Other Assets' Risk: Asset-Prices and Perceptions of Asset-Risk

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Abstract
Due to wealth effects, the price of a security may vary with the realization of an underlying risk factor even when the security’s dividend is independent of that factor. This paper highlights a crucial component of these effects hitherto ignored by the literature: changes in wealth do not alter only an agent’s risk aversion, but also her perceived “riskiness” of the security. The latter enhances significantly the extent to which market-clearing leads to endogenously-generated correlation across asset prices and returns, over and above that induced by correlation between payoffs, giving the appearance of “contagion”.

Keywords: General Equilibrium Asset-Pricing, Lucas Trees, Contagion.

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1 Introduction

For the most part of the theoretical continuous-time financial economics literature, the workhorse has been some analogue of the model in Lucas [26]. In its purest form, it depicts a one-commodity, pure-exchange economy with identical price-taking consumers, in which economic activity occurs over a time-interval. The consumption good is provided by distinct units whose productivity fluctuates stochastically, their usual interpretation being that of Lucas trees. Namely, a crop is growing stochastically on different trees via a production process that is entirely exogenous.

Even though commonly endowed with the generated filtration, the individuals cannot observe the actual productivity shocks. Instead, they monitor the crop on the trees whose magnitude plays the role of an information process. In the basic model, the agents use this information to trade continuously and frictionlessly a given set of perfectly divisible securities. It consists of one security, in positive net supply, for each productive unit representing one equity share (termed “stock”) in that tree. There is also a promissory note (termed a “bond”), in zero net supply, paying one unit of the good with certainty.

In the equilibrium of this economy, the price of the typical security is the current expectation of its future dividends valued at the representative agent’s marginal rate of substitution between consumption at the dividend-collection date and the present. Derivations have been provided by a number of seminal papers and for different versions of the model. As asset-pricing framework, moreover, this has been used extensively in the literature to price more complex financial assets, such as derivative securities, and to identify optimal consumption and portfolio policies. Surprisingly, though, the dynamics of the equilibrium pricing process with respect to the underlying risk process have not been thus far investigated - not analytically and, hence, not to a satisfactory degree of generality with respect to the economic primitives. And this is the task of the present paper.

Whether these dynamics are monotone is the most fundamental comparative statics question. For if (and only if) they are, there can be an
invertible relation between the asset prices of this economy and the underlying stochastic process that represents its primitive sources of risk. This would, for instance, greatly facilitate economic but also econometric analysis and prediction. In fact, it would ensure that either (and especially the latter) makes sense by rendering the effect of the unobserved risk process on the equilibrium asset prices identifiable from the observable path of the production process, the available information process in this economy.

Of course, marginal utilities are not observable in practise and securities are priced with respect to a numeraire so that what really matters is the relative price between two securities. Taking the price of the consumption good as the numeraire, my focus will rest upon the price of the typical stock relative to the price of the bond. To examine the comparative statics of this relative price analytically, I restrict attention to the case in which the production process on the typical Lucas tree follows a multi-dimensional geometric Brownian motion.

This specification that has been widely used in theoretical as well as empirical studies because it allows the equilibrium asset prices to be identified either in closed form or as solutions to well-known stochastic differential equations. Yet, determining their comparative statics properties with respect to the typical component of the underlying risk process, the typical Brownian motion, is not straightforward. Observe, for instance, that, albeit each stock’s dividend follows a geometric Brownian motion, its equilibrium relative price will not do so apart from a very special case.\footnote{Working with one tree, one Brownian motion, and no endowment for the representative agent (other than the net supply of the stock), Bick [9] established that the relative price between the stock and the bond will follow a geometric Brownian motion in equilibrium if and only if the representative agent’s utility exhibits constant relative risk aversion. For general dimensions of the Brownian and production processes, this has been confirmed by Raimondo [32] (see his Remark 1 and Example 1).}

Other things being equal, an increase in the current realization of the typical Brownian motion raises the expected dividend of any stock that corresponds to a tree whose output is positively related to this risk factor. This is an improvement in first-order stochastic dominance terms and, due to her non-satiation, the representative agent becomes more willing to hold the as-
set. Being constrained, however, to hold its fixed net supply in equilibrium, she cannot but push up its price. As a mechanism relating shocks to asset prices, this will be termed here the dividend effect of a change in the typical Brownian motion on the typical stock price.

Yet, the increase in the expected dividend raises also the representative agent’s expected wealth, her expected equilibrium consumption. Because of her risk-aversion, this reduces the expected marginal utility of equilibrium consumption and, thus, the value of future receipts. This is another linkage between the realizations of an underlying risk factor and the prices of the securities which I will call the risk-aversion effect. It works in the same direction on every security in the model, being also of the same magnitude once stock and bond units are compared appropriately (see Section 3.2).

Considering just these two effects together, the complexity of the asset-price dynamics under study in this paper begins to reveal itself, at least partially. For example, the price of a stock need not increase when its dividend increases. It also need not change, however, in the opposite direction to the agent’s wealth, when the dividend is independent of the Brownian motion in question. In fact, under some fairly general conditions, the stock price and the agent’s wealth will be positively correlated (and monotonically so) as long as the representative agent’s utility function exhibits non-increasing absolute risk aversion (see Section 3.2). Needless to say, given the absence of a dividend effect, this positive relation necessitates the presence of yet another effect which ought to be outweighing risk-aversion in this case. This is the third (and final) aspect of the shock-transmission mechanism that market-clearing brings about. I will be referring to it henceforth as the asset-riskiness effect of a change in the typical Brownian motion on the typical stock price.

This depicts the very fact that the extent to which changes in the marginal utility of equilibrium consumption affect the price of a stock de-

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2In fact, assuming one tree, one Brownian motion, log-utility and no endowment for the representative agent, the price of the stock will be constant (see Example 1 in Raimondo [32]). All of the adjustment, that must take place on its relative price to clear the markets in the face of its stochastic dividend, obtains entirely through the price of the bond.
pends on the actual realizations of its dividend. That is, the evolution of the underlying Brownian motion influences the stock price also through altering the correlation between the dividend and the marginal utility of equilibrium consumption. In the example of the preceding paragraph, an increase in the Brownian realization raises the agent’s wealth, thereby, reducing its marginal utility. Yet, the decrease in the marginal utility tends to be small when the dividend realization is large and large when the dividend is small. In other words, even though independent from the Brownian motion, following an increase in the Brownian realization, the dividend becomes less positively correlated with consumption. As a result, the agent perceives now the stock as less “risky,” which induces her to demand more of it and, facing its fixed net supply, push up its equilibrium price.

Even though strictly introductory, the above overview of the market-clearing induced asset-price dynamics is quite telling about their complexity. And this cannot but increase when the focus is turned onto relative prices. If anything, even the risk-aversion effect, being always in the same direction for all securities, is no longer immediately identifiable. More importantly, as shown throughout the remainder of the paper, the asset-riskiness effect is again a fundamental but hard to pin down driving factor. The dynamics of relative asset-prices are much richer than one is led to expect at first glance, armed with basic economic intuition.

And this is the case even when the utility function of the representative agent is such that her optimal portfolio is well-known regarding how it divides her invested wealth between stocks and bond. Suppose, for instance, that her utility exhibits constant relative risk aversion (CRRA) and that her current invested wealth is $150 ($1 representing one unit of consumption) of which $100 are placed on stocks. Consider also a negative productivity shock that reduces the value of this part of her wealth to $85. Other things (in particular, her endowment) being equal, she will want to adjust her portfolio so that her invested wealth remains split between stocks and bond in the original 2:1 ratio. She will seek, that is, to invest $90 on stocks and $45 on the bond. Since the securities are in fixed supply, their prices must adjust but is not clear how. Obviously, the price of at least one stock
each is in positive net supply) must fall whereas that of the bond (as it is in zero net supply and the agent is risk averse) must rise. But which one is this stock and what happens to the other stocks’ relative prices?

The present paper sheds light on questions of this kind. It analyzes the economic mechanism that determines how the relative price of a stock changes in the face of such shocks (Section 3). It also identifies settings of economic primitives under which the direction of these changes can be unambiguously foretold (Section 4). By establishing that, as a norm, asset prices are correlated with an underlying risk source even when payoffs are not, my findings attest to the richness of the asset-price dynamics. By showing, on the other hand, that it is by no means straightforward to identify settings in which the sign of this correlation remains constant, they attest to their complexity.

The main message of the paper is that the relative price of a stock will typically vary with the realization of a Brownian motion even when its dividend is not correlated with that Brownian component. Proposition 1 presents settings under which this relation is monotone given any decreasing absolute risk-aversion (DARA) utility function for the representative agent. One of these settings has all the dividends uncorrelated with one another and the agent’s non-stock endowment deterministic (Corollary 1.2). Admittedly, this is the most inhospitable economic environment for cross-correlations in asset-prices.

When the agent’s utility exhibits constant absolute risk-aversion (CARA), such cross-correlations are also omnipresent. In fact, the relative price of a stock will not change now with the realizations of a Brownian motion which does not affect its dividend if and only if this Brownian component and the Brownian motions which are correlated with the dividend affect the agent’s wealth through independent channels. That such separation in the wealth components is sufficient is given by Proposition 3. Necessity, on the other hand, follows from Proposition 2. This identifies settings of economic primitives under which the wealth separation is violated and, even though the dividend is not correlated with the Brownian motion while the agent exhibits CARA, the relative price of the stock varies (indeed monotonically)
with the realizations of the Brownian motion.

For many a reader, the assertion in the preceding paragraph might come as a surprise. The risk source in question affects the agent’s wealth leaving, however, the asset’s payoff unaltered. And it is a rather widely-held view that, under CARA, changes in wealth should not matter for relative prices. Yet, the intuition behind this premise is erroneously crude, stemming most probably from the multitude of examples in the discrete-time financial economics literature that take the agent’s wealth to be linearly-dependent upon asset payoffs. Although rendering models analytically tractable and elegant, the linearity assumption obscures the interaction between the asset-riskiness and risk-aversion effects on the relative prices. For as I show at the end of Section 4.1, it constrains these effects to cancel each other out.

Overall, my analysis shows that, mostly through the asset-riskiness effect, market-clearing generates correlations across relative asset prices (and, hence, returns) over and above those induced by correlations between their respective payoffs. In the model under study, this is a generic phenomenon and the induced correlations are stochastic, even though the covariance coefficients of the dividends are constant. Of course, as I discuss in the next section, the possibility for correlation in asset prices and returns, when there is no common factor in cash flows, is well-known in the literature, typically as “contagion.” But it has not been demonstrated before analytically in a general equilibrium model. And the analytical results are of importance, not only for facilitating economic intuition, but also because the direction of the excess co-movements depends fundamentally on our assumptions regarding the representative agent’s attitudes towards risk.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section, the model I study and the results I obtain throughout the paper are placed in the context of the pertinent literature. Section 3 investigates the comparative statics of equilibrium relative prices, its emphasis being on economic intuition and interpretation. Section 4 takes this further, aiming at specific analytical claims regarding the relative price dynamics, while Section 5 concludes. All proofs, as well as some supporting technical material, can be found in the Appendix.
2 Theoretical Foundation and Related Literature

The theoretical backdrop of the relative-price dynamics investigated by the present paper can be outlined as follows. Consider a one-commodity, pure-exchange economy with identical price-taking consumers, in which economic activity occurs over a time-interval \([0, T] \subseteq \mathbb{R}_+\). The consumption good is produced by \(N \in \mathbb{N}^*\) Lucas trees whose productivity fluctuates stochastically according to a \(K\)-dimensional (\(K \geq N\)) standard Brownian motion \(\{\beta(\omega, t) : t \in [0, T]\}_{\omega \in \Omega}\) defined on a complete probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \pi)\). This is meant to describe the exogenous uncertainty about productivity in the sense that the sample paths in the collection \(\{\beta(\omega, [0, T])\}_{\omega \in \Omega}\) completely specify all the distinguishable events.

Even though endowed with the generated filtration \(\{\mathcal{F}_t : t \in [0, T]\}\), the agents cannot observe \(\beta\) directly. Instead of the actual productivity shocks, they monitor the crop on the trees, depicted by the \(N\)-dimensional process \(Y\), which is a function of the process \(\mathcal{I} = \{\beta(\omega, t) : (\omega, t) \in \Omega \times [0, T]\}\) and whose component processes \(Y_1, \ldots, Y_N\) represent the current amount of the consumption good on the respective tree. Of course, the evolution of \(Y\) over time depends upon \(\beta\) in a nonpredictable fashion, being adapted to the given filtration.\(^3\)

\(^3\)A probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \pi)\) consists of a sample space \(\Omega\), a \(\sigma\)-algebra \(\mathcal{F}\) on \(\Omega\), and a probability measure \(\pi\) on \(\mathcal{F}\). Each \(\omega \in \Omega\) represents a complete description of the exogenous uncertain environment while \(\mathcal{F}\) is the collection of the distinguishable, at the end of time, events. The probability space is complete if any subset of any \(\pi\)-null set is included in \(\mathcal{F}\).

\(^4\)A filtration \(\{\mathcal{F}_t : t \in [0, T]\}\) is a family of \(\sigma\)-algebras \(\mathcal{F}_t \subseteq \mathcal{F}\) which is increasing: \(\mathcal{F}_s \subseteq \mathcal{F}_t\) if \(s \leq t\). It depicts the evolution of information: \(\mathcal{F}_t\) represents the information available at \(t\). The filtration being increasing, more and more is known with time (past information is not forgotten). Being, in particular, generated by the Brownian motion, it depicts the informational structure revealed to someone who observes the path of the Brownian motion. Mathematically, this entails \(\mathcal{F}_t = \{\beta(\omega, s) : (\omega, s) \in \Omega \times [0, t]\}\) while \(\mathcal{F}_T = \mathcal{F}\). We assume that \(\beta(\omega, 0) = 0\) \(\forall \omega \in \Omega\) almost surely, so that \(\mathcal{F}_0\) is almost trivial (it contains only \(\Omega\) and all the \(\pi\)-null sets).

\(^5\)The process \(Y\) is said to be adapted to the filtration \(\{\mathcal{F}_t : t \in [0, T]\}\) if, for each \(\omega \in \Omega\), \(Y(\omega, t)\) is is measurable with respect to \(\mathcal{F}_t \forall t \in [0, T]\). In words, whatever the underlying true state of the world \(\omega\), the value of \(Y\) at any date cannot depend on any realization of the Brownian motion after that date. The process \(\mathcal{I}\) depicts the vector Brownian process \(\beta\) but also time as distinct entities. As functional argument, it allows for time- as well as state-dependence in the corresponding function, as long as the latter dependence obtains.
The trading structure consists of \(N + 1\) securities: a zero-coupon bond, depicted as the zeroth security, and stocks indexed by \(n \in \{1, \ldots, N\}\). Finally, individual preferences are such that the representative agent has some von-Neumann Morgenstern utility function over instantaneous consumption, \(u : \mathbb{R}_{++} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\), which is twice continuously-differentiable, strictly increasing, and concave everywhere in its domain.

The underlying informational structure being a filtration, the choice of numeraire here is essentially arbitrary because the equilibrium market-clearing condition will depend only on the prices of the securities relative to the price of consumption, and will do so node \((\omega, t)\) by node \((\omega, s)\), for \(s \neq t\).\(^6\) We may choose, therefore, consumption as the numeraire and set its price at \(P_c(\omega, t) = 1\) \(\forall (\omega, t) \in \Omega \times [0, T]\). My aim then is to investigate the dynamics of \(p_n(\omega, t) = \frac{P_n(\omega, t)}{P_0(\omega, t)}\), the equilibrium relative price process of the typical stock (relative to the price of the bond) with respect to the current realization \(\beta_k(\omega, t)\) of the typical Brownian motion. Needless to say, these depict a relation that cannot be readily identified from the path of the production process, the available information process in this economy.\(^7\)

\(^6\)Recall that each \(\omega \in \Omega\) is a complete description of the uncertain environment. As such, it gets predetermined exogenously and remains fixed throughout time. What changes with time is the path of realizations for the underlying stochastic process that generates the filtration \(\{\mathcal{F}_t : t \in [0, T]\}\). Being a \(K\)-dimensional standard Brownian motion, its component processes \(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_K\) are independent, one-dimensional Brownian motions with zero drift and unit variance so that the process changes here in increments such that, for all \(0 \leq s < t \leq T\), \(\beta(\omega, t) - \beta(\omega, s)\) is independent of \(\mathcal{F}_s(\omega)\) and distributed \(\mathcal{N}(0, (t - s)1_K)\). A given \(\omega\) determines, therefore, the Brownian path \(\beta(\omega, [0, T])\). And since this path has been drawn by nature before the economic activity even starts, the equilibrium market-clearing conditions need to apply only along the path; along every possible path, of course, but not across paths. As a consequence, and given that only relative prices matter in equilibrium, it is without loss of generality to normalize such that the price of one of the traded entities is 1 throughout every path.

\(^7\)Let \(dY = adt + Bd\beta\) be an \(N\)-dimensional Ito process and \(D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^N\) an open set such that \(Y(\omega, t) \in D \forall (\omega, t) \in \Omega \times [0, T]\) almost surely. Even though not displayed as such to save on notation, the quantities \(a \in \mathbb{R}^N\) and \(B \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times K}\) can be also stochastic as long as \(a(Y(\omega, t), t) \in \mathcal{L}^1\) and \(B(Y(\omega, t), t) \in \mathcal{L}^2\). Consider now a twice-differentiable function \(f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\) (such as any price in the model). By Ito’s lemma, and not displaying the dependence upon \((\omega, t)\), \(df(Y) = [f_Y(Y)a + \frac{1}{2}\text{tr}(B^Tf_{YY}(Y)B)]dt + f_Y(Y)Bd\beta\) where \(f_Y = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial Y_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial Y_N}\right)\) and \(f_{YY} = \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial Y_i \partial Y_j}\right)_{i,j=1}^N\) denote the gradient vector (in row form) and the Hessian matrix of \(f\), respectively. If one fixes time, the “sensitivity” of \(f\) with
To examine the relative-price dynamics analytically, I will use the closed form solution for $p_n(\omega, t)$ as this has been provided by two related strands of the literature. The first assumes that the crop on the trees is ripe for consumption only at a finite terminal date $T$. At any intermediate time $t \in [0, T)$, the agent consumes some exogenously-given deterministic endowment flow (see, for example, Raimondo [32] as well as Anderson and Raimondo [6]) or nothing at all (as in Bick [8]-[9] but also He and Leland [20]). Letting $W$ denote the representative agent’s wealth process (in units of consumption), we have then

$$p_n(\omega, t) = \frac{P_0(\omega, t)}{P_n(\omega, t)} = \frac{E_n \left[ u' \left( W(I(\omega, T)) \right) \right]}{E_n \left[ u' \left( W(I(\omega, T)) \right) \right]}$$

(1)

In Bick [9], Raimondo [32], as well as Anderson and Raimondo [6], the production, consumption, information, trading, and preferences structures but also the dividends’ specification are exactly as in the present analysis. The same is true, apart for a much more general dividend specification, regarding Bick [8] as well as He and Leland [20], two models with no real differences between them. Either assumes $N = K = 1$ and that the representative agent has no endowment - other than the net supply of the stock (which can be viewed as the market portfolio), - two restrictions present also present in Bick [9]. As a consequence, in all three papers consumption respect to changes in the realization of the underlying Brownian risk factors is given by $df(Y) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\partial f(Y)}{Y_n} b_{nk} d\beta_k$. In particular, restricting attention to changes in the $k$th risk source only, $\frac{\partial f(Y)}{Y_k} = b_k f(Y)$ where $b_k$ is the $k$th column of $B$.

