

Equity Gilt Study 2007

“Socialism failed because it couldn’t tell the economic truth; capitalism may fail because it couldn’t tell the ecological truth.”

Lester Brown

“The safest way to double your money is to fold it over and put it in your pocket.”

Kin Hubbard

“My problem lies in reconciling my gross habits with my net income.”

Errol Flynn

“If you want to know what God thinks of money, just look at the people he gave it to.”

Dorothy Parker

“An economist is someone who knows more about money than the people who have it.”

Anon

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Equity Gilt Study 2007

52nd Edition

The Equity Gilt Study has been published since 1956, providing data and analysis of the annual returns in equities, government bonds and cash from 1899 in the UK and 1925 in the US. The US data are kindly provided by the Center for Research in Security Prices at the University of Chicago Graduate School of Business. Shorter histories of corporate and index-linked bond returns are also provided. The salient point of last year's return data is the continued outperformance of equities. Not since 1986 have UK equities outperformed gilts by such a wide margin.

The study also contains essays on topics that we hope may be of relevance to the long-term investor. This year's edition has a dual focus. The first portion of the study is devoted to a discussion of the interplay between climate change and the energy sector, a theme that we believe will dominate the markets in the years ahead. The remainder is broadly concerned with the practice of asset allocation. We discuss the relationship between the equity risk premium and equity risk, how new asset classes can help investors build better balanced portfolios and offer a practical example of how automated tactical allocation systems can improve portfolio performance. Finally, we mark the tenth anniversary of the UK MFR pension legislation with a review of the prevailing state of the defined benefit pension world.

We are also pleased to welcome a contribution from the team at Barclays Global Investors, who share their expertise in contemporary portfolio diversification techniques.

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Please read carefully the important disclosures at the end of this publication.

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Chapter 1 – The energy revolution

We examine the relationship between the energy market and climate change policy. Our thesis is that the energy infrastructure of the global economy is prone to radical restructuring in the years ahead, a process that could be described as an energy revolution. The driving forces are twofold. First, the spiral higher in energy prices since 2002 has revealed that current energy supply is likely to prove insufficient in light of current demand trends. The world therefore needs a sizeable increase in capacity to accommodate the energy ambitions of both industrialised and industrialising economies. Second, public opinion in the OECD has reached an inflection point on climate change, with the political path now open for establishing an international agreement on emissions reduction. We discuss the difficulty of simultaneously increasing energy supply by 50% over the next 25 years, while also lowering dependency on hydrocarbons, which currently provide 80% of the world's energy needs. The likely effects on asset markets and modes of financing are expected to be sizeable and could dominate other fundamental factors. Investors need to place the nexus of climate change policies and energy scarcity at the centre of their asset allocation process. We conclude that the impending energy revolution may – contrary to consensus expectations – prove highly stimulatory for the global economy.

Chapter 2 – Monkey business

Equity yields have remained at high levels relative to other asset classes for the fourth consecutive year. We consider the causes of these comparatively high equity yields and find a relationship between past equity volatility and the forward-looking equity risk premium. We show how the earnings yield ratio on equities is an effective predictor of the subsequent realised equity risk premium and use this methodology to forecast above-average equity returns in European and UK markets over the next decade. We discuss whether it is possible to hedge out equity risk and conclude that doing so tends to hedge out the excess returns as well. Ironically, the distortion to equity volatility markets caused by investors seeking to limit equity risk offers opportunities for tactical relative value trades that can potentially offset actual equity volatility.

Chapter 3 – The return of diversification

This essay is a contribution from Barclays Global Investors (BGI) research, describing how investors can make use of the increasingly wide range of markets and instruments available to build better portfolios.

Markets have developed to the point where it is now much easier and cheaper to access more precise risk exposures. While this is of course a great boon, the task of aggregating these risks into a diversified portfolio is now more complex for the end investor.

The theoretical framework for building a diversified portfolio dates back to the work of Markowitz and Sharpe in the 1950s, but the practical implementation has been fraught with difficulty. Correlations are notoriously unstable and indeed tend to increase when times are bad. Furthermore, estimating future returns from past performance requires more than clever statistics: financial and economic reasoning is needed to build appropriate models and thus create optimal portfolios. The article describes how the best answer need not be the classical “market weighted” portfolio, and outlines techniques by which investors’ aversions to poor returns can be accommodated within the portfolio construction process.

Chapter 4 – Send in the clones

We continue last year's theme of decomposing hedge fund returns. The cases for and against hedge fund replication models have been heavily debated over the past year. Following poor hedge fund performance in the wake of the May 2006 equity market sell-off, there have been increased concerns over whether hedge fund returns were predominantly market-dependent or due to manager skill. Numerous attempts have been made to replicate hedge fund returns, and market commentators predict a proliferation of investable synthetic hedge fund products. These synthetics may provide a cheaper alternative to the "2 and 20" fee structure often charged by hedge funds. However, there remains the risk that synthetic models will be unable to protect the investor from extreme downside risks, while a skilled manager may be more able to navigate the financial markets during turbulent periods. We examine an alternative approach to replicating hedge funds, which provides a forward-looking view of different asset classes, as well as a stop-loss mechanism to protect an investor when markets are hit by extreme events.

Chapter 5 – The state that I am in...

Our final essay celebrates, if that is the right word, the tenth anniversary of the short-lived MFR. It has been 10 years since the introduction of the Minimum Funding Requirement and the abolition of Advanced Corporation Tax relief. Since then, the "pensions crisis" has rarely been far from the headlines. It has prompted a comprehensive overhaul of the regulatory framework and there have been changes to accounting regulations in an attempt to shed some light on the "black hole" at the heart of corporate balance sheets. The growth of "liability driven investment" (LDI) strategies has increased the use of equity and fixed income derivatives to help manage exposure to both equity and interest rate risk by the construction of hedging portfolios. We review some of the main features of the changed pension landscape and consider the future.

Chapters 6 and 7 – Asset returns

We publish last year's US and UK asset returns, placing them within a historical context. Broadly, equities strongly outperformed bonds and index-linked securities, which posted negative returns. UK gilts and index-linked markets performed very poorly in 2006, both ending up in the eight-worst historical deciles, while equity returns were far above the long-run average.

UK equities returned 11.4% after inflation, against minus 4.4% for gilts, minus 2.1% for index-linked and 0.4% from cash. The average UK equity outperformance over gilts (the equity risk premium) during the past 107 years is now 4.2%, an increase of 0.2% from last year's calculation. US equities and bonds performed in a similar manner to the UK markets, with equities posting above-average returns while bonds did very poorly. Adjusted for inflation, equities returned 13.3%, Treasuries minus 1.2% and index-linked Treasuries minus 4.6% after inflation. On the back of higher policy rates, cash returned 2.2%.

Chapter 1 – The energy revolution

Tim Bond

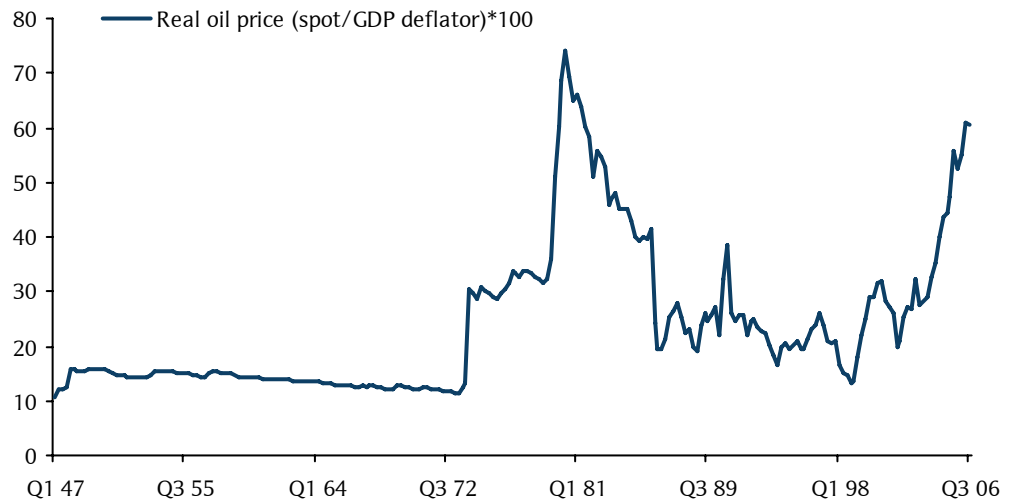
The global economy faces simultaneous requirements to sharply increase the capacity to supply energy and fundamentally restructure the way it is created and delivered. We examine the interplay between climate change and emerging energy shortages, together with the possible effect of these entwined themes on the economy and the markets.

When the history books are written, the past couple of years are likely to be seen as an inflexion point in the global economic order. In support of this somewhat portentous claim, we cite the following two observations. First, the tripling of oil prices and the equally sizeable advances in other energy prices has signalled, with little room for doubt, that there are structural problems in the system that supplies the power for our global economy. Second, 2006 marked a tipping point in public opinion regarding climate change. In confirmation of this sea-change in popular beliefs, no better candidate can be found than the rapid re-positioning of political parties and governments behind the issue, together with the attendant success of such manoeuvres in the polls. Even in the US, for so long the last bastion of climate change sceptics, 2006 saw a sufficient swing in the electorate's views that the White House ended the year beleaguered by international allies, business lobbies, most state governments and both political parties on the topic. At the current juncture, it is reasonable to state that no political party in any Western democracy is likely to enjoy success at the polls in the absence of a convincing agenda to deal with climate change. Given the hardening of the scientific case supporting human agency behind global warming, along with the rather more straightforward evidence of extreme weather conditions, this change in the architecture of public opinion is as it should be. It is always rather hard to deny something that is happening right under one's nose.

The critical points are that our hydrocarbon-fuelled global economy has a problem both in the supply of future energy and in the drastic environmental externalities of past energy use. To say that these two perceptions are dissonant is to be guilty of substantial understatement. Put bluntly, the world has simultaneously discovered that the supply of energy may not match future demand and that the type of energy currently supplied is incompatible with survival. Market prices signal the need for dramatic increases in the supply of hydrocarbon-based energy, while political shifts signal the need for an equally dramatic decrease in the use of hydrocarbon-based energy. In the nexus of this conundrum lies the market, which is where the ultimate distribution of capital and resources are eventually transacted. The clash between these two apparently conflicting themes is therefore of paramount importance to the future behaviour of both physical and financial markets over the long run. It is, we are persuaded, suitable subject matter for this study. We begin with a brief discussion of the prevailing condition of energy scarcity.

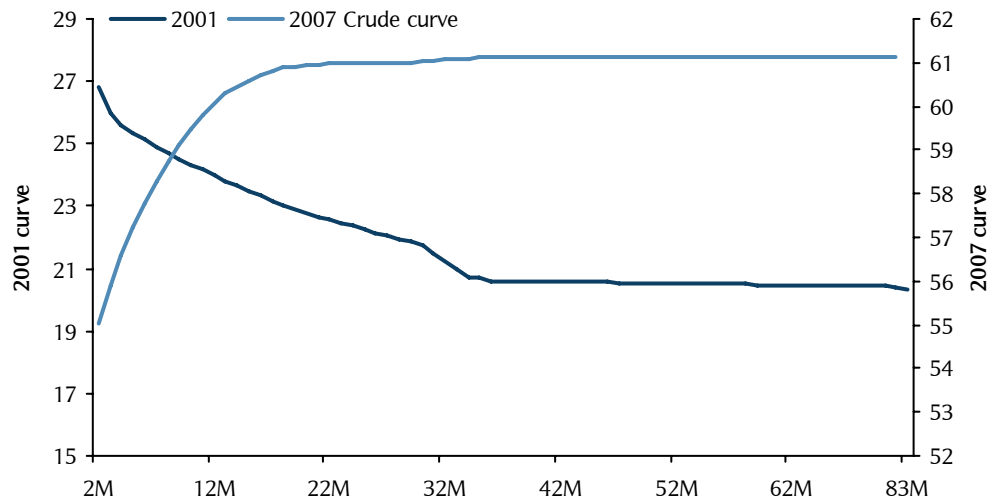
The signs of a dysfunctional global energy supply are reasonably obvious. In real, inflation-adjusted terms, oil prices have risen back to levels last seen during the late 1970s, when a combination of OPEC supply restrictions and revolutionary change in key oil-producing nations severely constricted the availability of oil. Meanwhile, in comparison with the recent past, the oil and coal energy futures curves are now upward sloping, rather than negatively sloping, implying that the market is persuaded of a lasting and endemic oil supply scarcity, rather than a temporary disruption. Throughout most of history, spot oil prices have been negatively correlated with the oil forward curve slope, the slope inverting as and when spot oil prices rose. Today, that condition no longer applies. The positive curve slope signals a worsening supply demand imbalance as time progresses.

Figure 1: Real oil price, 1947-2007



Source: Haver.

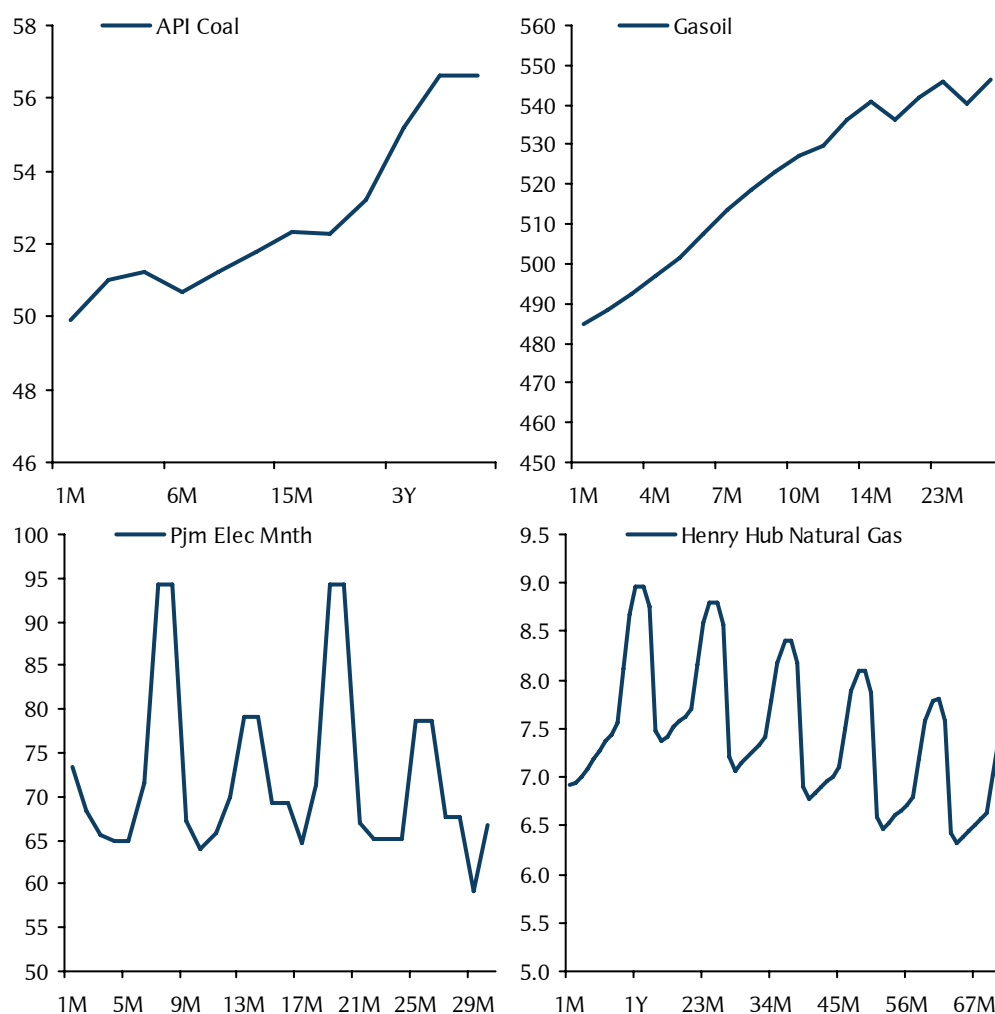
Figure 2: Oil forward curve, by month, 2001 and 2007



Source: Bloomberg.

The condition of contango (when future prices are higher than spot prices) is not confined to oil in the energy complex. Oil product curves are also upward sloping, while the other major hydrocarbon, coal, is also characterised by an upward sloping curve. By way of contrast, the electricity curve is flat and the natural gas curve downward sloping.

Figure 3: Coal, natural gas and electricity forward curves

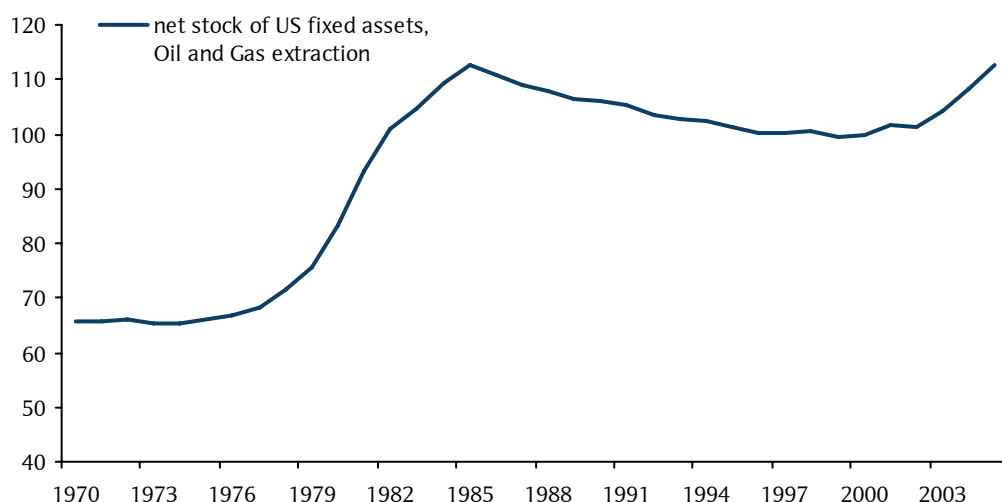


Source: Bloomberg.

A crucial point is immediately evident. The forward curves for energy sources that emit the most CO₂ are upward sloping, whereas the curves for cleaner energy are downward sloping. From this observation we can deduce that as yet, the markets do not believe that policy changes will successfully reduce global demand for the dirtier fuels in favour of cleaner energy sources. The respective slopes of the energy curves seem to be presenting us with a vote of no confidence in the implementation of climate change policies, the cornerstone of which has to be effecting a reduced demand for heavy CO₂ emitters such as oil and coal.

The energy forward curves seem, therefore, to be priced in accordance with a simple extrapolation of current demand and supply dynamics. And indeed, the rise in energy demand during the current business expansion has been the dominant pricing point for the markets. The key shock to the system has been the extraordinary rise in demand from China and India, occurring against the backdrop of the strongest and most synchronised global economic growth seen in the past 30 years. The margin of safety in supply has narrowed to a wafer, with any threatened or actual supply disruption sending prices soaring. As is widely remarked, the world is reaping the consequences of underinvestment in the energy sector during the 1980s and 1990s, which was the market response to stagnant or falling real energy prices. It is sobering to note that the net capital stock for US oil and gas production peaked as far back as 1986, falling persistently through to the current energy price shock, from which point it has only just managed to return to the prior peak. Thus, the stock of physical capital in the US oil and gas sector is no larger than it was 20 years ago.

Figure 4: US net stock of capital equipment, structures, US oil and gas production

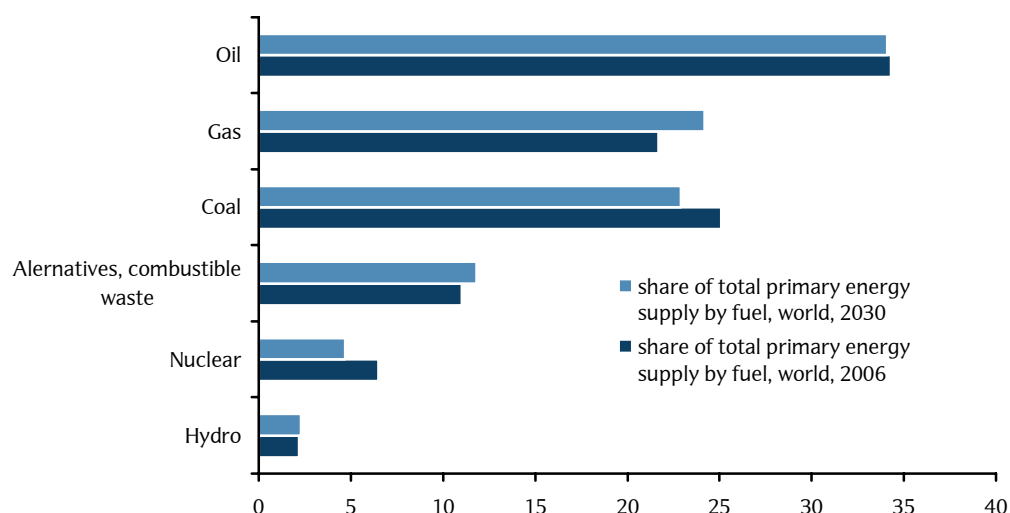


Source: Haver, BEA.

