampling variability and, hence, the time-series standard deviations of the estimated coefficients. To mitigate this problem, we select from each set of factors (fundamental, technical, macroeconomic, and the market) a limited number of those attributes that seem to work best in the previous tables.

Table 5 reports summary statistics for the time series of each factor return from equation (1). Experiments not reported here indicate that when a stock's loading on a pseudo-factor (such as the shuffled series on industrial production growth) is the explanatory variable in the cross-section, its coefficient has a time-series standard deviation of about 1.5%.⁷ By comparison, the volatilities reported in Table 5 are larger, ranging from 2.4% per month for BM to 5.4% for SIZE. In short, each of the factors considered here has some ability to explain the covariation in stock returns after controlling for the others. The basic message is that our earlier conclusions as to which factors are important remain unchanged in a multivariate setup. For example, SIZE continues to be the most important of our factors. Moreover, controlling for industry effects does not eliminate the importance of the factors.

Many earlier papers have concentrated on the average return premium associated with each of the attributes in equation (1). In particular, they check whether an attribute generates a non-zero premium by looking at the t -statistic for the hypothesis that the time-series mean of γ_{jt} equals zero. To provide a bridge to prior research, these statistics are reported in the last column of Table 5. The findings generally conform to the results of earlier work (see, for example, Fama and French (1992)). For our purposes, they reinforce the argument that a factor which is important for explaining return covariation is not necessarily associated with a large return differential. For example, the t -statistic for the mean premium on the size attribute is -1.35 , although the volatility of its mimicking portfolio return is the highest in Table 5. As Chen (1983) and others note, however, there is some

⁶In the regression, every month, each attribute is expressed in terms of its ordinal ranking and then scaled to lie between zero and one. This scaling allows us to compare directly the returns on the different factors. Also, to ensure that each industry contains a sufficient number of firms, we include a dummy variable for an industry only if it contains at least 10 stocks, on average, over the sample period.

⁷The experiments are calibrated so that the correlation between the loading on the pseudo-factor and the other attributes is roughly the same as the average pairwise correlation across the attributes.

TABLE 5
Summary Statistics for Regression Estimates of Returns on Mimicking Portfolios

Attribute	Mean	Standard Deviation	Fifth Percentile	25th Percentile	Median	75th Percentile	95th Percentile	t-Statistic for Mean
BM	0.009	0.024	-0.028	-0.005	0.009	0.023	0.048	6.70
DP	0.001	0.026	-0.042	-0.017	0.004	0.018	0.044	0.84
SIZE	-0.004	0.054	-0.094	-0.030	-0.002	0.027	0.088	-1.35
$R(-7, -1)$	0.007	0.036	-0.050	-0.009	0.010	0.028	0.052	3.42
$R(-60, -12)$	-0.001	0.032	-0.050	-0.018	0.002	0.018	0.044	-0.73
DEF	0.000	0.028	-0.042	-0.014	0.001	0.015	0.043	0.25
TERM	0.001	0.030	-0.047	-0.015	0.000	0.017	0.050	0.49
EWM	-0.003	0.036	-0.060	-0.026	-0.007	0.023	0.058	-1.31

Each month, the returns on factor-mimicking portfolios are estimated as the coefficients γ_{jt} , $j = 1, \dots, K$ of the cross-sectional regression,

$$r_{it} - r_{ft} = \gamma_{0t} + \sum_{j=1}^K \gamma_{jt} X_{ijt} + \sum_{n=1}^I \delta_{nt} Z_{int} + \epsilon_{it},$$