8 The consumption and trading structures in Bick [9] differ slightly from the ones I presented above but these discrepancies bear no effect on the equilibrium prices. The author restricts attention to a dynamically-complete securities’ market with $N = K = 1$. His equilibrium being essentially an Arrow-Debreu one, it suffices that the assets are traded only once, at $t = 0$. Raimondo [32] as well as Anderson and Raimondo [6], on the other hand, do not restrict the dimensionality of the Brownian and production processes. Since their securities’ market can be also dynamically incomplete, their securities have to be traded continuously. These papers differ only in the specification of the terminal dividends: Anderson and Raimondo [6] (and Bick [9] for that matter) have them following general geometric Brownian motions whereas Raimondo [32] considers the special case in which these geometric Brownian motions are driftless and independent of one another.

9 As opposed to the trading structure of Bick [9], the securities in Bick [8] as well as in He and Leland [20] are traded continuously.
takes place only at the final date. By contrast, Raimondo \[32\] as well as Anderson and Raimondo \[6\] assume that the agent is endowed with a deterministic flow rate of consumption during the interval \([0, T]\) and with a lump sum at \(T\), which may be stochastic (a continuous function of the terminal-date realization of the underlying Brownian process). Nevertheless, in all five papers, the equilibrium relative price of the typical stock is given by the fundamental equation (1).

The second approach in the literature has been to consider the actual continuous-time extension of the setting in Lucas \[26\], granting the agent continuous access to the crop so that her consumption can be financed by the trees’ payoffs at all times while \(T\) may be infinite. The equilibrium relative price of the \(n\)th risky security is then essentially the flow-analogue of that in (1):

\[
p_n(t, \omega) = \frac{\mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ \int_t^T u'(W(I(\omega, s)), s) D_n(I(\omega, s)) \, ds | \mathcal{F}_t \right]}{\mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ \int_t^T u'(W(I(\omega, s)), s) \, ds | \mathcal{F}_t \right]}
\]

From all of the papers in this strand, the most well-known is Cox et al. \[10\] I am referring to Theorems 1 and 2.1 of Raimondo \[32\] and Anderson and Raimondo \[6\], respectively. As I have done, both papers take consumption as the numeraire. In Bick \[9\], see equation (4) and the very intuitive argument for why it is a necessary equilibrium relation, bearing in mind that this author chose the bond as the numeraire. Hence, \(P_0(t, \omega, t) = 1\) at all \((\omega, t) \in \Omega \times [0, T]\) and, given that consumption occurs only at the final date, \(P_c(t, \omega, t) = \mathbb{E}[u'(W(\omega, T)) | \mathcal{F}_t]\). The same pricing equation supports also the analysis of Bick \[8\], which characterizes general diffusions as equilibrium price processes.

In fact, Bick makes here explicit reference (in the proof to the corollary that follows Proposition 1) to equation (4) of his earlier paper. By contrast, He and Leland \[20\] characterize general diffusions as equilibrium pricing processes by identifying necessary and sufficient conditions for the appropriate partial differential equations. Their approach does not involve conditional expectations of the marginal utility of consumption. Yet, as established by their Corollary 1, their analysis and Bick’s are in complete agreement when the stock prices (which are given in units consumption and, thus, coincide with the dividends) are restricted to be time-homogenous diffusions, a family of processes of which the geometric Brownian motion is a member.

In fact, regarding the economic underpinnings, the main difference between the two approaches concerns the instantaneous risk-free rate during the intermediate period. The representative agent’s endowment and, thus, consumption being deterministic in the intermediate period, the instantaneous risk-free rate is exogenously-specified in the first approach. By contrast, it is derived as part of the equilibrium in the latter.
[13], probably the most seminal study of the continuous-time, single-good economy with identical agents and Lucas trees. Lucas [26] considered an infinite-horizon, discrete-time, single- and perishable-good, pure-exchange economy with several trees in which a representative agent with state- and time-independent utility for instantaneous consumption and no endowment (other than the trees) has continuous access to the trees’ output, so that intermediate consumption is financed by the trees’ dividends.

Cox et al. [13] present the continuous-time analogue of this model, enhancing it to include production. As before, an underlying stochastic process generates shocks to the productivity of the trees. Yet, the trees’ productivity is now influenced also by the representative agent who has continuous access to the trees’ output, consuming some and reinvesting the rest in the production process. The authors consider in addition a more general preference structure along, however, with a more restricted trading one. The agent may have now state- and time-dependent preferences for instantaneous consumption while there is a dynamically-complete securities market in which a full set of Arrow-Debreu contingent claims are traded (each available in zero net supply).

Allowing for time- but not state-dependence, the representative agent of Cox et al. [13] seeks to maximize the current expectation of the entire future utility flow, \( \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \int_t^T u (W (I (\omega, s)), s) \, ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right] \). In this case, the equilibrium price of any real asset relative to that of the zero-coupon bond is given by (2).\footnote{I am referring to the last term of equation (38) in Cox et al. [13] (whose notation preterms the dependence upon \( \Omega \)). This term prices real assets, claims that pay \( \delta (W (s), Y (s), s) \) units of consumption at time \( s \) when the realization of the stochastic process is \( Y (s) \) (the zero-coupon bond, for instance, has \( \delta (Y (s), s) = 1 \) at all \( s \)). By contrast, the first two terms in (38) allow for the pricing of general financial assets, including options and futures. More precisely, claims that pay \( \Theta (W (T), Y (T)) \) if some underlying variables do not leave a certain region before the maturity date \( T \) and \( \Psi (W (s), Y (s), s) \) every time \( s \) they do, otherwise. Notice that \( J (W (s), Y (s), s) \) is the agent’s equilibrium indirect utility at time \( s \), given the realization \( Y (s) \). It depends on the date \( s \) and the state variable \( Y \) as the authors allow for the direct utility to be time- and state-dependent. As I establish in Appendix D, all of my results remain valid in the face of the former dependence. The latter is a level of generality beyond the scope of my study.} The same pricing formula can be found also in Merton [28]-[29], Cochrane et al. [12], Martin [27], Duffie and Zame [15] (see Theorem 1 and...
the subsequent discussion in Section 5), Karatzas et al. [21] (Corollary 10.4), Riedel [33] (Theorem 2.1), and Wang [36] (Equation 2.4).\footnote{Wang’s pricing formula derives actually from a particular case of the analysis in Duffie and Skiadas [14] (Example 3).}

It should be pointed out also that, even when the individuals in the economy have non-identical preferences for consumption, the pricing formula takes still the same basic form as in (1)-(2). The only difference is that the individual marginal utilities are now taken at the equilibrium consumptions of the agents, which are determined endogenously as part of the equilibrium (see, for instance, Duffie and Zame [15] or Anderson and Raimondo [5]).

To enable the analytical manipulation of the fundamental pricing equations in (1)-(2), I will restrict attention to the case in which the typical component of the production process follows a geometric Brownian motion: \( Y_n(I!,t) = e^{\mu_n t + \sigma_n \beta(t)} \), both the drift \( \mu_n \in \mathbb{R} \) and the instantaneous covariance matrix \( \sigma_n \sigma_n^T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K} \) being constants. This is a widely-used specification, both in the theoretical as well as empirical literature, which allows the derivative \( \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial k}(I!,t) \) to be recovered from the current information on future dividends in a very straightforward way.\footnote{By Ito’s lemma, the current output of the \( n \)th productive unit follows the Ito process \( \text{d} \ln Y_n = \left( \mu_n - \frac{\sigma_n^2}{2} \right) \text{d}t + \sigma_n \text{d}\beta \). Hence, for the \( N \)-dimensional process \( X = (\ln Y_n)_{n=1}^N \), we have \( \text{d}X = \left( \mu_n - \frac{\sigma_n^2}{2} \right) \text{d}t + \Sigma \text{d}\beta \) where \( \Sigma \) is the \( N \times K \) matrix with \( \sigma_n^T \) its typical row. Recall now the one before the preceding footnote. The “sensitivity” of \( p_n \) with respect to changes in the realization of the underlying Brownian risk factors is given by \( \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \sigma_n}(X) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \sigma_n}(X) \sigma_{nk} \text{d}\beta_k \) so that \( \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k}(X) = \sigma_k^T p_n(X) = \text{a linear combination (the coefficients being the kth column of } \Sigma \text{) of the gradient vector of the relative price with respect to the natural logarithm of the production process.} \)
}\footnote{In Appendix D, I establish that \( P_0(I!,t)^2 \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k}(I!,t) = \int_t^T P_0(s)(I!,t)^2 \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k}(I!,s) \text{d}s \), which requires \( \frac{\partial p_n(I!,t)}{\partial \beta_k(I!,s)} \) to have the sign of \( \frac{\partial p_n(I!,s)}{\partial \beta_k(I!,s)} \) if the latter derivative maintains the same sign at all \( s \in [t, T] \). Yet, as the expectation operator readily commutes inside the time-integrals, signing \( \frac{\partial p_n(I!,t)}{\partial \beta_k(I!,s)} \) is nothing but the problem I study in this paper when \( s \) is the terminal date. And this sign, being determined solely by the entries of the constant dispersion matrix \( \Sigma \), is indeed the same at all \( s \). The analysis of Sections 3-5, being}
Regarding the analysis of these dynamics per se, the works that are closest to the present are Cochrane et al. [12] and Martin [27]. The latter being a generalization of the former, both papers investigate special cases of the pure-exchange infinite-horizon version of the economy in Cox et al. [13]. Cochrane and his co-authors consider a representative agent with log-utility for instantaneous consumption who has access to the dividend stream of at most two Lucas trees, each following a geometric Brownian motion \( N = K \leq 2 \) in my notation), and characterize the asset-price and return dynamics that result from market-clearing in this context. They obtain closed-form solutions for a large collection of variables of interest such as absolute prices, expected returns, market-betas, and return-correlations. Yet, these are given with respect to the dividend-share (the share of total output due to a tree’s dividend) rather than the underlying risk process, while the corresponding dynamics are examined numerically rather than analytically.

The solution method in Cochrane et al. [12] depends fundamentally upon the dividend-share being the unique state variable, in a way that makes it applicable only to log-utility and at most two trees. By contrast, Martin [27] uses an approach that extends to power utility and many trees, whose dividend streams may follow geometric Brownian motions with (normally-distributed) jumps, offering also closed-form solutions for absolute prices, expected returns, and bond-yields. However, these solutions are given in terms of a state-vector which is not the underlying stochastic process (it depicts instead the relative sizes of the dividends), while the corresponding dynamics are presented again through calibrations.

Both papers draw a substantial part of the reader’s attention to the fact that there is significant price comovement even between assets whose dividends are independent. The intuition is somewhat clear in the case of two trees. When one asset has a positive dividend shock, other things being built upon identifying the sign of \( \frac{\partial p_{n,s}^b(\omega,t)}{\partial \beta_k(\omega,t)} \), applies at every point of the time interval \([t,T]\); hence, also to the time integral. Obviously, nothing precludes from taking \( T \rightarrow \infty \) if necessary. Equally obviously, time-dependence in the utility flow is not an issue for Sections 3-4 as long as the utility remains CARA or DARA throughout the interval.
equal, its dividend becomes a larger share of a now larger total consumption. As a result, investors want to rebalance by spreading some of their larger wealth across both trees. In the face of the fixed net supply, though, they cannot collectively rebalance, so asset prices must adjust.

Typically, the price of the tree with the positive shock rises whereas the risk premium of the other falls. If the two dividend streams are independent, given no shock on the second dividend, its risk premium can fall only via an increase in its price. Given no news about its own cash flow, the fact that it now constitutes a smaller part of total consumption typically means that the asset becomes less positively correlated with consumption. Ergo, investors want to hold more of the second asset but cannot, forcing instead its price to rise.

But this is what happens typically, not always, because the relation between an asset’s risk-premium and the dividend-share does not depend only on this “cash-flow beta” intuition. It depends also on “valuation-beta,” the tendency of the price-dividend ratio to change with the market and, thus, total consumption. And the latter relation is not always positive. There are ranges of dividend-share values where the price of the second asset falls in the preceding example (see Figure 3 in Cochrane et al. [12] and Figure 7(a) in Martin [27]). This is most evident when the second asset is a zero-coupon bond ($N = K = 1$). Given its smaller dividend-share, it is still true that investors want to spread their larger wealth across both trees, which should raise the price of the bond. Yet, the interest rate also changes, and this may more than offset the rebalancing desire (see Figure 9 in Cochrane et al. [12]).

As shown by my analysis, however, the ambiguous nature of the asset-price dynamics in the above example is mostly due to the variable with respect to which these are examined by the two papers. Be it the dividend-share or the relative size of the dividends, the evolution of the state-variable depends, in either paper, on that of the underlying stochastic process in a way that is not clear unless $N = K = 1$. Both papers attempt in effect to relate a change in the current realization of one of the dimensions of the underlying stochastic process to asset-prices via a state-variable whose
own change cannot be isolated to come from that dimension alone. In the present paper, by contrast, I study the asset-price dynamics with respect to the underlying stochastic process directly. As it turns out, there are settings of economic primitives under which these dynamics are not ambiguous at all. In fact, in either of the above examples, they are described by Theorem 1 and Corollary 1.2, analytically and for any DARA utility.

Of course, the deployment of an intermediate state-variable allows for calibrations that show to what extent asset-price comovements are quantitatively important. Nevertheless, when the goal is purely theoretical, to understand the economic dynamics induced by market-clearing, this comes at the cost of obscuring the distinction between two separate channels through which shocks to current wealth affect asset prices: by changing the agent’s risk aversion but also by altering her perception of the “riskiness” of a security. The dynamics of the former mechanism are well-known and straightforward. Those of the latter have not, to the best of my knowledge, hitherto been analyzed by the finance literature and are complex.

As shown in the next section but also by Corollary 1.2, under DARA and independent dividend streams, the two mechanisms operate in the same direction, leading to positive contemporaneous correlation in relative asset prices. But this is by no means universally the case. The operation of the asset-riskiness effect on relative prices can be isolated under CARA since the risk-aversion channel leaves then relative prices unchanged. As attested by Proposition 2 or Corollary 2.1, it can lead to negative correlation.

The possibility for a “common factor” or “contagion” in asset prices (and, thus, returns) to emerge, when there is no common factor in cash flows, is well-known but has not been demonstrated before analytically in a general equilibrium model.\footnote{The literature on contagion has focused mostly on the propagation of shocks across national or regional stock markets. One of its peculiarities is that, although there is fairly widespread agreement about the contagion events themselves, there is no consensus on exactly what constitutes contagion or how it should be defined. One preferred definition is the propagation of shocks in excess of that which can be explained by fundamentals. Another (often referred to as shift-contagion) looks for changes in how shocks are propagated between normal and crisis periods. Yet another labels contagion the transmission of shocks through specific channels, such as herding or irrational investor behavior. And}
well as Anderson and Raimondo [6] but no formula is given for the cross-
derivative. Kodres and Pritsker [22], Kyle and Xiong [23], but also Lagunoff
and Schreft [24] show that contagion can obtain as a wealth effect in rational
expectations equilibria. These are not general equilibrium models, however,
as some market participants are not rational (the former two models require
the presence of noise traders, the latter of irrational ones). Contagion equi-
libria arise as well in Aliprantis et al. [1] within the context of a monetary
model where players engage, though, in strategic, non price-taking behavior.

On the empirical side, the literature has focused mostly on contagion
across national or regional stock markets (see, for instance, Shiller [35] or
Forbes and Rigobon [17]). Yet, to name but a couple of studies, Gropp and
Moerman [19] identify within-country contagion among large European bank
stocks while Pindyck and Rotemberg [31] find evidence of excess correlation
in asset price comovements. There is also ample evidence that conditional
correlations across asset prices and returns are stochastic, and of a mag-
nitude that cannot be explained by covariances between their respective
payoffs alone.\footnote{Both, phenomena that my analysis finds to be generic and
due to market-clearing alone, since the assumed covariances between asset
payoffs are constant. In this sense, the present paper provides another theo-
retical justification for excess asset-price comovements within, however, the
context of general equilibrium asset-pricing.}

an even broader definition identifies contagion as any linkage mechanism that causes mar-
kets or asset prices to move together. The main reason for this prolificness is that each
definition seems to run in its own difficulties when it comes to empirical identification.
My focus being strictly theoretical in the present paper, I will be referring to contagion
having in mind the first definition.

In a seminal study, Fama and French [16] identified a set of common risk factors
that explained the expected returns on stocks and bonds. Similarly but more recently,
Moskowitz [30] found evidence that risk-premia are better represented by covariances
with the implied market portfolio than by own-variances. Andersen and Lund [4], on
the other hand, suggest that U.S. risk-free short-term interest rates can be consistently
estimated as stochastic-volatility diffusions. On stochastic second moments of returns, see
also Andersen et al. [3]-[2], Longin and Solnik [25] or Schwert and Seguin [34].
3 Mechanics of Comparative Statics

In what follows, for reasons of expositional clarity, my analysis refers to the fundamental pricing equation (1) even though, as I establish formally in Appendix D, all of the insights and results carry through also to the pricing equation (2) given that the dividend specification is a geometric Brownian motion.

For any $\omega \in \Omega$, therefore, at all intermediate dates $t \in [0, T)$, the dividends of the $N+1$ securities are zero while the representative agent’s endowment process is deterministic. At the terminal date, however, the dividends will be given by $D_0 (\mathcal{I} (\omega, T)) = 1$ and $D_n (\mathcal{I} (\omega, T)) = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n \beta(\omega, T)}$ for $n = 1, \ldots, N$. The representative agent’s endowment process, moreover, will be given by $\rho (\mathcal{I} (\omega, T))$ for some continuous function $\rho : \mathbb{R}^K \times \{T\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$. The agent’s wealth (equivalently, her equilibrium consumption) equals, therefore, her deterministic endowment during the intermediate period and

$$W (\omega, T) = \rho (\mathcal{I} (\omega, T)) + \sum_{n=1}^{N} D_n (\mathcal{I} (\omega, T))$$

at the end. She also has an additively-separable, time-independent utility function which, for a measurable with respect to the Brownian filtration consumption function $c : \Omega \times [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{++}$, is given by

$$U (c (\mathcal{I} (\omega, t))) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \int_t^T v (c (\mathcal{I} (\omega, s))) \, ds + u (c (\mathcal{I} (\omega, T))) \big| \mathcal{F}_t \right] \quad (3)$$

for some instantaneous utility functions $v, u : \mathbb{R}_{++} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ that are everywhere twice continuously-differentiable, strictly increasing, and strictly concave.

The corresponding equilibrium pricing process has been derived explicitly by Raimondo [32], in terms of the agent’s utility function, her terminal-period endowment, and the current realization $\beta(\omega, t)$ of the Brownian vec-
Here, the quantities $W(\mathcal{I}(\omega, t), x) = \rho \left( \beta(\omega, t) + \sqrt{T-t}x \right) + \sum_{n=1}^{N} D_n(\mathcal{I}(\omega, t), x)$ depict, respectively, the terminal realizations of the agent’s wealth and of the $n$th dividend, conditional on the current Brownian realization and on its future increment $\beta(\omega, T) - \beta(\omega, t) = \sqrt{T-t}x$, with $x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_K)$ and $\Phi(\cdot)$ being the standard $K$-dimensional Normal cumulative distribution function.