The task of matching future supply with future demand is Herculean. The latest estimates from the IEA suggest that \$20trn (in 2000 dollars) is needed in energy investment between now and 2030, a sum that is close to 1.25% of global GDP and over 5.5% of total global investment spending. So far, attempts to raise investment in the energy sector have been self-defeating, as increases in nominal spending have been devoured by cost inflation. For the sake of example, the IEA calculate that in the five years to 2005, nominal global spending on upstream oil and gas investment doubled to \$225bn, yet the inflation-adjusted increase was in the mid-teens. Indeed, as cost inflation in the industry grew more virulent, real investment actually fell slightly from 2003 onwards. It should be noted that of the \$20trn in required energy investment, slightly more than half is to replace existing infrastructure, rather than meet new demand. Our commodities analysts believe that the IEA estimates may be somewhat conservative, since the pace of depreciation in the existing infrastructure is likely to be greater than assumed by the IEA. The evidence so far is that the world is not doing a very good job of investing sufficiently to sustain current supply, let alone meet projected demand growth.

Global energy demand is projected to rise by just over 50% during the next 25 years, with the usage of coal growing the most in absolute terms. Currently, slightly less than 60% of total global primary energy needs are supplied by coal and oil. Unsurprisingly, in the absence of a policy regime change, the IEA does not expect the dominance of oil and coal to change very much over the next 25 years. Figure 5 displays the current and expected share of total energy supply by source.

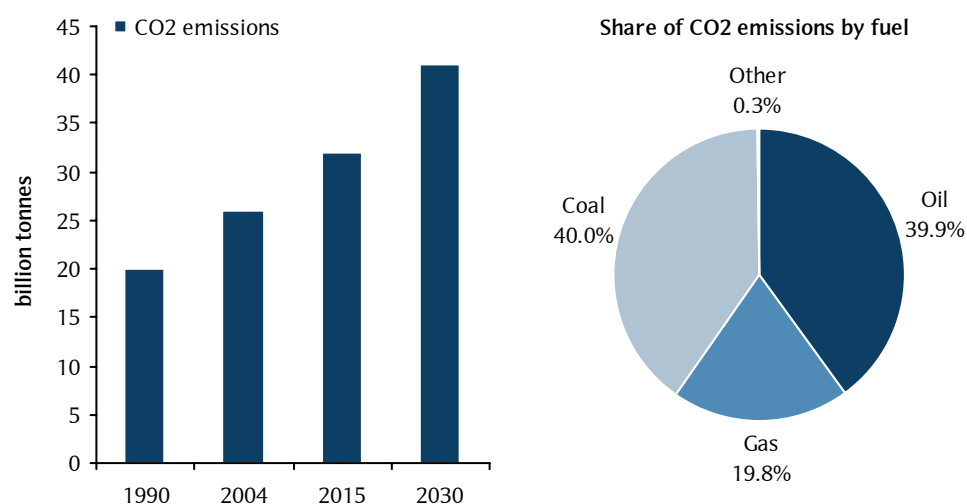
Figure 5: Total primary energy supply, global, by fuel: now and 2030



Source: IEA.

The dominant share of the dirtier hydrocarbons in projected global energy supply lies at the core of the climate change problem. Since coal and oil are definitively the greatest CO₂ emitters of all the various fuel sources, it is unsurprising that CO₂ emissions are projected to soar in the years ahead.

Figure 6: Expected change in global energy CO₂ emissions, emissions by fuel



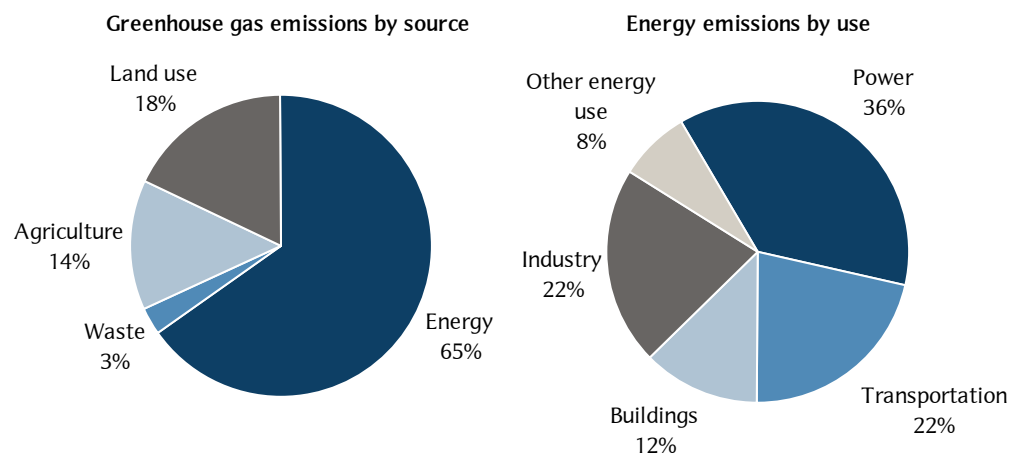
Source: IEA.

An increase in CO₂ emissions of such a scale is not a viable option. According to a summary of current climate modelling contained in the UK HMG Treasury Stern Report on climate change, a stabilisation of greenhouse gas emissions at current levels will commit the planet to a 2-5 degree warming over the next 45 years. A rise to the middle of this projected range would take global temperatures up to levels not seen for the past three million years, producing a climate that is far outside the range of human experience. Various feedback mechanisms prompted by a rise in temperature, such as thawing of permafrost and a reduction in the oceans' ability to absorb CO₂, could amplify this warming by a further 1-2 degrees. However, if emissions rise at the rate predicted on the basis of a business-as-usual scenario, the central estimate of temperature increases would rise to a 6.5 degree warming, with an upper risk boundary

at 10 degrees, before accounting for feedback risks. In economic terms, the Stern Report estimated a central risk of a permanent 20% loss of per capita real consumption under such a scenario, with additional unquantifiable losses derived from mass migration and conflict. Fairly clearly, the potential risks of the business-as-usual scenario are unsupportable.

Some 65% of total greenhouse gas emissions are generated by energy use, the remainder being derived from agriculture and changing patterns of land-use, primarily deforestation and urbanisation. The bulk of the burden of any attempt to stabilise CO₂ emissions will therefore fall on the energy sector, primarily on the dirtier hydrocarbons, coal and oil, although it should be noted that gas accounts for 20% of total fuel CO₂ emissions and is not, therefore, a “silver bullet” energy source.

Figure 7: Greenhouse gas emissions by source, energy emissions by use



Source: HMG Stern Report on Climate Change.

It should therefore be clear that we have two entangled problems. The global economy needs to aggressively expand the energy supply infrastructure to meet the projected 50% increase in demand over the next 30 years, while simultaneously cutting the 80% of energy supply generated from hydrocarbons, in favour of alternative sources. The requirement is for both a sharp and sustained increase in energy investment, as well as an almost total switch in the existing and future energy infrastructure away from hydrocarbons.

Such a staggeringly complex task can only be accomplished via the imposition of a clear and reliable regulatory framework. As the Stern Report highlights, global warming results from a catastrophic market failure. Markets do not, by definition, incorporate externalities into pricing. So perhaps the real failure was our initial inability to perceive the externalities of our energy choices – and our subsequent extreme reluctance to do anything about them once those problems were recognised. Blame can be attached to the market system for the latter point, but not for the former. The market system is characterised by hefty inertia, stemming from the unwillingness of vested interests to abandon capital investments, regardless of the public good. Government policymaking is – or at least should be – the natural counterbalance to this inertia. However, when it comes to discounting externalities, the market is an idiot savant, oblivious of any factors – however looming and obvious – outside the narrow focus of its pecuniary obsession.

Yet, with the problem now recognised, the naysayers mostly marginalised and the politics favourable, the idiot savant character of the market can now be harnessed for the cure. Markets need a clear set of rules and objectives within which to operate, none more so than long-term infrastructure projects. Energy supply investments are characterised by expense, lengthy construction periods, even longer pay-back times

and highly volatile input and output prices. Such factors generate considerable uncertainty and are a significant obstacle to investment. These existing uncertainties are now massively expanded by the clash between the need to expand total energy supply, while simultaneously cutting hydrocarbon dependency. Currently, the putative energy investor cannot have any certainty about where to place his or her capital. For the sake of example, the returns from an investment in coal or oil may become highly unprofitable in the event of a policy-driven decline in the demand for hydrocarbon energy. Equally, an investment in alternative power sources might not reap the expected returns if governments fail to enact policies aimed at CO₂ emission reductions. In the same vein, investment in carbon capture and storage is enormously expensive and only financially viable under an imposition of a climate change policy regime.

Given these sizeable uncertainties, it is fair to suppose that less investment overall will be forthcoming than might have been the case were the outlook more quantifiable. Or rather, very high prospective returns are needed to overcome the objection of high levels of uncertainty. So one of the likely results of a continuation of the present uncertainty might be a failure to meet the projected rise in energy demand, as investors either quail before the uncertainties or demand very high returns to compensate for the risks. The net result would be extremely high energy prices, persistent inflation and much slower real economic growth – not to mention accelerated global warming. There is therefore a near-term economic imperative – preventing the world running out of energy – as well as the medium-term imperative of limiting global warming, for enacting a clear and consistent policy regime regarding climate change.

In this respect, it is crucial that the past couple of years have seen a tipping point in global public opinion – at least in OECD countries – regarding climate change. While solid majorities in Europe, Russia and Japan worry a great deal about climate change – an average of 77% according to the Pew Centre polling – it has become clear that opinion in the US is also finally shifting. The percentage of US citizens agreeing that the earth is warming has risen 7 points to 77% over the past six months, while the percentage agreeing that this is due to human activity is running at 47%, against 40% six months ago. Contributing to the hope of a material change in US climate policies is the fact that the Democrats won control of both legislative houses in the November midterm elections. While climate change is generally not seen as a partisan issue elsewhere in the world, US opinion on the topic is strangely divided by party lines. Thus as recently as January 2007, Pew Centre polling found that a remarkable 46% of Republicans who defined themselves as part of the “conservative” wing of the party deny that the world is getting warmer, while only 20% believe that warming is due to human agency. Conversely, 92% of self-defined “liberal” Democrats believe in warming, with 71% agreeing that it is due to human agency.

However, when it comes to taking action against global warming, the Pew Centre’s latest (January 2007) polling is instructive. Aside from conservative Republican voters (unsurprisingly given that nearly half do not believe that the globe is warming), majorities exist across the rest of the political spectrum in favour of the government taking action against climate change. Moderate Republicans are 51% in favour, Independents 58%, conservative Democrats 61%, and liberal Democrats 81% in favour of government policy shifts. The political odds in favour of the US adopting a more proactive and multilateral stance on global warming has therefore become a good deal more favourable over the past few years, a shift that is likely to continue.

So it is becoming more apparent that governments now have the political cover to take the necessary action and forge the required agreements. Complementing public opinion is the pressure from businesses, where an increasing demand for a policy

framework can be heard. Uncertainty about the future energy policy regime is complicating the task of forecasting, the net result of which may become a progressive postponement of many investment decisions and hence slower overall economic growth. Given these factors, it is reasonable, we believe, to suppose that coordinated policy changes will indeed be enacted at the international level over the next few years. This is not to deny the extraordinary complexity of securing agreements. The burden on the developing economies, who are not responsible for the existing stock of greenhouse gases, but who will be responsible for a growing share of the future increase in emissions, is particularly difficult to ascertain. However, for all the complications, it is hard to believe in persistent inaction, particularly given the goad of extreme weather events on public opinion. It is easy to imagine some future government of the day being blamed for causing a second New Orleans, rather than merely being blamed for failing in the aftermath of the disaster.

It would therefore seem to be close to a racing certainty that climate change policies will be enacted. Whether straightforward tax or emissions cap-and-trade policies are adopted, the eventual objective is in no doubt. Succinctly put, the net result of policy change will be to progressively price dirtier hydrocarbon fuels out of the market, while pricing alternative clean energy sources into the market. Once the framework for achieving this objective is established, uncertainty will be reduced and capital will start to flow more aggressively in the appropriate directions. However, the transition period will still be characterised by a high level of risks. Balancing the need to increase total energy supplies while decreasing hydrocarbon dependency will be difficult to achieve. In particular, it is not clear how hydrocarbon producers will be persuaded to expand capacity to meet immediate energy demand increases, when there is a global policy to reduce longer-run hydrocarbon reliance. This would seem to raise the risk of general energy shortages. Conversely, as the Stern Report points out, there is a risk of gamesmanship on the part of hydrocarbon producers, seeking to extract as much rent from their resources while there is still demand, while simultaneously attempting to influence the debate by making hydrocarbons a more financially attractive immediate energy source. However, such gamesmanship would seem to require levels of spare capacity that are glaringly absent from the current supply regime. A more robust complication is that both carbon sequestering and clean coal technologies offer some alternative to a general switch away from hydrocarbon fuel sources.

The outlook is therefore characterised by high levels of uncertainty, to say the least. Even after the establishment of a clear global policy framework, uncertainty would persist regarding the success of the various competing replacement and mitigation technologies on offer. It will be very hard for an investor to know which horse to back – or whether the race has even started. The prospect of high levels of risk and uncertainty means that outlook is also biased towards a continuation of very high and volatile energy prices. History demonstrates that such an outlook is not only of importance solely to the investor in the energy sector. Rather, the experience of the 1970s, when the global economy was last in the grip of endemic energy scarcity, suggests that investors in all asset classes feel the impact of energy price volatility.

Positive asset returns during that decade were extremely narrowly focussed, the distribution of returns rather contradicting the then newly acquired consensus regarding portfolio diversification. Figure 8 illustrates average geometric annual real returns from the main asset classes in the UK and US during the 1970s. It appears that most asset classes with the exception of commodities and oil itself offered derisory inflation-adjusted returns.

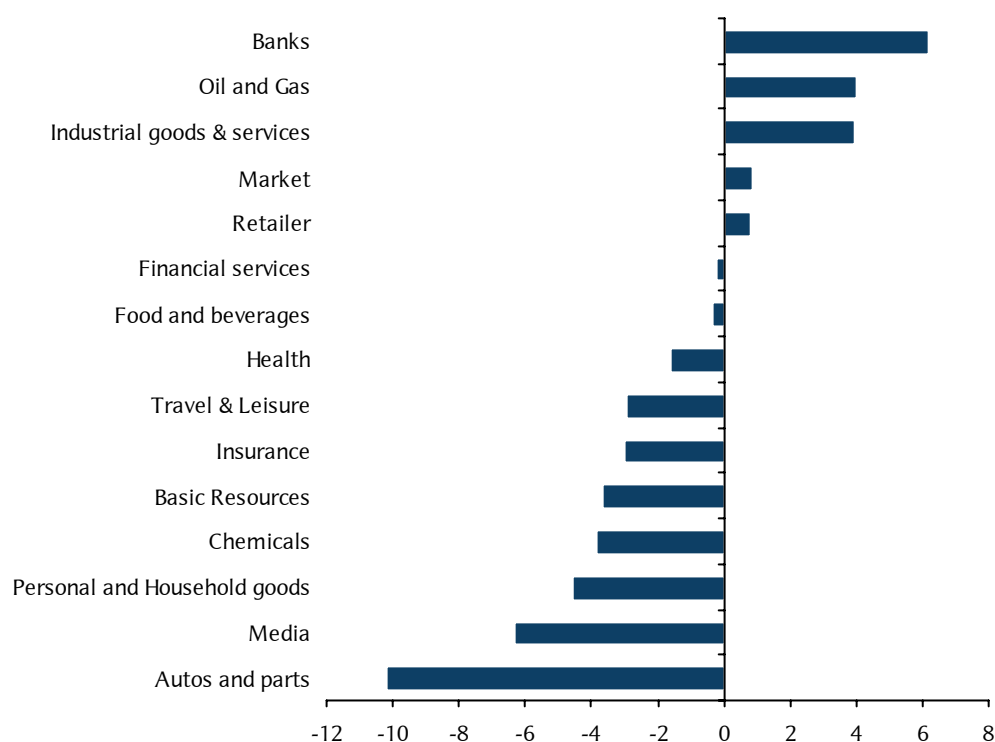
Figure 8: Geometric annual real returns by asset class, 1970-80, US/UK

| Real return, geometric annual, 1970-80 | | | |
|--|--------|----------------------------|--------|
| UK all property | 2.66% | US residential real estate | 2.64 |
| UK equity | 0.40% | US equity | 1.40% |
| UK bonds | -3.20% | US bonds | -3.60% |
| UK cash | -3.10% | US cash | -1.10% |
| Commodities | 7.27% | Commodities | 13.16% |
| Oil | 18.90% | Oil | 24.84% |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Meanwhile, even within the main asset classes, positive returns were focussed on a handful of sectors. Figure 9 displays the geometric annual return by sector in the UK stock market during the 1970s. Only three sectors in the UK delivered a positive total return, the rest averaged losses. A similar story is conveyed by US returns, where only four sectors of the market achieved positive real returns. Fairly clearly, aside from banks – which are usually able to re-price their products quickly to changing macro environments – the only positive return sectors were either the producers of energy or the industrial sectors that built the energy infrastructure.

Figure 9: Geometric annual real returns by sector, UK equities, 1970-80

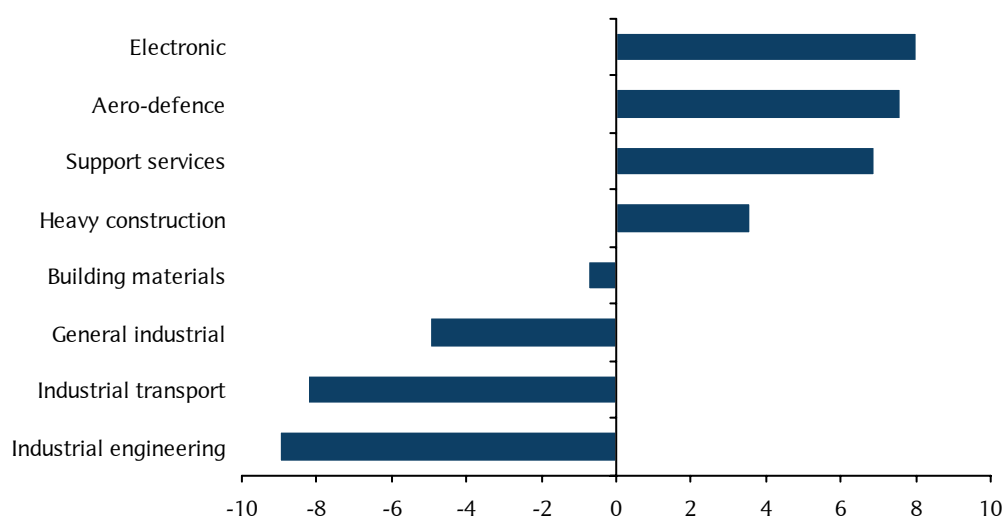


Source: FTSE, Datastream.

Even within sectors, positive returns were narrowly focussed. Thus half the sub-sectors of industrial services delivered average negative returns during the decade, even though the sector itself was the third-best performing.¹

¹ We have excluded the technology sector from the analysis, since it consisted of just two companies during the decade.

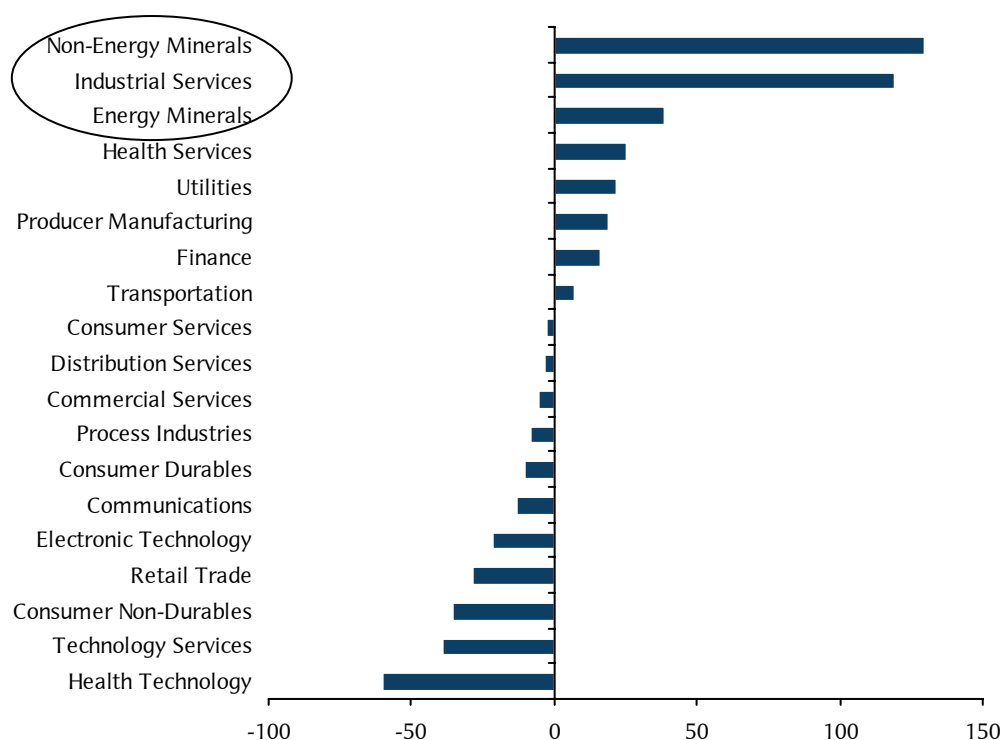
Figure 10: UK sub-sector performance, geometric annual total real return, 1970-80, Industrial Goods and Services sector



Source: FTSE, Datastream.