where $r_{it} - r_{ft}$ is the excess return over the T-bill rate in month t for stock i , X_{ijt} is the j th attribute for stock i at the beginning of the month, Z_{int} is a dummy variable taking the value of one if the stock falls in industry n and zero otherwise, and ϵ_{it} is a residual term. The coefficients are estimated monthly from May 1968 to December 1993. Summary statistics are presented for the time series of the estimated coefficients. The t -statistic is the ratio of the time-series mean to its standard error. The sample for each cross-section comprises all domestic primary NYSE and Amex stocks. The attributes, measured at the beginning of the month, are: 1) BM, book value of common equity relative to market value; 2) DP, dividends relative to market value of equity; 3) SIZE, market value of common equity; 4) $R(-7, -1)$, the stock's rate of return beginning seven months and ending one month ago; 5) $R(-60, -12)$, the stock's rate of return beginning five years and ending one year ago; 6) DEF, the stock's sensitivity to the default premium, measured as the difference between the monthly return on a high-yield bond index and the return on long-term government bonds; 7) TERM, the stock's sensitivity to the term premium, measured as the difference between the return on long-term government bonds and the one-month Treasury bill rate; and 8) EWM, the stock's sensitivity to the return on the CRSP equally-weighted market index in excess of the one-month Treasury bill rate. The DEF, TERM, and EWM sensitivities are estimated from a time-series regression using the prior 60 months of data. There are 48 industry classifications, corresponding to Fama and French (1997).

ambiguity as to how many factors are priced, so we also carry out a joint T^2 -test of whether all the return premiums are equal to zero. This yields an F -statistic of 10.73 (with a p -value of less than 1%).⁸

The estimated mimicking-portfolio returns from equation (1) also permit a formal test for the adequacy of the factor model. Specifically, we apply the Connor-Korajczyk (1993) procedure to the returns to check that the model does not leave out other potentially relevant factors. The alternative hypothesis is that an additional factor (the second principal component) should be added to the model in Table 5. When the test is based on non-January months, the t -statistic is 1.02 (with a p -value of 0.15); using only January months yields a test statistic of 1.52 (p -value of 0.08). The test generally suggests that the attributes used in Table 5 do a good job in capturing the covariation of returns.

⁸We obtain very similar results when the test statistics use the errors-in-variables correction outlined in Shanken (1992). Furthermore, the null hypothesis that the coefficients of the industry dummy variables are jointly equal to zero cannot be rejected at the 10% significance level.

C. Factors in Foreign Stock Markets

Given the number of factors under consideration, it is possible that some of them are important just by chance. One remedy against the problem of data-snooping is to verify that similar factors are at work in foreign stock markets.⁹ Since the different national equity markets also differ with respect to their industry composition (see, for example, Roll (1992)), an examination of foreign markets affords an additional opportunity to check that our factors are not driven solely by commonality arising from industry effects. We replicate our analysis on the two largest stock markets outside the U.S. Specifically, we look at Japanese stocks listed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange and for U.K. stocks listed on the London Stock Exchange. Sources of macroeconomic data for these countries are less readily available, so for the macroeconomic factors, we work with a subset only. The results are presented in Table 6 (Appendix A provides details on the definitions and sources of the data on foreign stocks).

Beyond the market and statistical factors, SIZE, DP, BM, and the technical factors are also important in Japan (Panel A). Of the fundamental factors, the effect of the dividend yield factor DP is especially striking, in spite of the generally low payout rates in Japan. The mimicking portfolio for DP has a standard deviation of 4.01% and an average return of 1.05% per month. Another slight difference from the U.S. results is with respect to the momentum factor. $R(-7, -1)$ has a large standard deviation, but it is not associated in Japan with a large spread. On the other hand, the macroeconomic factors DIP and SLOPE are no more successful at capturing return covariation in Japan than they are in the U.S.

While the general level of factor volatilities is lower in the U.K. data (Panel B), very similar results hold. In particular, SIZE, BM, DP, and the technical factors also do well in capturing common variation. Of the U.K. factors, the size factor is particularly notable: its mimicking portfolio has a standard deviation of 4.47% per month. In short, our results for the relative importance of the factors hold up across the largest national equity markets.¹⁰

VI. Conclusions

Factor models are extensively used for return prediction, risk management, and performance evaluation. Many empirical factors have been suggested in the literature, but there has been little attempt to narrow the list of factors that are important. This paper evaluates the performance of fundamental factors, technical factors, macroeconomic factors, and statistical factors in capturing the systematic covariation in stock returns.