Notice that both of the last two quantities above as well as all expectations henceforth are $\mathcal{F}_t$-conditional. It should be kept in mind also that, since the remainder of my analysis applies at all states, the dependence upon $\Omega$ will be pushed aside in the interest of parsimonious notation. My focus

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18 See Theorem 1 in Raimondo [32] but also Theorem 2.1 in Anderson and Raimondo [6]. All prices are stochastic processes; more precisely, continuous, square-integrable martingales with respect to the Brownian filtration. To obtain the former theorem, Raimondo imposes three additional assumptions. Specifically, the utility functions are bounded below: $\exists K > -\infty \text{ s.t. } v(c), u(c) > K \forall c \in \mathbb{R}_+$. Moreover, in order to not have to handle genericity considerations on existence, a short-sale constraint is introduced: $\exists \ M > 0 \text{ s.t. the agent is not permitted to hold less than } -M \text{ units of any of the } N+1 \text{ traded assets.}$ Finally, the terminal-period endowment function is taken to satisfy $0 \leq \rho(x) \leq r + c|\mathbf{x}|$ for some $r \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^K$. Yet, Anderson and Raimondo [5] show that the first two assumptions are not necessary for the existence of equilibrium. As for the third condition, it is satisfied by any bounded-above function $\rho(\cdot)$. It should be pointed out also that my results per se do not depend upon any assumptions other than the ones already stated in the text. Additional conditions, that may be necessary for an existence proof, are not really relevant for a comparative statics analysis. If an equilibrium price process does indeed exist, the equilibrium relative prices have to be as in (1), and this is where I begin.
will be on the comparative statics of the typical relative price

\[ p_n(t) = \frac{P_n(t)}{P_0(t)} = \frac{\mathbb{E}_x[u'(W(I(t), x)) D_n(I(t), x)]}{\mathbb{E}_x[u'(W(I(t), x))]} \]

with respect to changes in \( \beta_k(t) \), the current realization of the typical Brownian motion. As it turns out, the corresponding dynamics are quite complex, surprisingly so in some situations. This section attests to their richness by means of describing the constituent parts of their generating mechanism.

Towards an overview of this mechanism, let us begin by observing that the typical relative price can be expressed also as follows

\[ p_n(t) = \mathbb{E}_x[D_n(I(t), x)] + \text{Cov}_x[u'(W(I(t), x)), D_n(I(t), x)] \]

whereas the second equality follows by Lemma A.2 of Appendix A. As a consequence, we have

\[ \frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{\partial \text{Cov}_x[u'(W(I(t), x)), D_n(I(t), x)]}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \]

\[ + \mathbb{E}_x[D_n(I(t), x)] \frac{\partial P_0(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} + \sigma_{jk} \mathbb{E}_x[D_n(I(t), x)] P_0(t) \]

while, on the other hand,

\[ \frac{\partial P_0(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \mathbb{E}_x[u''(W(I(t), x)) \frac{\partial W(I(t), x)}{\partial \beta_k(t)}] \]

In words, these equations depict the following relations. Given an arbitrary realization \( \beta(t) \) of the underlying stochastic process, exchanging one unit of the bond for one unit of the stock increases the currently (i.e. \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional) expected terminal-period wealth by the currently expected terminal dividend of the security, \( \mathbb{E}_x[D_n(I(t), x)|\mathcal{F}_t] = e^{\mu T + \sigma \sqrt{T-t} \sigma u} \).

The latter quantity gives the number of bond units one unit of the \( n \)th stock is equivalent to in terms of terminal-period wealth. In terms of marginal utility (which is what matters in general equilibrium pricing),
however, the corresponding equivalence requires also that any realization
\[ \sqrt{T-t}x \sim N(0, (T-t)I_K) \]
of the future increment \( \beta(T) - \beta(t) \) gets translated by the quantity \( (T-t)\sigma_n \).

### 3.1 The Dividend and Risk-Aversion Effects

Other things remaining equal, a change \( d\beta_k(t) \) in the \( k \)th component of \( \beta(t) \) alters by \( \sigma_{nk}d\beta_k(t) \) the \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional drift, \( \mu_nT + \sigma_n^2 \beta(t) \), of the underlying stochastic process that determines the \( n \)th terminal dividend. The \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional expectation of the terminal dividend itself, then, changes by \( \sigma_{nk}E_x[D_n(\mathcal{I}(t), x)]d\beta_k(t) \). Suppose now that \( \beta_k(t) \) increases. If \( \sigma_{nk} > 0 \) (\( \sigma_{nk} < 0 \)), the currently expected terminal dividend will be higher (lower). Due to non-satiation (\( u'(\cdot) > 0 \)), this increases (decreases) the willingness of the agent to hold the \( n \)th risky security. As she must, though, continue to hold its net supply in equilibrium, the (absolute) price of the security must rise (fall) exactly by \( \sigma_{nk}P_0(t)E_x[D_n(\mathcal{I}(t), x)]d\beta_k(t) \), which is the change in the \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional drift of the underlying stochastic process in units of the bond. This is the *dividend effect* of \( d\beta_k(t) \) on the \( n \)th equilibrium price, depicted by the third term on the right-hand side of (7).

For any future realization \( \sqrt{T-t}x \) of the stochastic process \( \beta(T) - \beta(t) \), a change in \( \beta_k(t) \) corresponds to revealing information that changes also the \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional expected terminal dividend of any security \( n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \) by \( \sigma_{n'k}E_x[D_{n'}(\mathcal{I}(t), x)]d\beta_k(t) \). These changes along with that in the terminal-period endowment, \( dp(\beta(t) + \sqrt{T-t}x) \), give the corresponding change in the \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional terminal-period wealth. Ceteris paribus, the agent’s risk aversion (\( u''(\cdot) < 0 \)) induces an opposite change in marginal utility, the *risk-aversion effect* of \( d\beta_k(t) \).

Regarding the equilibrium price of the bond, this effect is given by equation (8). With respect to the equilibrium price of the \( n \)th risky security, it is given by the second term on the right-hand side of (7). Clearly, the direction of the wealth effect is the same on either price. In fact, this is true.
also for its magnitude since the two terms differ only by the proportionality constant needed to convert units of the stock into units of the bond, in terms of $\mathcal{F}_t$-conditional expected terminal-period wealth.

To identify the effect on the $n$th relative equilibrium price, consider its derivative

$$\frac{\partial p_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} = \frac{1}{P_0 (t)} \left[ \frac{\partial P_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} - p_n (t) \frac{\partial P_0 (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \right]$$

Using equations (8) and (6) and the second term on the right-hand side of (7), it is straightforward to verify that the wealth effect is given by

$$\left( \frac{\mathbb{E}_x [D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)] - p_n (t)}{P_0 (t)} \right) \frac{\partial P_0 (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_x [D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)] \left( 1 - \frac{\mathbb{E}_x [u' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), x + \sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n))] \mathbb{E}_x [u' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), x))]}{\mathbb{E}_x [u' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), x))]} \right) \frac{\partial P_0 (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)}$$

### 3.2 The Asset-Riskiness Effect

Given $\sqrt{T - t} x$, the extent to which $d \beta_k (t)$ alters $P_n (t)$ by changing the marginal utility of terminal-period wealth depends on the future realization of the $n$th terminal dividend. Similarly, the extent to which $d \beta_k (t)$ alters $P_n (t)$ via a change in the $n$th terminal dividend depends on the future realization of the marginal utility of terminal-period wealth. Which is to say that changes in $\beta_k (t)$ affect the equilibrium price of the $n$th risky security through changes in the correlation between the marginal utility of terminal-period wealth and the terminal dividend of the security. This is the asset-riskiness effect of $d \beta_k (t)$ on $P_n (t)$, depicted by the first term on the right-hand side of equation (7).

To understand the mechanics of this effect, it is instructive to consider a setting in which (i) the components of the Brownian process that are correlated with the $n$th dividend ($\beta_m (t)$ with $\sigma_{nm} \neq 0$) affect the terminal-period wealth only through this dividend, and (ii) the $k$th Brownian component is
not correlated with the \( n \)th dividend \( (\sigma_{nk} = 0) \). Formally, let

\[
K_n = \{ m \in \{1, \ldots, K \} : \sigma_{nm} \neq 0 \}
\]

be the collection of the Brownian components that affect \( D_n (t) \). Suppose also that \( k \not\in K_n \) and consider the terminal-period wealth specification

\[
W (I (t), x) = \rho (I (t), y) + \sum_{n' \not\in K_n} D_{n'} (I (t), y) + D_n (t, z)
\]

\[
\equiv W - M (I (t), y) + D_n (t, z)
\]

(11)

where \( M = |K_n| < K \) and \( x = (z, y) \sim \mathcal{N} \left( 0, \begin{bmatrix} I_M & \mathbb{O}_{M \times (K - M)} \\ \mathbb{O}^\top & I_{K - M} \end{bmatrix} \right) \) (with \( \cdot \) and \( \mathbb{O} \) denoting, respectively, the cardinality of a set and the zero matrix). In this case, \( \frac{\partial W (I (t), x)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} = \frac{\partial W - M (I (t), y)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \) so that the first term on the right-hand side of (7) can be written out as follows

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cov}_x \left[ u'' (W (I (t), (z, y))) \frac{\partial W (I (t), y)}{\partial \beta_k (t)}, D_n (t, z) \right] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{K - M}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} u'' (W (I (t), (z, y))) D_n (t, z) \, d\Phi (z) - \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} u'' (W (I (t), (z, y))) \, d\Phi (z) \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} D_n (t, z) \, d\Phi (z) \right) \\
&\times \frac{\partial W - M (t, y)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \, d\Phi (y) \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{K - M}} \text{Cov}_z \left[ u'' (W (t, (z, y))), D_n (t, z) \right] \frac{\partial W - M (t, y)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \, d\Phi (y) \quad (12)
\end{align*}
\]

In this setting, conditional on the realization \( y \), the terminal-period wealth \( W (I (t), x) \) is strictly comonotonic in \( z \) with \( D_n (t, z) \). Under non-increasing absolute risk aversion (NARA), so is \( u'' (W (I (t), x)) \) which implies, in turn, that the covariance within the integral above is strictly positive (see Appendix B).\(^20\) Clearly, the sign of the asset-riskiness effect of \( d\beta_k (t) \) on \( P_n (t) \) will be given by the sign of \( \frac{\partial W - M (I (t), y)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \), as long as the latter remains unchanged on \( \mathbb{R}^{K - M} \).

Recall, however, that the wealth effect of \( d\beta_k (t) \) on \( P_n (t) \) obtains al-

\(^{20}\) The coefficient of absolute risk-aversion is the function \( r_A : \mathbb{R}_+ \to \mathbb{R}_{++} \) defined by \( r_A (\cdot) = -u'' (\cdot) / u' (\cdot) \). It is non-increasing \( (r_A' (\cdot) \geq 0) \) only if \( u''' (\cdot) \geq -u'' (\cdot) r_A (\cdot) > 0 \).
ways in the same direction as the wealth effect on $P_0(t)$. And $\frac{\partial P_0(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)}$ is required by (8) to have the opposite sign of $\frac{\partial W_{-M}(\mathcal{I}(t),y)}{\partial \beta_k(t)}$. In this setting, therefore, the asset-riskness and risk-aversion effects push $P_n(t)$ in opposite directions under NARA. The intuition why is straightforward. Let, for instance, $\frac{\partial W_{-M}(\mathcal{I}(t),y)}{\partial \beta_k(t)}>0 \ \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^{K-M}$. An increase in $\beta_k(t)$ raises the $\mathcal{F}_t$-conditional terminal-period wealth, reducing its marginal utility. Under NARA, though, the decrease in $u'(W(\mathcal{I}(t),x))$ is smaller when $D_{n'}(t,z)$ is large and larger when it is small. Which, due to risk aversion, means that the increase in $\beta_k(t)$ makes the terminal-period wealth less positively correlated with the $n$th dividend. This diminishes the agent’s perceived “riskiness” of the $n$th security, inducing her to demand more of it and (in the face of fixed supply) raise its price in equilibrium.

A concrete example of this type of equilibrium price dynamics due to the asset-riskness effect is provided by Corollary 1.2. It assumes that the $n$th dividend and that of some other security, say the $n'$th, vary with the $m$th and the $k$th Brownian motions, respectively, while the former Brownian component is the only source of stochastic variations in the $n$th dividend ($\sigma_n = \sigma_{jm} e_m$).\(^{21}\) Moreover, these two Brownian motions do not affect other components of the terminal-period wealth ($\frac{\partial p(\mathcal{I}(T))}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{\partial p(\mathcal{I}(T))}{\partial \beta_{m}(t)} = 0$ and $\sigma_{n''k} = \sigma_{n''m} = 0$ for any $n'' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n, n'\}$). The corresponding terminal-period wealth specification is a special case of (11)

$$W(\mathcal{I}(t),x) = p(\mathcal{I}(t),x_{-(k,m)}) + \sum_{n'' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n, n'\}} D_{n''}(\mathcal{I}(t),x_{-(k,m)})$$

$$+ \epsilon^\mu T + \sigma_{n'k} (\hat{\beta}_{n'k}(t) + \sqrt{T-Tx_k}) + \epsilon^\mu T + \sigma_n (\hat{\beta}_m(t) + \sqrt{T-Tx_m})$$

$$\equiv W_{-(k,m)}(\mathcal{I}(t),x_{-(k,m)})$$

$$+ D_{n'}(\mathcal{I}(t),x_k) + D_n(\mathcal{I}(t),x_m)$$

(13)

In this case, under DARA, the relative equilibrium price of the $n$th security is increasing (decreasing) in the realization $\beta_k(t)$ if $\sigma_{n''k} > 0$ ($\sigma_{n''k} < \sigma_{n''k} > 0$).

\(^{21}\)As usual, $e_m \in \mathbb{R}^K$ denotes the vector with 1 at its $m$th entry and zeroes elsewhere. Moreover, $x_{-m} = (x_1, \ldots, x_{m-1}, x_{m+1}, \ldots, x_K)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}$ and $x_{-(k',m)} = (x_1, \ldots, x_{k'-1}, x_{k'+1}, \ldots, x_{m-1}, x_{m+1}, \ldots, x_K)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{K-2}$. 23
0). And this obtains even though the wealth effect on the relative price has the same sign as the wealth effect on the price of the bond, negative (positive) if \( \sigma_{n't} > 0 \) (\( \sigma_{n't} < 0 \)).\(^{22}\) Clearly, the monotonicity of \( p_n(t) \) with respect to \( \beta_k(t) \) is due to the fact that the asset-riskness effect of \( \beta_k(t) \) on \( p_n(t) \) dominates the wealth effect.

Once we allow the \( n \)th dividend to depend upon the \( k \)th Brownian motion (\( \sigma_{nk} \neq 0 \)), the mechanics of the asset-riskness effect become more complicated. Given a change \( d\beta_k(t) \), the new level of terminal-period wealth will be \( W(I(t), x) + dW(I(t), x) \) while the new covariance of its marginal utility with the \( n \)th terminal dividend is given by

\[
\text{Cov}_x \left[ u' \left( W(I(t), x) + dW(I(t), x) \right), e^{\mu_tT + \sigma^T_n(\beta(t) + d\beta(t)e_k + \sqrt{T-t}x)} \right] = e^{\sigma_{nk}d\beta(t)}\text{Cov}_x \left[ u' \left( W(I(t), x) + dW(I(t), x) \right), D_n(I(t), x) \right]
\]

Obviously, what happens to the perceived “riskiness” of the \( n \)th stock is determined now, not only by the covariance on the right-hand side of the above equation, but also by the term \( e^{\sigma_{nk}d\beta(t)} \).

Suppose, for instance, that \( W(I(t), x) \) and \( D_n(I(t), x) \) are again strictly comonotonic in \( x \). As before, \( u'(W(I(t), x)) \) is strictly countermanotonic in \( x \) and, thus, negatively correlated with \( D_n(I(t), x) \). Let also \( \sigma_{nk}d\beta_k(t) > 0 \) so that \( e^{\sigma_{nk}d\beta_k(t)} > 1 \). Even if, as in the preceding example, the change in terminal-period wealth renders its marginal utility less negatively correlated with the \( n \)th dividend, the increase in the dividend’s drift might be sufficient to make their new covariance more negative overall. As opposed to the preceding example, the perceived “riskiness” of the \( n \)th stock would increase with \( \beta_k(t) \), exerting a downward pressure on its equilibrium relative price.

The direction and importance of the asset-riskness effect for the relative

\(^{22}\)Recall that the wealth effect of \( d\beta_k(t) \) operates in the same direction on all absolute prices. To establish that it pulls also all relative prices in this direction, it suffices to show that it drives the \( n \)th relative price in the direction in which it pushes the price of the bond. It is enough, therefore, that the expression in the brackets on the right-hand side of (10) be positive. Which follows immediately by risk aversion (\( a_k'() < 0 \): (13) gives \( W(I(t), x + \sqrt{T-t}a_n) = W(I(t), x) + D_n(I(t), x_m + \sqrt{T-t}a_n) = D_n(I(t), x_m) \) where \( D_n(I(t), x_m + \sqrt{T-t}a_n) = e^{\mu_{n'T} + \sigma_m(\beta_m(t) + \sqrt{T-t}(y_m + \sqrt{T-t}a_n))} = \left(e^{(T-t)a_n} - 1\right)D_n(I(t), x_m) \).
price dynamics depends also on the agent’s utility function; namely, her risk-aversion. Consider, for instance, the following setting. The agent exhibits CARA and the \( m \)th Brownian motion affects both the \( n \)th and \( n' \)th terminal dividends. The former dividend is independent of any other Brownian component (\( \sigma_n = \sigma_{nm} e_m \)). The latter varies also with but only with the \( k \)th Brownian motion (\( \sigma_{n'} = \sigma_{n'm} e_m + \sigma_{n'k} e_k \)), which, in turn, affects no other component of wealth (\( \frac{\partial\rho(I(T))}{\partial\beta_k(t)} = 0 \) and \( \sigma_{ik} = 0 \) \( \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n'\} \)). The corresponding wealth specification is another subcase of (11):

\[
W(I(t), x) = \rho(I(t), x_{-k}) + \sum_{n'' \in \{1, \ldots, N\}\setminus\{n,n'\}} D_{n''} (I(t), x_{-k})
+ e^{\mu T + \sigma_n (\beta_m(t) + \sqrt{T-t} e_m)}
+ e^{\mu T + \sigma_{n'm} \beta_m(t) + \sigma_{n'k} \beta_k(t) + \sqrt{T-t} (\sigma_{n'm} x_m + \sigma_{n'k} x_k)}
\equiv W_{-k} (I(t), x_{-k})
+ D_n (I(t), x_{m}) + D_{n'} (I(t), (x_k, x_m))
\tag{14}
\]

In this setting, Corollary 2.1 dictates that, as long as \( \sigma_{nm} \sigma_{n'm} > 0 \), a rise in \( \beta_k(t) \) increases (decreases) the \( n \)th relative price if \( \sigma_{n'k} < 0 \) (\( \sigma_{n'k} > 0 \)). To analyze this result in terms of the asset-riskness and risk-aversion effects, we need to determine the direction of the latter. Which is easy to do if we restrict attention to the special case of (14) in which the \( m \)th Brownian motion affects no other component of the terminal-period wealth but the two dividends (\( \frac{\partial\rho(I(T))}{\partial\beta_m(t)} = 0 \) and \( \sigma_{im} = 0 \) for any \( i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n, n'\} \)).