The 1970s was not a decade that rewarded extensive diversification. To judge from the distribution of returns across assets, energy scarcity was the dominant theme. The necessity for investment in the sector was overwhelming, to the exclusion of all other areas of activity. And indeed, since all other economic activities rely on energy, it is reasonable that the allocation of capital to the energy sector took precedence over the allocation to the rest of the economy. In a market system, high returns are typically part of the signalling mechanism that diverts and prioritises capital flows into the areas that most require investment. Although this mechanism is certainly not foolproof, as the persistence of bubbles and panics would seem to indicate, it happens to be the way the world currently works. So, with a dual requirement for a large increase in energy investment and a comprehensive restructuring of the existing energy infrastructure, it is reasonable to suppose that the market signalling mechanism will play its customary role. Investments in enterprises that alleviate both the energy scarcity and the hydrocarbon dependency should reap very strong coincident returns, while returns from other activities will tend to be less impressive. An analogy might be the way that the technology sector dominated returns during the internet and IT booms in the late 1990s, while returns ex-technology were modest. Reinforcing the market signalling mechanism is the more basic point that short of investment by fiat, climate change policy is most likely to be enacted through the price and return mechanism. The net result, we believe, is that while future asset return characteristics will – hopefully – not resemble a precise reprise of the 1970s, there will certainly be more than an echo in the way that returns are distributed across assets. The bottom line is that coincident returns will have to play their usual role of directing capital into the appropriate investment, if the dual tasks of energy supply restructuring and expansion are to be accomplished. Some such process is already at work and this analysis is by no means theoretical. Figure 11 displays world equity sector total returns, since the end of 2004, relative to the market. More than an echo of the 1970s is audible, with the three best sectors being natural resources – energy and non-energy – together with industrial services.

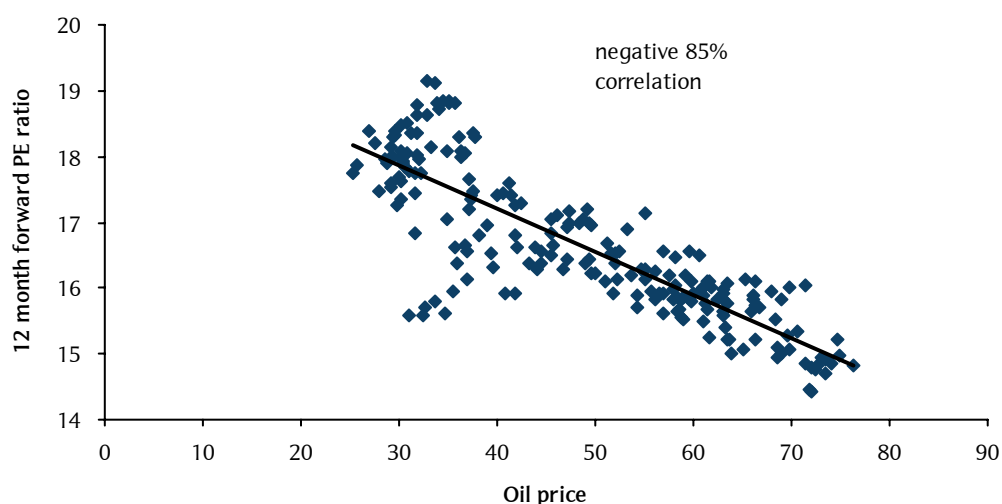
Figure 11: World equity sector returns Jan 2003 to-date, minus world total market return, Factset aggregates



Source: Factset.

The narrowly focussed returns of the 1970s were not only a symptom of the capital signalling process at work. They were also a symptom of the effect of energy scarcity on the macroeconomy. Not to put too fine a point on it, high energy prices catalysed high inflation, which in turn adversely affected asset returns. Notably, this was true for nominal as well as inflation-adjusted returns. Weak returns from bonds are understandable, given the large rise in interest rates and consequent drop in bond prices that occurred over the decade. Weak returns from equities are perhaps harder to understand, given the salient point that corporate earnings did not merely keep pace – but actually exceeded – inflation over the period. However, rightly or wrongly, the markets attached a lower rating to corporate earnings; PE ratios in the US, for the sake of example, ended the decade at half the level at which they started the decade. It is interesting to note that if we inflation-adjust corporate earnings over that period, calculating PE ratios from after-inflation earnings, the drop in PE ratios is barely visible. This exercise would seem to suggest that the market implicitly treated the portion of earnings growth “derived” from a rise in the price level as transient and non-recurring, even though in practice it was both sticky and recurring. In any event, the linkage between PE ratios and inflation, visible over the broad sweep of history, would seem to remain intact in the current era. Certainly, since 2003, which is when the oil price rally started, the correlation between weekly observations of the spot crude oil price and observations of the US total market 12-month forward PE ratio scores a very high negative 85%.

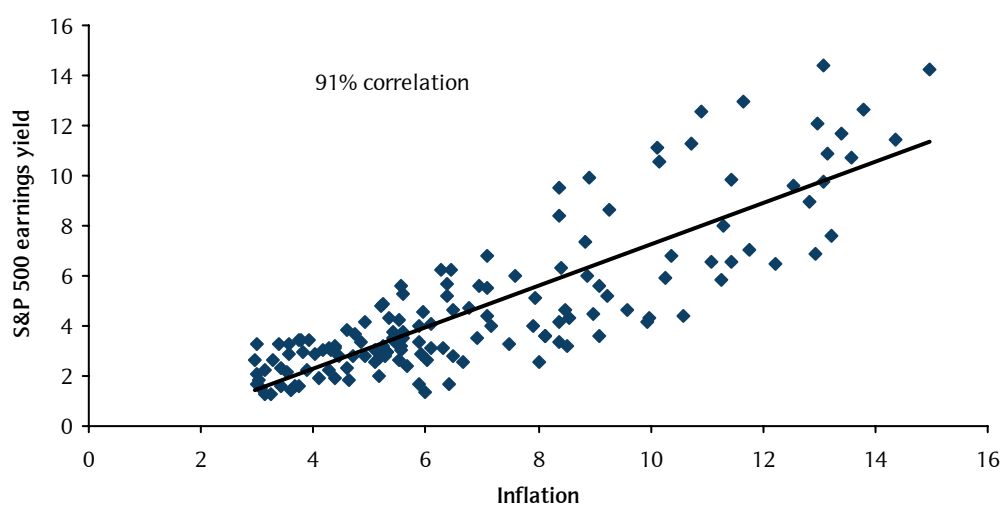
Figure 12: Weekly correlation, oil price, 12-month forward US equity PE ratio, lagged two weeks



Source: Factset, Haver.

This relationship is very much in line with the long-run positive correlation between headline inflation and the US market PE earnings yield ($100/PE$). Since 1971, the average correlation between quarterly observations of these two series is positive 91%.

Figure 13: Correlation, 1970-to-date, quarterly S&P 500 trailing earnings yield and headline inflation rate (% Y/Y)



Source: Haver.

So the recent evidence of sector returns and the oil-inflation-PE ratio linkage suggests that the relationship between the energy system and market returns is alive and well. Thus far, the liaison between the energy theme and the markets has been simplistic, based largely on the premise that future energy supply is insecure and requires significant capital investment. Certainly, as we have seen, that is the tale told by the energy forward curves. The story so far has been more or less a straight reprise of the 1970s, without so much of that decade's inflation.

However, as the climate-related energy theme starts to influence market thinking, which will occur as the political commitment to policy changes becomes more obvious, the interplay between the energy scarcity and energy source reallocation themes will

become far, far more complex. Securing sufficient fresh capital to accommodate a 50% increase in long-term energy demand is one thing; simultaneously replacing 80% of the existing energy infrastructure with alternative energy technologies is quite another. Meanwhile, the macroeconomy will likely be influenced by a progressive incorporation of externalities into the price level. In the interim – which is where we are right now – a high level of uncertainty will exist as the eventual framework for climate change policies is hammered out at the international level. Once a global policy is established, the existing level of uncertainty will fall and, in so doing, will alter the discount rates for the relevant enterprises. Discount rates for clean energy activities will drop and those applying to the old hydrocarbon economy will rise. These changes will lead to large changes in the net present value of the various energy and energy-related assets. It is worth noting that these shifts will apply at a national, as well as corporate, level, perhaps becoming incorporated into credit spreads and foreign exchange values. Needless to say, we expect a sizeable increase in capital expenditures. The principal beneficiaries of the energy revolution may very well turn out to be the companies that build the new clean energy infrastructure, much as the industrial goods and services sector benefited in the 1970s.

Since there are very few human – and no economic – activities that do not require an energy input, there is no section of our economy that will remain untouched by these changes. The task of managing this change might sound hopeless, but when one recalls that over half the existing global energy infrastructure needs to be replaced in any case over the next 25 years, the outlook grows less Sisyphean. In a similar vein, vast sums of capital were mobilised to build the information technology economy during the 1990s, a significant portion of which were squandered on hopeless innovations with very little overall detraction to growth. Indeed, in the five years after one of the largest misallocations of capital in history, the global economy enjoyed its fastest pace of growth for 30 years.

A shortage of capital is certainly not an obstacle to implementing the investment demanded by climate change and energy scarcity. Indeed, given a suitable policy framework, investment in energy supply may become more attractive to the large pool of pension fund assets, currently searching for stable, long-term, inflation-linked products. The nature of the current energy supply business ranges right across the spectrum of risk, from tightly regulated utilities to speculative wildcatters. However, the shift away from a hydrocarbon economy may also shift the business towards the less risky end of this spectrum. The very nature of the hydrocarbon business, characterised by uncertain geology in politically unstable or unpalatable countries with challenging operating terrains is, in part, responsible for the energy sector's reputation as a higher risk investment. A hydroelectric station in Scotland has a rather different level of inherent risk to a drilling rig in Iraq. The basic argument would be that many clean energy sources – wind, water, geothermal are obvious examples – are innately less risky than hydrocarbons because their input costs are much more stable. A good part of the historical risk in clean energy business models is actually imported from the wild swings in hydrocarbon prices, which by turn render the clean model uncompetitive or viable. So as the regulatory mesh tightens around the energy business, with the relative pricing of different fuel sources subject to an imposed discrimination based on emissions, there is an opportunity for policymakers to remove some of the volatility of returns that often plague the sector. The case in favour of a completely free market in energy has been undone by the inability of the market to find a clearing price in the 1980s and 1990s that was compatible with sustained long-term investment. The energy price spikes of the past three years are a clear example that open markets often fail when dealing with long-term horizons. With a tighter government control on energy pricing and less

volatile inputs, the energy supply business should become characterised by more stable and predictable returns. Governments could thus mobilise the pension capital of their aging populations behind energy revolution.

The energy revolution is not dissimilar in scale to the technology revolution. Meanwhile, the financial world is characterised by a superabundance of return-seeking capital of a scale not seen since the late nineteenth century. If ever the time were ripe for such an energy revolution, it is now. And like all historical adoptions of general purpose technologies, the process should prove immensely stimulative to economic growth. Oddly, the climate change policy debate is couched in terms of the cost to GDP growth. Even the proponents of policy shifts tend to assume a negative effect on growth. This stance is underselling the actual impact of an energy revolution. All of the historical changes in energy supply – from dung to wood to coal to oil – were stimulative for the economy concerned. Every major technological change was accompanied or followed by faster economic growth. To be sure, innovation can sometimes fail to meet the challenge of external threats, but the requirement now is as much for application of existing technologies as it is for innovation. The outlook for the next few years will be dominated, we believe, by the twin energy themes. It will be coloured both by high levels of risk and uncertainty, but also by extraordinary returns. Above all else, the impact of the replacement, restructuring and expansion of our energy infrastructure cannot be ignored. Just as the personal computer cannot be un-invented, neither can the impending energy revolution. And if it doesn't happen, nothing else will.

Chapter 2 – Monkey business

Tim Bond

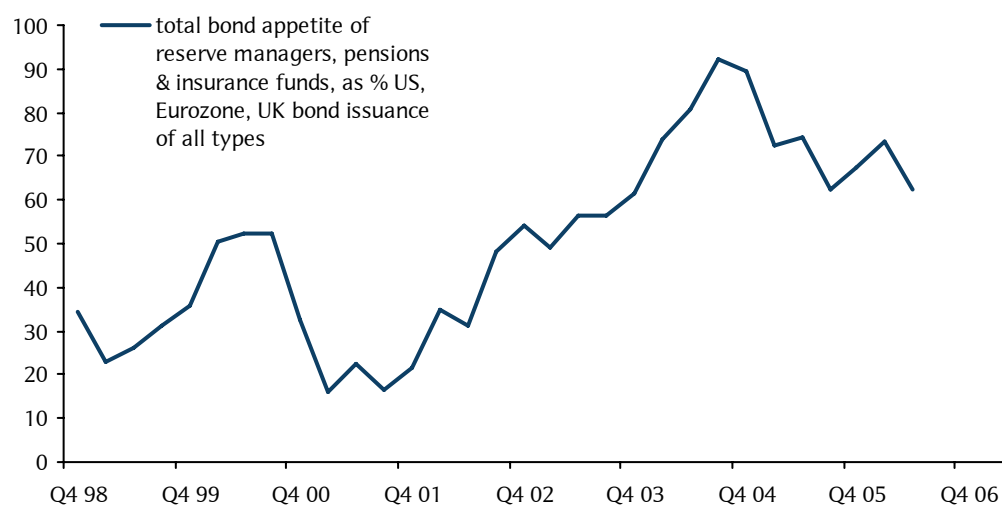
Forward-looking measures of the equity risk premium remain at high levels in comparison with the historical average. We discuss why this should be the case, analysing the connection between past volatility and equity valuations relative to other asset classes. We consider the relative riskiness of equities compared to bonds and the feasibility of hedging away equity volatility.

Bear markets cast long shadows. For the fourth consecutive year, financial market valuations in 2006 were characterised by higher-than-average prospective equity risk premia. Relative to the fixed income and property markets, equity yields have traded at unusually elevated levels since the end of 2002. This statement is true of most major geographical regions. Equity yields are also inexpensive compared to the historical average. The PE on the S&P 500, for example, is close to its 130-year mean of 15.5. PE ratios in the UK and Europe, at 12-14, are explicitly cheap to the long-run average. Cheap equity valuations, however, are mostly found in the large cap sector, whose weightings dominate the main benchmark equity indices. Mid-cap and small-cap valuations are more expensive, buoyed by the recent period of very easy credit conditions and the associated M&A and LBO trends.

Conversely, bond and real estate yields are at very low levels, with yield curves, ex-Japan, flat or inverted. Bond market time and duration risk premiums – the extra yield earned for lending for longer periods – are either minimal or negative. Credit spreads, whether for emerging market or corporate debt, are also very tight – in some cases at record lows. It is certainly true that very low levels of corporate leverage justify narrow credit spreads. However, low corporate leverage ratios are more a function of very buoyant profit growth than a subdued corporate borrowing appetite. Indeed, corporate borrowing has been brisk over the past couple of years, as the sector – in aggregate – has been issuing debt to retire equity. Given the relative pricing of equity and debt, the corporate borrowing requirement is likely to stay strong over the medium term. The same cannot be said of the trend for profits, which will eventually submit to the usual cyclical pressures. Neither spot credit spreads – nor indeed their forward values – contain any extra risk premium to compensate investors for this near-inevitable progression in the cycle. In a similar vein, where calculable, risk premiums in alternative asset markets are also slim in comparison to history. The negative roll yield on commodity index investments is a case in point, directly illustrating how flows into a popular asset class have eliminated part of the prospective return that made the asset class attractive in the first place.

The persistence of high equity yields relative to yields on other assets begs an explanation. In a purely mechanical sense, the causal factors are easy to identify. Capital flows from global foreign exchange reserve managers, pension funds and insurance companies have strongly favoured bonds over equities since the end of the equity bear market. The increased appetite for bond investment has been very large in relation to the supply of bonds. Figure 14 illustrates this point, showing how the aggregate demand for bonds from global reserve managers and US/European pension and insurance funds has risen from an average of just over 30% of total annual net European and US bond issuance (of all types) to an average of 75% of new issues.

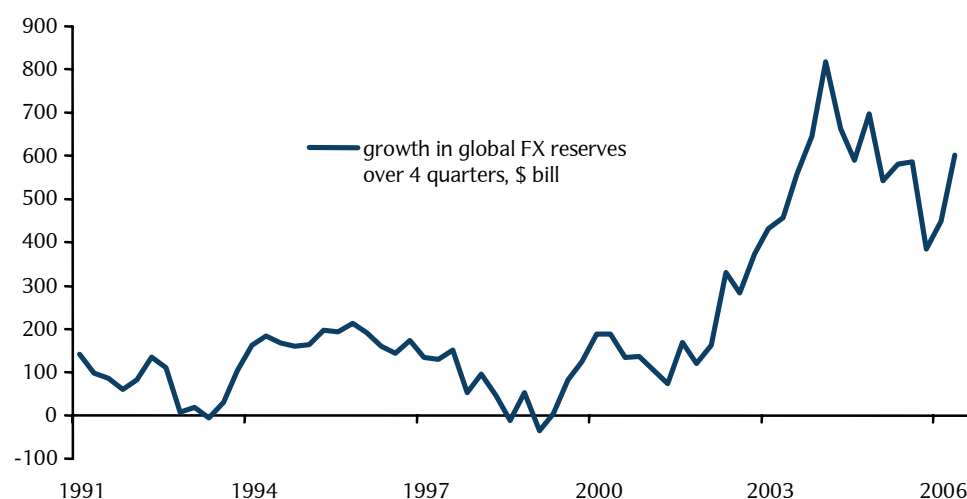
Figure 14: US, UK, eurozone pension and insurance bond buying, plus global reserve growth, expressed as a percentage of total US, UK, eurozone bond issuance of all types



Source: Haver, EcoWin.

Considering each of these factors in turn, we can state that global foreign exchange reserve managers have an extremely high appetite for bonds because FX reserve growth – due to a combination of managed currency regimes and oil producer current account surpluses – is exceptionally strong. Figure 15 displays the growth in global foreign exchange reserves, highlighting the dramatic acceleration from 2003 onwards.

Figure 15: Global foreign exchange reserve growth, \$ bn, annual



Source: EcoWin, IMF.

The growth in reserves occurs in part because some trade surplus economies run managed foreign exchange regimes. Meanwhile, the surge in oil prices has increased the revenues of oil-producing nations faster than they spend them, the balance being temporarily parked in foreign exchange reserves. The depression of global long-term interest rates is not, therefore, a natural function of global trade imbalances, as is often argued. Rather, the depression in interest rates occurs because an unusually large portion of global trade receipts are ending up in the hands of official reserve managers, whose choice of asset classes has been constrained to high quality bonds, bills and cash. In the absence of managed currency regimes, the proportion of trade receipts going to

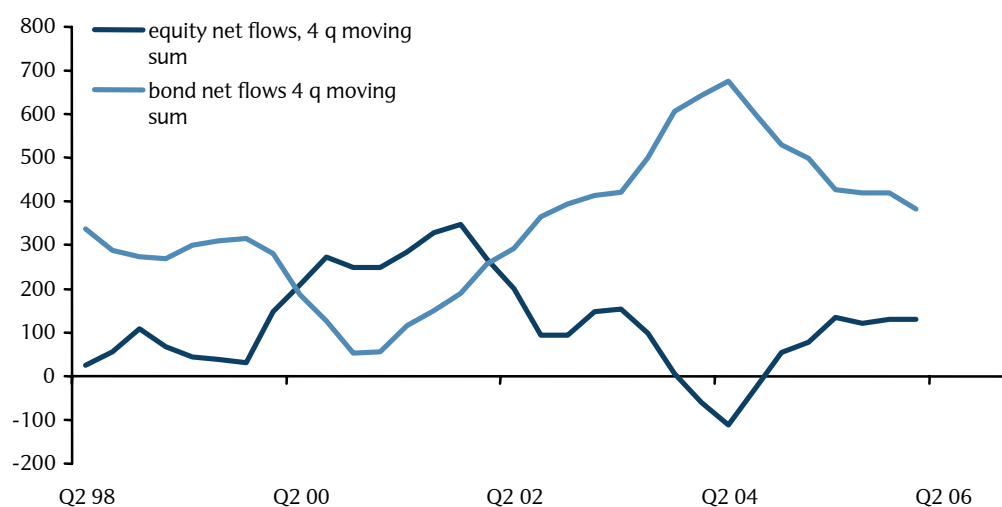
reserve managers would be far smaller, as would the proportion of global capital being channelled into bond markets. The same can be said of the rally in oil prices and reserve growth among the oil-producing nations.

The lack of bond market risk premium is not, therefore, attributable to global imbalances, but to a coincidence of factors. Crucially, these factors cannot be expected to persist indefinitely. Many reserve managers, including China and other Asian central banks, have accumulated reserves far in excess of the level appropriate for fundamental requirements. Consequently, they are starting to actively diversify their excess reserves out of bonds into higher return asset classes. In a similar vein, most of Asia – again including China – are either allowing exchange rate appreciation or moving towards a floating exchange rate. Finally, the oil price cannot be expected to rally indefinitely, particularly given likely international action to reduce the demand for hydrocarbon-based energy supplies. That portion of the depression of bond market risk premia that is attributable to global reserve managers – and their flows are responsible for the lion's share (60-70%) of this phenomenon – should be considered temporary.

A popular alternative explanation for the depression of bond yields is that the world suffers from a condition of excess savings relative to investment. This explanation is flawed because it fails to explain why equity yields remain elevated, when yields on other assets are depressed. A condition of excess saving would surely be characterised by depressed yields on all assets.

Turning to the pension and insurance world, it is clear that European, US and UK long-term investors have displayed little appetite for equities and a pronounced liking for bonds ever since the end of the equity bear market. This factor also helps explain why equities trade cheap relative to other asset classes. Figure 16 illustrates the point, showing aggregate flows into equities and bonds by US and European pension and insurance companies since 1998. From 2002, net investment has overwhelmingly favoured bonds over equities.