Macroeconomic factors are very popular in the academic literature and in practice as well. We find the performance of these factors to be quite disappoint-

⁹Since returns across different markets are correlated, the results are not totally independent. Ferson and Harvey (1993) also study the sources of risk and predictability in international equity returns.

¹⁰As with the model in Table 5, we also replicated the Connor-Korajczyk (1993) test for the number of factors in the Japanese and U.K. data. The t -statistic using the Japanese data is 0.28 (p -value of 0.39) for non-January months and 0.56 (p -value of 0.29) for January months only. The t -statistic using the U.K. data is 1.12 (p -value of 0.13) for non-January months and -0.02 (p -value of 0.51) for January months only.

TABLE 6

Summary Statistics for Returns on Mimicking Portfolios: Japanese and U.K. Evidence

Attribute	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	25th Percentile	Median	75th Percentile	Maximum
<i>Panel A. Japan</i>							
BM	0.0088	0.0319	-0.1135	-0.0089	0.0058	0.0252	0.1505
CP	0.0069	0.0258	-0.1015	-0.0108	0.0061	0.0213	0.0950
DP	0.0105	0.0401	-0.1500	-0.0124	0.0081	0.0311	0.1525
EP	0.0041	0.0241	-0.0809	-0.0110	0.0032	0.0158	0.0850
SIZE	-0.0081	0.0504	-0.2121	-0.0435	-0.0084	0.0222	0.1534
$R(-7, -1)$	0.0030	0.0370	-0.1187	-0.0150	0.0052	0.0242	0.1420
$R(-60, -12)$	-0.0073	0.0315	-0.0949	-0.0202	0.0000	0.0083	0.1170
$R(-1, 0)$	-0.0168	0.0385	-0.2629	-0.0343	-0.0153	0.0087	0.0552
Random Assignment	-0.0006	0.0080	-0.0277	-0.0058	0.0005	0.0043	0.0194
DIP	-0.0015	0.0207	-0.0603	-0.0148	0.0030	0.0122	0.0560
SLOPE	-0.0029	0.0261	-0.0963	-0.0154	-0.0037	0.0136	0.0814
PC1	-0.0049	0.0558	-0.1602	-0.0400	-0.0012	0.0317	0.1471
PC2	0.0031	0.0510	-0.1674	-0.0319	0.0089	0.0395	0.1671
PC3	-0.0006	0.0311	-0.0874	-0.0186	-0.0013	0.0149	0.1130
VWM	-0.0034	0.0466	-0.1360	-0.0321	-0.0010	0.0237	0.1374
EWM	0.0003	0.0393	-0.1567	-0.0211	0.0012	0.0223	0.1164
Shuffled DIP	0.0000	0.0214	-0.0656	-0.0131	-0.0011	0.0127	0.0769
<i>Panel B. U.K.</i>							
BM	0.0095	0.0242	-0.0576	-0.0050	0.0103	0.0261	0.0801
CP	0.0067	0.0200	-0.0438	-0.0074	0.0062	0.0193	0.0857
DP	0.0072	0.0218	-0.0662	-0.0063	0.0064	0.0196	0.0781
EP	0.0051	0.0198	-0.0514	-0.0057	0.0040	0.0176	0.0687
SIZE	-0.0055	0.0447	-0.1792	-0.0340	-0.0092	0.0183	0.2426
$R(-7, -1)$	0.0060	0.0283	-0.1823	-0.0067	0.0086	0.0215	0.0816
$R(-60, -12)$	-0.0064	0.0205	-0.0852	-0.0184	-0.0029	0.0024	0.0565
$R(-1, 0)$	-0.0013	0.0238	-0.1999	-0.0209	-0.0064	0.0121	0.0991
Random Assignment	0.0000	0.0090	-0.0268	-0.0062	0.0004	0.0066	0.0238
DIP	0.0006	0.0150	-0.0520	-0.0097	0.0008	0.0111	0.0393
SLOPE	-0.0018	0.0213	-0.0582	-0.0139	-0.0016	0.0076	0.0969
PC1	-0.0003	0.0304	-0.0898	-0.0185	-0.0013	0.0185	0.1199
PC2	0.0055	0.0307	-0.0964	-0.0142	0.0077	0.0238	0.1082
PC3	-0.0018	0.0193	-0.0732	-0.0143	-0.0004	0.0088	0.0594
VWM	0.0001	0.0320	-0.0836	-0.0190	0.0001	0.0193	0.1143
EWM	-0.0004	0.0310	-0.0870	-0.0201	-0.0003	0.0209	0.1070
Shuffled DIP	-0.0021	0.0142	-0.0430	-0.0097	-0.0021	0.0069	0.0320