The specification in question

\[
W(I(t), x)
= W_{-(k,m)} (I(t), x_{-(k,m)}) + D_n (I(t), x_{m}) + D_{n'} (I(t), (x_k, x_m))
\]

gives

\[
W \left( I(t), x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n \right) - W_{-(k,m)} \left( I(t), x_{-(k,m)} \right)
= \left( e^{(T-t)\sigma_{nm}^2} - 1 \right) D_n (I(t), x_{m}) + \left( e^{(T-t)\sigma_{n'm}\sigma_{nm}^2} - 1 \right) D_{n'} (I(t), (x_m, x_k))
\]

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so that, if \( \sigma_{nm} \sigma_{n'm} > 0 \), we get \( W(\mathcal{I}(t), x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n) > W(\mathcal{I}(t), x) \). By (10), then, the wealth effect of \( d\beta_k(t) \) on the \( n \)th relative price operates in the same direction as it does on the price of the bond. Yet, \( \sigma_{n'k} \frac{\partial W(\mathcal{I}(t), x)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0 \) and (8) dictates that the wealth effect pushes the bond price in the direction of \( d\beta_k(t) \) if \( \sigma_{n'k} < 0 \) \( (\sigma_{n'k} > 0) \). Contrary to the DARA example, therefore, a change in \( \beta_k(t) \) changes here the \( n \)th relative price in the direction of the wealth effect, irrespectively of the asset-riskness effect.

3.3 The Combined Effect

Recall (5). The dynamics of the \( n \)th relative price with respect to \( \beta_k(t) \) are determined by two terms: the own-dividend effect, and the asset-riskiness effect relative to the price of the bond. As, however,

\[
\frac{1}{p_n(t)} \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{1}{P_n(t)} \frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} - \frac{1}{P_0(t)} \frac{\partial P_0(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \tag{15}
\]

the dynamics are in fact given by the difference between the relative (percentage) changes in the absolute prices, \( P_n(t) \) and \( P_0(t) \); a complex enough relation, in general, to preclude its prediction using only economic intuition, mainly for three reasons. First, the risk-aversion effects on the two absolute prices, by pushing them in the same direction, pull \( p_n(t) \) in opposite directions. Second, the own-dividend effect on \( P_n(t) \) pushes it always in the opposite direction than its wealth effect. Finally, as shown by the preceding examples, if \( u(\cdot) \) exhibits NARA, the asset-riskiness effect may pull \( p_n(t) \) in the opposite direction than the wealth effect.

Theorem 1 (in the next section) addresses these issues unequivocally for the dynamics of the typical relative price with respect to the current realization of the entire Brownian vector. It dictates that the inner product of the \( n \)th row of the dispersion matrix \( \Sigma \) with the gradient vector of the \( n \)th relative price, \( \nabla_{\beta(t)} p_n(t) \), is strictly positive as long as the \( n \)th dividend is stochastic, in the sense in which the uncertainty is captured in this model.\(^{23}\)

\(^{23}\)For \( \sigma_n = 0 \), we get \( p_n(t) = e^{\sigma_n T} \). The relative price is constant, independent of any Brownian realization. Consider the typical Brownian dimension. Since \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \), there is no own-dividend effect on \( P_n(t) \). Since all other factor loadings of the \( n \)th terminal dividend
The intuition behind this result is straightforward when the terminal dividend is correlated with only the \( m \)th Brownian motion and this relation is exclusive (\( \sigma_n = \sigma_{nm} e_{m}, \quad \frac{\partial p(I(T))}{\partial \beta_m(t)} = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_{n'm} = 0 \quad \forall n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n\} \)). The corresponding terminal-wealth specification is that in (11) for \( M = 1 \). In this setting, let \( \beta_m(t) \) change by \( d\beta_m(t) \). For any realization \( x_m \), the terminal-period wealth changes now only through the \( n \)th dividend, whose new value is

\[
D_n(\beta_m(t) + d\beta_m(t), t, x_m) = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_{jm}(\beta_m(t) + d\beta_m(t)) + \sqrt{T-t} x_m} = e^{\sigma_{nm}d\beta_m(t)} D_n(I(t), x_m)
\]

Since the agent is everywhere non-satiated (\( u'(\cdot) > 0 \)) and any other component of her terminal-period wealth remains unaffected by \( d\beta_m(t) \), her preferences for the \( n \)th stock change in the direction of First-order Stochastic Dominance (FSD).

Suppose, specifically, that \( \beta_m(t) \) increases (decreases). If \( \sigma_{nm} > 0 \), the new terminal dividend dominates (is dominated by) the old in the sense of FSD. The agent is now more (less) willing to hold the stock and, facing its fixed supply, pushes up its absolute price. By (8), in addition, the wealth effect on the price of the bond is negative (positive). Clearly, the relative price of the security increases (decreases). If \( \sigma_{nm} < 0 \), on the other hand, the new terminal dividend is dominated by (dominates) the old in terms of FSD whereas the wealth effect on \( P_0(t) \) is positive (negative). In either case, therefore, \( \sigma_{nm} \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_m(t)} > 0 \).

In more complex settings, the theorem can be viewed as generalizing this argument to the relative price dynamics with respect to the current realization are also zero, the dividend is independent of the subsequent path \( \{\beta(\omega, \tau) : \tau \in (t, T]\} \) of the Brownian process and, consequently, of the terminal-period wealth. Clearly, a change in \( \beta_k(t) \) induces no asset-riskiness effect on \( P_n(t) \) while its risk-aversion effects on \( P_n(t) \) and \( P_0(t) \) cancel each other out.

24Put differently, when \( \sigma_{nm} > 0 \) (\( \sigma_{nm} < 0 \)), going from the old to the new terminal dividend is in the opposite (same) direction as Proposition 1 in Gollier [18], the factor being \( e^{\sigma_{nm}d\beta_m(t)} \). For any risk-averse individual, \( d\beta_m(t) \) increases (reduces) the optimal demand and, consequently, the \( n \)th equilibrium relative price. Of course, Gollier studies probability distributions whose supports are closed intervals but this restriction is inconsequential in my context (see Lemma A.1 in Appendix A).
tion of entire Brownian vector. Its proof (see Appendix C) uses straightforward mathematical apparatus but is quite subtle in its reasoning, especially with respect to its last and most crucial step. It attests to the complexity of the equilibrium relation between the relative prices and the current realization of the underlying stochastic process.

4 Dynamics of Relative Prices

Given the complexity of the dynamics in question, we cannot but restrict attention to situations in which there is sufficient structure for precise conclusions to be made. In what follows, my aim is to identify conditions on the economic primitives of the model that suffice for \( p_n(t) \) to be monotone in \( \beta_k(t) \). To this end, the building block of my analysis will be a result that holds universally across the space of economic primitives. The required conditions for it to apply are extremely mild, met by all utility functions generally of interest in financial economics.

**Theorem 1** Let the \( n \)th terminal dividend be given by (4). Suppose also that, given \( \beta_{-k}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1} \) and viewing \( u'(W(I(t),x))D_n(I(t),x) \) as a function \( \mathbb{R}^{K+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{++} \) of \( (\beta_k(t),x) \), Lemma A.1 in Appendix A applies. Then,

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sigma_{nk} \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \geq 0 \quad \text{with equality only if } \sigma_n = 0
\]

This claim refers to the typical row of the Jacobian matrix of relative prices

\[
J_p(t) = \left[ \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \right]_{(n,k) \in \{1,\ldots,N\} \times \{1,\ldots,K\}}
\]

not to its typical element. Yet, it has immediate implications for the dynamics of the typical relative price when the associated dividend varies with the terminal realization of only one Brownian motion \( (\sigma_n = \sigma_{nm}e_m \text{ for some } m \in \{1,\ldots,K\}) \). Specifically, it follows immediately from the theorem that,
given

\[ D_n (I(t), x) = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_{nm}(\beta_m(t) + \sqrt{T-t} \epsilon_m)} \] 

(16)

\( p_n (t) \) will be monotone in \( \beta_m (t) \) so that the observed path of the former identifies uniquely the path \{ \beta_m (\tau) : \tau \in (t, T) \} \) in which the associated uncertainty gets resolved. More precisely, we have \( \sigma_{nm} \frac{\partial p_n (t)}{\partial \beta_m (t)} > 0 \).

In this case, the combination of the three potentially contradicting effects highlighted in the preceding section is identified unequivocally by the theorem. To illustrate, let the agent exhibit DARA and her terminal wealth be increasing in the current realization of the \( m \)th Brownian motion, \( \frac{\partial W(I(T))}{\partial \beta_m (t)} > 0 \) (which would be the case, for example, if \( \sigma_{nm} > 0 \) and \( \frac{\partial p(I(T))}{\partial \beta_m (t)}, \sigma_{n',m} \geq 0 \) \( \forall n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n\} \)). If the \( n \)th terminal dividend is positively correlated with the \( m \)th Brownian component \( (\sigma_{nm} > 0) \), an increase in \( \beta_m (t) \) raises its \( \mathcal{F}_t \)-conditional expectation, pushing its price \( P_n (t) \) upwards through the own-dividend effect. It increases, though, also the agent’s terminal wealth, exerting negative risk-aversion effects on both \( P_0 (t) \) and \( P_n (t) \). And, as pointed out in the previous section, the asset-riskiness effect on \( P_n (t) \) may go in either direction. Nevertheless, the combined effect on the latter price is such that, even though the price of the bond necessarily falls, that of the stock either increases or decreases by less in percentage terms.

More generally, the theorem describes completely the price dynamics of the economy when there is a single source of uncertainty and one tree \( (N = K = 1) \), a model representing stocks and bonds as broad asset classes. It applies also to the dynamics of every risky security in the model, with respect to the associated risk source, when \( \Sigma \) is diagonal \( (N = K \) and \( \Sigma = [\sigma_{11} e_1, \ldots, \sigma_{KK} e_K] \)\), in which case \( \sigma_{nm} \frac{\partial p_n (t)}{\partial \beta_m (t)} > 0 \) \( \forall n = 1, \ldots, K \).

4.1 Contagion

Having identified the relation between the relative price and the associated Brownian motion when the dividend depends on only one Brownian component, the obvious next step is to examine it with respect to \( \beta_k (t) \), for some \( k \neq m \). In what follows, I will present some results which, in conjunc-
tion with Theorem 1, describe the comparative statics of the corresponding economy. Their common theme is that, apart from quite special cases, the relative price \( p_n(t) \) varies with \( \beta_k(t) \) when \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \). How it does depends on (i) the way in which the terminal wealth depends upon the terminal realization of the Brownian process, and (ii) the functional form (the risk-attitude in particular) of the agent’s utility function.

Given that \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \), changes in \( \beta_k(t) \) produce no own-dividend effect on the absolute price \( P_n(t) \), only wealth and asset-riskiness effects. The derivative of interest then becomes

\[
\frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 \beta(t)}}{P_0(t)^2 \sqrt{(T-t)(2\pi)^2 K}}
\]

(17)

\[
\text{Cov}_{yk} \left[ y_k, \mathbb{E}_{x,y-k} \left[ \frac{u'(W(I(t),y + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)) u'(W(I(t),x))}{-u'(W(I(t),x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)) u'(W(I(t),y))} \right] \right]
\]

Contagion under DARA

The dynamics of the \( n \)th relative price with respect to changes in the Brownian realization \( \beta_k(t) \) when \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \) are particularly rich. Enough so, in fact, to render contagion in this representative agent economy a rather generic phenomenon regarding her utility function. For, as I show below, under any DARA utility, the relative price varies (monotonically) with the current realization of the \( k \)th Brownian motion even when the dispersion matrix \( \Sigma \) is diagonal and the terminal-period endowment is deterministic.

To demonstrate the prevalence of contagion due to market-clearing, I will progressively stack the cards against contagion. Let us begin, therefore, by assuming that the \( k \)th Brownian motion affects the agent’s wealth only through dividends and, in particular, ones that are not correlated with any of the Brownian motions that affect the payoff of the \( n \)th stock. To state this formally, recall that the condition \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \) can be equivalently written as \( k \not\in K_n \), for the index set of those Brownian components that are correlated with the \( n \)th terminal dividend. Let also

\[
N_k = \{ n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} : \sigma_{n'k} \neq 0 \}
\]

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denote the index set of those stocks whose terminal dividends do vary with the $k$th Brownian motion. We require then $\frac{\partial \rho(I(t))}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = 0$ and $N_m \cap N_k = \emptyset \ \forall m \in K_n$, the corresponding wealth specification being

$$W(I(t), x) = \rho(I(t), x_{-k}) + \sum_{n' \in N_k} D_{n'}(I(t), x_{-M}) + \sum_{n'' \in N_m} D_{n''}(I(t), x_{-k})$$

(18)

As it turns out, under some additional restrictions, the $n$th relative price varies (monotonically) with the $k$th Brownian motion under DARA.

**Proposition 1** Let the following conditions apply.

(i) $u(\cdot)$ exhibits DARA while the $n$th terminal dividend and the terminal wealth are given by (4) and (18), respectively.

(ii) $\sigma_{n'm} = \sigma_{nm} \ \forall (n', m) \in N_m \times K_n$.

(iii) $\sigma_{n'k}\sigma_{n''k} > 0 \ \forall n', n'' \in N_k$. Then

$$\sigma_{n'k}\frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0 \ \forall n' \in N_k$$

The covariance matrix $\Sigma_1$ depicts a situation within the operational realm of this claim. It refers to an economy where the first risky security is an exclusive “bet” on the first Brownian component, a risk factor which does not affect any other asset. The result applies on the relative price of this stock and for $k \geq 2$, as long as the terminal-period endowment is independent of the first and the $k$th Brownian components and $\sigma_{2k}\sigma_{3k} > 0$. The inequality is due to condition (iii) while condition (ii) is redundant since the index set $N_1$ contains only the first security. In this case, we have $\sigma_{2k}\frac{\partial p_1(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0$.

$$\Sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} \\ 0 & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad \Sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

If the terminal-period endowment is independent of either of the last two Brownian components, the requirements in the preceding paragraph and,
thus, its last relation may hold for \( k = 2, 3 \). As, in addition, \( \sigma_{11} \frac{\partial p_1(t)}{\partial \beta_1(t)} > 0 \) (Theorem 1), we can now sign the entire first row of the Jacobian matrix of relative prices. If, moreover, the terminal-period endowment is deterministic, we can sign also the derivatives of the second and third relative prices with respect to the first Brownian motion. For these cases, condition (iii) is redundant (\( N_1 \) is a singleton) while condition (ii) requires that \( \sigma_{2k} = \sigma_{3k} \) for \( k = 2, 3 \). We ought to have then \( \sigma_{11} \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_1(t)} > 0 \) for \( n = 2, 3 \).

The application of Proposition 1 on the first relative price of \( \Sigma_1 \) brings us forward in our quest to stack the cards of our model as much as possible against cross-correlations. For it indicates that cross-correlations obtain even when the payoff of \( n \)th risky security is correlated with only one Brownian component (\( K_n = \{m\} \)).

**Corollary 1.1** Let the following conditions apply.

(i) \( u(\cdot) \) exhibits DARA while the \( n \)th terminal dividend and the terminal wealth are given by (16) and (18), respectively.

(ii) \( \sigma_{nm} = \sigma_{nm} \) \( \forall n \in N_m \).

(iii) \( \sigma_{n'k} \sigma_{n''k} > 0 \) \( \forall n', n'' \in N_k \). Then

\[
\sigma_{n'k} \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0 \quad n' \in N_k
\]

Before proceeding further, I should point out that this corollary assumes the terminal-wealth specification in (18), which now reads

\[
W(I(t), x) = \rho (I(t), x_{-k}) + \sum_{n' \in N_k} D_{n'} (I(t), x_{-m}) + \sum_{n'' \in N_m} D_{n''} (I(t), x_m)
\]

mainly for expositional ease in the presentation of its proof (see Appendix C). The result does apply, for instance, also when

\[
W(I(t), x) = \rho_1 \left( \beta_{-m}(t) + \sqrt{T-t} x_{-m} \right) + \rho_2 \left( \beta_m(t) + \sqrt{T-t} x_m \right) + \sum_{n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \{n\}} D_{n'} (I(t), x_{-m}) + D_n (I(t), x_m)
\]
for some continuous functions $\rho_1 : \mathbb{R}^{K-1} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$ and $\rho_2 : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$ such that

$$
\rho (\beta (T), T) = \rho_1 (\beta_m (T), T) + \rho_2 (\beta_m (T), T)
$$
as long as each of the derivatives $\frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}_{-m})}{\partial x_k}$ and $\frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}_m)}{\partial x_m}$ maintains a given sign on $\mathbb{R}$.

Specifically, let $\lambda_k \frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}_{-m})}{\partial x_k}, \lambda_m \frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}_m)}{\partial x_m} > 0$ for some $\lambda_k, \lambda_m \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^K$. As we already know, the wealth effect of the realization $\beta_k (t)$ pushes both equilibrium prices $P_0 (t)$ and $P_n (t)$ in the direction in which it moves the terminal wealth. Given the separability in (19), this direction is given by the derivative $\frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), T)}{\partial \beta_k (t)}$ (i.e., by the sign of $\lambda_k$). By contrast, the specification in (19) being a special case of that in (11), the asset-riskiness effect of $\beta_k (t)$ on the relative price $p_n (t)$ is given by (12) as

$$
\mathbb{E}_{x_k} \left[ \text{Cov}_{x_{-k}} [u'' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}), D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}_m)] \frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), \mathbf{x}_{-m})}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \right]
$$
The combined effect on the $n$th equilibrium relative price is to change it monotonically. It is straightforward to reproduce the proof of Corollary 1.1 in this setting and verify that $\sigma_{nm} \lambda_m \lambda_k \frac{\partial p_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} > 0$.

To continue strengthening the model against contagion, we may revisit the terminal wealth specification in (13), the subcase of the one in (19) which restricts the $k$th and $m$th Brownian components to be correlated with no other terminal-wealth components but the $n'$th and $n$th terminal dividends, respectively, for some $n' \neq n$. Under such a requirement, both sets $K_n$ and $N_k$ are singletons so that conditions (ii)-(iii) of Corollary 1.1 become redundant, allowing it to be stated as follows.

**Corollary 1.2** Suppose that $u (\cdot)$ exhibits DARA while the $n$th terminal dividend and the terminal wealth are given by (16) and (13), respectively. Then

$$
\sigma_{n'k} \frac{\partial p_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} > 0
$$

This result applies even under the most restrictive $\Sigma$-form against cross-correlation in relative prices. Namely, the case of a diagonal matrix of
factor loadings, such as $\Sigma_2$, where the claim is valid for any security $n$ and any Brownian motion $k \neq n$ as long as the terminal-period endowment is uncorrelated with either of the $n$th and $k$th Brownian components. If, in particular, the terminal-period endowment is deterministic, the corollary along with Theorem 1 allow us to sign the entire Jacobian matrix of the relative price process. Under a diagonal $\Sigma$ of general dimensions and a deterministic terminal-period endowment, the terminal-wealth specification is given by

$$W(I(t), x) = \rho(T) + \sum_{n=1}^{N} D_n(I(t), x_n)$$  \hspace{1cm} (20)

The entries of $J_p(t)$ are such that $\sigma_{kk} \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0$ for $k = 1, \ldots, K$.