Figure 16: UK, US, eurozone, net flows in \$ bn, equities and bonds, four-quarter moving sum, all pension, insurance and state or local government retirement schemes



Source: Haver, Datastream.

The exhibits above provide a technical explanation for why bond market risk premiums are so low. With so much of the net bond supply being absorbed by long-term money managers and foreign exchange reserve managers, there are few bonds left to satisfy

the appetites of all the other financial market actors, such as mutual funds, households, hedge funds, banks, and hedgers. It should be noted in passing that the bond-buying appetite of some members of this latter group of market participants has also increased. There has been a widespread trend in which leverage is used to meet high-return targets in a low-yield environment. This is particularly notable in the credit markets. In itself, the increased demand for bonds driven by increased leverage is a factor depressing yields. The increased use of leverage as a mechanism to circumvent low yields also renders the system far more brittle than might have previously been the case. History shows unequivocally that leverage is never the correct response to low prospective returns from any asset class. As is invariably the case, markets are failing to recall a primary lesson of financial history, which is that expensive assets should be sold, not levered.

Although the combination of trade imbalances and managed currency regimes provides an adequate explanation for the explosive growth in foreign exchange reserves, the asset preferences of pension and insurance managers are a little harder to explain. As we have commented in previous editions of this study, a good part of the answer is provided by changes in accounting practice and solvency regulations in the wake of the equity bear market. The general thrust of these changes towards a mark-to-market accounting framework has been to significantly increase the consideration given to equity volatility in asset allocation decisions. Meanwhile, the adoption of IAS19 accounting standards for pensions and the use of spot bond yields to discount pension liabilities mean that the accounting value of these liabilities now moves in line with bonds.

For a fuller discussion of the interplay between pension legislation and asset allocation, we refer readers to last year's edition of our study. Suffice it to say in the present context that we do not believe that there is any *a priori* natural linkage between bond yields and pension liabilities. Indeed, both the choice of bond yields as the discounting mechanism and the practice of valuing assets at spot market prices seem rather arbitrary. In tandem, they might be provoking inefficient asset allocations by pension funds. To offer an example, diversification out of quoted equities into private equity is a popular pension fund trend. Private equity, by definition, does not have a liquid secondary market, so valuations are typically conducted on the basis of infrequent accounting updates. Unsurprisingly, historical returns appear to be much less volatile than those of quoted equities, whose prospects are subjected to minute-by-minute judgment in the stock market. Yet private equity is simply public equity with additional layers of leverage; it is therefore likely to be a good deal more risky than quoted equity markets, while several orders of magnitude more expensive in management fee structures. However, pension funds that are overly focussed on the reported volatility of their assets in the sponsor's accounts may find private equity attractive. From an accounting perspective, private equity might appear to be a lower-risk investment than quoted equities, while delivering historical returns that display low correlations with equities. In the real world, nothing could be further from the truth.

Meanwhile, the volatility of the accounted value of pension liabilities that is being generated by the practice of discounting forward values with volatile long bond yields may have distracted pension sponsors from some more serious risks. Widespread hedging of this "interest rate risk" has been visible, even though the risk is essentially only of an accounting nature. Increasing longevity is actually the main risk to defined benefit pensions and bond investment is no hedge to this risk. Equity investments are probably a better hedge to longevity, given their open-ended duration, in contrast to bonds that offer a limited duration and significant reinvestment risk. Although there are almost no assets that might be considered a reasonable hedge against longevity risks, prudence suggests that a surplus of assets over liabilities is the appropriate approach to the problem. In this respect, maximising total returns from assets would be the logical

goal. This would be particularly the case if a postponement of retirement ages lengthens the period before which payments need to be made and therefore extends the period under which pension plans can invest in relatively risky assets. It is, however, unfortunate that the volatility of the reported pension deficit, generated by changes in market interest rates and hence the discount rate for pension liabilities, has focussed sponsor attention on hedging interest rate risks. Such hedges only limit accounting risks and do nothing to address longevity risks. Indeed, insofar as interest rate hedging makes a call on sponsor contributions or on the assets of the fund, the practice may actually be worsening longevity risks because the capital that is employed to hedge a purely paper risk is then not available to hedge a real risk.

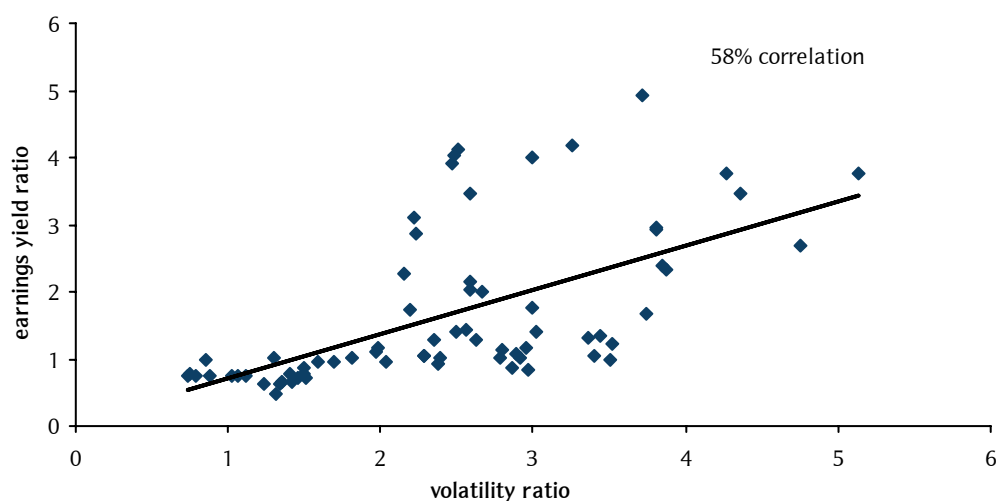
Perhaps a more efficient mechanism for satisfying the need for a clear and easily understood yardstick for measuring pension funding would be to require sponsors to publish the discount rate – ie, the required return on assets – needed to meet the cash flow projections of pension liabilities. Regulators, accountants and investors could then judge whether the discount rate was realistic, in light of the prospective returns from asset markets and the risk-bearing capabilities (creditworthiness) of the pension sponsor. Clearly such an assessment is a more complex process than the simple calculation performed under the prevailing regime. However, the assessment of a pension plan's solvency is necessarily complicated and involves judgement on a range of probabilities rather than precise point estimates. The process is not amenable to a reduction to point numbers and efforts to do just that are causing more problems than they are solving.

However, in the near term, pension fund asset allocation in Europe and to some extent in the US is being driven by the prevailing set of accounting and regulatory conventions. Much the same can be said of insurance companies. Broadly, these conventions discourage fresh investment in quoted equities and incentivise investment in long-dated bonds. To a degree, these flows are visible in capital allocations described above. Such cash flows are the tip of an iceberg, the bulk of which consists of derivative contracts in inflation and interest rates. These latter flows are subsequently hedged in the cash markets, contributing the persistent environment of high equity yields, low long-term bond yields and low real yields.

Historical equity volatility as a governor for the ex ante equity risk premium

Nonetheless, it would be wrong to blame the change in long-term investor tastes entirely on accounting and regulatory changes. US-defined benefit pension funds have evinced an even lower appetite for buying equities than their European brethren, even though changes to pension fund accounting comparable to the European standards have yet to be enforced. In fact, the surge in post-bubble equity distaste has many historical parallels. History shows that relative equity valuations generally reflect past, not future, risks. To judge from the evidence, it seems that the relative volatility of actual, realised equity and bond returns is a key determinant of how equities are priced relative to bonds. So the forward-looking risk premium for equities relative to bonds appears to be typically determined by the past actual risk of equities relative to bonds. Figure 17 shows the correlation between the US earnings yield ratio (trailing S&P 500 earnings yield/20 yr Treasury bond yield) and the differential between annual bond and equity volatility (standard deviation of annual returns) over the preceding 10 years. The underlying data sample runs from 1925 to 2005.

Figure 17: Correlation, S&P 500 trailing earnings yield ratio, ratio of 10-year rolling standard deviation of equity returns to 10-year rolling standard deviation of bond returns



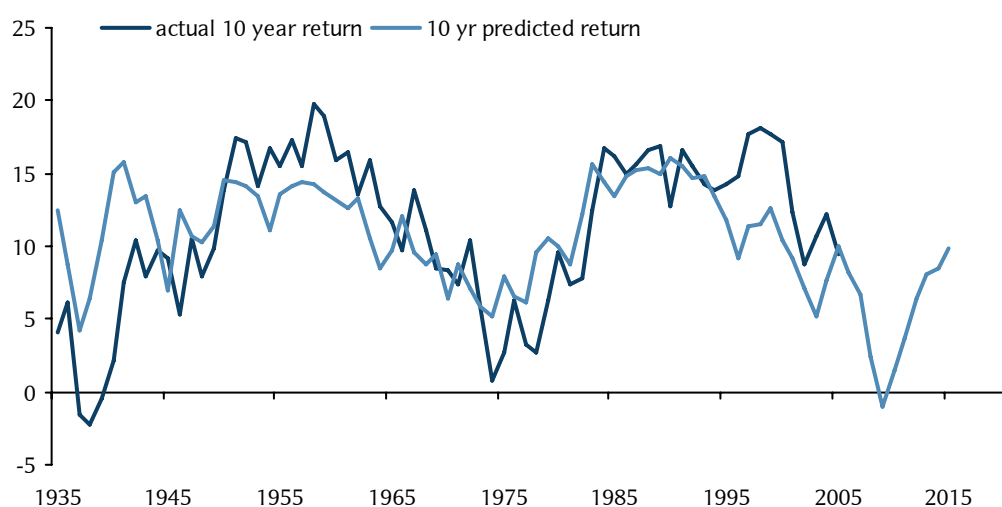
Source: Shiller, Barclays Capital.

Inasmuch as the earnings yield ratio is a measure of the forward-looking equity risk premium, the analysis tells us that its determination is partly derived from our experience, over reasonably prolonged periods of time, of relative equity and bond return volatility. Encouragingly, we do not appear to make snap judgments on the basis of very recent experience, but tend to judge on the basis of average experience over several years. Nonetheless, we cannot evade the inescapable fact that a forward-looking, expectational measure is formulated on the basis of backward-looking data. Today's condition of high equity yields relative to bond yields is a function of the equity market's high volatility relative to bond volatility over the past decade or so. Thus, the ex ante equity risk premium is in good part determined by the ex post risk ratio between equities and bonds.

Predicting equity returns and the equity risk premium

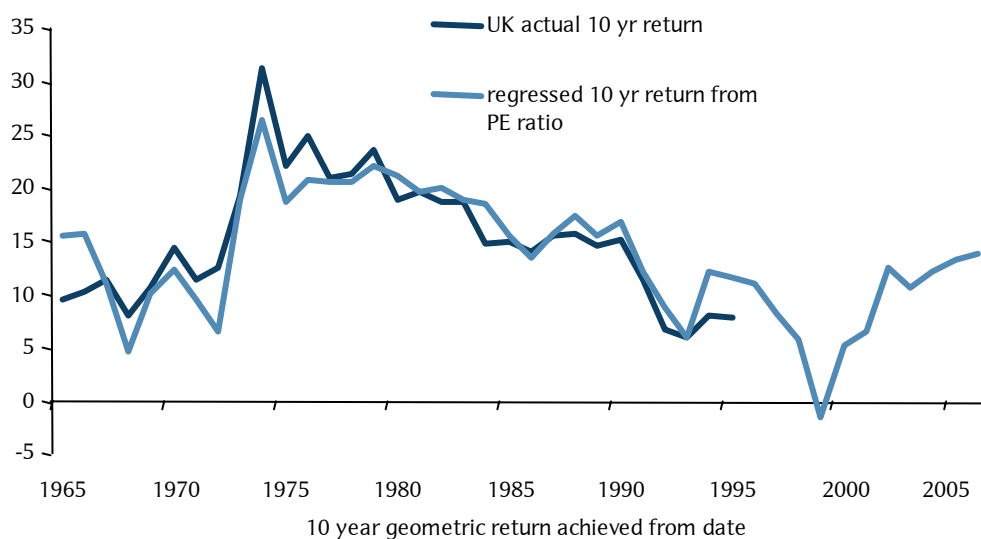
It may appear natural to price future risks on the basis of past risks but, in fact, the process is illogical. Fairly obviously, just because equities have displayed high volatility relative to bonds over the past 10 years, there is no guarantee that they will continue to evince such behaviour. We believe this situation presents patient investors with an exploitable opportunity. History tells us that the forward-looking equity risk premium – equity yield relative to bond yields – is a reasonable guide to the realised equity risk premium – the actual outperformance an investor will capture from owning equities in the future. It should be no surprise that bond yields and interest rates determine subsequent bond and cash returns. In the same vein – as we showed in last year's study – equity yields, in the shape of PE ratios, are an effective guide to future average equity returns. To prove this latter point, consider the following three figures, in which we show the relationship between PE ratios and subsequent rolling returns from equities in the US, UK and German markets. The graphs display actual rolling nominal returns and returns regressed from the PE ratio at the start of each of these periods. As you should be able to see, the relationships are strong and the models robust.

Figure 18: US equity returns over rolling 10-year periods, actual and regressed from PE ratio at start of each period



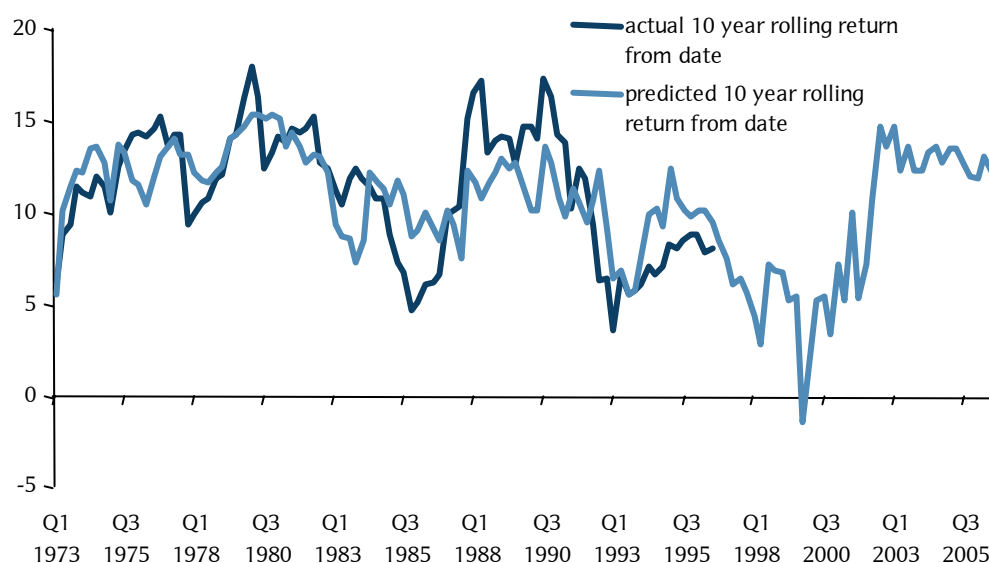
Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 19: UK equity returns over rolling 10-year periods, actual and regressed from PE ratio at the start of each period



Source: Datastream, Barclays Capital.

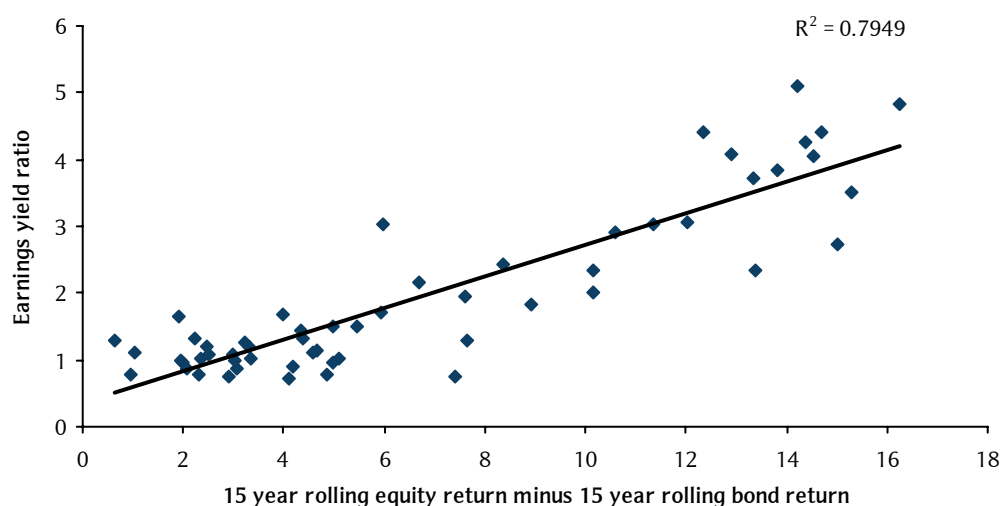
Figure 20: German equity returns over rolling 10-year periods, actual regressed from PE ratio at the start of each period



Source: Datastream.

Given the correlation between bond and equity yields and their subsequent returns, it is unsurprising to find that the ratio between bond and equity yields also gives a good steer on the future performance of bonds relative to equities. Figure 21 displays the historical correlation between the US earnings yield ratio and the future average US equity return minus the bond return. In other words, this graph shows the correlation between forward looking measures of the equity risk premium on any given date and the equity risk premium that is actually realised after that date.

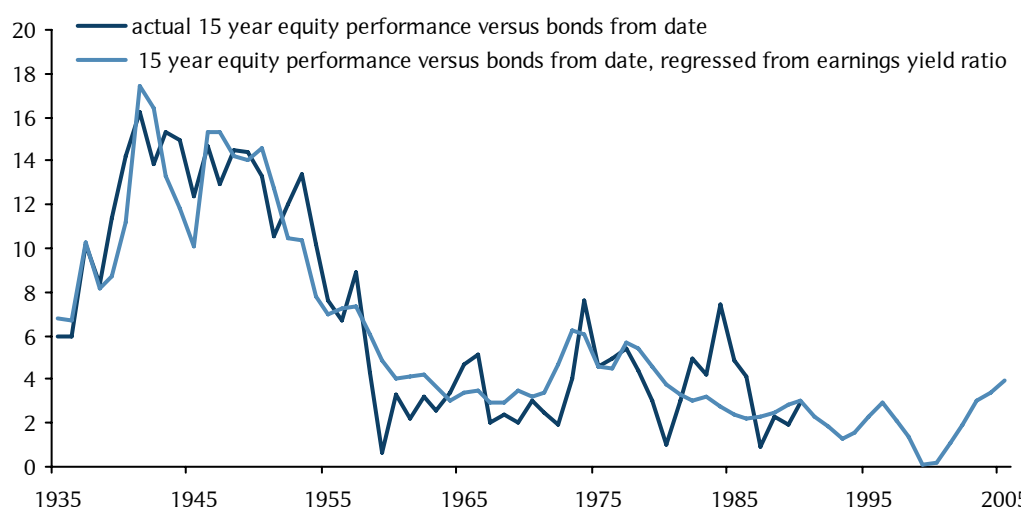
Figure 21: Correlation, US earnings yield ratio and subsequent realised US equity risk premium over bonds, 15-year rolling periods



Source: CRSP, Shiller.

The statistical relationship is strong enough to allow modelling. Figure 22 displays the results of this exercise using our CRSP US database, where we have used the trailing earnings yield ratio as the sole variable in a regression against subsequent 15-year average equity return minus bond return. The graph confirms that the earnings yield ratio is a good predictor of the long-term ex-post equity risk premium.

Figure 22: Rolling 15-year realised US equity risk premium, actual and modelled from the earnings yield ratio at the start of each 15-year period



Source: CRSP, Shiller.

To summarise, the level of the forward-looking equity risk premium – defined here as the trailing earnings yield ratio – tends to be determined in good part by the collective experience of the past relative volatility of equity returns relative to bond returns. In turn, the forward-looking equity risk premium has historically proven a good guide to the subsequent realised equity risk premium. We note that this analysis only holds good for relatively extended time periods. For periods under five years, the statistical basis for these assertions weakens. In other words, the earnings yield ratio is only a good guide to future equity returns relative to bonds when we consider longer-run averages. In short, it is easier to predict long-run equity returns – both relative and absolute – than short-run returns, because the passage of time smoothes away the randomness of short-term equity returns. In essence, equity returns are unevenly distributed over time.