Portfolios are constructed from eligible stocks in each country to mimic the behavior of a factor. In Panel A, the sample includes all stocks on the first and second sections of the Tokyo Stock Exchange. In Panel B, the sample includes all U.K. stocks. In each country, stocks are ranked by an attribute and assigned to one of five portfolios. The factor return is measured as the difference each month between the equally-weighted return on the stocks in the highest-ranked portfolio and the equally-weighted return on the stocks in the lowest-ranked portfolio. The attributes, measured at the beginning of the month, are: 1) BM, book value of common equity relative to market value; 2) CP, cash flow (earnings plus depreciation) relative to market value; 3) DP, dividends relative to market value of equity; 4) SIZE, market value of common equity; 5) $R(-7, -1)$, the stock's rate of return beginning seven months and ending one month ago; 6) $R(-60, -12)$, the stock's rate of return beginning five years and ending one year ago; 7) $R(-1, 0)$, the stock's rate of return beginning one month before and ending as of the portfolio formation date; 8) DIP, the stock's sensitivity to the monthly growth rate of industrial production; 9) SLOPE, the stock's sensitivity to the yield curve slope, measured as the difference between the yield on long-term government bonds and the yield on three-month bills; 10) PC1 to PC3, the stock's sensitivity to the first to third principal components extracted from the past 60 months using the method of Connor and Korajczyk (1988); 11) the stock's sensitivity to either the return on the value-weighted market index in excess of the one-month interest rate (VWM) or the excess return on the equally-weighted market index (EWM). The DIP, SLOPE, PC1 to PC3, VWM, and EWM sensitivities are estimated from a time-series regression using the prior 60 months of data.

ing. With the exception of the factors related to the default premium and the term premium, the macroeconomic factors do a poor job in explaining return covariation. In terms of understanding the return covariation across stocks, widely used factors such as industrial production growth and unanticipated inflation do not seem to be more useful than a randomly generated series of numbers. The mean return premiums associated with the macroeconomic factors are also quite low, further suggesting that they are of limited use in structuring efficient portfolios. Possibly, the poor showing of the macroeconomic factors may be due to measurement errors in the estimated sensitivities.

Statistical factors have also generated a lot of attention. Much of the existing literature estimates the factors and examines their usefulness within the sample. In practice, models based on a large number of statistical factors are widely available to investment managers for risk analysis and management. We find that, in a predictive sense, there is no benefit to adding statistical factors beyond the first two or three principal components. The factor corresponding to the first principal component is by far the most important and has a standard deviation of 5.78% per month. This is quite similar to the standard deviation of the overall market factor (based on loadings with respect to the equally-weighted index). The correlation between these two mimicking portfolios is also quite high, suggesting that the first principal component is, in essence, capturing the market factor.

The fundamental factors, in the context that they are used in this paper, have been suggested by Fama and French (1993) only relatively recently. These factors seem to work well in capturing the covariation in stock returns. The performance of the size factor is especially noteworthy. Its standard deviation is very large (5.11% per month). Two additional fundamental factors, book-to-market and dividend yield, also have relatively large standard deviations of about 3.8% per month.

Technical variables (past returns) have generally not been extensively used as the basis for common risk factors. Their inclusion rests mainly on the fact that they generate large spreads in returns. We find that the technical factors also produce sizable standard deviations of around 4%.