**Contagion under CARA**

Cross-correlations will generally be nonzero even when the representative agent exhibits CARA. And, even in this case, there are settings of economic primitives where the cross-derivative of the relative price maintains everywhere the same sign, so that $p_n(t)$ remains monotone in $\beta_k(t)$ when $k \notin K_n$. To demonstrate the prevalence of contagion due to market-clearing under CARA, I will again progressively stack the cards against contagion, starting now with the hypothesis that the $k$th Brownian motion affects the agent’s wealth only through dividends $(\frac{\partial p(I(T))}{\partial \beta_k(T)} = 0)$.

Under the corresponding terminal-wealth specification

$$W(I(t), x) = \rho(I(t), x_{-k}) + \sum_{n' \in N_k} D_{n'}(I(t), x) + \sum_{n'' \notin N_k} D_{n''}(I(t), x_{-k})$$  \hspace{1cm} (21)

which actually embeds the one in (18), we have the following result.

**Proposition 2** Suppose that the following conditions apply.

(i) $u(\cdot)$ exhibits CARA ($u(c) = \gamma e^{\alpha c}, \gamma, \alpha < 0$) while the $n$th terminal dividend and the terminal wealth are given by (4) and (21), respec-
tively.

(ii) \( \forall (n', m) \in N_k \times K_n, \exists \lambda_{n'} \in \mathbb{R}^* : \sigma_{nm} = \lambda_{n'} \sigma_{n'm} \)

(iii) \( \lambda_{n'k} \sigma_{n'k} \lambda_{n''k} \sigma_{n''k} > 0 \ \forall n', n'' \in \cup_{m \in K_n} (N_m \cap N_k). \) Then

\[
\sigma_{n'm} \sigma_{nm} \sigma_{n'k} \frac{\partial \rho_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} < 0 \ \forall n' \in N_m \cap N_k
\]

As shown in Appendix C, when the \( n \)th dividend is correlated with only one Brownian motion, condition (ii) above becomes redundant and the statement simplifies as follows.

**Corollary 2.1** Let the following apply.

(i) \( u (\cdot) \) exhibits CARA while the \( n \)th terminal dividend and the terminal wealth are given by (16) and (21), respectively.

(ii) \( \prod_{n' \in N_m \cap N_k} \sigma_{n'm} \sigma_{n'k} > 0. \) Then

\[
\sigma_{nm} \sigma_{n'm} \sigma_{n'k} \frac{\partial \rho_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} < 0 \ \forall n' \in N_m \cap N_k
\]

To illustrate the workings of these claims, consider the dispersion matrix \( \Sigma_3 \), a generalization of \( \Sigma_1 \) depicting an economy where the first Brownian component represents macroeconomic uncertainty - it affects all risky assets (albeit with possibly different degrees of sensitivity) - while the first stock is a “bet,” exclusively on this risk factor.

\[
\Sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix}
\sigma_{11} & 0 & 0 \\
\sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} \\
\sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33}
\end{pmatrix} \quad \Sigma_4 = \begin{pmatrix}
\sigma_{11} & 0 & 0 \\
\sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & 0 \\
\sigma_{31} & 0 & \sigma_{33}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Using the corollary, we can determine the dynamics of the relative price of the macroeconomic “bet” with respect to changes in the realization of one of the non-macroeconomic risk-factors \( (k \geq 2) \), as long as the agent’s terminal-period endowment does not depend upon it. Condition (ii) of the corollary reads here \( \sigma_{21} \sigma_{2k} \sigma_{31} \sigma_{3k} > 0. \) In this case, we have \( \sigma_{11} \sigma_{n'k} \sigma_{n'k} \frac{\partial \rho_n (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} < 0 \) with \( n' \in \{2, 3\} \). As in addition \( \sigma_{11} \frac{\partial \rho_1 (t)}{\partial \beta_1 (t)} > 0 \) by Theorem 1, we can actually sign the entire first row of the Jacobian matrix of the relative price process.
To deploy Proposition 2 as well, we may assume that $\sigma_{32} = 0$ in this example and sign also the derivative $\frac{\partial p_2(t)}{\partial q(t)}$. Now, $K_3 = \{1, 3\}$ and $N_2 = \{2\}$ so that condition (ii) of the proposition requires that $\sigma_{31}/\sigma_{21} = \sigma_{33}/\sigma_{23}$ while condition (iii) is redundant ($\cup_{m \in K_3} (N_m \cap N_2) = N_2$ since the latter set is a singleton). Here, as long as the second Brownian motion is not correlated with the terminal endowment, it must be $\sigma_{2m}\sigma_{3n}\sigma_{22}\frac{\partial p(t)}{\partial q(t)} < 0$ with $m \in \{1, 3\}$.

To constrain the economic setup against cross-correlations more, suppose that also the factor loading $\sigma_{23}$ is zero in the preceding example, as depicted by the covariance matrix $\Sigma_4$. Now, for $k \in \{2, 3\}$, the $k$th Brownian component affects only one terminal dividend, the unique payoff that is correlated with both the $k$th and the first Brownian motion. In general, we may require that, for $k \neq m$, the $k$th Brownian motion affects no terminal-wealth element but, say, the $n'$th terminal dividend ($\frac{\partial p(I(T))}{\partial \beta_k(T)} = 0$ and $N_k = \{n'\}$ for some $n' \neq n$). This dividend, moreover, is correlated only with the $k$th and $m$th Brownian motions ($\sigma_{n'} = \sigma_{n'm}e_m + \sigma_{n'k}e_k$).

The specification in question is given by (14), which is obviously embedded in (21). In this case, condition (ii) of the preceding corollary becomes redundant ($N_m \cap N_k$ is a singleton) and, as shown in Appendix C, the claim can be stated as follows.

**Corollary 2.2** Suppose that $u(\cdot)$ exhibits CARA while the $n$th terminal dividend and the terminal wealth are given by (16) and (14), respectively. Then,

$$\sigma_{nm}\sigma_{n'm}\sigma_{n'k}\frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} < 0$$

In the example $\Sigma_4$, this applies for the relative price of the first stock with respect to $k \geq 2$ as long as the $k$th Brownian motion is not correlated with the terminal-period endowment process. In this case, we have

\footnote{Taking $m \in K_3 = \{1, 2\}$, we have $N_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $N_3 = \{2, 3\}$ so that $N_m \cap N_2 = \{2\}$. Condition (ii), therefore, requires that $\sigma_{31} = \lambda_2\sigma_{21}$ and $\sigma_{33} = \lambda_2\sigma_{23}$ for some $\lambda_2 \neq 0$. For the redundancy of condition (iii) when the set $\cup_{m \in K_3} (N_m \cap N_k)$ is a singleton, see the proof of the proposition in Appendix C - in particular, the concluding part which establishes Corollary 2.2. Notice also that, given $\sigma_{32} = 0$, condition (ii) of Corollary 2 reduces to $\sigma_{21}\sigma_{22} > 0$ for $k = 2$.}
\[ \sigma_{11} \sigma_{k1} \sigma_{kk} \beta_{p1}(t) < 0 \text{ for } k = 2, 3. \]

**No Cross-correlations under CARA: a very special case**

The preceding results might seem puzzling at first glance for they contradict a rather commonly held view: under CARA, changes in wealth that are independent of an asset’s payoff should not matter for its equilibrium relative price. An assertion that stems probably from an unwarranted generalization of the applicability of the following fact. As is well known, under CARA, changes in wealth that do not affect the risk premium of an asset should leave its relative price unchanged. If the change in \( \beta_k(t) \) results in such a wealth change, therefore, and given the absence of the own-dividend effect when \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \), the asset-riskiness effect on the absolute price of the \( n \)th stock should exactly cancel out the wealth effect on its relative price.

A sufficient condition for this to happen is that the \( k \)th and \( m \)th Brownian components affect the agent’s terminal wealth through independent channels. This obtains under either of two terminal-wealth specifications. In the first, the \( k \)th Brownian motion affects the agent’s terminal wealth in an exclusive way. Specifically, it may be correlated with only one of the remaining \( N - 1 \) terminal dividends with this dividend not correlated with any other Brownian component. The \( k \)th Brownian component may also affect the terminal-period endowment process but through an element that is uncorrelated with any of the other Brownian motions. Formally, let \( \sigma_{n'} = \sigma_{n'k} e_k \) and \( N_k = \{n'\} \) for some \( n' \neq n \) and suppose also that

\[
\rho(\beta(T), T) = \rho_1(\beta_{-k}(T), T) + \rho_2(\beta_k(T), T)
\]

for some continuous functions \( \rho_1 : \mathbb{R}^{K-1} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+ \) and \( \rho_2 : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+ \). The terminal wealth can now be expressed as

\[
W(I(t), x) = \rho_1 \left( \left( \beta_{-k}(t) + \sqrt{T-t} x_{-k} \right) \right) + \rho_2 \left( \beta_k(t) + \sqrt{T-t} x_k \right) + \sum_{n'' \neq n, n'} D_{n''}(I(t), x) + D_{n'}(I(t), x_m) + D_n(I(t), x_k) \tag{22}
\]
of which the formulations in (13) and (14) are subcases.

The second specification is the one in (19) in which the $m$th Brownian component affects the terminal wealth separately from the remaining $K - 1$ Brownian motions. It does so, moreover, via exclusive relations with at most two terminal-wealth components: through the $n$th dividend and, possibly, through some component of the terminal-period endowment process.

When the agent exhibits CARA, under either of these specifications, changes in the $k$th component of the Brownian process leave the $n$th relative equilibrium price unaffected.\footnote{It can be shown explicitly actually that, under either of the three terminal wealth specifications (22)-(23), $\beta_k(t)$ is not a functional argument of $p_n(t)$. See equations (29)-(31) in Appendix C.}

**Proposition 3** Suppose that $u(\cdot)$ exhibits CARA while the terminal wealth is specified as in (19) or (22). Then, $\frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = 0$.

An important special case of the specifications in (19) or (22) obtains when the dispersion matrix $\Sigma$ is diagonal and the terminal-period endowment process is separable along the $K$ dimensions of the Brownian vector. Formally, the latter condition is that

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} T \\ T \end{array}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \rho_i \left( \beta_i(t) + \sqrt{T - t} x_i \right)$$

for some continuous functions $\rho_i : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_+$ and the corresponding terminal wealth specification is

$$W(\mathcal{I}(t), x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \rho_i \left( \beta_i(t) + \sqrt{T - t} x_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{K} D_i(\mathcal{I}(t), x_i)$$

(23)

The proposition requires now that $\frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = 0$ $\forall k \in \{1, \ldots, K\} \setminus \{n\}$. In view of Theorem 1, the Jacobian matrix of relative prices is diagonal with all diagonal elements being nonzero. It is nonsingular, therefore, and the
securities market is dynamically complete.\footnote{By Theorem ??, dynamic completeness requires in turn that the factor loadings matrix $\Sigma$ is invertible. Indeed, under the specification in (23), it is necessarily diagonal.}

Proposition 3 appears to support the premise that, under CARA, changes in wealth that are independent of an asset’s payoff should not matter for its relative price. Yet, the fact that $p_n(t)$ does not respond to changes in $\beta_k(t)$ is not only due to $\sigma_{nk} = 0$ and CARA. It depends also, and fundamentally so, upon the separability of the channels through which the $k$th and $m$th Brownian motions operate in (19) and (22). For we know from Proposition 2 and its subsequent corollaries that, as soon as the two Brownian components are allowed to influence the agent’s wealth through a common element, the relative price will no longer be unresponsive to changes in $\beta_k(t)$, even though the CARA and $\sigma_{nk} = 0$ assumptions are maintained.

To see what is so special about the underlying separability in the specifications (19) and (22), it is instructive to consider equation (26) in Appendix C, which gives the rates of change of the equilibrium absolute prices of the $n$th risky security and the bond with respect to the current realization of the $k$th Brownian motion. For $\sigma_{nk} = 0$, since $\mathbb{E} [x_k] = 0$, it reads

$$\frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{1}{T-t} \mathbb{E}_x \left[ \sqrt{T-t} x_k u' (W(I(t), x)) D_n(I(t), x) \right] = \frac{1}{T-t} \text{Cov}_x \left[ \sqrt{T-t} x_k, u' (W(I(t), x)) D_n(I(t), x) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial P_b(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{1}{T-t} \text{Cov}_x \left[ \sqrt{T-t} x_k, u' (W(I(t), x)) \right]$$

Either equation is in terms of the $\mathcal{F}_t$-conditional covariance between the marginal utility of terminal wealth (and, thus, consumption) that is derived from holding an extra unit of the security and the Brownian increment $\beta_k(T) - \beta_k(t)$. It is trivial to check that, when the agent’s utility exhibits CARA and her terminal wealth is given by either of (19) and (22), $\frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \frac{\partial P_b(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)}$. But then condition (15) precludes any changes in the relative price of the security.

In this case, a change in the realization $\beta_k(t)$ induces a percentage change...
in the covariance of the marginal utility of terminal wealth with the \( n \)th terminal dividend which is exactly equal to the percentage change it induces in the price of the bond. As a consequence, the covariance in question remains unchanged when measured in units of the bond, which means in turn that the second term on the right-hand side of (5) remains unaltered. And so does the relative price itself given that the expected terminal dividend does not vary with \( \beta_k (t) \).

Most probably, the erroneously crude intuition behind the “zero cross-correlations under CARA” premise stems from the multitude of examples in the financial economics literature that take the agent’s wealth to be linearly-dependent upon asset payoffs. Although rendering discrete-time models analytically tractable and elegant, the linearity assumption obscures our grasp of the interaction between the asset-riskiness and risk-aversion effects on relative equilibrium prices. For it forces this interaction to amount to nothing. And this is true irrespectively of the correlations between the various other elements of the agent’s wealth.

To illustrate, suppose that \( W (T) \) is linear on the \( k \)th Brownian component: \( \frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), x)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} = \lambda_k \) for some \( \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R} \) and all \( x \in \mathbb{R}^K \). From (12), the asset-riskiness effect on the relative equilibrium price is now

\[
\frac{\lambda_k}{P_0 (t)} \text{Cov}_x [u'' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), x)), D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)] \]

\[
= \frac{\alpha \lambda_k}{P_0 (t)} \text{Cov}_x [u' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), x)), D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)]
\]

\[
= \alpha \lambda_k (p_n (t) - \mathbb{E}_x [D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)])
\]

the first equality above following from CARA. But this is exactly the opposite of the wealth effect which is given by

\[
\frac{1}{P_0 (t)} (\mathbb{E}_x [D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)] - p_n (t)) \frac{\partial P_0 (t)}{\partial \beta_k (t)}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{P_0 (t)} (\mathbb{E}_x [D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)] - p_n (t)) \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u'' (W (\mathcal{I} (t), x)) \frac{\partial W (\mathcal{I} (t), x)}{\partial \beta_k (t)} \right]
\]

\[
= \alpha \lambda_k (\mathbb{E}_x [D_n (\mathcal{I} (t), x)] - p_n (t))
\]
Of course, given that the $\mathcal{F}_t$-conditional future realizations $\beta_k(T) - \beta_k(t)$ are normally-distributed here, the linearity assumption requires unlimited liability, an unrealistically strong condition (as it implies that the agent may lose more than everything with positive probability). This is a well-known drawback. To make matters worse, the assumption is restrictive also in a theoretical sense. When the representative agent exhibits CARA, it conditions the asset-riskiness and risk-aversion effects on the relative equilibrium price to cancel each other out.

4.2 General Dynamics

To complete the investigation on the dynamics of the relative price process, it remains to consider the case $k \in K_n (\sigma_{nk} \neq 0)$. Evidently from our analysis thus far, when the terminal dividend is correlated with the Brownian dimension of interest, there is really little hope of pinpointing settings in which its relative price is monotone in the Brownian realizations. Nevertheless, I conclude by presenting a situation in which the correlation between the relative price of the security and the underlying Brownian motion maintains a constant sign throughout the stochastic domain.

Claim 3.1 Let the following conditions apply.

(i) $u(\cdot)$ exhibits CRRA ($u(c) = \gamma c^\alpha \alpha, \gamma < 0$ or $u(c) = \ln c$) while the $n$th terminal dividend is given by (4).

(ii) $\exists \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}^+: W(I(t), x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n) = \lambda_n W(I(t), x) \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^K$.

Then, setting $\alpha = 0$ in the logarithmic case,

$$\frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \sigma_{nk} \lambda_n^{\alpha - 1} e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 \left( \beta - \frac{(T-t)^2 \sigma_n}{2} \right)} \quad \forall k = 1, \ldots, K$$

Admittedly, the setting under which this result applies is quite specific. Yet, it is also instructive for it allows the recovery of the entire Jacobian matrix of relative prices, its $n$th row being (in column form)

$$\mathbf{j}_{p,n}(t) = \lambda_n^{\alpha - 1} e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 \left( \beta(t) - \frac{(T-t)^2 \sigma_n}{2} \right)} \sigma_n$$
An example of the relevant setting can be constructed by considering an economy in which the terminal-period endowment is deterministic while the factor loadings are such that $(\sigma_{n'} - \sigma_n)^T \sigma_n = 0 \ \forall n' = 1, \ldots, N$. Together these restrictions suffice for condition (ii) of the claim to be met (with $\lambda_n = e^{(T-t)\sigma_n^T \sigma_n}$ in particular).  

The two restrictions are met, for instance, by the dispersion matrix $\Sigma_4$ with respect to the second or third stock ($n = 2, 3$) as long as $\sigma_{n'1} \sigma_{21} = \sigma_{21}^2 + \sigma_{22}^2$ and $\sigma_{n'1} \sigma_{31} = \sigma_{31}^2 + \sigma_{33}^2$, for $n' \in \{1, 3\}$ and $n' \in \{1, 2\}$, respectively. We ought to have then $\sigma_{nk} \frac{\partial \rho_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0$ for $k = 1, 2, 3$. Similarly, for the matrix $\Sigma_5$, the claim would apply on the second security if the terminal-period endowment is deterministic and $\sigma_{11} \sigma_{21} = \sigma_{21}^2 + \sigma_{22}^2$. In this case, $\sigma_{2k} \frac{\partial \rho_{2k}(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0$ for either of the two Brownian motions.

$$\Sigma_5 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & 0 \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \Sigma_6 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Of course, if the first stock were also correlated with the second Brownian component, as in the example $\Sigma_6$, the relevant restriction would read $\sigma_{21} (\sigma_{21} - \sigma_{11}) = \sigma_{22} (\sigma_{12} - \sigma_{22})$. In this case, the result would apply also on the first security if $\sigma_{11} (\sigma_{21} - \sigma_{11}) = \sigma_{12} (\sigma_{12} - \sigma_{22})$. That is, $\sigma_{nk} \frac{\partial \rho_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} > 0$ for $n, k \in \{1, 2\}$.