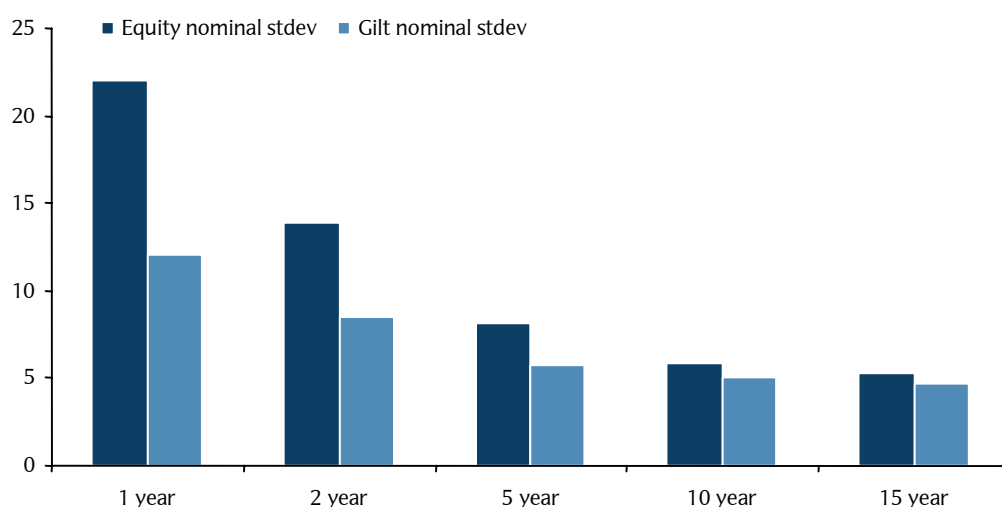
To relate these findings to the current situation, we can say that the elevated level of ex ante equity risk premium reflects the rise in equity volatility relative to bond volatility in the late 1990s and earlier in the present decade. Conversely, the high level of ex ante equity risk premium is strongly suggestive – if history is any guide – of a higher realised equity return versus bonds over the next 5 to 15 years. To be more specific, the US markets are suggestive of a future realised risk premium of around 4% over bonds, in line with the long-run average, while the more cheaply valued European markets suggest an excess equity return of 7-8% over the next decade, higher than average. In the UK, the evidence points to a realised equity risk premium of around 7%. These risk premiums apply to equity investments made at current valuations. Put simply, the fact that long-term pension, insurance and foreign exchange reserve managers are currently eschewing equity investment in favour of bond investment has created a relative valuation of equities and bonds that is strongly biased towards producing outperformance from the former asset class.

This analysis is very much in line with common sense. Intuitively, the equity risk premium exists to compensate investors for the higher volatility of equities relative to bonds. Periods of high equity volatility versus bonds give rise to a demand for high forward-looking equity risk premia and visa versa. Equities are much more volatile than bonds in the short run, but tend to outperform over the longer run, the latter return being compensation for the former risk.

The relationship of equity volatility to time and inflation

As is often observed, the relative risk of equities declines with the length of time over which they are held. To be specific, annual equity returns are more volatile than two-year geometric annual returns which are more volatile than five-year geometric annual returns. Figure 23 illustrates this point, showing the standard deviation of annual or annualised nominal returns from UK equities and gilts over varying holding periods. The volatility of both asset classes is “smoothed” lower with a lengthening holding period, but equity volatility falls faster than bond volatility.

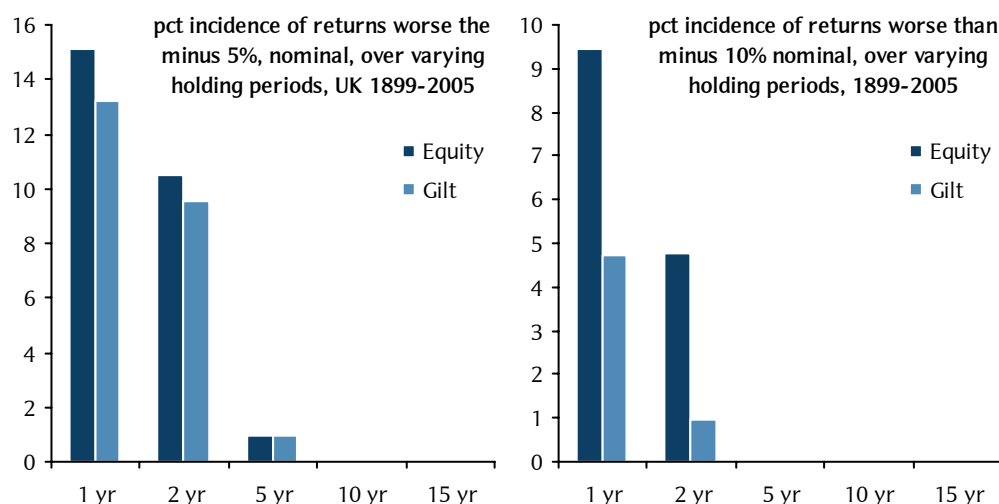
Figure 23: Standard deviation of annual and geometric annualised UK equity and gilt returns, nominal, 1899-2005, varying rolling time periods



Source: Barclays Capital.

This is true both of incidence of losses and the volatility of returns. Of course, the probability of losing 10% from equities in any given year is the same no matter the holding period. But the historical probability of losing 10% over the holding period diminishes as the holding period lengthens. Figure 24 displays the percentage occurrence of average annual losses greater than 5% and 10% over varying holding periods in the UK markets. As can be seen, the incidence of losses is higher for equities over any holding period shorter than five years. More importantly, perhaps, the occurrence of severe losses – defined as greater than a 10% loss – is substantially higher for equities compared to bonds. However, as the length of holding period extends, so the risk of making an equity loss declines, both outright and relative to bonds. For holding periods of five years or longer, the incidence of losses greater than 5% or 10% is the same for equities and gilts. The underlying data sample runs from 1899-2005.

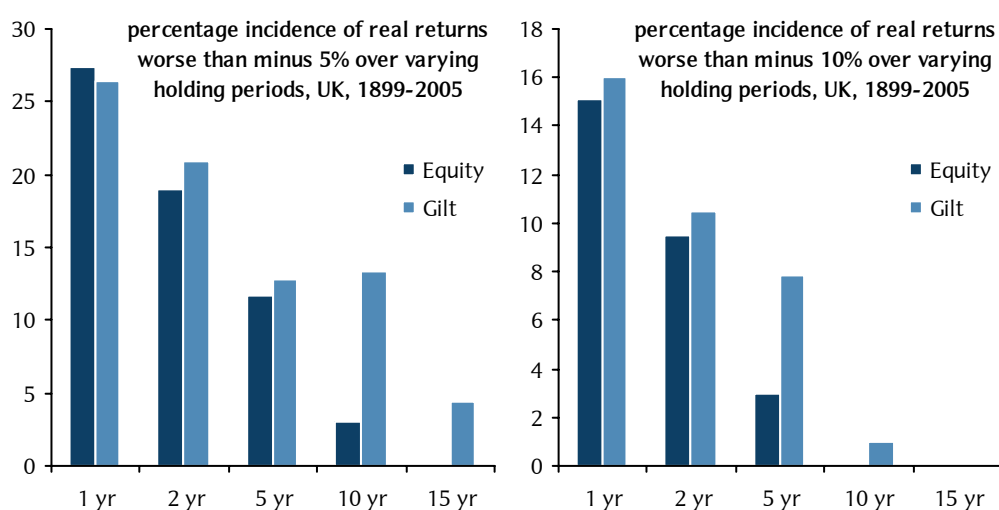
Figure 24: Percentage occurrence of nominal average losses greater than 5% and 10% over varying holding periods, UK equities and gilts, 1899-2005



Source: Barclays Capital.

At first blush, the relative incidence of equity and gilt losses seems to support the logic of the equity risk premium compensating investors for the shorter-term excess volatility of equities. However, this logic starts to evaporate when we consider real returns rather than nominal returns. Once we adjust for inflation, it becomes clear that the risk differential between equities and bonds is far narrower than when we consider only nominal returns. Indeed, as the graph on the right hand side of Figure 24 should serve to illustrate, the historical occurrence of real losses greater than 10% is lower for equities compared to gilts for all holding periods of one year and longer. To reiterate this important point, the historical record shows that equities display fewer incidences of real losses in excess of 10% than do gilts, over any rolling holding period of one year or longer. This is true of the historical record from 1899 to 2006.

Figure 25: Percentage occurrence of real average losses greater than 5% and 10%, over varying holding periods, UK equities and gilts, 1899-2005

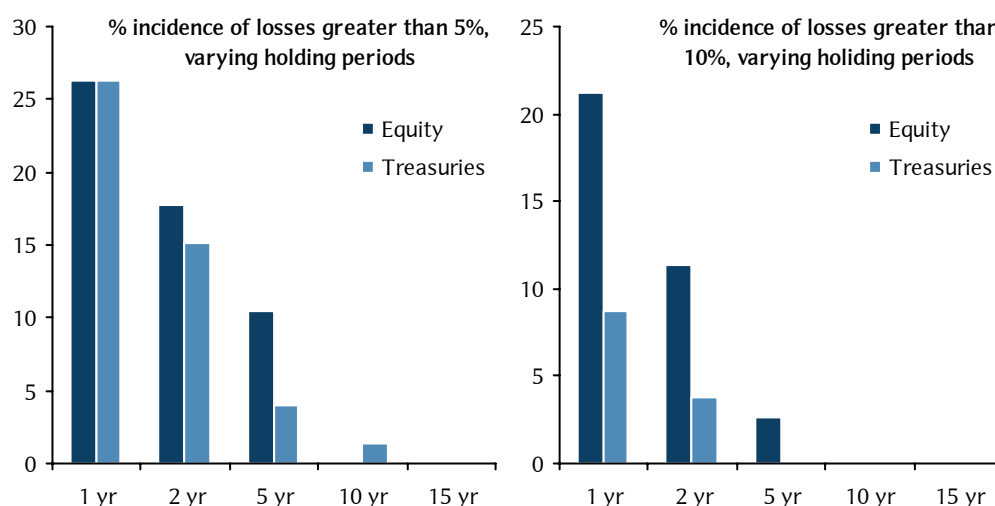


Source: Barclays Capital.

Of course, this finding reflects the UK's history of very high inflation. If we consider the incidence of losses in the US, where inflation averaged lower levels than the UK in the twentieth century, we do not find quite the same distribution of risk. The higher

riskiness, in real terms, of US equities is not just a function of the different sample period. We repeated the exercise for UK real return data starting in 1926 and found that the incidence of losses after adjusting for inflation – either greater than 5% or greater than 10% – was higher for gilts than equities over any holding period longer than a year.

Figure 26: Percentage incidence of real losses greater than 5% and 10%, US real equity and bond returns, over varying holding periods, 1926-to-date



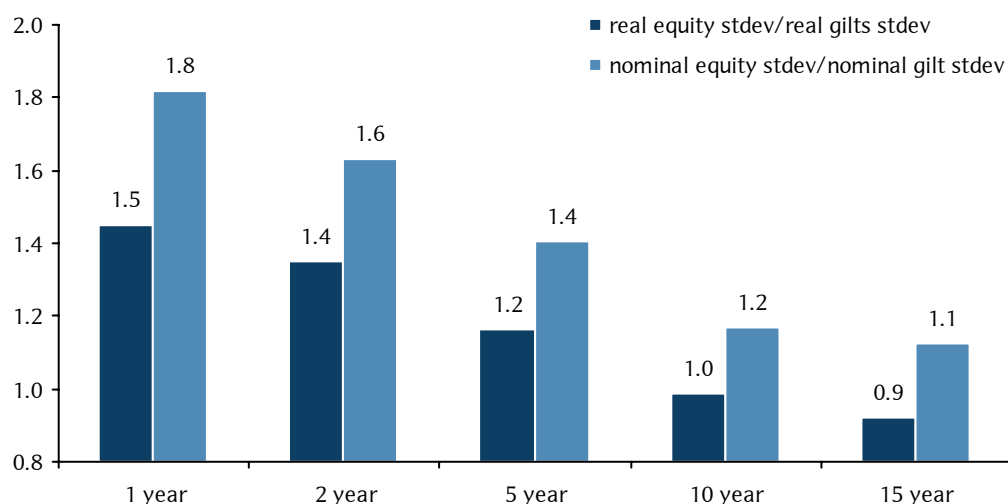
Source: CRSP.

This analysis can be summarised as follows.

- 1) The relative riskiness of equities compared to bonds declines as the period of time over which the returns are calculated lengthens. This is because returns are generally positive and sporadic periods of losses are averaged away.
- 2) In real terms, equities are much less risky compared to bonds than they are in nominal terms.
- 3) Further, if average inflation rates are high enough, equities are actually less risky than bonds.

If we consider equity risk in terms of the volatility of returns, rather than just the occurrence of loss, much the same findings apply. The difference between equity and bond volatility is smaller in real terms than it is in nominal terms. As the holding period lengthens, the volatility of real equity returns declines faster than the volatility of real bond returns. For holding periods of 10 years or longer, our UK history shows that equities are less volatile, in real terms, than gilt returns.

Figure 27: Ratio of equity volatility to gilt volatility, real and nominal, over varying holding periods, 1899-2005



Source: FTSE, Barclays Capital.

Monkey investors

Our analyses can be boiled down to a single axiom, which is that the relative riskiness of equities to other asset classes depends on the intended holding period and the rate of inflation. A secondary point is also apparent, which is that the realised average equity risk premium – 4% in the UK and 4.7% in US – is considerably higher than the relative riskiness of equities to bonds. The explanation for the high equity return is most probably found in the process by which the forward-looking risk premium is set. As described above, it appears to be set on the basis of the average relative volatility of returns experienced over the medium term. However, since past volatility is not necessarily a good guide to future volatility, at least over reasonably long periods of time, the forward-looking risk premium is not always going to be appropriately aligned with subsequent actual risks. In short, after periods of high volatility, equities become cheaply valued, from which point they then deliver excess returns.

In the same vein, behavioural economics shows that investors' desired risk/return profile is not evenly distributed, exhibiting a much greater sensitivity to losses than might be expected. Such innate caution most probably results in an overweighting of loss probabilities, in turn giving rise to the excessive equity risk premium. The bias is likely to be hardwired into humans as part of a package of reflex reactions to danger that would have provided survival benefits during the early years of human evolution. A well-considered cost/benefit analysis of the probability of being eaten by a nearby predator is unlikely to be an effective survival technique in comparison with running very fast at the first sign of danger. In short, humans are biased by evolution to over-react to danger, since such over-reactions would have generated higher survival – and hence gene succession – rates in the past. And since early human culture was tribal or familial, we are also programmed to react to secondary danger signals in the shape of the behavioural patterns exhibited by other members of the social unit. In short, we are programmed to find panic – and indeed the opposite condition of complacency – infectious. However, while panic may indeed be an appropriate survival technique for the savannah, it does not translate entirely happily to the financial jungle.

No free lunch

A sizeable industry has grown up within the financial markets, seeking to satisfy the institutional requirement for less volatile short-term equity returns. The equity options and derivatives market has expanded dramatically to accommodate these needs. The difference between implied equity volatility and realised volatility is essentially the price that investors are prepared to pay to avoid short-term volatility. The price is typically quite steep and is the main reason why the simple addition of a long position in equity volatility to a cash equity portfolio is less efficacious than might be supposed in dampening actual portfolio volatility: the gap between implied volatility (which is what the investor pays to own volatility) and actual volatility (which is what the investor receives) is a heavily negative return strategy. Furthermore, not only is there a large gap between implied and actual equity volatility, but most markets exhibit a volatility skew, whereby puts are more expensive than calls. More subtly, equity index implied volatility is generally priced higher than warranted by the sum of the individual and cross-correlated volatilities of the constituent parts.

These differences are explained by the general biases exhibited by the end-users of equity derivatives. Flows into equity derivatives are typically from long-term real money managers and structured products buyers. The common strategies employed by the former involve selling upside index calls to purchase downside puts or writing covered calls on individual stocks that they may own and on which they have a more bearish opinion than the market. Meanwhile, structured products typically offer potential upside index participation via long index calls and enhanced yield via short option sales on single stocks. This is because index options are necessarily cheaper – because the level of volatility is usually lower – in absolute terms – than single stock options. Hence greater index upside participation is gained from index calls, while a greater running yield is achieved by single-stock short option sales. The general effect of these flow biases is to over-price implied volatility relative to actual volatility, impart a pronounced skew to the volatility curve and inflate the price of index implied volatility over the sum of its constituent parts.

While the strategy of curtailing near-term equity volatility via the use of derivative strategies appears to make sense, over the longer run it will likely eliminate the point of owning equities, which is their higher return. The equity risk premium is the compensation for the short-run variability or volatility of equity returns. Investors who attempt to limit the downside volatility by continuously owning puts will rapidly discover that the cost of such an insurance scheme will average out higher than the return from equities. Typically, investors evade these costs by executing zero cost option strategies, in which some of the potential upside in equities is given away via the sale of calls, the proceeds being used to finance the purchase of puts. However, because the positive return from equities is very unevenly distributed from year to year, such strategies drastically lower longer-run returns. This is because the excess positive returns in good years make up for lower returns in poor years. In addition, the popularity of such option overlay programmes is such that index puts are typically more expensive than the equivalent call. To illustrate this point, we calculated what UK equity returns would have been since 1899 had such a typical option protection strategy (out-the-money call sale – out-the-money put purchase for zero cost) would have returned. We assumed a constant implied-volatility skew, under which the sale of 7% OTM calls purchased the equivalent 10% OTM downside put protection. It is probably little surprise to find that the option-protection strategy almost completely eliminated the equity risk premium. While unprotected equities returned a geometric annual average of 5.2%, 1899-2005, the option-protected strategy delivered just 1.4%. Over the same period, gilts delivered 1.2% and cash returned 1%.

Figure 28: UK equity real returns, 1899-2005, with and without option protection programme

| | Real UK equity return | Gilt real return | Equity risk premium |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| Naked | 5.2 | 1.2 | 4 |
| With zero cost option protection | 1.4 | 1.2 | 0.2 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Thus, history shows that the employment of the type of zero-cost option protection programmes that are currently very popular would reduce the realised equity risk premium from 4% to all of 0.2%. There are, ironically enough, effective ways to add volatility hedges to balanced portfolios through relative value trades. These make use of the mis-pricing of implied volatility caused by the popularity of simple risk-dampening strategies, such as the one described above. However, a detailed exposition of such trades lies outside the particular ambit of our study. The moral of this particular tale is that attempts to eliminate equity risk will also eliminate the equity risk premium. Equities outperform because their returns are more volatile than many other asset classes over the short run. Trying to hedge out these risks will hedge out the return as well; there is no such thing as a perpetually free lunch.

The analysis adds up to the basic point that the volatility of asset returns is actually the investor's friend, not their bane. For without volatility, there can be no excess return. Equity volatility can perhaps be more usefully described as an uneven distribution of returns over time, for which markets appear to provide an excessive compensation. The excessive compensation is a function of two factors. First, the markets seem to be inhibited from valuing equities on the basis of their less-volatile real returns, focusing rather on the irrelevant nominal return volatility. This is probably due to the phenomenon of money illusion, which is the human tendency to think in nominal, rather than real, terms. Second, our human reflexive panic response to signs of danger, inherited from our primate forbears, causes us to overreact to risks relative to rewards. Such monkey-panic pricing has been characteristic of forward-looking measures of the equity risk premium for the past three years. If history is any guide, the high ex ante equity risk premium is likely to deliver a higher-than-average realised equity risk premium in the years ahead. Meanwhile, attempts to curtail the volatility of equities by options hedging are likely to eliminate excess equity returns over time, suggesting that the investor would have been better off investing in other less volatile assets.

Of course it is highly improbable that investors – or their accountants and regulators – will ever embrace equity volatility as the prerequisite adjunct of equity returns. The holy grail of investment is always going to be the best risk/return trade-off and equity volatility is likely to remain an undesirable property for most investors. Our monkey nature is not going to be shed so easily. As we have shown, the surgical removal of equity volatility usually removes the equity return as well. The more efficacious approach is to diversify into other asset classes whose returns are both positive and uncorrelated with equities. However, the major caveat with this strategy is that it has to be complete: the choice of assets needs to be utterly unconstrained, shorting is required and the definition of “asset” widened to incorporate the totality of legal money-making activities. Moreover, the approach needs to be dynamic, since asset valuations – and their attendant prospective returns – are constantly shifting, as indeed do the correlations between various asset classes. An approach to securing a smoother risk-return portfolio allocation is the subject matter of the next chapters.

Chapter 3 – The return of diversification

Stuart Jarvis, Ugo Montrucchio, Javier Rodriguez

We examine how investors can make use of the increasingly wide range of markets and instruments available to build better portfolios.

The hard-learned lessons of the late 1990s and the growth of alternative investments have started to influence asset allocations, driving a renewed thirst for the efficient construction of portfolios that incorporate a diverse set of return sources.

The basic investment trade-off is between risk and return. The terminology of modern portfolio theory (and its extensions) enables this balance to be expressed mathematically and “optimal” strategies to be determined. The theory results in more precise statements of some old truisms and insights that are initially surprising. For example:

- **Diversification.** By bringing together assets that are imperfectly correlated, a better risk/reward trade-off can be obtained than was available from any single market in isolation.
- **Universal solution.** Given a set of expected returns and volatilities, assuming that volatility is the risk measure and that there are no constraints imposed upon the portfolio, the optimal mix of risky assets is the same for all investors. Investors construct a portfolio with their particular risk or return target by leveraging up or down, ie, holding an appropriate proportion of their fund in cash and the remainder in this risky asset mix.

This description of a universal solution breaks down in the presence of constraints, such as not allowing negative or short positions, as well as in the presence of liabilities (so that asset volatility is no longer the most relevant risk measure). However, constraints are becoming rarer as markets become increasingly adept at separating market returns and active returns.

The aggregation problem

In principle, the construction of an efficient trade-off between risk and return requires good estimates of these two factors for each asset class. However, these are tough problems from a statistical perspective and economic reasoning is required if investors are to narrow the ranges for these estimates. The capital asset pricing model (CAPM) casts a long shadow here; the idea of using a market-capitalisation weighted portfolio has a strong appeal. Yet we believe this portfolio, besides being difficult to construct, can be improved by using alternative lines of reasoning.