The results of this paper are mostly based on a univariate approach that assesses the importance of each factor by itself. Since the attributes underlying the factors are correlated, such a procedure can potentially yield misleading inferences. To check the robustness of our results, we use a multivariate approach to examine simultaneously the most important of our factors, and also to control for industry effects. Our findings stand up under this alternative approach.

As a further check on the robustness of our results, we replicate our analysis on the two largest equity markets outside the U.S., namely Japan and the U.K. The same pervasive forces that are at work in the U.S. also successfully capture the common variation in returns on stocks in Japan and the U.K. Among the fundamental factors, for example, in all three countries, size is the most important factor. Book-to-market and dividend yield are also important factors in all three markets.

Variables that produce large spreads in average returns are candidates for common factors. We find that while a factor may account for substantial return comovement, it is not necessarily associated with a large premium in stock re-

turns. For example, in the U.S., the spread in returns between stocks with high and low dividend yields is only 0.08% per month. Differences in firm size are also associated with a relatively small spread in returns. However, these two variables are very important in capturing return covariation. The upshot is that different factor models may be needed for different purposes (predicting returns as opposed to controlling risk, for example).

While it is comparatively straightforward to document the behavior of the mimicking portfolios, the interpretation of the underlying factors is much harder and remains controversial. The differences between large and small firms, for example, may be due to differences in the patterns of their underlying cash flows. On the other hand, some preliminary evidence suggests that the differences in returns persist even after accounting for the effects of industry composition and exposures to numerous other influences. Fluctuations in investor sentiment, which at some times favor large stocks and at other times favor small stocks, may be an alternative explanation. As another illustration, the momentum factor associated with past six-month returns is difficult to interpret. The reason why the momentum factor works, for example, may be no deeper than the simple fact that similar stocks have similar past returns. Precisely how the stocks are similar in an economically meaningful way is left unexplained. A rate of return measured over a six-month period, but realized a year ago, does just as well as the momentum attribute in picking out similar stocks.

One area where factor models are extensively used is for performance evaluation and attribution. Our results uncover some important regularities that can help investors to understand better the return patterns on various investment styles. There is clear evidence of seasonal patterns, for example, in the returns on the fundamental factors and the technical factors. Investment styles that tilt heavily in favor of the fundamental factors, such as value strategies, tend to perform well at the beginning of the year, especially in January, and do poorly at the end of the year. On the other hand, momentum strategies shine at the end of the year but perform extremely badly at the beginning of the year. Such patterns are consistent with substantial rebalancing behavior by institutional investors around the turn of the year. At year-end, such investors may tend to prefer more successful companies and move away from more controversial stocks with poor past performance. As the race for investment performance starts again at the beginning of the year, investors may be more inclined to bet on the relatively beaten-down stocks. We also find that value strategies perform very well in down-markets, with particularly good results from stocks with high dividend yields. This may explain why dividend yield is such a widely used indicator among investors.

Appendix A: Definitions of and Sources for the Variables

U.S. Data

All accounting data are taken from the Compustat file. BM is the ratio of book value of common equity to market value of equity. Book value is measured as Compustat Annual Data Item 60, and market value (price per share times number of common shares outstanding, corresponding to SIZE) is from CRSP.

Where a firm has multiple issues of common equity, we aggregate the market value across the different issues. CP is the ratio of cash flow to market value of equity. Cash flow is income before extraordinary items and adjusted for common stock equivalents (Compustat Annual Data Item 20) plus depreciation and amortization (Compustat Annual Data Item 14). DP is the ratio of common dividends (Compustat Annual Data Item 21) to market value of common equity. EP is income before extraordinary items and adjusted for common stock equivalents (Compustat Annual Data Item 20) divided by market value of common equity.

Past rates of return (percent price changes plus dividend yield, adjusted for stock splits, stock dividends, and other special distributions) are from the CRSP Monthly File.