Regarding the last example above, it should be pointed out that the sufficient for condition (ii) restriction on the factor loadings may apply on both stocks only if the matrix $\Sigma_6$ is degenerate. In fact, $(\sigma_{n'} - \sigma_n)^T \sigma_n = 0 \ \forall n' = 1, \ldots, N$ can hold for any risky security $n$ in the model, only if $\Sigma$ has identical rows, being of the form $\Sigma = (\sigma_1 \mathbf{e}, \ldots, \sigma_K \mathbf{e})$ where $\mathbf{e} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} e_n$.  

In this case, even when markets are potentially dynamically complete ($N = K$), they will be necessarily dynamically incomplete. As it applies now to each and every stock in the model, Claim 3.1 restricts each row of the

\[\text{Observe that } W \left( I(t), x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n \right) = \sum_{n'=1}^{N} e^{(T-t)\sigma_n^T \sigma_n} e^{\sigma_n^T (\beta(t) + \sqrt{T-t} \mathbf{x})} = e^{(T-t)\sigma_n^T \sigma_n} \sum_{n'=1}^{N} e^{\mu_{n'} T + \sigma_{n'}^2 (\beta(t) + \sqrt{T-t} \mathbf{x})} = e^{(T-t)\sigma_n^T \sigma_n} \sum_{n'=1}^{N} e^{\mu_{n'} T + \sigma_{n'}^2 (\beta(t) + \sqrt{T-t} \mathbf{x})} = e^{(T-t)\sigma_n^T \sigma_n} W \left( I(t), x \right).\]

\[\text{For arbitrary } n', n'' \in \{1, \ldots, N\}, \text{ the requirement in the text can be written as follows: } \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sigma_{nk} (\sigma_{nk} - \sigma_{n'k}) = 0 = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sigma_{nk} (\sigma_{nk} - \sigma_{n'k}). \text{ Put differently, } \sum_{k=1}^{K} (\sigma_{nk} - \sigma_{n'k})^2 = 0 \text{ or } \sigma_{nk} = \sigma_{n'k} \forall k.\]
The Jacobian matrix of relative prices to be a multiple of the respective row of \( \Sigma \). More precisely, we have

\[
|J_p(t)| = |\Sigma| \prod_{n=1}^{K} \lambda_n e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta(t) - \frac{(T-t)\sigma_n}{2})}
\]

but the factor loadings matrix \( \Sigma \) is now singular.\(^{30}\)

## 5 Concluding Remarks

Even in the simple economy that this paper studies, asset-price dynamics with respect to the underlying fundamental risk are complex to the extent that assertions about the direction of asset-price movements cannot be supported, except for particular situations, even when the dividend of the security is not correlated with the risk source in question. In presenting this thesis, my strategy has been to find specifications for the economic primitives under which the sign of the correlation between the relative price of the typical security and the typical underlying Brownian motion remains unambiguous throughout the stochastic domain.

By establishing that, as a norm, asset prices are correlated with an underlying risk source even when payoffs are not, my findings indicate that asset-price dynamics are much richer than one is led to expect at first glance, armed with basic economic intuition. By showing, on the other hand, that it is by no means straightforward to identify settings in which the sign of this correlation remains constant, they attest to the complexity of these dynamics. Together, richness and complexity suggest a tumultuous financial world, even in the benchmark model of a fully rational, price-taking, representative agent.

Even though my focus has been purely theoretical, it is important that my results apply on the entire family of state-independent utility functions that are monotone in risk-aversion. My formulae, moreover, can be calc-

\(^{30}\)Of course, given Theorem ??, dynamic completeness can be ruled out immediately once it is observed that \( \Sigma \) is singular.
lated numerically for any set of the model parameters. Which is relevant since my findings are of consequence also for applications. The fact that the equilibrium relative prices of assets and asset returns should be correlated, even when their underlying dividends are independent, has significant implications for empirical asset-pricing. In particular, it raises questions about the large body of work that focusses on partial-equilibrium analysis, treating a small number of securities in isolation from the rest of the market or modeling the equilibrium price process of an asset as a relation that depends only on those risk sources that directly affect its payoff.

Of course, my results do not extend beyond state-independent utility functions. Yet, within the context of general equilibrium analysis, this restriction should not be taken at face value. One of the reasons that state-dependence appears natural in some models is because they are partial-equilibrium studies. If a significant portion of household wealth is held on an asset that is not included in the model, changes in the value of this asset induce wealth effects that alter the agents’ willingness to hold those assets the model does include. As a consequence, value changes in the omitted asset seem to be instances of state-dependent felicity.

In a general equilibrium model, however, which includes all relevant assets, this kind of state-dependence would disappear, rendering without loss of generality that the utility function is exogenously specified. In this sense, the real limitation of my analysis lies in the dividend specification, which can only be a geometric Brownian motion. Even though a widely-used specification in continuous-time finance, it does nonetheless constraint the scope of my results. For my main proofs, at some point or another, all exploit the symmetry of the Normal distribution.

References


Appendices

A Preliminary Results

Lemma A.1 Given a twice-differentiable function $H : \mathbb{R}^{K+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and an open interval $I_\beta (\epsilon) = (\beta - \epsilon, \beta + \epsilon)$ around the point $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$, suppose that $G : I_\beta (\epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$G(\tilde{\beta}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} H(\tilde{\beta}, x) d\Phi(x) = \mathbb{E}_x \left[ H(\tilde{\beta}, x) \right]$$

is well-defined and that

$$s_\beta := \sup_{\tilde{\beta} \in [\beta - \epsilon, \beta + \epsilon]} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^K} \left| \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tilde{\beta}^2} H(\tilde{\beta}, x) \right| \prod_{k=1}^{K} \max \left\{ 1, x_k^2 \right\} \exp \left( - \frac{x^T x}{2} \right) < +\infty$$

Then $G$ is differentiable at $\beta$ with $G'(\beta) = \mathbb{E}_x \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} H(\beta, x) \right]$. 
Proof. For any \( z \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} : |z| < \epsilon \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
&\left| \frac{G(\beta + z) - G(\beta)}{z} - \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} H(\beta, x) \, d\Phi(x) \right| \\
= &\left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} \left( \frac{H(\beta + z, x) - H(\beta, x)}{z} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} H(\beta, x) \right) \, d\Phi(x) \right| \\
&\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} H(\beta + z, x) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} H(\beta, x) \right| \, d\Phi(x)
\end{align*}
\]

where the second and third equalities are due to the mean-value theorem while the two inequalities follow from \(|x| < 1\) and by hypothesis, respectively. Yet, the \( x_k \)'s are independently distributed so that

\[
\int_{\mathbb{R}^K} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \max \{1, x_k^2\} \, dx = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \max \{1, x_k^2\} \, dx_k = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \left( \int_{-1}^{1} dx_k + 2 \int_{1}^{+\infty} x_k^{-2} dx_k \right) = 4^K
\]

and taking \(|z| \to 0\) proves the claim. \( \blacksquare \)

The following is a well-known result.

**Lemma A.2** Let \( z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_K) \), \( \theta \in \mathbb{R}^K \), and \( g : \mathbb{R}^K \to \mathbb{R} \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}_z[e^{\theta g(z)}] \) is well-defined. Then \( \mathbb{E}_z[e^{\theta g(z)}] = e^{\frac{\varphi(0)}{2}} \mathbb{E}_z[g(z + \theta)] \).

The next lemma will be used in establishing its antecedent.

**Lemma A.3** Let \( \phi, \psi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \) be twice-differentiable functions such that the following integrals are defined

\[
(i) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz
\]

\[
(ii) \int_{-\infty}^{m} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{m} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz, \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{R}
\]
(iii) \( \int_{l}^{+\infty} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \), and \( \int_{l}^{+\infty} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz \), for some \( l \in \mathbb{R} \).

Then \( \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz = \lim_{a \to +\infty} \phi(a) \psi(d) - \lim_{b \to -\infty} \phi(b) \psi(c) - \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz \).

**Proof.** For the given \( l, m \in \mathbb{R} \), we can write

\[
\int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz = \int_{-\infty}^{m} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz + \int_{l}^{m} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz + \int_{l}^{+\infty} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz
\]

Using standard integration-by-parts, the proper integral above becomes

\[
\int_{m}^{l} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz = \phi(l) \psi(l) - \phi(m) \psi(m) - \int_{m}^{l} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz
\]

while the two improper ones can be written as follows

\[
\int_{-\infty}^{m} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz = \lim_{b \to -\infty} \int_{b}^{m} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz
\]

\[
\int_{l}^{+\infty} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz = \lim_{a \to +\infty} \int_{l}^{a} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz
\]

i.e.,

\[
\int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz = \lim_{a \to +\infty} \phi(a) \psi(a) - \lim_{b \to -\infty} \phi(b) \psi(b)
\]

\[
- \left( \int_{-\infty}^{m} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz + \int_{m}^{l} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz + \int_{l}^{+\infty} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz \right)
\]

\[
= \lim_{a \to +\infty} \phi(a) \psi(a) - \lim_{b \to -\infty} \phi(b) \psi(b) - \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi'(z) \psi(z) \, dz
\]

Since the improper integrals \( \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \), \( \int_{-\infty}^{m} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \), and \( \int_{l}^{+\infty} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \) are all defined, so is the proper one \( \int_{m}^{l} \phi(z) \psi'(z) \, dz \).
Lemma A.4 Let $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, I_K)$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^K$, and $g : \mathbb{R}^K \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ s.t. the following conditions are met.

(i) $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} \left[ e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{z})}{\partial z_k}} \right]$ and $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} \left[ z_k g(\mathbf{z} + \theta) \right]$ are well-defined.

(ii) Given any $\mathbf{z}_{-k} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}$, Lemma A.3 applies on the functions $\psi, \phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\psi(z_k) = g(z_k, \mathbf{z}_{-k})$ and $\phi(z_k) = e^{\theta^T (z_k, \mathbf{z}_{-k}) - \frac{(z_k, \mathbf{z}_{-k})^T (z_k, \mathbf{z}_{-k})}{2}}$ while $\lim_{z_k \rightarrow \pm \infty} \phi(z_k) \psi(z_k) = 0 \forall \mathbf{z}_{-k} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}$.

Then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} \left[ e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{z})}{\partial z_k}} \right] = e^\frac{\theta^T \phi}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} \left[ z_k g(\mathbf{z} + \theta) \right]$.

Proof. We have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} \left[ e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{z})}{\partial z_k}} \right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{z})}{\partial z_k}} d\Phi(\mathbf{z})$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^K}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{K-1}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{z})}{\partial z_k}} e^{-\frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz_k \right) e^{-\frac{\sum_{i \neq k} z_i^2}{2}} d\mathbf{z}_{-k}$$

By Lemma A.3, we can use integration by parts to simplify the integral in the brackets. Specifically, given $\mathbf{z}_{-k} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}$ and the functions $\phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ and $\psi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as in the proposition, we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{z})}{\partial z_k}} e^{-\frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz_k = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi(z_k) \psi'(z_k) dz_k$$

$$= \lim_{a \rightarrow +\infty} \phi(a) \psi(a) - \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \phi(b) \psi(b) - \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi'(z) \psi(z) dz$$

$$= \left( \lim_{z_k \rightarrow +\infty} e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} - \frac{z_k^2}{2}} g(\mathbf{z}) - \lim_{z_k \rightarrow -\infty} e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} - \frac{z_k^2}{2}} g(\mathbf{z}) \right) - \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\theta_k - z_k) g(\mathbf{z}) e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} - \frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz_k$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} (z_k - \theta_k) g(\mathbf{z}) e^{\theta^T \mathbf{z} - \frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz_k$$
Integrating now over $z\in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}$ gives

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{K-1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{\theta^T z} \frac{\partial g(z)}{\partial z_k} e^{-\frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz_k \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\frac{\sum_{i\neq k} z_i^2}{2}} dz_k = \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} (z_k - \theta_k) g(z) e^{\theta^T z - \frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz_k e^{-\frac{\sum_{i\neq k} z_i^2}{2}} dz_k$$

$$= e^{\frac{\theta^T \theta}{2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} (z_k - \theta_k) g(z) e^{-\frac{(z - \theta)^T (z - \theta)}{2}} dz = e^{\frac{\theta^T \theta}{2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^K} z_k g(z + \theta) e^{-\frac{z_k^2}{2}} dz$$

and the result follows immediately. ■

**Lemma A.5** Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be of non-zero Lebesgue measure and such that $S^2$ is symmetric around the origin.\(^{32}\) Suppose also that

(i) $g : S^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$ is symmetric - i.e., $g(x, y) = g(y, x)$ - everywhere on its domain except for sets of measure zero,\(^{33}\)

(ii) $f : S^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is such that $f(x, y) + f(y, x) \geq 0$ everywhere on its domain except for sets of measure zero, and

(iii) $(gf)(\cdot)$ is Lebesgue-integrable over $S^2$.

Then

$$\int_{S^2} g(x, y) f(x, y) d(x, y) \geq 0$$

with strict inequality iff $g(x, y) [f(x, y) + f(y, x)] \neq 0$ on a subset of $S^2$ of non-zero measure.

**Proof.** Since $(gf)(\cdot)$ is integrable, by the Fubini-Tonelli theorem, the integral in question can be written as an iterated one:

$$\int_{S^2} g(x, y) f(x, y) d(x, y) = \int_{S} \left( \int_{S} g(x, y) f(x, y) dy \right) dx$$

\(^{32}\)This is to say that the relation $R(x, y) := \langle x, y \rangle \in S^2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ is symmetric.

\(^{33}\)The lemma holds, more generally, if $g$ is symmetric almost everywhere.
and, by re-naming the variables of integration, we can write it also as

\[
\int_{S^2} g(x, y) f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_{S^2} g(y, x) f(y, x) \, dx \, dy = \int_S \left( \int_S g(y, x) f(y, x) \, dy \right) \, dx
\]

Hence,

\[
2 \int_{S^2} g(x, y) f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_S \left( \int_S g(x, y) f(x, y) \, dy \right) \, dx + \int_S \left( \int_S g(y, x) f(y, x) \, dy \right) \, dx
\]

\[
\geq \int_S \left( \int_S g(y, x) [f(x, y) + f(y, x)] \, dy \right) \, dx
\]

Obviously, the inequality is strict iff \( g(x, y) [f(x, y) + f(y, x)] \neq 0 \) on a subset of \( S^2 \) of positive measure.

**Lemma A.6** Let the random vector \( x \in \mathbb{R}^K \) and the function \( g : \mathbb{R}^K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) be s.t. \( \mathbb{E}_x [g(x)] \) and \( \mathbb{E}_x [x_k g(x)] \) are well-defined, with \( \mathbb{E}_x [g(x)] \neq 0 \). Suppose also that \( f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) is given by \( f(y_k) = \mathbb{E}_x [(y_k - x_k) g(x)] \). Then,

\[
\exists y_k^0 \in \mathbb{R} : (y_k - y_k^0) f(y_k) \mathbb{E}_x [g(x)] > 0 \quad \forall y_k \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{y_k^0\}
\]

**Proof.** Given that \( \mathbb{E}_x [g(x)] \neq 0 \), we can write

\[
f(y_k) = \mathbb{E}_x [g(x)] \left( y_k - \frac{\mathbb{E}_x [x_k g(x)]}{\mathbb{E}_x [g(x)]} \right)
\]

and it suffices to define \( y_k^0 = \mathbb{E}_x [x_k g(x)] / \mathbb{E}_x [g(x)] \). ■

**B Comonotonicity and Covariance**

For a set \( S \) and an algebra \( \sigma \) on \( S \), let \( B(S, \mathbb{R}) \) be the set of bounded \( \sigma \)-measurable functions \( S \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \). Two random variables \( g, f \in B(S, \mathbb{R}) \) are said to be comonotonic if

\[
[g(x) - g(y)] [f(x) - f(y)] \geq 0 \quad \forall x, y \in S
\]
They are strictly comonotonic if the inequality is strict whenever \( x \neq y \).

The following result is borrowed from Chateauneuf et al. [10]. I present the relevant for my argument “only if” part of the proof.

**Lemma B.1** \( g, f \in B(S, \mathbb{R}) \) are (strictly) comonotonic iff \( \text{Cov}_\pi [g, f] \geq 0 \) (\( > 0 \)) for any prob. measure \( \pi \) on \((S, \sigma)\).

**Proof.** If \( g \) and \( f \) are comonotonic and \( \pi \) a probability measure on \((S, \sigma)\),

\[
2\text{Cov}_\pi [g, f] = 2 (\mathbb{E}_\pi [g f] - \mathbb{E}_\pi [g] \mathbb{E}_\pi [f])
\]

\[
= 2 \left( \int_S g(x) f(x) \, d\pi(x) - \int_S g(y) \, d\pi(y) \int_S f(x) \, d\pi(x) \right)
\]

\[
= \int_S g(x) f(x) \, d\pi(x) + \int_S g(y) f(y) \, d\pi(y)
\]

\[
- \int_S g(y) \, d\pi(y) \int_S f(x) \, d\pi(x) - \int_S g(x) \, d\pi(x) \int_S f(y) \, d\pi(y)
\]

\[
= \int_{S \times S} [g(x) - g(y)] [f(x) - f(y)] \, d\pi(x) \, d\pi(y) \geq 0
\]

where the third equality uses a change of the variables of integration. The validity of the claim when the comonotonicity is strict is obvious. ■

Regarding the application of this result in the main text, notice that \( f \) and \( g \) need not be bounded there. The boundedness condition guarantees that the integrals above exist for any prob. measure \( \pi \) on \((S, \sigma)\). In the analysis of the asset-riskness effect, I fix \( y \in \mathbb{R}^{K-M} \) taking \( z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_M) \), \( f : \mathbb{R}^M \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+ \) and \( g : \mathbb{R}^M \mapsto \mathbb{R}^- \) with \( f(z) = e^{\mu t + \sigma^2 (\beta t + \sqrt{T-t} z)} \) and \( g(z) = u''(W(t,z,y)) \). The relevant expectations are well-defined even though \( f \) and \( g \) are, respectively, not and not necessarily bounded. The strict comonotonicity between \( f \) and \( g \) is due to non-increasing absolute risk aversion, \( r_A' (\cdot) \leq 0 \). For this requires that \( u'''(\cdot) > 0 \) which in turn suffices since, other things being equal, \( W(I(t), (z,y)) \) in (11) is strictly increasing in \( f(z) \), the realization of the terminal dividend.
C Proofs of the Results in the Text

This section presents the proofs for the various results in the paper. To keep notation simple, I will display neither the node (ω, t) of the Brownian filtration nor the process Z as arguments in the relevant functions. Notice also that, even though not shown again for notational parsimony, all expectations are supposed to be conditional on the current filtration \( \mathcal{F}_t \).