Measuring efficiency

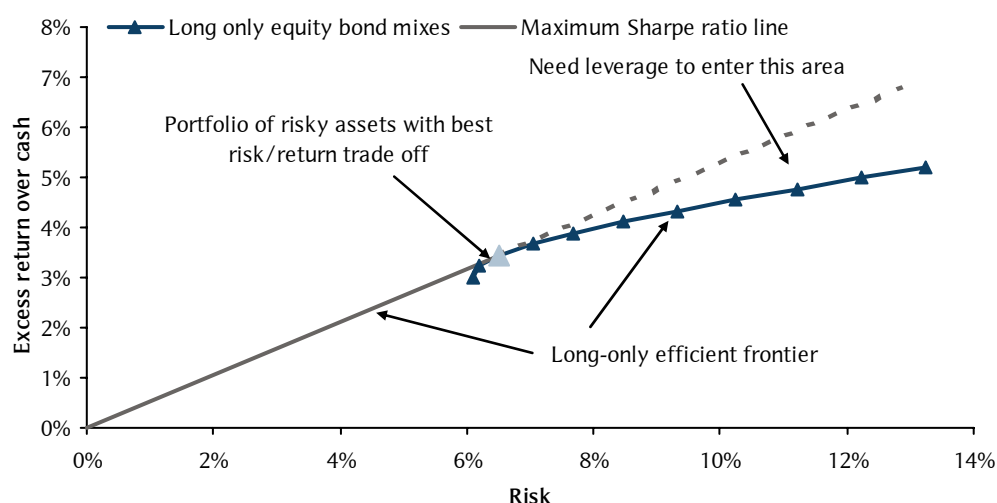
In modern portfolio theory (due to Markowitz), risk is understood in terms of asset volatility (standard deviation). When portfolios are plotted on a risk/return chart, it is easy to see that for a given level of risk, the level of expected return is subject to an upper limit. That is, portfolios lie below a *frontier* made up of portfolios that represent the most efficient trade-off between risk and return. This upper limit is known as the efficient frontier.

The classic discussion of diversification begins with two assets. So long as they are not perfectly correlated, a mixture of the two assets will provide a better risk/return trade-off than at least one (and sometimes both) of the original assets. Note that it is not the

highest return that is important when considering possible mixtures of assets, it is the risk/return trade-off. By leveraging the best mixture up or down, the trade-off is retained and a better portfolio is obtained for any return or risk level. Knowing the correlation, together with the risk/return characteristics of the original two assets, enables an optimal mix to be found. This means that the efficient frontier can be gradually approached by steadily mixing in different assets.

The range of combinations of two assets appears as a curve in risk/return space and when one asset has zero volatility (ie, the return is known in advance), this curve is simply a line. (Moving up and down this line is what we mean by leverage.) The slope of this line represents the risk-adjusted return for an asset, which is also known as the *Sharpe ratio*. If investors are freely able to go long and short in all asset classes, then the efficient frontier itself becomes a line in risk/return space. Finding any asset on this line is the goal of the “mean-variance optimising investor” – for them, an optimal portfolio with a given risk or return target can be produced by mixing with (possibly, borrowing) the risk-free asset.

Figure 29: Mean-variance optimising investors seek to maximise the Sharpe ratio – two asset example

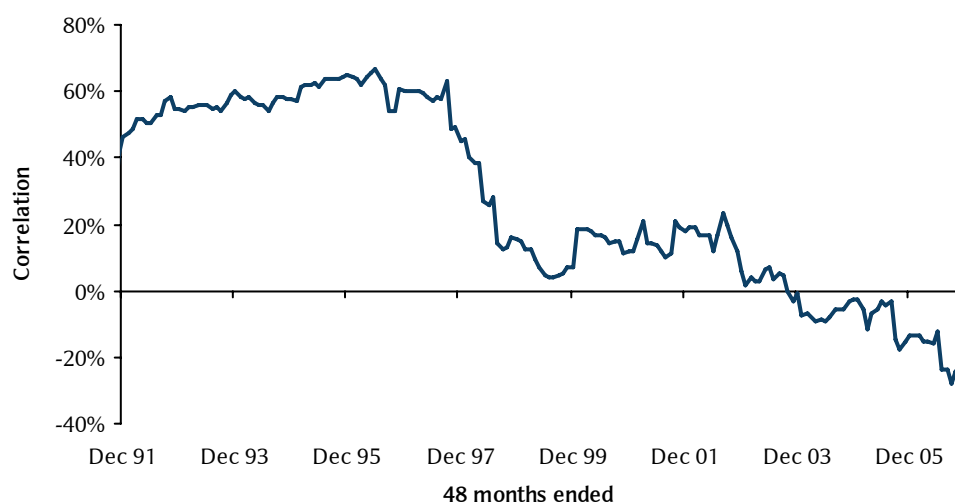


Source: Barclays Global Investors.

Parameter estimation issues

Therefore, the central problem in asset allocation is to estimate the range and relative likelihood of potential future returns. As described above, this typically amounts to estimating the mean and standard deviation of each individual asset or asset class and the correlations between them. Although this is far from straightforward, volatilities can be tolerably well estimated. In contrast, correlations are notoriously unstable – but this is partly due to the definition of correlation as a ratio of volatilities. Figure 30 illustrates this for UK equities and index-linked gilts, where the correlation averaged around 50% for the first half of the 1990s and has since fallen, with recent observations being negative.

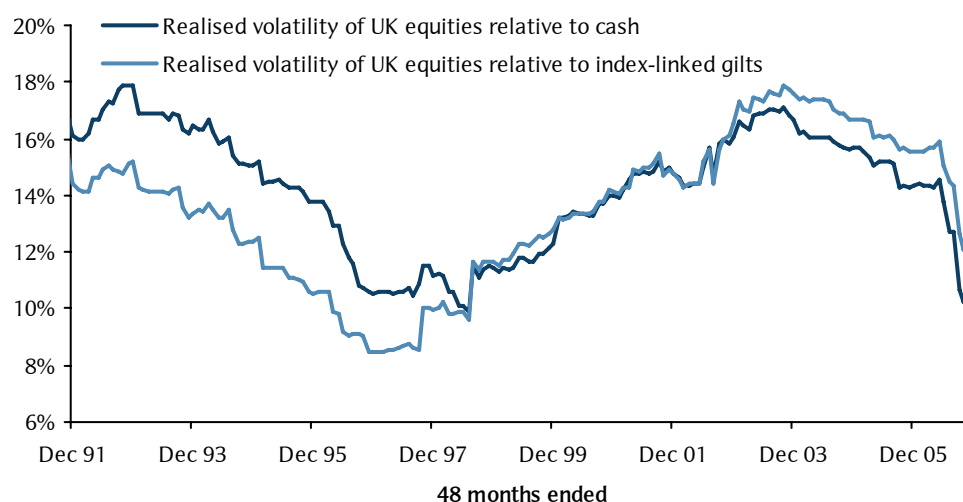
Figure 30: Realised 48-month correlation between UK equities and index-linked gilts



Source: Barclays Global Investors.

If the estimation problem is recast in terms of relative volatilities, then these are also reasonably stable through time and estimates can be made from historical returns. Figure 31 shows that UK equity volatility has remained 9-18% relative to cash or index-linked gilts over the past 15 years, despite the dramatic fall in correlation.

Figure 31: Realised 48-month UK equity volatility relative to cash and index-linked gilts



Source: Barclays Global Investors.

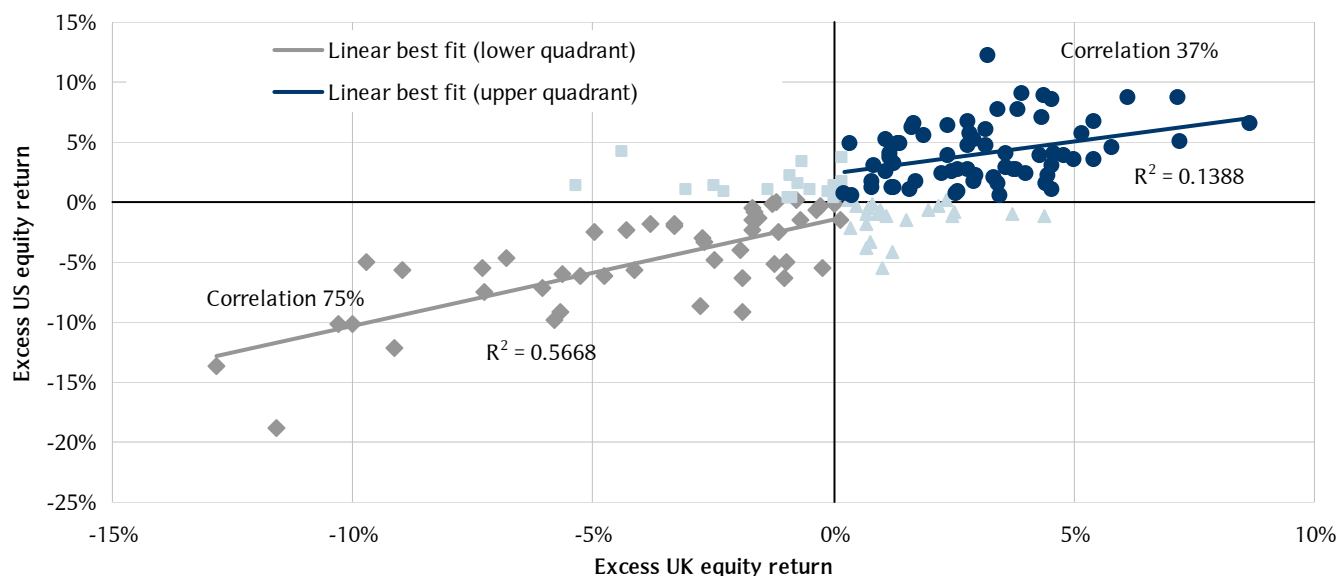
A significant line of attack on CAPM, indeed on the usual framework of modern portfolio theory, arises from the reality that investors do *not* have standard deviation as their measure of risk. Investors are much more concerned about *downside* risk, while being fairly ambivalent about potential *upside* risk. This has important implications for the approach taken to building a diversified portfolio.

Correlation can be a poor measure of dependency

We illustrated above how correlation can vary over time. However, even where the joint distribution of returns is stable, correlation may still not provide an appropriate measure of the dependency between two asset classes. This is especially the case when the focus is upon the risk of extreme events – known as “tail risk”.

Figure 32 compares monthly returns in the UK and US equity markets since 1993, each from the perspective of a UK investor. The returns are split into four quadrants according to whether the UK and US returns are, respectively, above or below their averages. The upper right and bottom left quadrants would be roughly mirror images if the joint-normal-distribution assumptions implicit in much of modern portfolio theory held. This is manifestly not the case. When UK equity returns are good, the US returns tend to be good but there is a significant dispersion around the best-fit line (the R-squared is 13%) and the correlation is only 37%. Yet when returns in the UK are bad, there is a much stronger tendency for poor returns in the US – the R-squared jumps to 57% and we see a correlation of 75%.

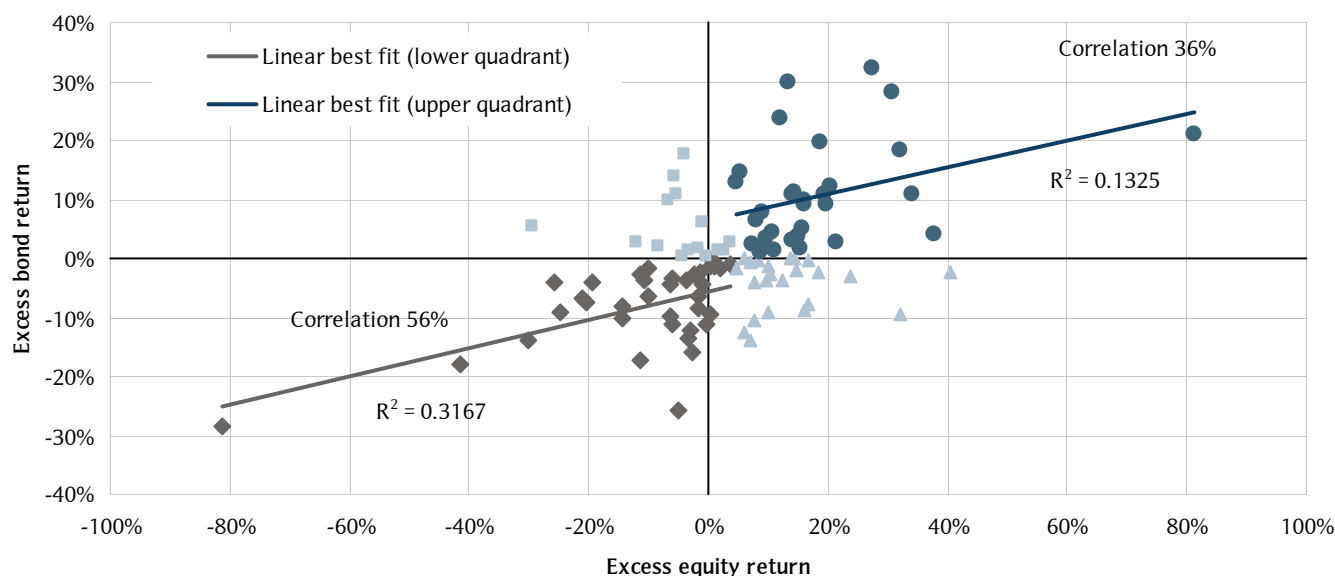
Figure 32: Correlation tends to increase in down markets: monthly UK and US equity returns from a UK investor perspective



Source: Barclays Global Investors.

Figure 33 shows the result of performing the same analysis on annual returns for UK bonds and UK equities since 1899. Again, higher correlation and less dispersion are exhibited in down markets.

Figure 33: Correlation tends to increase in down markets: annual equity and bond returns since 1899



Source: Barclays Capital, Barclays Global Investors.

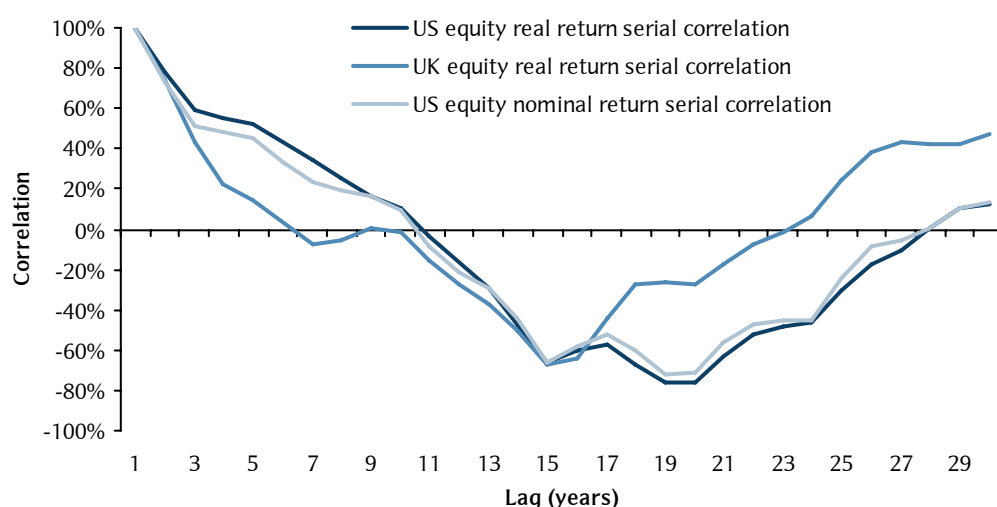
There is a choice. If the bad months and years can be taken on the chin, then it may make more sense to focus on the centre of the distribution. If the risk of the extremes is more keenly felt, then a different mix may be appropriate.

The different blend can take several forms. At its simplest, the portfolio should take into account the much stronger correlation in the tail. The more-focussed approach, however, is to use instruments that deal more explicitly with the tail risk while retaining some or all of the volatility in the middle of the distribution. This is indeed what some large investors do, while regulators have also helped to focus investors' minds.

Returns

We have seen that there are some problems using historical risks and correlations as a future predictor. However, with returns, history becomes a really poor guide. Realised returns are not at all stable, even if expected returns are – put another way, estimation error makes historical returns essentially useless. This subject was covered in last year's Equity Gilt Study (Chapter 2) and we have updated one of the graphs in Figure 34. This graph shows the serial correlation of US and UK equity real returns, over 15-year rolling periods, at progressively longer annual lags. The graph demonstrates that, after a 15-year lag, the real returns are negatively correlated to a significant degree.

Figure 34: Serial correlation, by annual lag, 15-year rolling real UK and US equity returns, UK from 1899, US from 1926

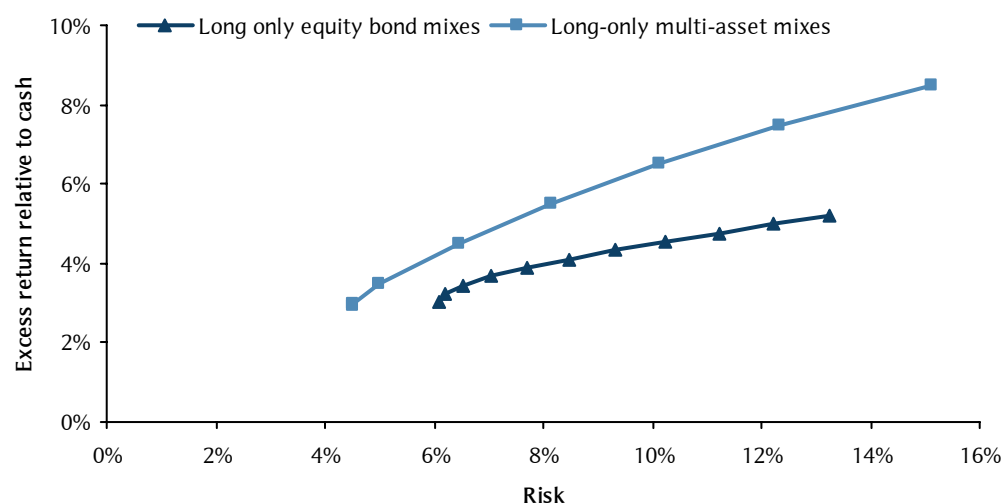


Source: Barclays Capital, Bloomberg.

In addition, small differences in return estimates can lead to very large changes in allocations. So some sensible economic theory is required.

This estimation process has been made more complex by the increasing range of asset classes, with private equity, property, commodities, infrastructure, high yield and emerging market debt becoming commonplace. However, it is well worth the effort – Figure 35 shows the effect of adding these asset classes on the efficient frontier.

Figure 35: Efficient frontier with multiple asset classes², compared with efficient frontier with equities and bonds only (Figure 29)



Source: Barclays Global Investors

The market-weighted portfolio

We have seen that including more asset classes helps, but also that historical returns do not help predict the future. So how can we go about predicting investment returns?

² The asset classes included here are: developed equities and bonds, property, commodities, high yield bonds, infrastructure, emerging market equities and emerging market debt.

In the CAPM, introduced by William Sharpe and others in the 1960s, finding an asset with this highest Sharpe ratio is easy, at least in theory: just invest in a market-weighted portfolio. One way to think about this is to notice that the optimal portfolio for all investors, whatever their return target, lies on the same line and so consists of the same mix of risky assets. So the aggregate portfolio – the market-cap portfolio – must also consist of this same mix and must be on the efficient frontier line.

Furthermore, the regression (beta) of any asset against the market portfolio provides an estimate of its expected return and a breakdown of the asset's risk into a systematic (rewarded) component and a specific (diversifiable) component. This insight into portfolio return dynamics is very powerful, even in the absence of a belief in the application of CAPM as a whole. Indeed, the decomposition of returns into multiple beta exposures – rather than the single market beta – is a surprisingly useful way to think about portfolio return dynamics.

Against the market

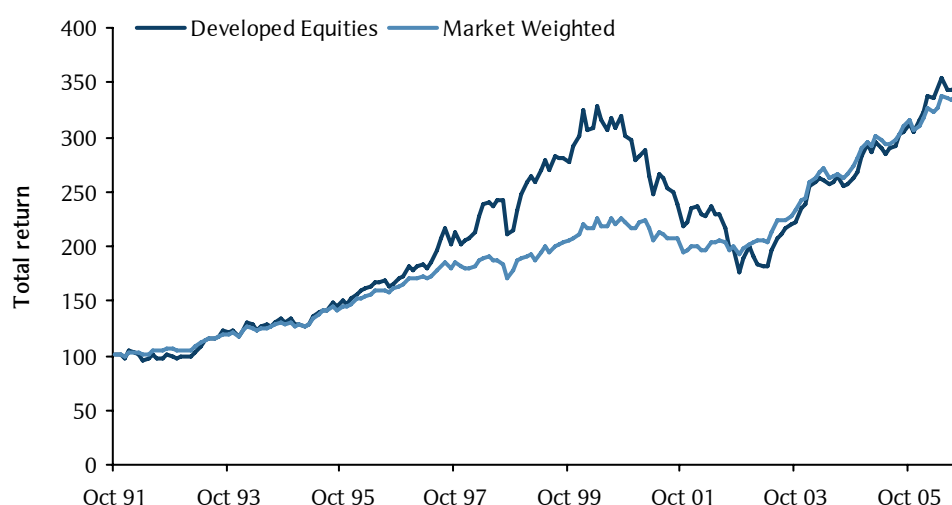
The theoretical and empirical objections to CAPM and/or the use of a market-weighted portfolio are manifold and their history is as long as CAPM itself. For example:

- **Liabilities.** As well as holding assets, investors have liabilities. It is only *after* taking account of these that the risk/return problem becomes similar. It is aggregate assets *less* aggregate liabilities that should be used, not just aggregate assets.
- **Investor constraints.** Investors also hold deliberately non-optimal portfolios, or investors may be optimising over an incomplete range of assets. For example, the costs of borrowing or legal restrictions may prevent some assets from being held, or data on some markets may not be readily available.
- **Unobservable.** The market portfolio is not readily observable – CAPM tends to be used in practice in reasonably well-defined markets (eg, the US equity market). The weights for most developed markets are relatively easy to assess, but what is the market capitalisation for commodities or inflation?
- **Centre versus tail risk.** Investors are not simply interested in the characteristics in the centre of the return distribution (where mean and variance focus their attention) but on the lower tail – how bad can things get? Risk measures such as Value at Risk are used by many and these have implications for the construction of a diversified portfolio.
- **Lack of equilibrium.** Visibly, investors are not holding the same mixes of risky assets so the mean-variance equilibrium has not been achieved. This is perhaps not too serious if individual investors are pursuing strategies to outperform their long-term benchmark – these differences from the benchmark should sum to zero as individuals trade against each other.