DIP is the monthly percent change in the seasonally-adjusted industrial production index, taken from the Department of Commerce Survey of Current Business. DEF is the difference between the monthly return on the Salomon Brothers High Yield Bond Index and the Long-Term Government Bond Return from Ibbotson Associates. RTB is the return on one-month Treasury bills minus the percentage change in the Consumer Price Index (both series are from Ibbotson Associates). TERM is the Long-Term Government Bond Return series minus the one-month Treasury bill return (from Ibbotson Associates). SLOPE is the yield on long-term government bonds minus the yield on three-month Treasury bills, both from International Financial Statistics.

Japanese Data

Data on returns and accounting items are taken from the PACAP Japanese database from the Pacific-Basin Capital Markets Research Center at the University of Rhode Island. Our sample period is May 1976 to December 1994.

All returns are in excess of the one-month gensaki rate (PACAP data item JAM23). For industrial firms, we use the following financial statement items (each item has its counterpart for financial firms). Book value is total stockholders' equity (data item BAL21), and market value is the total market capitalization of the company (data item MKTVAL). Earnings is measured as net income (data item INC9) minus extraordinary gains/losses (data item INC8). Cash flow is earnings plus depreciation charges (data item JAF74). Total dividends to common equity is cash dividends per share (data item MKT1(1)) multiplied by number of common shares outstanding (data item MKT2(1)).

Data on industrial production are from International Financial Statistics. For SLOPE, we take from PACAP the yield on 10-year government bonds (data item JAM33) minus the one-month gensaki rate (data item JAM23).

U.K. Data

Data on returns and accounting items are from a proprietary database on U.K. stocks constructed by ABP and Robeco. Our sample period is May 1973 to December 1994.

International Financial Statistics is the source for the U.K. industrial production series and also for SLOPE, measured as the yield on long-term government bonds minus the yield on three-month U.K. Treasury bills.

Appendix B

Table B1 reports correlations between the returns on the different factor-mimicking portfolios. In light of the large number of variables involved, we break down the correlation table into blocks and report only a subset of the correlations.

TABLE B1
Correlations between Returns on Factor-Mimicking Portfolios

Panel A. Fundamental and Technical Factors

	BM	CP	DP	EP	SIZE	$R(-7, -1)$	$R(-60, -12)$	$R(-1, 0)$
BM	1.000							
CP	0.841	1.000						
DP	0.536	0.682	1.000					
EP	0.660	0.851	0.700	1.000				
SIZE	-0.650	-0.332	0.141	-0.126	1.000			
$R(-7, -1)$	-0.594	-0.433	-0.201	-0.369	0.583	1.000		
$R(-60, -12)$	-0.735	-0.546	-0.256	-0.306	0.646	0.495	1.000	
$R(-1, 0)$	-0.345	-0.164	0.057	-0.093	0.514	0.576	0.400	1.000

Panel B. Macroeconomic Factors

	DIP	DEF	RTB	TERM	SLOPE	DEI	UI
DIP	1.000						
DEF	0.060	1.000					
RTB	-0.164	-0.164	1.000				
TERM	-0.201	-0.865	0.128	1.000			
SLOPE	-0.309	0.245	0.055	-0.007	1.000		
DEI	0.097	-0.358	-0.325	0.318	-0.245	1.000	
UI	0.153	0.078	-0.905	-0.031	-0.011	0.320	1.000

Panel C. Statistical and Market Factors

	PC1	PC2	VWM	EWM
PC1	1.000			
PC2	0.085	1.000		
VWM	0.925	0.321	1.000	
EWM	0.977	0.191	0.965	1.000

Panel D. Selected Other Correlations

	BM	SIZE	DP	$R(-7, -1)$	$R(-60, -12)$
DEF	0.392	-0.748	-0.332	-0.362	-0.552
TERM	-0.216	0.664	0.534	0.270	0.385
PC1	0.352	-0.830	-0.493	-0.468	-0.453
PC2	-0.253	0.060	-0.361	-0.112	0.214
VWM	0.170	-0.674	-0.601	-0.433	-0.287
EWM	0.327	-0.805	-0.511	-0.494	-0.435

Correlation coefficients are calculated between the returns on portfolios constructed to mimic factors. Portfolios are based on domestic primary NYSE and Amex stocks. Stocks are ranked by either a fundamental characteristic or past return (Panel A), sensitivity to a macroeconomic variable (Panel B), sensitivity to a principal component or sensitivity to the return on a market index (Panel C). Based on its ranking, a stock is assigned to one of five portfolios. Stocks are equally weighted in a portfolio, and the assignment uses quintile breakpoints based on NYSE issues only. The mimicking portfolio's return is the difference each month between the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked highest and the return on the portfolio of stocks that are ranked lowest. Returns extend from May 1968 to December 1993.