**Theorem 1**

Take \((n, k) \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \times \{1, \ldots, K\}\) and consider (9). \(\frac{\partial p_n}{\partial k}\) and \(\frac{\partial P_0}{\partial k}\) apply the partial-derivative operator \(\frac{\partial}{\partial k}\) on \(P_n = \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u'(W(x)) e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + \sqrt{T-t})} \right]\) and \(P_0 = \mathbb{E}_x [u'(W(x))],\) respectively. Lemma A.1 guarantees that this operator commutes with the expectations operator in this case. As a result, the partial-derivative terms on the right-hand side of (9) may be written as follows

\[
\frac{\partial P_n}{\partial k} = \mathbb{E}_x \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial k} \left( u'(W(x)) e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + \sqrt{T-t})} \right) \right] = \sigma_{nk} \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u'(W(x)) e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + \sqrt{T-t})} \right] + \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u''(W(x)) \frac{\partial W(x)}{\partial k} \right]
\]

Using Lemma A.2, moreover, we get

\[
p_n = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + (T-t)/2) \sigma_n} \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u'(W(x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)) \right] / \mathbb{E}_x [u'(W(x))]
\]

\[
\frac{\partial P_n}{\partial k} = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + (T-t)/2) \sigma_n} \left( \sigma_{nk} \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u'(W(x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)) \right] + \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u''(W(x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)) \frac{\partial W(x+\sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)}{\partial k} \right] \right)
\]
Combining, therefore, these relations gives

\[ \frac{P_0^2}{e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n \beta}} \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k} = \sigma_{nk} E_x \left[ u' (W (x)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \right] E_x [u' (W (x))] \\
+ E_x \left[ u' (W (x)) \right] E_x \left[ u'' (W (x)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \frac{\partial W (x)}{\partial \beta_k} \right] \\
- E_x \left[ u' (W (x)) \right] E_x \left[ u'' (W (x)) \frac{\partial W (x)}{\partial \beta_k} \right] \\
= \sigma_{nk} E_y \left[ u' (W (y)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \right] E_x \left[ u' (W (x)) \right] \\
+ E_x \left[ u' (W (x)) \right] E_y \left[ u'' (W (y)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \frac{\partial W (y)}{\partial \beta_k} \right] \\
- E_y \left[ u' (W (y)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \right] E_x \left[ u'' (W (x)) \frac{\partial W (x)}{\partial \beta_k} \right] \tag{24} \]

the second equality using a re-naming of variables of integration with \( y, x \sim \text{i.i.d.} \ N (0, I_K) \). For the terminal-period wealth, on the other hand, we have

\[ \frac{\partial W (x)}{\partial \beta_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left( \rho \left( \beta + \sqrt{T - t} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{\mu_i T + \sigma_i (\beta + \sqrt{T - t})} \right) \\
= \frac{\partial \rho (\beta + \sqrt{T - t})}{\partial \beta_k} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_{ik} e^{\mu_i T + \sigma_i (\beta + \sqrt{T - t})} \tag{25} \]

Hence,

\[ \frac{P_0^2}{e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n \beta_n}} \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k} = \sigma_{nk} E_y \left[ u' (W (y)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \right] E_x [u' (W (x))] \\
+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{T - t}} E_y \left[ e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \frac{\partial u' (W (y))}{\partial y_k} \right] E_x \left[ u' (W (x)) \right] \\
- \frac{1}{\sqrt{T - t}} E_x \left[ \frac{\partial u' (W (x))}{\partial x_k} \right] E_y \left[ u' (W (y)) e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_k h} \right] \]
Apply now Lemma A.2 on the term $E_y \left[ u' (W (y)) e^{\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n y} \right]$ and Lemma A.4 on each of $E_y \left[ e^{\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y_k} u' (W (y)) \right]$ and $E_x \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} u' (W (x)) \right]$ (setting, for the latter term, $\theta = 0$ in Lemma A.4). The last equation gives

$$
\sqrt{T - l} P_0^2 \frac{\partial p_n}{e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + (T - l) \sigma_n) \beta_k} \partial \beta_k} 
= \sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n k \sum_{k} \left[ u' (W (y + \sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n)) \right] E_x [u' (W (x))]
+ \sum_{k} \left[ y_k u' (W (y + \sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n)) \right] E_y [u' (W (x))]
- \sum_{k} \left[ x_k u' (W (x)) \right] E_y [u' (W (y))]
= \sum_{k} \left[ y_k u' (W (y)) \right] E_x [u' (W (x))]
- \sum_{k} \left[ x_k u' (W (x)) \right] E_y [u' (W (y))]
$$

where $\bar{y} \sim N \left( \sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n, I_K \right)$ is independent of $x$. That is,

$$
\frac{P_0^2 \sqrt{T - l} (2\pi)^K}{e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + (T - l) \sigma_n) \beta_k} \partial \beta_k} 
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2K}} \frac{u' (W (\bar{y})) u' (W (x)) \bar{y}_k e^{-(\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n) y_k + \beta_k x_k}}{x_k e^{-(\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n) y_k + \beta_k x_k}} d\bar{y} dx
$$

Equivalently, changing variables of integration,

$$
\frac{P_0^2 \sqrt{T - l} (2\pi)^K}{e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (\beta + (T - l) \sigma_n) \beta_k} \partial \beta_k} 
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2K}} \frac{u' (W (y)) u' (W (x)) (y_k - x_k) e^{\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n y_k - \beta_k x_k}}{x_k e^{\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n y_k - \beta_k x_k}} d\bar{y} dx
$$

i.e.,

$$
\frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k} = P_0^2 \sqrt{T - l} \sum_{(x,y)} E_{(x,y)} \left[ u' (W (x)) u' (W (y)) (y_k - x_k) e^{\sqrt{T - l} \sigma_n y} \right]
$$

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so that $\frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k}$ is directly proportional to the $2K$-dimensional integral in (27), which cannot be calculated analytically for general specifications of the functions $u(\cdot)$ and $\rho(\cdot)$. Yet, its integrand is symmetric with respect to the variables of integration in a way that allows the use of Lemma A.5. There are two cases to consider.

If $\sigma_n = 0$, the integral reads $\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2K}} g(x, y) W(x, y) \, dx \, dy$ with $g : \mathbb{R}^{2K} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_{++}$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^{2K} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$g(x, y) = u'(W(x)) \, u'(W(y)) \, e^{-\frac{(x - y)^\top (x - y)}{2}}$$

$$f(x, y) = e_{\mathbb{R}^K}(y - x)$$

And, since $g(x, y) \left[ W(x, y) + W(y, x) \right] = 0$ $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^K$ while $g$ is symmetric, by Lemma A.5, the integral must be zero.

For $\sigma_n \neq 0$, observe that the quantity multiplying $\frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k}$ on the left-hand side of (27) is invariant with respect to $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$. Summing, therefore, gives

$$\frac{\sqrt{T - t} \, (2\pi)^K \, \beta_0^2}{e^{\mu_T + \sigma_n^\top (\beta + \frac{T - t}{}^\top n)}} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sigma_{nk} \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2K}} u'(W(y)) \, u'(W(x)) \, e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n y - \frac{y^\top T - t y}{2}} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sigma_{nk} (y_k - x_k) \, dx \, dy$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2K}} g(x, y) \, h(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

with $g$ as before and $h : \mathbb{R}^{2K} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ given by $h(x, y) = \sigma_n^\top (y - x) \, e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n^\top y}$. Lemma A.5 requires now that this integral is strictly positive since

$$h(x, y) + h(y, x) = \sigma_n^\top (y - x) \left( e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n^\top y} - e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n^\top x} \right)$$

$$= e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n^\top x} \sigma_n^\top (y - x) \left( e^{\sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n^\top (y - x)} - 1 \right) \geq 0 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^K$$

with the inequality strict on all of $\mathbb{R}^{2K}$ except for the zero-measure subset which consists of the vectors $(x, y)$: $\sigma_n^\top (y - x) = 0.$
Supplementary Note for Theorem 1

I will demonstrate briefly how Lemma A.1 can be applied in the opening section of the preceding proof. For any \((\beta, x) \in \mathbb{R}^{2K}\), we have

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left( u'(W(x)) e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^1(\beta + \sqrt{T-t}x)} \right)
\]

\[= e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^1(\beta + \sqrt{T-t}x)} \left( \sigma_{nk} u'(W(x)) + u''(W(x)) \frac{\partial W(x)}{\partial \beta_k} \right) \]

\[
\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_k^2} \left( u'(W(x)) e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^1(\beta + \sqrt{T-t}x)} \right)
\]

\[= e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^1(\beta + \sqrt{T-t}x)} \left( +u''(W(x)) \left( 2\sigma_{nk} \frac{\partial W(x)}{\partial \beta_k} + \frac{\partial^2 W(x)}{\partial \beta_k^2} \right) + u'''(W(x)) \left( \frac{\partial W(x)}{\partial \beta_k} \right)^2 \right) \]

Similarly,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} u'(W(x)) = u''(W(x)) \frac{\partial W(x)}{\partial \beta_k}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_k^2} u'(W(x)) = u''(W(x)) \frac{\partial^2 W(x)}{\partial \beta_k^2} + u'''(W(x)) \left( \frac{\partial W(x)}{\partial \beta_k} \right)^2
\]

while, by (25),

\[
\frac{\partial^2 W(x)}{\partial \beta_k^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \rho(\beta + \sqrt{T-t}x)}{\partial \beta_k^2} + \sum_{i=1}^{J} \sigma_{ik} e^{\mu_i T + \sigma_i^1(\beta + \sqrt{T-t}x)}
\]

Fixing now \(\beta_{-k} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}\), consider \(W(\cdot)\) as a function of \(\beta_k\) and \(x\):

\[
W(\beta_k, x) = \rho \left( (\beta_k, \beta_{-k}) + \sqrt{T-t}x \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{J} e^{\mu_i T + \sigma_i^1((\beta_k, \beta_{-k}) + \sqrt{T-t}x)}
\]

Define also the function \(H: \mathbb{R}^{K+1} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+\) by

\[
H(\beta_k, x) = u'(W(\beta_k, x)) e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^1((\beta_k, \beta_{-k}) + \sqrt{T-t}x)}
\]
For the utility functions \( u (\cdot) \) that are generally of interest in financial economics, \( H (\cdot) \) does satisfy the requirements of the lemma. □

For the remaining of this section, keep in mind (27). The derivative of interest has the same sign as the quantity

\[
\delta_{nk} = e^{-(T-1)\sigma_n^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2K} u' (W (y)) (y_k - x_k) u' (W (x)) e^{\sqrt{T-1} \sigma_n y} d\Phi (x, y)
\]

\[
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2K} u' \left( W \left( y + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_n \right) \right) (y_k + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_n x_k) u' (W (x)) d\Phi (x, y)
\]

the second equality applying Lemma A.2. When \( \sigma_{nk} = 0 \), this reads

\[
\delta_{nk}^0 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2K} u' \left( W \left( y + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_n \right) \right) (y_k - x_k) u' (W (x)) d\Phi (x, y)
\]

And if, in addition, \( \sigma_n = \sigma_{nm} e_m \), it further simplifies to

\[
\delta_{nk}^* = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2K} u' \left( W \left( y + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_{nm} e_m \right) \right) (y_k - x_k) u' (W (x)) d\Phi (x, y)
\]

**Proposition 3**

Observe first that the terminal wealth specification in (22) can be expressed as \( W (x) = W_1 (x_{-k}) + W_2 (x_k) \) for some continuous functions \( W_1 : \mathbb{R}^{K-1} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{+} \) and \( W_2 : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{++} \). \( \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^K \) then, we have

\[
u' (W (x)) = \alpha \gamma e^{a [W_1 (x_{-k}) + W_2 (x_k)]}
\]

\[
u' \left( W \left( y + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_{nm} e_m \right) \right) = \alpha \gamma e^{a [W_1 (y_{-k} + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_{nm} e_m) + W_2 (y_k)]}
\]

(where now \( e_m \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1} \)). Therefore,

\[
\frac{\delta_{nk}^*}{\alpha^2 \gamma^2} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2(K-1)}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (gf) (x_k, y_k) d\Phi (x_k) d\Phi (y_k) \right) h (x_{-k}, y_{-k}) d\Phi (x_{-k}) d\Phi (y_{-k})
\]

where \( f : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R} \), \( g : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{++} \), and \( h : \mathbb{R}^{2(K-1)} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{++} \) are given by

\[
f (x_k, y_k) = y_k - x_k \quad g (x_k, y_k) = e^{a [W_2 (x_k) + F_k (y_k)]}
\]

\[
h (x_{-k}, y_{-k}) = e^{a [W_1 (y_{-k} + \sqrt{T-1} \sigma_{nm} e_m) + W_1 (x_{-k})]}
\]

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It is trivial now to verify that Lemma A.5 applies to the two-dimensional integral in the brackets, requiring it to be zero.

Turning to the terminal wealth specification in (19), observe that it can be written as

\[ W(x) = W_1(x_m) + W_2(x_m) \]

for some continuous functions \( W_1 : \mathbb{R}^{K-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \) and \( W_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \). \( \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^K \) again, we have

\[
u'(W(x)) = \alpha \gamma e^{\alpha [W_1(x_m) + W_2(x_m)]}
\]

\[
u'(W(x + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma nm e_m)) = \alpha \gamma e^{\alpha [W_1(y_m) + W_2(y_m + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma nm)]}
\]

Hence,

\[rac{\delta_{nk}}{\alpha^2 \gamma^2} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} h(x_m, y_m) \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2(K-1)}} (gf)(x_m, y_m) \, d\Phi(x_m) \, d\Phi(y_m) \right) \, d\Phi(x_m) \, d\Phi(y_m)
\]

with \( f : \mathbb{R}^{2(K-1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \), \( g : \mathbb{R}^{2(K-1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), and \( h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \) now given by

\[
g(x_m, y_m) = e^{\alpha [W_1(x_m) + W_2(y_m)]}
\]

\[
f(x_m, y_m) = (y - x) e_k = y_k - x_k
\]

\[
h(x_m, y_m) = e^{\alpha [W_2(x_m) + W_2(y_m + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma nm)]}
\]

Again by Lemma A.5, the \( 2(K-1) \)-dimensional integral in the brackets must be zero. \( \square \)

To complete the analytical arguments that support the relevant discussion in the text, notice the following. Under the specification in (22), equation (6) reads

\[
p_n = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma nm \left( \beta_n + \frac{(T-t) \sigma nm}{2} \right)}
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_{x_k} \left[ e^{\alpha W_2(x_k)} \right] \mathbb{E}_{x_{-k}} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1(x_{-k} + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma nm e_m)} \right]
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_{x_k} \left[ e^{\alpha W_2(x_k)} \right] \mathbb{E}_{x_{-k}} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1(x_{-k})} \right]
\]

\[
= e^{\mu_n T + \sigma nm \left( \beta_n + \frac{(T-t) \sigma nm}{2} \right)} \mathbb{E}_{x_{-k}} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1(x_{-k} + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma nm e_m)} \right]
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_{x_{-k}} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1(x_{-k})} \right]
\]

(29)
Under (19), on the other hand, it gives

$$
p_n = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n (\beta_n + \frac{(T-t)\sigma_n}{2})} \frac{E_{x_m} \left[ e^{\alpha W_2 (x_m + \sqrt{T-t}\sigma_n)} \right]}{E_{x_m} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1 (x_m)} \right]} \frac{E_{x_m} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1 (x_m)} \right]}{E_{x_m} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1 (x_m)} \right]} = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n (\beta_n + \frac{(T-t)\sigma_n}{2})} \frac{E_{x_m} \left[ e^{\alpha W_2 (x_m)} \right]}{E_{x_m} \left[ e^{\alpha W_1 (x_m)} \right]}
$$

(30)

Finally, the wealth specification in (23) is a special case of either of (19)-(22) and can be written as

$$
W(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} W_i(x_i)
$$

for some continuous functions $W_i: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{++}$. Setting now $m = n$ in (30), gives

$$
p_n = e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n (\beta_n + \frac{(T-t)\sigma_n}{2})} \frac{E_{x_n} \left[ e^{\alpha W_n (x_n + \sqrt{T-t}\sigma_n)} \right]}{E_{x_n} \left[ e^{\alpha W_n (x_n)} \right]}
$$

(31)

Equation (17)

By renaming the variables of integration, we can re-write $\delta^{*}_{nk}$ as follows

$$
\delta^{*}_{nk} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2K}} \left[ u'(W(y + \sqrt{T-t}\sigma_n)) u'(W(x)) y_k ight. \\
- u'(W(x + \sqrt{T-t}\sigma_n)) u'(W(y)) y_k \right] d\Phi(x, y) \\
= \mathbb{E}_{y_k} \left[ \mathbb{E}(x, y - k) \left[ \left( u'(W(y + \sqrt{T-t}\sigma_n)) u'(W(x)) ight. \\
- u'(W(x + \sqrt{T-t}\sigma_n)) u'(W(y)) \right) y_k \right]
$$

The claim follows since $\mathbb{E}_{y_k} [y_k] = 0$.

Proposition 2 and Corollary 2.1

Recall that we have defined the index sets $K_n = \{ m \in \{1, \ldots, K\} : \sigma_{nm} \neq 0 \}$ and $N_k = \{ n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} : \sigma_{nk'} \neq 0 \}$. Notice also that $n \notin N_k$ (since $\sigma_{nk} = 0$) while $M = |K_n| < K$. Now, by permuting if necessary the elements of the index set $\{1, \ldots, K\}$, it is without any loss of generality to take the first $M$ of these indices as the set $K_n$ and the last index to depict the $k$th dimension, the one under study.

In what follows, $x_M \in \mathbb{R}^M$ is a collection of realizations for the increments of the first $M$ Brownian motions, $\{\beta_m(T) - \beta_m(t)\}_{m \in K_n}$. Similarly,
albeit with a slight abuse of notation, \( x_{-M} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-M} \) depicts a collection of realizations for the Brownian increments \( \{ \beta_{k'}(T) - \beta_{k'}(t) \}_{k' \in \{1, \ldots, K \}\setminus K_n} \) which are listed, under the new indexing, as \( M+1, \ldots, K \). Finally, \( x_{-(M,k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-M-1} \) refers to a collection of realizations for the increments of the Brownian motions in the set \( \{1, \ldots, K\} \setminus (K_n \cup \{k\}) \).