Despite these objections, the attraction of a market-weighted portfolio is very great. In practice, therefore, this portfolio should at least be used as an implicit benchmark against which to compare any other diversified construction.

We have compared this multi-asset “market” portfolio with an equity market portfolio in Figure 36. We can see that over many periods it produces a similar level of return with dramatically lower volatility. That is, as expected, it exhibits a higher Sharpe ratio than a pure equity strategy.

Figure 36: 15-year cumulative returns of global equities compared with a portfolio of risky assets³ weighted by market capitalisation



Source: Barclays Global Investors.

Alternative approaches

However, while this might be a useful first step, there are ways to estimate expected returns that do not rely solely on market weights. For example:

- **Yields.** The yield on a bond index, or the price/earnings yield for an equity index, can be used to estimate the prospective return from investing in these asset classes. The current yield considerably narrows the range of returns.
- **Sharpe ratios.** Over long periods, risk-adjusted returns (Sharpe ratios) tend to be similar over all asset classes. It is unreasonable to expect one asset class to give a significantly higher risk-adjusted return than another over a significant period. As with yields, this serves to reduce the range of prospective returns.
- **Direct risk premium estimates.** The expected return can often be broken into components that can be separately estimated. For example, the return from commodity investment can be broken into the collateral return, the price return and the roll return. Ensuring that these components are consistent across asset classes again helps to reduce the range of possibilities. This use of risk premia also allows us to add returns that are not themselves asset classes (nor have a weight in CAPM). Examples include inflation, volatility and put options.
- **Multi-currency perspectives.** Risk and return assumptions for a sterling investor can be transformed into assumptions for a US dollar or euro investor – so the above techniques can be applied from each perspective.

³ Same assets as used for Figure 35. See separate footnote.

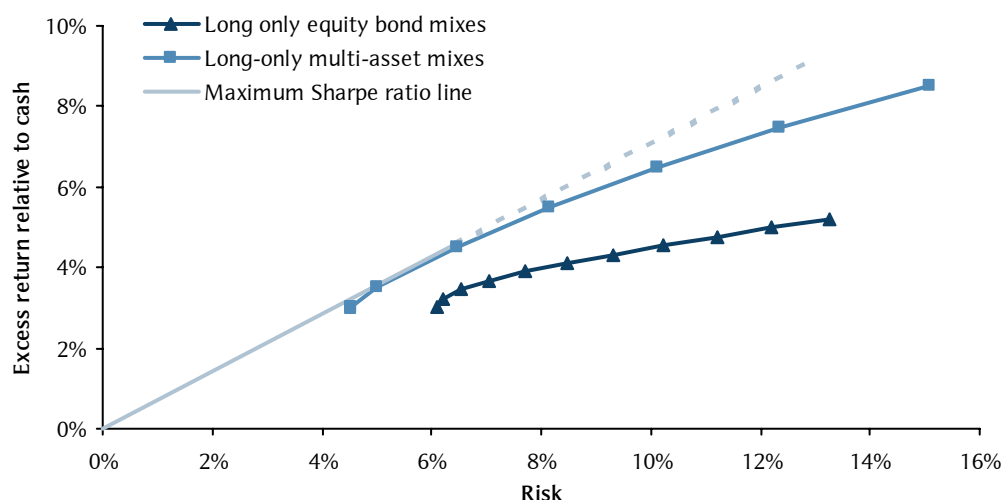
From assets to risk exposures

An efficient frontier is a function of three main inputs to the mean variance optimiser:

- The risk and return assumptions for the different asset classes.
- The liability profile of the investor.
- The constraints imposed upon the portfolio.

The effect of the constraints can be very great and is often underappreciated. As described above, in the absence of constraints a curved efficient frontier becomes a straight line. Yet the efficient frontier is curved for most investors and may be a long way below the unconstrained line. This is particularly the case for investors with long-term liabilities. In Figure 37, we have compared the efficient frontier that an investor who is constrained to traditional asset classes⁴, long-only investing and no leverage can access with the unconstrained straight line “frontier”.

Figure 37: Efficient frontier for long-only investors using traditional asset classes compared with unconstrained frontier



Source: Barclays Global Investors.

However, once the comfort of a market-weighted or peer-benchmarked portfolio is left behind, it can make more sense to build up a portfolio as a basket of risk exposures. We note that these risk exposures do not always come in handy, long-only asset-class buckets. For example, an exposure to inflation or to volatility might be achieved by going long one asset class and short another. Or, more directly, by using a derivative with implicit leverage – in these cases an inflation swap or a variance swap. As these examples show, the move from market weights is often accompanied by a view of a much wider range of investment classes that can be used to construct a diversified portfolio.

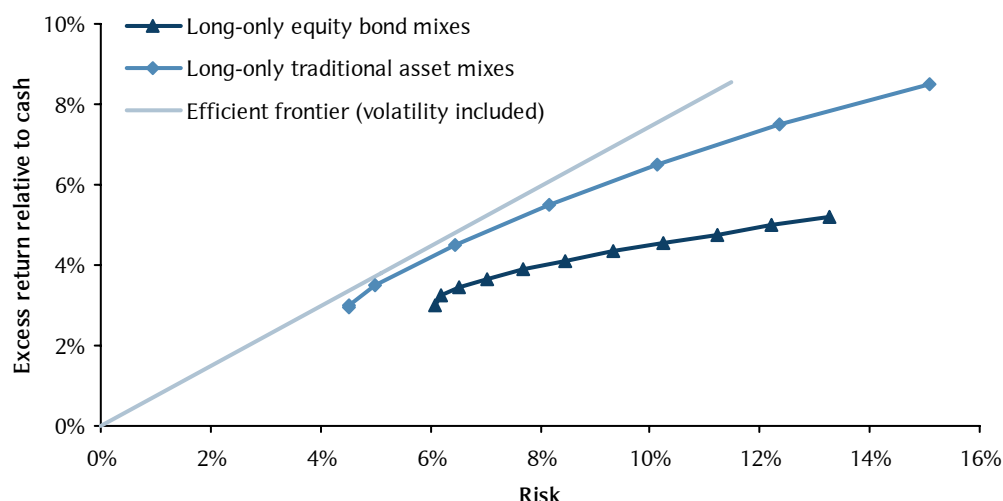
The increased separation of market returns (beta) and active returns (alpha), driven by increasing sophistication and a desire for transparency, is also turning what was once thought of as alpha into something that feels more like beta. Strategies such as value investing, investable hedge fund indices and the replication of carry trades in currency markets are recycling alpha strategies into new beta sources. This steady broadening of investment choices gives investors an increasingly hard aggregation problem. Rather than a small number of asset classes, there are numerous tilts within each of these asset classes. The number of “alternative” asset classes continues to grow.

⁴ The asset classes included here are the same as for Figure 35 above. See earlier footnote.

This market dynamic breeds demand for third parties (managers, banks etc.) to ladle diversified strategies from this ever-bubbling alpha-beta soup.

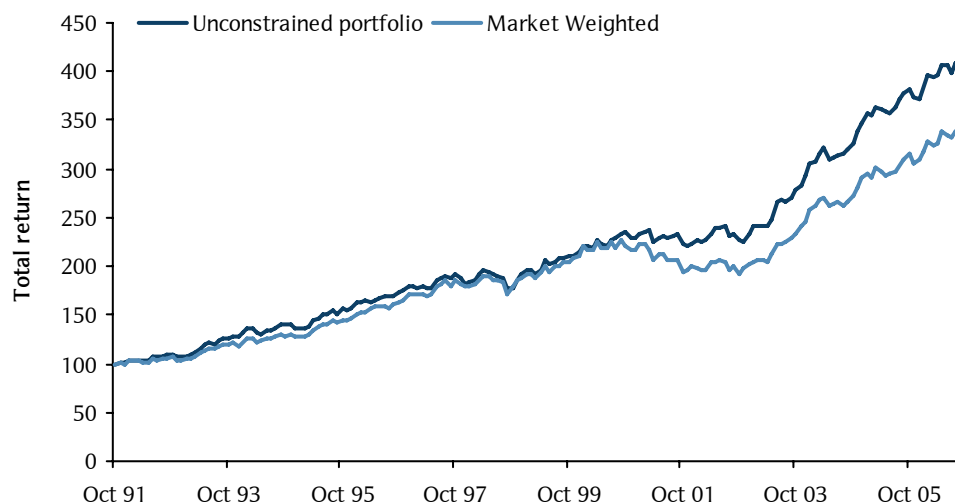
Figure 38 and Figure 39 show how we can improve our market capitalisation portfolio by using some of these insights to adjust portfolio weights, as well as by including risk exposures that are not adequately captured by asset classes.

Figure 38: Including alternative beta sources enables the prospective risk return trade-off to be improved. Volatility exposure added to traditional asset classes.



Source: Barclays Global Investors

Figure 39: 15-year cumulative returns of risk exposures⁵ compared to market capitalisation weighting from Figure 36 above.



Source: Barclays Global Investors.

⁵ Mix is constructed on a monthly basis to maximise the prospective Sharpe ratio. See "alternative approaches" above for an overview of the method used to estimate prospective returns. Asset classes / risk exposures in this example: developed equities, world government bonds, property, high yield bonds, emerging market bonds, commodities, private equity index, infrastructure, hedge fund index and volatility index.

Some key statistics for the return series illustrated in Figure 36 and Figure 39 are shown in the table below.

Figure 40: Statistical measures of historical time series

| | Developed equities | Market weighted | Multi-asset |
|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Annualised return | 9.4% | 8.5% | 9.8% |
| Annualised volatility | 13.3% | 7.5% | 6.9% |
| Realised Sharpe ratio | 0.39 | 0.58 | 0.81 |
| Lowest monthly return | -13.3% | -7.0% | -6.2% |
| Greatest monthly return | 9.1% | 5.7% | 6.9% |
| Worst cumulative drawdown | -19.9% | -8.4% | -9.8% |

Source: Barclays Global Investors.

It can be seen that moving into diversified portfolios and removing constraints steadily improves the key measures: volatility is reduced, the risk/return trade off improved and the worst monthly performance, while still large, is also reduced.

However, significant lower tail risk remains. The worst monthly return over this period was a fall of 6.2% and the worst cumulative fall was 9.8%. Therefore, the final step is for investors to explore ways to manage this tail risk more explicitly.

Options and structured products

It is an oddity of modern life that even as people become richer their appetite for protection seems to increase. In contrast, the strictly mean-variance optimising or utility-maximising investor should be more willing to take the rough with the smooth. Portfolio construction techniques must respond to this need by adapting the distribution of portfolio returns to reduce or remove the effect of the roughest patches.

So where do options have a role? Put options enable investors to add a floor, or a partial floor, under the value of their investments. Similarly, constant proportion portfolio insurance (CPPI) strategies and many other structured products can be used to deliver return profiles designed precisely to fit a particular need. The costs of these strategies could deter our theoretical mean-variance optimiser, but for an investor with strong tail risk aversion the benefits can potentially more than outweigh the costs.

In assessing these strategies, the Sharpe ratio becomes less relevant. Rather, an investor with strong downside risk aversion needs to invoke a measure of this risk other than variance. Value at Risk measures are suitable for these investors and comparisons can be made to determine the efficient risk/return trade-offs.

Thus, where regulatory pressure (e.g. solvency stress testing) and investor know-how coincide (eg, many large insurers) then these strategies are attractive.

Figure 41 shows how a CPPI strategy (with a protection level of 90% over 10 years) would have worked on our unconstrained diversified portfolio. We have made an allowance for additional costs of 1% a year. The strategy shows a smoother progression and gives the investor comfort that they would never have lost more than 10% of their initial capital.

Figure 41: Effect of CPPI on an unconstrained diversified portfolio.

| | Multi-asset | Multi-asset with CPPI |
|---------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Lowest monthly return | -6.2% | -5.6% |
| Worst cumulative drawdown | -9.8% | -9.0% |

Source: Barclays Global Investors.

Conclusions

The rapid evolution of markets continues to improve the ability of investors to select only those risks where they wish to gain exposure. At the same time, investors are reawakening to the benefits of well diversified portfolios.

By removing unnecessary constraints on exposures and instruments, investors can dramatically increase the efficiency of their portfolios. CAPM can take investors a long way forward, and by thinking in terms of risk exposures and applying other research techniques to derive return forecasts, even better portfolios can be constructed.

Once the best mix of risk and return is achieved, the next stage is gain a more complete appreciation of the shape of the return distribution, particularly of the tail risks. This leads to the development and use of tools to explicitly manage these risks.

Hardly any of this is new. For example, the following investment advice on diversification dates not from the 1950s but from between 1.5 and 3 millennia ago:

It is advisable for one that he shall divide his money in three parts, one of which he shall invest in real estate, one of which in business, and the third part to remain always in his hands (as it may happen that he will need cash for a profitable transaction)⁶

Sadly, data on asset class returns in the ancient Babylonian empire seem to have been lost. Fortunately, data sources such as the Equity Gilt Study provide ample bedrock for determining advice for the coming millennia.

⁶ Talmud Balvi. Bava Metzia, Chapter 3 (<http://www.sacred-texts.com/jud/t06/me104.htm>).

Chapter 4 – Send in the clones

Sree Kochugovindan

The case for hedge fund replication models has been heavily debated over the past year. Following poor hedge fund performance in the wake of the May 2006 equity market sell-off, there have been increased concerns over whether hedge fund returns were predominantly market dependent (beta driven) or due to manager skill (alpha generation). Recent academic research suggests that a large part of hedge fund returns are derived from common trading strategies or “alternative beta” factors. Numerous attempts have been made to replicate hedge fund returns and market commentators predict a proliferation of investable synthetic hedge fund products. These synthetics provide a cheaper alternative to the “2 and 20” fee structure often charged by hedge funds. However, they are also subject to much criticism. The main concern is that synthetic models will be unable to protect the investor from extreme downside risks, while a skilled manager may be more able to navigate the financial markets during turbulent periods.

We examine an alternative approach to producing synthetic hedge fund models, which may be better suited to dealing with asymmetric risk distributions or these extreme downside risks. Most synthetic hedge fund models are based on some method of replicating hedge fund returns based on key market strategies. We discuss a different approach and begin with a portfolio optimisation process that can be used to select the weights allocated to the assets in the investor’s portfolio. We then incorporate technical analysis and fundamental models into the optimiser. By adding this extra layer of analysis, we provide a forward-looking view of the different asset classes, as well as a stop-loss mechanism to protect the portfolio when the markets are hit by extreme events.

The evolution of optimisers

Portfolio optimisation models can play an important role in the asset allocation decision process. However, investors may find that the results of standard mean variance optimisation models are difficult to interpret. These models tend to produce unrealistic and overly concentrated allocations, which are unsuitable for any practical investment decision. Criticisms of mean variance optimisation date back to the 1950s when Harry Markowitz first devised the technique. Markowitz emphasised the importance of the correlation between assets and summarised the basic investment objective of maximising expected portfolio return and minimising portfolio risk. Prior to this date, investment strategies involved analysing individual stocks without considering the effect on the overall portfolio performance. The Markowitz mean variance optimiser provided the foundation of modern portfolio theory. However, it did not provide a practical tool that could be easily used by investors.

The traditional mean variance approach suffers from a number of drawbacks. First, expected returns are required for all assets in the portfolio. Expected returns are inherently difficult to estimate and investors may not have a view on every single asset. Second, the investor may not have a view on the absolute level of the asset’s return, but may have a relative return view instead. For example, the investor may wish to express the view that European equities may outperform US equities by X%. Furthermore, standard optimisation models have no way of distinguishing between strongly held views and those that are more general. Hence, the final weights may not truly represent the investor’s views. Third, the final optimised weights are extremely sensitive to any changes in the expected returns and can result in highly unintuitive and overly concentrated allocations.

Portfolio optimisation techniques have evolved substantially over the past 50 years. The second generation of optimisers, such as the Black-Litterman model attempt to address these issues and provide a number of advantages over the standard Markowitz model.⁷ Black-Litterman allows investors to express both relative and absolute views. It also allows the investor to express views on just a few assets. Finally, the model is able to incorporate the strength of the investor's views by assigning confidence levels to each expected return.

The Black-Litterman model uses “equilibrium” excess returns as a neutral reference point in the allocation process. These returns assume that supply and demand are in equilibrium and represent the market consensus view of future returns. If markets are in equilibrium, the average investor should be holding a portfolio which is allocated according to market capitalised weights. The final calculation is based on the market capitalised weights, the variance-covariance of the assets' returns and the coefficient of risk aversion. The coefficient of risk aversion is the risk-adjusted market premium of the assets. It is assumed that the market premium equals the historically observed excess returns. This approach is based on the capital asset pricing model (CAPM). Intuitively, the model expects prices to adjust until expected returns reach a level where the demand for assets equals the available supply. If the investor does not hold a precise view on every asset in the portfolio, then the equilibrium returns provide a neutral starting point from which the investor can express a relatively bullish or bearish view.

This initial “equilibrium” return distribution can then incorporate the investor's individual views. In the absence of any views on expected returns, the investor will hold a portfolio based upon the market capitalisation weights. Furthermore, the investor's level of uncertainty is expressed as a probability between 0% and 100%. Thus, the Black-Litterman model provides the key advantage of quantifying the investor's level of uncertainty and incorporating it into the optimisation process in a practical manner.

There are some key limitations to the Black-Litterman model. First, the equilibrium returns, which provide the neutral starting point, are based on historical data. So they are not forward-looking expectations and they may be biased by the time period over which they are computed. Second, the forward-looking component of the model is dependent on the investors' views and is therefore purely subjective.

The next step: Removing human judgement

The Black-Litterman model can be adapted in order to overcome some of these issues. It may be possible to incorporate fundamental models and technical analysis in order to formalise the investor views or expected returns. Investor views can be replaced with forecasts or trading signals for each underlying asset. This removes any element of human judgement from the optimisation process and takes into account forward-looking information as well. We consider two methods in order to gain a more comprehensive set of trading signals, econometric analysis based on macroeconomic trends and technical analysis.

Econometric models based on macroeconomic factors can be used to indicate whether an asset is fundamentally over or undervalued. The key macroeconomic trends can have a significant short-term and long-run impact on financial asset price trends. Business cycle indicators such as GDP and industrial production have historically had a heavy influence on market price action. More timely and forward-looking indications of

⁷ Black, Fischer, and Robert Litterman, “Asset Allocation: Combining Investor Views with Market Equilibrium”, Goldman Sachs & Co. 1990.

the business cycle can be found in some sentiment surveys. For example, in the US and Europe, the purchasing managers indices summarise the sentiment of businesses and their outlook on a number of issues, such as hiring intentions, new orders and price expectations. These indices can provide a leading indication over the future trends of a variety of asset prices from fixed income and commodities.

Technical analysis focuses on market price action and, primarily through the use of charts and historical patterns, can provide an early warning trading signal. In contrast to the econometric models discussed above, which capture the influence of macroeconomic trends, technical analysis helps to capture market psychology. Examples of indicators that can be used within the Black-Litterman model are stochastic oscillators and correlation indicators.

Stochastic oscillators are momentum indicators, which attempt to identify the asset price trend. During overbought or oversold situations, the oscillator will identify periods when the trend is running out of steam. This same concept can be applied to volatility instead of price. The volatility oscillator identifies the trend in volatility and ascertains whether the price is then trending up or down. It also considers whether the asset volatility is low enough to consider entering the investment. Oscillators can be combined with correlation indicators in order to validate the signal. Correlation spikes across asset classes can highlight overheated markets with lots of speculative flows. Correlation indicators can therefore indicate when to override the signal from the oscillators and the fundamental econometric models.

Although technical and fundamental analyses are often viewed as separate investment tools, combining the two can significantly improve the trading signal. Fundamental analysis can indicate whether an asset is undervalued, while the technical indicators can confirm the market direction and identify the best time to enter the trade. Combining these two models together can also provide a stop-loss mechanism.

The slippery concept of risk

In order to fine-tune the optimisation process, we need a reliable measure of risk. Value at risk (VaR) measures the risk exposure of the entire portfolio and provides a key tool for investors to compare risk across portfolios. Academic literature on methods for calculating VaR is vast and beyond the scope of this chapter. Recent literature concentrates on methods that attempt to provide a more realistic measure of risk, which account for extreme events in financial markets. Basic measures of VaR, which assume a normal distribution for asset returns, tend to underestimate the true VaR by ignoring extreme market movements. A variety of methods have been formulated that do not make assumptions over the return distributions and are more capable of accounting for fat-tailed distributions, or extreme negative returns.