The portfolios formed on the basis of the fundamental characteristics BM, CP, DP, and EP are highly correlated, with correlations in excess of 0.5 in absolute value (Panel A). This is not surprising given that a firm that ranks highly on one attribute also tends to rank highly on the others, so there tends to be considerable overlap in the composition of the portfolios. In this sense, these fundamental factors are all picking up somewhat similar influences on stock returns. Nonetheless book-to-market, along with size, have received the bulk of recent attention (Fama and French (1993)). Our mimicking portfolios that are intended to capture these two factors, BM and SIZE, have a correlation of -0.650 . In other words, when value stocks (with high book-to-market ratios) outperform glamour stocks (with low book-to-market ratios), small stocks also tend to outperform large stocks (recall that the factor for SIZE is defined as the return on large stocks minus the return on small stocks). The strong association between the two factors reflects (at least in part) the general tendency for value stocks to be smaller companies than glamour stocks.

BM and SIZE also tend to be strongly associated with the technical factor $R(-60, -12)$ (the correlations are -0.735 and 0.646 , respectively). Extreme past losers (as identified by $R(-60, -12)$) that have declined substantially in market value will naturally tend to rank highly on the book-to-market ratio and poorly on firm size.

While the different fundamental attributes for a stock tend to be correlated, the same cannot be said for our technical attributes. $R(-7, -1)$, $R(-60, -12)$, and $R(-1, 0)$ are constructed over non-overlapping horizons and, thus, the makeup of these portfolios do not have much in common. On this account, it may be somewhat surprising that the correlations between the returns on the technical factor portfolios are not low. In this case, the common element to the technical factors is the tendency for past losers to do well in January. For example, the correlation is 0.77 between the returns on the $R(-1, 0)$ and $R(-7, -1)$ portfolios in January, but falls to 0.21 for non-January months. Similarly, in January, the correlation between the returns on the $R(-1, 0)$ and $R(-60, -12)$ portfolios is 0.72 while, in non-January months, the correlation is only 0.02 . The correlations for the other factor returns are not notably different between January and other months.

Portfolios formed to mimic the macroeconomic factors (Panel B) are not, in general, highly correlated. The largest correlations are between the default premium factor portfolio DEF and the term premium factor portfolio TERM (-0.865), and between the real interest rate factor portfolio RTB and the unexpected inflation factor portfolio UI (-0.905). As DEF (which is based on sensitivity to the spread between the return on high-yield bonds and the government bond return) and TERM (which is based on sensitivity to the spread between the government bond return and the T-bill rate) both reflect, at least in part, the impact of long-term bond returns, they tend to pick out the same set of stocks. For example, stocks with high loadings on TERM tend to be relatively larger firms with comparatively higher dividend yields (compared to stocks with low loadings on TERM). At the same time, these stocks tend to have low exposures to the default premium DEF. Similarly, since the nominal Treasury bill rate tracks expected inflation quite closely, the loadings with respect to realized real rates and unexpected inflation are very highly correlated to begin with.

The portfolio PC1 behaves very similarly to the portfolios VWM and EWM. The portfolio PC2 based on loadings on the second principal component behaves quite similarly to VWM. Note that the principal components are constructed to be orthogonal, so the portfolio returns on these two factors are very weakly correlated.

Panel D examines the return correlations across our different categories of factors. DEF and TERM parallel the bond market factors used by Fama and French (1993). The return spread DEF also tends to move quite closely with SIZE and $R(-60, -12)$. Similarly, TERM has fairly high correlations with SIZE and the dividend yield factor portfolio DP.

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