**Step 1.** Observe that

\[
E_{(x,y)} \left[ u' (W(y)) (y_k - x_k) u' (W(x)) \right] = 0 \tag{32}
\]

which, by renaming the variables \( y_M \in \mathbb{R}^M \), can be written also as

\[
E_{y_{-(M,k)}} \left[ E_{(z_M,y_k)} \left[ u' (W(y-\cdot,z_M)) \right] E_x \left[ (y_k - x_k) u' (W(x)) \right] \right] = 0
\]

Hence, the quantity \( \delta^0_{nk} \) that we defined previously in this section is now given by

\[
\delta^0_{nk} = E_{(x,y)} \left[ u' \left( W \left( y + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n \right) \right) (y_k - x_k) u' (W(x)) \right] = E_{(x,y)} \left[ u' \left( W \left( y + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n \right) \right) (y_k - x_k) u' (W(x)) \right]
\]

\[
= -E_{y_{-(M,k)}} \left[ E_{(z_M,y_k)} \left[ u' (W(y-\cdot,z_M)) \right] E_x \left[ (y_k - x_k) u' (W(x)) \right] \right]
\]

\[
= E_{y_{-(M,k)}} \left[ E_{y_k} \left( E_{y_M} \left[ u' (W(y + \sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n)) \right] y_{-(M,k)} \right) \right]
\]

\[
= E_{y_{-(M,k)}} \left[ E_{y_k} \left( e^{-\frac{(T-t) \sigma_n^2}{2}} E_{y_M} \left[ u' (W(y)) e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n y} y_{-(M,k)} \right] \right) \right]
\]

\[
= E_{y_{-(M,k)}} \left[ E_{y_k} \left[ \frac{e^{-\frac{(T-t) \sigma_n^2}{2}}}{e^{\frac{(T-t) \sigma_n^2}{2}}} E_{y_M} \left[ u' (W(y)) e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n y} y_{-(M,k)} \right] \right] \right]
\]

where the forth equality follows from Lemma A.2 while the last one from the fact that \( y_M \) lists exhaustively the Brownian dimensions that affect the \( n \)th terminal dividend.
Step 2. Fix now an arbitrary point $y_{-(M,k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-M-1}$. I will show that the function $g_1 : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$g_1(y_k) = \frac{e^{-\frac{(T-t)\sigma_n^2}{2}} \mathbb{E}_{y_M}[u'(W(y)) e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n^2 y}]}{\mathbb{E}_{z_M}[u'(W(y-M,z_M))]} - 1$$

is monotone under the conditions of the proposition. To this end, fix an arbitrary $y_k \in \mathbb{R}$. Since $n_k = 0$, $g'_1(y_k)$ has the same sign as the quantity

$$I(y_k) = e^{-\frac{(T-t)\sigma_n^2}{2}} \mathbb{E}_{(y_M,x_M)} \left[ \left( u''(W(y)) u'(W(y-M,z_M)) \frac{\partial W(y)}{\partial y_k} - u''(W(y-M,z_M)) \frac{\partial W(y-M,z_M)}{\partial y_k} \right) e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sigma_n^2 y} \right]$$

Under the given terminal-wealth specification, though, we have

$$W(y) = \rho (y_k) + \sum_{n'=1}^N D_{n'}(y)$$

$$= \rho(y_k) + \sum_{n'=1}^N e^{\mu_{n}T + \sigma^2_{n'} T + \sqrt{T-t}(\sum_{k' \notin K_n} \sigma_{n'k'} y_{k'} + \sum_{m \in K_n} \sigma_{n'm} y_m)}$$

$$\frac{\partial W(y)}{\partial y_k} = \sqrt{T-t} \sum_{n' \in N_k} \sigma_{n'k} e^{\mu_{n}T + \sigma^2_{n'} T + \sqrt{T-t}(\sum_{k' \notin K_n} \sigma_{n'k'} y_{k'} + \sum_{m \in K_n} \sigma_{n'm} y_m)}$$

Hence,

$$I(y_k) = r_A \sqrt{T-t} e^{-\frac{(T-t)\sigma_n^2}{2}} \sum_{n' \in N_k} \sigma_{n'k} e^{\mu_{n}T + \sigma^2_{n'} T + \sqrt{T-t}(\sum_{k' \notin K_n} \sigma_{n'k'} y_{k'} + \sum_{m \in K_n} \sigma_{n'm} y_m)} \mathbb{E}_{(y_M,x_M)} \left[ u'(W(y)) u'(W(y-M,z_M)) h_{n'}(y_M,z_M) \right]$$

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with \( h_{n'}: \mathbb{R}^{2M} \mapsto \mathbb{R} \) defined as

\[
h_{n'}(y_M, z_M) = \left( e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K_n} \sigma_{n'm} z_m} - e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K_n} \sigma_{n'm} y_m} \right) e^{\sqrt{T-t} e h_{y}}
\]

\[
= e^{\sqrt{T-t} \left( \sum_{m' \in K_n \setminus (K_n \cap K_{n'})} \sigma_{n'm'} y_m + \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{n'm} y_m \right)}
\]

\[
\left( e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{n'm} z_m} - e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{n'm} y_m} \right)
\]

where the second equality deploys the fact that \( \sigma_{n'm} = 0 \) \( \forall m \notin K_{n'} \). But, under condition (ii), \( \sigma_{n'm} = \lambda_{n'} \sigma_{nm} \forall m \in K_n \cap K_{n'} \). Therefore,

\[
h_{n'}(y_M, z_M) = e^{\sqrt{T-t} \left( \sum_{m' \in K_n \setminus (K_n \cap K_{n'})} \sigma_{n'm'} y_m + \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{n'm} y_m \right)}
\]

\[
\left( e^{\lambda_{n'} \sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{n'm} z_m} - e^{\lambda_{n'} \sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{n'm} y_m} \right)
\]

If \( \lambda_{n'} > 0 \) (\( \lambda_{n'} < 0 \)), then \( h_{n'}(y_M, z_M) + h_{n'}(z_M, y_M) \leq 0 \) (\( \geq 0 \)) on \( \mathbb{R}^{2M} \) with equality only on the zero-measure subset consisting of the vectors \((y_M, z_M) : \sum_{m \in K_n \cap K_{n'}} \sigma_{nm} (y_m - z_m) = 0 \). By Lemma A.5, therefore, the typical expectation in the preceding sum is negative (positive) if \( \lambda_{n'} > 0 \) (\( \lambda_{n'} < 0 \)). Equivalently, the typical term of the sum is negative (positive) if \( \lambda_{n'} \sigma_{n'k} > 0 \) (\( \lambda_{n'} \sigma_{n'k} < 0 \)). To sign the entire sum, it suffices that all of its terms are of the same sign. And this is guaranteed by condition (iii). To see this, consider the collection \( \cup_{m \in K_n} N_m \) of those risky securities whose terminal dividend varies with at least one of the Brownian components that affect the \( n \)-th dividend. Condition (ii) required a proportionality constant \( \lambda_{n'} \) for those securities that are simultaneously members of this collection and of \( N_k : n' \in \cup_{m \in K_n} (N_m \cap N_k) \). Clearly, if \( \lambda_{n'} \sigma_{n'k} \) maintains the same sign on this set, \( I(y_k) \) will have the opposite sign.

**Step 3.** Define the function \( g_2: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R} \) by

\[
g_2(y_k) = \mathbb{E}_{x_M} \left[ u'(W(y-M, z_M)) \right] \mathbb{E}_x \left[ (y_k - x_k) u'(W(x)) \right]
\]

\[34\text{To use the lemma here, let } g := h_{n'} \text{ and define } f : \mathbb{R}^{2M} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_{++} \text{ by } f(y_M, z_M) = u'(W(y)) u'(W(y-M, z_M)) e^{-\frac{\sqrt{1} \mathbf{1}_{(y-M, z_M)}^\top \mathbf{1}_{(y-M, z_M)}}{2}}.\]
Step 1. This proof proceeds in the same fashion as the preceding one. Proposition 1 and Corollary 1.1 again strictly monotone, with $N \in \mathbb{R}$.

Step 2. Corollary 2.2 follows immediately, and, thus, $h(x)$ has the opposite (same) sign of $(x)$ as long as $y(x)$. If $n(x) = 1$, Lemma A.5, therefore, the typical term in sum of $I(y)$ has the same sign across all $m(x) = z(m)$. By Lemma A.5, the opposite (same) sign of $(x)$ follows immediately, $N$ being a singleton.

Propagation 1 and Corollary 1.1

This proof proceeds in the same fashion as the preceding one.

Step 1. Fixing an arbitrary $y(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{K-M}$, the function $g_1 : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is again strictly monotone, with $\sigma_{n'k}g'(y) > 0 \forall y \in \mathbb{R}$ in this case. To see
this, observe that now

\[
I(y_k) = e^{-\frac{(T-t)\sigma_n^2}{2}} \mathbb{E}_{(y_M, z_M)} \left[ u'(W(y)) u'(W(y_M, z_M)) e^{\sqrt{T-l} I(y_k)} \right]
\]

Under the given terminal-wealth specification, the terminal-period endowment is a function \( \rho(y_{-k}) \) while \( \sigma_{n'm} = 0 \ \forall (n', m) \in N_k \times K_n \). Condition (ii), moreover, requires that \( \sigma_{n'm} = \sigma_{nm} \) for any \( n' \) with \( \sigma_{n'm} \neq 0 \) for some \( m \in K_n \). Hence,\(^35\)

\[
W(y) = \rho(y_{-k}) + \sum_{n' = 1}^{N} D_{n'}(y) = \rho(y_{-k}) + \sum_{n' \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \setminus \cup_{m \in K_n} N_m} e^{\mu_{n'} T + \sigma_{n'}^2 \beta + \sqrt{T-l} \sum_{k' \notin K_n} \sigma_{n'k'} y_{k'}}
\]

\[
\partial W(y) \over \partial y_k = \sqrt{T-l} \sum_{n' \in K_n} \sigma_{n'k} \partial y_k
\]

\[
= \sqrt{T-l} \sum_{n' \in K_n} \sigma_{n'k} D_{n'}(y_{-M})
\]

Therefore,

\[
e^{-\frac{(T-t)\sigma_n^2}{2}} \frac{I(y_k)}{\sqrt{T-l}} = \mathbb{E}_{(y_M, z_M)} \left[ u'(W(y)) u'(W(y_M, z_M)) g(y_{-M}, z_M) \right] \sum_{n' \in N_k} \sigma_{n'k} D_{n'}(y_{-M})
\]

\(^35\)Some remarks about the way the terminal wealth is written out here. On the right-hand side of the second equality, I sum across the \( N \) terminal dividends by partitioning them into two sets. The first summation collects the ones that are not correlated with any of the Brownian dimensions that affect the \( n \)th dividend. In the exponent of the typical term here, no terms of the form \( \sigma_{n'm} y_m \) with \( m \in K_n \) appear as they are all zero. The second summation collects the remaining dividends. In the exponent of the typical term now, there are terms of the form \( \sigma_{n'm} y_m \) with \( m \in K_n \). Yet, in all of them, \( \sigma_{n'm} = \sigma_{nm} \) due to condition (ii). The product of the corresponding exponentials can be, therefore, pulled out of the summation. In the exponent of the typical term of the second summation, there can also be terms of the form \( \sigma_{n'k} y_k \) with \( k' \notin K_n \). The corresponding exponentials stay inside the summation. Observe finally that, under the assumed terminal wealth specification, no dividend \( n' \) whose exponent includes the term \( \sigma_{n'k} y_k \) is to be found in the second summation.
where \( g : \mathbb{R}^{K+M} \to \mathbb{R} \) is given by

\[
g(y-M, (y,M,z)) = \left[ r_A(W(y-M, z)) - r_A(W(y)) \right] e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K} \sigma_{nm} y_m}
\]

But

\[
g(y-M, (y,M,z)) + g(y-M, (z,M,y)) = \left[ r_A(W(y-M, z)) - r_A(W(y)) \right] \left( e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K} \sigma_{nm} y_m} - e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K} \sigma_{nm} z_m} \right)
\]

is non-negative on \( \mathbb{R}^{2M} \), being zero only on the zero-measure set consisting of the vectors \((y,M,z) : \sum_{m \in K} \sigma_{nm} (y_m - z_m) = 0\).\(^{36}\) This implies that the expectation above is positive (Lemma A.5), allowing in turn condition (iii) to ensure that \( g'(y) \) has the same sign as \( \sigma'_{n'k} \) for any \( n' \in N_k \).

**Step 2.** By the same argument as in the last two steps of the proof of Proposition 2, one can establish that \( \sigma'_{n'k} g_1(\cdot) \) is strictly increasing on \( \mathbb{R} \) only if \( \sigma'_{n'k} \delta_{n'k}^0 > 0 \). □

For Corollary 1.1, let \( K_n = \{ m \} \). The requirements \( \sigma'_{n'm} = 0 \forall (n', m) \in N_k \times K_n \) and \( \sigma'_{n'm} = \sigma_{nm} \forall m \in K_n \forall n' \in \bigcup_{m \in K_n} N_m \) reduce now, respectively, to \( N_k \cap N'_m = \emptyset \) and \( \sigma'_{n'm} = \sigma_{nm} \forall n' \in N_m \). The result reads \( \sigma'_{n'k} \delta_{n'k}^* > 0 \).

\(^{36}\)It is at this point of the proof that condition (ii) is deployed. For it allows the term \( \eta = e^{\sqrt{T-t} \sum_{m \in K} \sigma_{nm} y_m} \) to be factored out of the second summation when the expression for the terminal wealth is written out. The condition ensures, therefore, that \( \frac{\partial W(y)}{\partial \eta} > 0 \) which, under DARA, implies in turn that \( \frac{\partial W(y)}{\partial \eta} < 0 \).
Claim 3.1

Let \( u (c) = \gamma e^\alpha (\gamma, \alpha < 0) \). By condition (ii), we have \( u' (W (x + \sqrt{T - t} \sigma_n)) = \lambda_n^{-1} u' (W (x)) \). Hence, (26) now reads

\[
\frac{\sqrt{T - t} P_0^2}{\lambda_n^{\alpha - 1} e^{\mu_n T + \sigma_n^2 (t - \frac{t^2}{2})}} \frac{\partial p_n}{\partial \beta_k} = \mathbb{E}_y \left[ (y_k + \sqrt{T - t} \sigma_{nk}) u' (W (y)) \right] \mathbb{E}_x \left[ u' (W (x)) \right] \\
- \mathbb{E}_x \left[ x_k u' (W (x)) \right] \mathbb{E}_y \left[ u' (W (y)) \right] \\
= \sqrt{T - t} \sigma_{nk} \mathbb{E}_y \left[ u' (W (y)) \right]^2 \\
+ \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)} \left[ u' (W (x)) u' (W (y)) (y_k - x_k) \right] \\
= \sqrt{T - t} \sigma_{nk} \mathbb{E}_y \left[ u' (W (y)) \right]^2 = \sqrt{T - t} \sigma_{nk} P_0^2
\]

With \( \alpha = 0 \), this applies also when the utility function is logarithmic.

D Dividend-financed Intermediate Consumption

Let \( f : \Omega \times [t, T] \mapsto \mathbb{R} \) be a stochastic process with \( f (\omega, s) = f (I (\omega, s)) \).

Let also \( t = s_0 < s_1 < \cdots < s_{n-1} < s_m = T \) be a partition of \([t, T]\) and \( \Delta_i = s_i - s_{i-1} \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \). Given any \( \omega \in \Omega \), as long as the time-paths \( f (\omega, \cdot) \) are continuous, their time-integral can be approximated using Riemann-Stieltjes sums: \( \int_t^T f (\omega, s) \, ds = \lim_{m \to +\infty} \sum_{i=1}^m f (\omega, s_{i-1}) \Delta_i \).

Fixing the arbitrary state, we may dismiss it from our notation henceforth. As the increments of the Brownian process are independent, for each \( m \) in the

\[37\] It is well-known that a set of sufficient conditions for the integral \( \int_t^T f (\omega, s) \, dg (s) \) to exist in the Riemann-Stieltjes sense is for (i) \( f (\omega, \cdot) \) and \( g (\cdot) \) to not have discontinuities at the same point of \([t, T]\) and (ii) \( f (\omega, \cdot) \) to be continuous and \( g (\cdot) \) to have bounded variation. Here, \( g (\cdot) \) being the identity function, it is everywhere continuous and has bounded variation (in fact, \( \sum_{i=1}^m |g (s_i) - g (s_{i-1})| = T - t \) does not even depend on the interval partition). Clearly, (i)-(ii) are immediately satisfied if \( f (\omega, \cdot) \) is continuous.
approximating sequence, we have

\[
E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(I(s_{i-1})) \Delta_i | F_t \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E \left[ f(I(s_{i-1})) | F_{s_0} \right] \Delta_i
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} E \left[ f \left( \beta(s_0) + \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \beta(s_{j+1}) - \beta(s_j), s_{i-1} \right) | F_{s_0} \right] \Delta_i
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} E \left[ f \left( \beta(s_0) + \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} x_j, s_{i-1} \right) | F_{s_0} \right] \Delta_i
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} E \left[ f \left( \beta(s_0) + y_{i-1}, s_{i-1} \right) | F_{s_0} \right] \Delta_i
\]

with the \(x_j\)'s independently distributed \(\mathcal{N}(0, \Delta_j+1)\) and, consequently, \(y_{i-1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, (s_i - s_0) \Delta_j)\) for their sum. In the limit, therefore, as \(m \to +\infty\)

\[
\text{(*)} \quad E \left[ \int_{t}^{T} f(I(s)) \, ds | F_t \right] = \int_{t}^{T} E \left[ f(\beta(t) + y(s), s) | F_t \right] \, ds
\]

where \(y(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, (s-t) \Delta_j)\).

Suppose also that, for the arbitrary Brownian component \(\beta_k(t)\), the derivative \(\frac{df(I(s))}{\partial \beta_k(t)}\) exists and is continuous \(\forall \in [t,T]\). As long as it commutes in the expectation operator, for each \(m\) in the approximating sequence above, we get

\[
\frac{\partial E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} f(I(s_{i-1})) \Delta_i | F_t \right]}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial E \left[ f(\beta(s_0) + y_{i-1}, s_{i-1}) | F_{s_0} \right]}{\partial \beta_k(s_0)} \Delta_i
\]

and, as \(m \to +\infty\),

\[
\text{(**)} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \int_{t}^{T} E \left[ f(I(s)) | F_t \right] \, ds = \int_{t}^{T} \frac{\partial E \left[ f(\beta(t) + y(s), s) | F_t \right]}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \, ds
\]

For \(n \in \{0, 1, \ldots, N\}\), define now \(f_n : \Omega \times [t, T] \mapsto \mathbb{R}\) by \(f_0(s) = u'(W(I(s)))\) and, for \(n \geq 1\), \(f_n(s) = u'(W(I(s))) D_n(W(I(s)))\). As long as \(u(\cdot)\) and \(D_n(\cdot)\) are, respectively, continuously-differentiable and continuous and
Lemma A.1 applies, (*) and (**) give, respectively,

\[ P_n(t) = \int_t^T P_{n,s}(t) \, ds \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = \int_t^T \frac{\partial P_{n,s}(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \, ds \]

where \( P_{n,s}(t) \) is the absolute price I have analyzed in this paper taking \( s \) to be the terminal date. But then, by (9), we ought to have

\[ P_0(t)^2 \frac{\partial p_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} = P_0(t) \frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} - P_n(t) \frac{\partial P_0(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \]

\[ = \int_t^T \left( E \left[ f(\beta(t) + \tilde{y}(s), s) | \mathcal{F}_t \right] \frac{\partial E \left[ g(\beta(t) + \tilde{y}(s), s) | \mathcal{F}_t \right]}{\partial \beta_k(t)} - E \left[ g(\beta(t) + \tilde{y}(s), s) | \mathcal{F}_t \right] \frac{\partial E \left[ f(\beta(t) + \tilde{y}(s), s) | \mathcal{F}_t \right]}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \right) \, ds \]

\[ = \int_t^T \left( P_{0,s}(t) \frac{\partial P_{n,s}(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} - P_{n,s}(t) \frac{\partial P_{0,s}(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \right) \, ds \]

\[ = \int_t^T P_{0,s}(t)^2 \frac{\partial p_{n,s}(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \, ds \]

with \( \tilde{y}(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, (s-t) I_K) \), independent of \( y(s) \).

To complete the argument, recall that each and every result in the paper obtains through signing the integrand term \( \frac{\partial p_{n,s}(t)}{\partial \beta_k(t)} \) of the last integral above, taking \( s \) as the terminal date. And as the matrix of factor loadings \( \Sigma \) is constant, so is the respective sign on \([t, T]\). Being in fact the sign of the integral, all of my results remain valid when intermediate consumption is dividend-financed. Obviously, this is still the case as \( T \to \infty \).