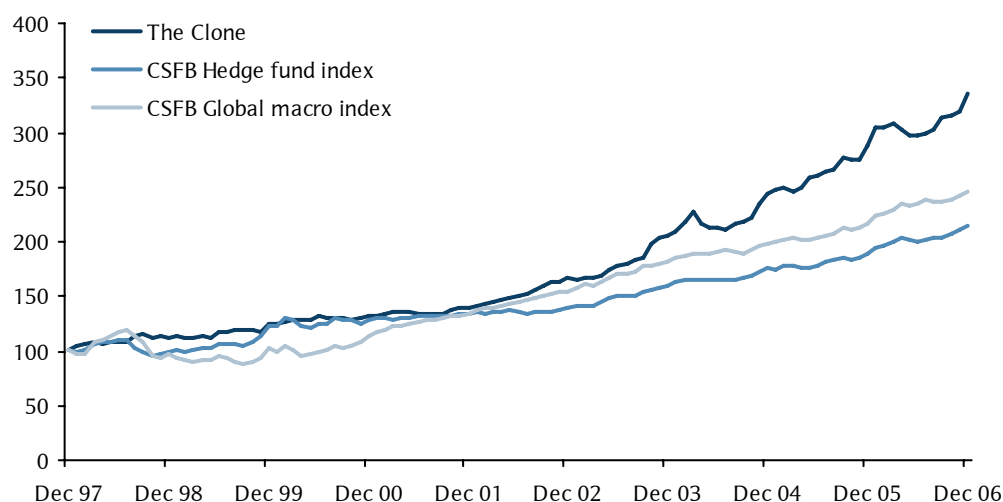
Incorporating VaR into the optimisation process allows the investor to maximise returns subject to a specified level of VaR instead of a level of variance. This ensures that the most efficient portfolio allocation is achieved and can provide a more practical way of tailoring the allocation to the individual investor's level of risk aversion.

Comparing the clone with the original

In order to test these ideas, we build a model portfolio based on a few main assets, and then compare the performance against the returns generated by the hedge fund industry.

We build a portfolio of US, European, Japanese and emerging markets equities, European property, US and European bonds and finally, cash. We then optimise using the Black-Litterman method. We generate the expected returns each month from a combination of technical analysis, econometric models and consensus forecasts. Thus, at the end of each month, the models produce a set of weights which are purely objective and independent of any human judgement. Figure 42 plots the indexed returns of our model portfolio against the CSFB hedge fund index and the CSFB Global Macro hedge fund index. The hedge fund returns are quoted net of all fees. To be consistent, our model returns are also net of fees; we assume a typical “clone fee” of 1.5%. A summary of the returns are provided in Figure 43.

Figure 42: Monthly indexed returns since 1998



Source: EcoWin, Barclays Capital.

Figure 43: Summary of performance

| | The clone | CSFB Hedge fund index | CSFB Global Macro Hedge fund index |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| Average monthly return | 1.1% | 0.7% | 0.9% |
| Annualised return | 14.4% | 8.9% | 10.5% |
| Annualised risk | 6.4% | 6.9% | 8.7% |
| Risk free rate | 3.40% | 3.40% | 3.40% |
| Sharpe ratio | 1.71 | 0.80 | 0.81 |

Source: EcoWin, Barclays Capital.

At first glance, the model appears to perform remarkably well in comparison with the hedge funds. The average annualised return is 14% for the model, while the hedge fund strategies produce just 9-10%. The model also possesses a slightly lower level of volatility than the hedge funds, thus generating a higher Sharpe ratio. A significant part of this differential is due to the differences in fee structure. As mentioned earlier, the CSFB hedge fund indices require the manager to report returns net of all fees, which are typically 2% of assets under management and 20% of the returns generated. Consequently, over the long run, it is possible for the cheaper synthetic funds to outperform hedge funds. However, one of the main concerns with any synthetic model is the short-term risk. How well can the clone perform during periods of financial crisis?

Figure 44: Testing a few key dates

| Key dates | The clone | CSFB Hedge fund index | CSFB Global Macro Hedge fund index |
|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| Aug 98 | 3.95% | -7.55% | -4.84% |
| Sep 98 | 1.85% | -2.31% | -5.12% |
| Feb 00 | 1.77% | 6.49% | 4.43% |
| Mar 00 | 1.39% | -2.12% | -2.45% |
| Sep 01 | 0.52% | -0.83% | 1.17% |
| May 06 | -1.95% | -1.30% | -0.60% |
| Jun 06 | 0.18% | -0.11% | 0.44% |

Source: EcoWin, Barclays Capital.

In order to test the short-run performance, we examine a few key dates where the financial market underwent a period of financial turmoil. Figure 44 compares the returns during the Russian and LTCM crisis, the dotcom crash, the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, and more recently, the sell-off seen in the summer of 2006.

In the case of the Russian and LTCM crisis, the model outperformed both the hedge fund indices. The model had taken an extremely conservative stance during those months and only held positions in European and US bonds. Consequently, the model was perfectly positioned to capture the flight to quality in the wake of the Russian default.

Turning to the dotcom crash, we examine just February and March in order to highlight the performance before and after the market peaked. The conservative nature of the model meant that it underperformed hedge funds during the equity bubble. During February 2000, the model maintained a substantial weighting in bonds. However, for this very reason, it was able to outperform hedge funds as the equity market turned.

The model also outperformed during the month of the September 11 terrorist attacks. This was mainly because the attacks took place during a longer-run equity market downtrend, so the model already had a heavy weighting in cash and bonds.

During the sharp equity market sell-off of May 2006, the model underperformed hedge funds, despite a heavy weighting in cash. The model recovered quite quickly, posting positive returns the following month. However, it still failed to outperform the Global Macro hedge funds.

Conclusion

In our view, there is no doubt that the top layer of talented hedge fund managers cannot be replaced by an automated mathematical tool. A skilled manager is able to select mispriced securities and protect portfolios against severe losses during periods of extreme events. Synthetic hedge fund models based on replicating key strategies may not be as versatile as a skilled manager in reacting to turbulent financial conditions. However, average hedge fund returns as captured by indices are not necessarily as spectacular as the average fee structure should warrant.

However, by adding extra layers of analysis to a Black-Litterman optimisation process, it may be possible to overcome some of the key drawbacks of standard hedge fund cloning methods. Models based on fundamental or macroeconomic trends can help identify assets that are over or undervalued. While technical analysis can help confirm these trends and also provide a stop-loss mechanism, which can protect the overall portfolio performance. Optimising with respect to VaR provides a more practical way of incorporating the investor's individual level of risk aversion. These extra layers of analysis may to some extent mimic the decision-making process of the average hedge fund manager... at a fraction of the cost.

Chapter 5 – The state that I am in...

Moyeen Islam

It has been 10 years since the introduction of the short-lived Minimum Funding Requirement and the abolition of Advanced Corporation Tax relief. Since then, the “pensions crisis” has rarely been far from the headlines. It has prompted a comprehensive overhaul of the regulatory framework and changes to accounting regulations in an attempt to shed some light on the “black hole” at the heart of corporate balance sheets. However, over the past 10 years, there has only been a glacial shift in fund asset allocation with better-funded schemes more likely to hold additional fixed income assets. The growth of liability-driven investment (LDI) strategies has increased the use of equity and fixed income derivatives to help manage exposure to both equity and interest rate risk by the construction of hedging portfolios. We believe this trend will likely continue with transition flow, driven as much by corporate actions and market levels as regulatory and accounting pressure.

Happy birthday!

This year will mark the tenth anniversary of the Minimum Funding Requirement (MFR), which first introduced marked-to-market valuations of assets and liabilities and a market-based discount rate for liabilities. If this was not enough cause for celebration, July will also mark the tenth anniversary of the abolition of Advanced Corporation Tax relief, which had previously provided a tax efficient reason for pension schemes to hold UK equity. It has been independently estimated that the removal of this credit has been worth £100bn over the past 10 years.

In the intervening period, there have been several rainforests worth of paper devoted to the “crisis” in occupation pension schemes. Proposed solutions have ranged from calls for the government to issue £100bn of ultra-long dated debt to recapitalise failing schemes to changes in regulations and the retirement age – the list of options and solutions seems almost infinite. We have also seen the government comprehensively reform the framework for regulating pensions and introduce both a new regulator and an industry-wide discontinuance fund.

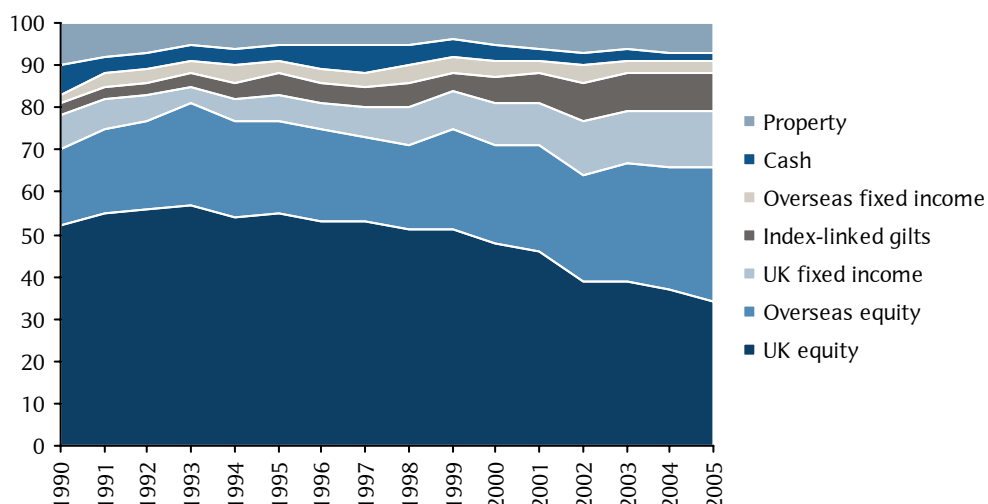
Additionally, as the government’s borrowing requirement has risen, the UK Debt Management Office has deliberately skewed issuance to the longer end of the curve – although this also fits with their objective to raise financing for the government at the lowest cost possible. The accountancy profession has done its bit by reviewing the guidelines that govern the accounting treatment for retirement benefits. And if all this was not enough, the market for long-dated nominal and inflation derivatives has developed rapidly in an attempt to offer pension fund managers the types of instruments that can help in liability matching. The move towards asset and liability management (ALM) has given rise to the growth of liability-driven investment (LDI) strategies designed to provide hedging of interest rate and equity market risk.

It is beyond the scope of this article to examine the case for and against LDI – we leave that issue for others to explore. However, this would seem like an opportune moment to assess how far the UK pension industry come over the past 10 years and what might lie ahead.

Asset allocation: a glacial process

Figure 45 outlines the broad asset allocation for UK pension funds since 1990. What is apparent is that, after all the discussion of wholesale shifts from equity to fixed income, total investments in these two broad asset classes have shown a discernible but overall glacial shift. Total equity (overseas and domestic) holdings as a proportion of the aggregate investment have fallen from 70% to 64% while total fixed income investment has risen from 11% to 25%. So there would, at first glance, seem to be some evidence of the beginnings of a shift from equity into fixed income. However, the official data have an obvious weakness: nowhere do they directly pick up the increased use of derivative instruments by asset managers as an investment strategy to hedge liabilities. Consequently, the flow data does not fully capture the true outright industry exposure to fixed income or equity as an asset class.

Figure 45: UK pension funds asset allocation 1990-2005 (%)

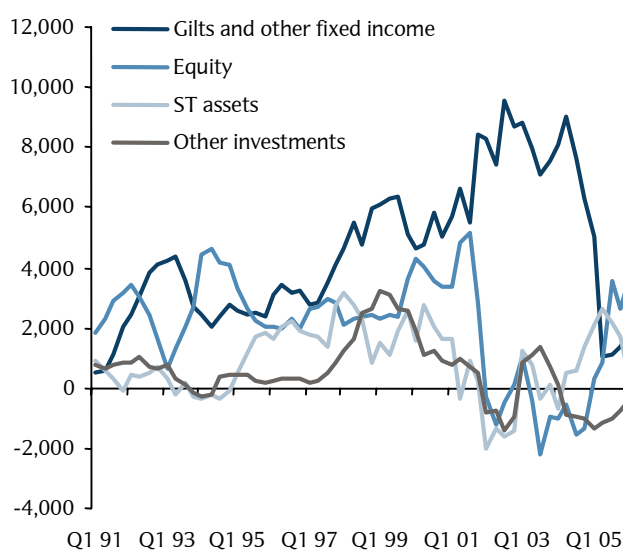


Source: National Statistics, Barclays Capital.

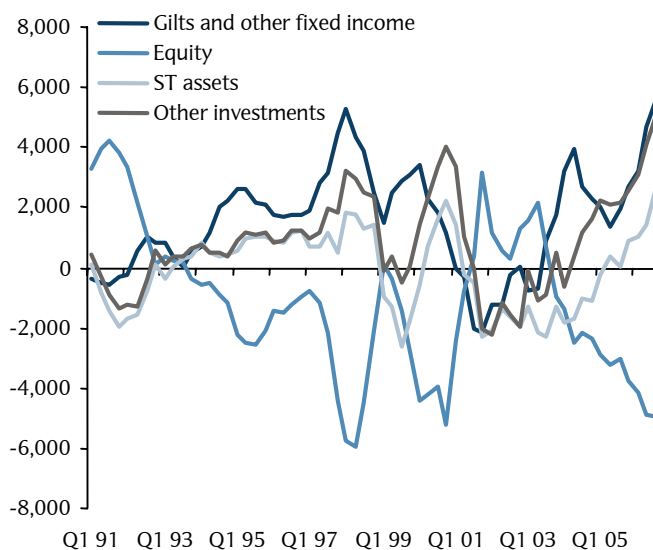
However, a closer look at the quarterly flow data from National Statistics shows a somewhat more complex story. Figure 46 shows the flow data from long-term insurance funds and pensions schemes over the past 10 years:

Figure 46: Institutional investment flows (4QMA, £ mn)

Long-term insurance fund flows



Pension fund flows



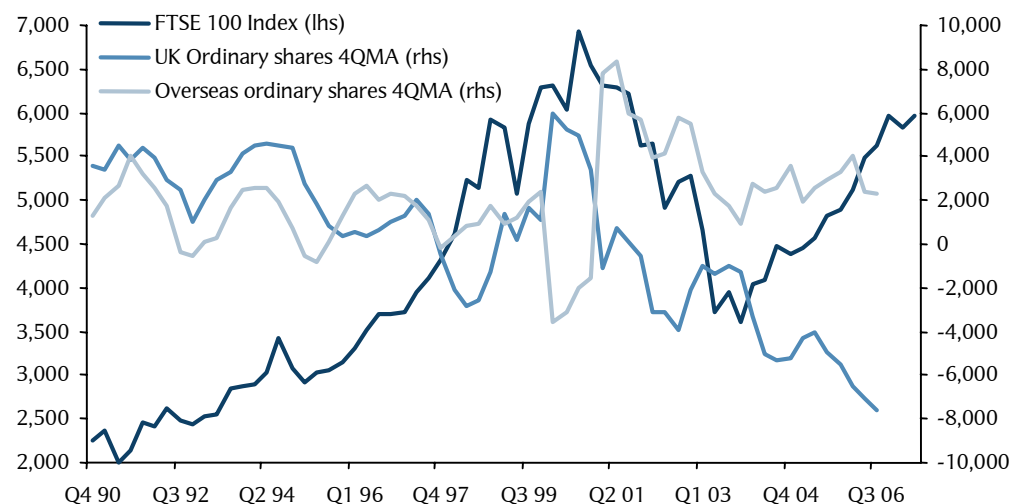
Source: National Statistics, Barclays Capital.

The flow data show some interesting contrasts. For most of the 1990s, the insurance sector showed good appetite for corporate fixed income and UK equity. But as they were confronted by a tightening of their regulatory capital framework by the FSA, insurers sold their holdings of corporate paper and equity and increased their holdings of gilts. This buying was largely in the belly of the curve, as this provided an effective hedge for insurance liabilities. After the abatement of these one-off structural flows, net gilt flow seemed to fall away but most recently, they have begun to show more of an interest in gilts. We think that this reigniting of interest has been driven largely by the effect of insurance regulation, specifically the initial calculations of Individual Capital Adequacy statements (ICAs) under the FSA new insurance regulation framework.

The story for pension funds has been slightly different. Since the mid-1990s, the sector in aggregate has been a net seller of UK equity while the appetite for corporate bonds has been relatively limited. What has been most notable is the ongoing interest in overseas equity and the jump in investment in what the ONS classify as “other investments”. This includes investment in alternative asset classes, hedge funds, fund of funds and other “alpha-seeking” investments. Intriguingly, their appetite for gilts has only very recently picked up. So the flow data suggest that while institutional investors have been selling equity, their appetite for fixed income has been relatively subdued.

What has been apparent when looking at equity flows specifically is that the heavy selling of UK equity coincided with the bear market for equity during 2000-03. However, even as the equity market has recovered, there has been no desire to rebuild equity portfolios and indeed the selling flow seems to have accelerated. However, there has been some ongoing appetite for overseas equity from institutional investors indicating some desire to diversify portfolios away from UK-centric bias

Figure 47: FTSE100 Index vs institutional equity flows (4QMA, £ mn)



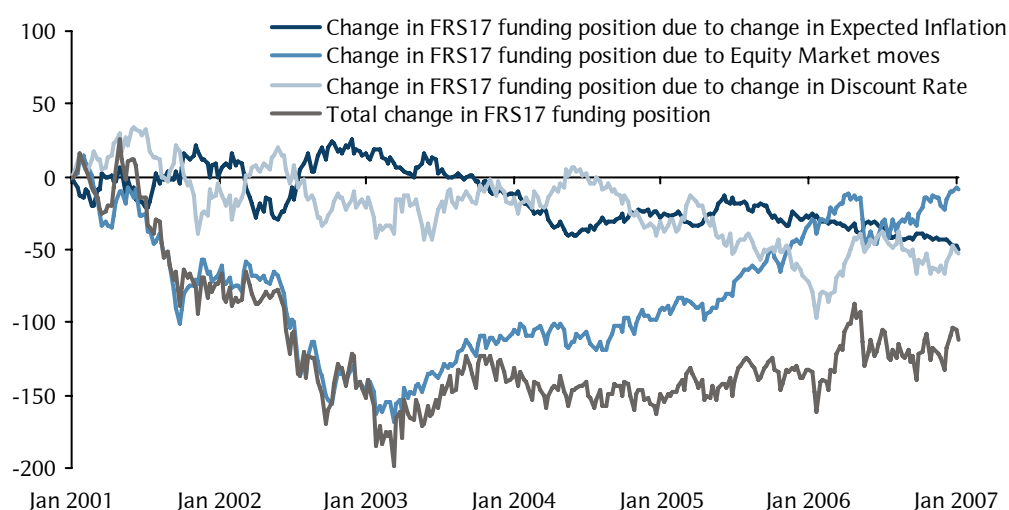
Source: Bloomberg, National Statistics, Barclays Capital calculations.

Scheme funding: immovable object?

The most recent official data from the “Purple Book” (“DB Pension Universe Risk Profile”, published jointly by The Pension Regulator and the Pension Protection Fund), suggests as schemes become closer to being fully funded, so does the tendency to increase holdings of gilts and fixed income securities. Intuitively, this makes sense as there is a general reluctance to “lock in” deficits by executing equity-into-bond switches. This suggests that the appetite to begin to move down the LDI path is ultimately a function of the overall funding position of the scheme.

So just how has overall scheme funding evolved over the last few years? Figure 48 will be familiar to regular readers of our research. It shows how the aggregate deficit for a typical corporate deferred benefit (DB) scheme has evolved since 2001 and further, it breaks down the deficit into its key drivers – the nominal discount rate, the cost of inflation protection and the performance of the equity portfolio. The scheme modelled is assumed to have a starting point of £0.5bn liability in present value terms (measured on an FRS17 basis) and £0.4bn of assets by market value – ie, was 80% funded on an FRS17 basis, around 60% funded on a full buyout basis. In terms of assets, the scheme is assumed to holding the following asset mix: 70% equity (split evenly between UK and overseas); 30% bonds (25% of which are invested in index-linked gilts). Overall, we assume that the membership of the scheme has 25% active; 40% pensioner, with 35% deferred. Broadly speaking, this mirrors both the asset allocation and structure of a typical UK scheme at the beginning of the decade.

Figure 48: Evolution of the FRS17 deficit for typical UK-defined benefit scheme (£ mn)



Source: Barclays Capital Pensions Solutions Group.

What is immediately apparent from Figure 48 is the asymmetric relationship between the performance of the equity portion of the investment portfolio and the overall deficit. In the early part of the decade, the bear market in equity drove the funding level to its nadir in early 2003. However since then, as equity has recovered, the overall funding level has not come back with it. In fact by the end of 2006, the losses on equity from the early part of the decade have been largely erased. Rather the deficit is far more driven by movements in rate markets – specifically, the movements in the discount rate and the cost of inflation protection.

The overall funding position for a typical scheme now looks to be at levels that we briefly saw in mid 2006 but prior to that, the overall funding position is at its best levels in over five years. If, as the Purple Book suggests, that higher scheme funding is a precursor to more fixed income investment then, all other things being equal, should we expect demand to pick up? Figure 49 outlines the latest estimates for deficits across the spectrum of deficit measures.

Figure 49: Overall UK DB funding levels (£ bn)

| | S179/PPF deficit | FRS17 | Full buyout |
|--|------------------|--------|-------------|
| Total assets | 635.5 | 635.5 | 635.5 |
| Total liabilities | 669.2 | 724 | 1075.8 |
| Aggregate deficit | -33.8 | -88.6 | -440.4 |
| Total deficit for schemes in deficit | -76.3 | -110.6 | -440.6 |
| Total surpluses for schemes in surplus | 42.6 | 22.1 | 0.3 |

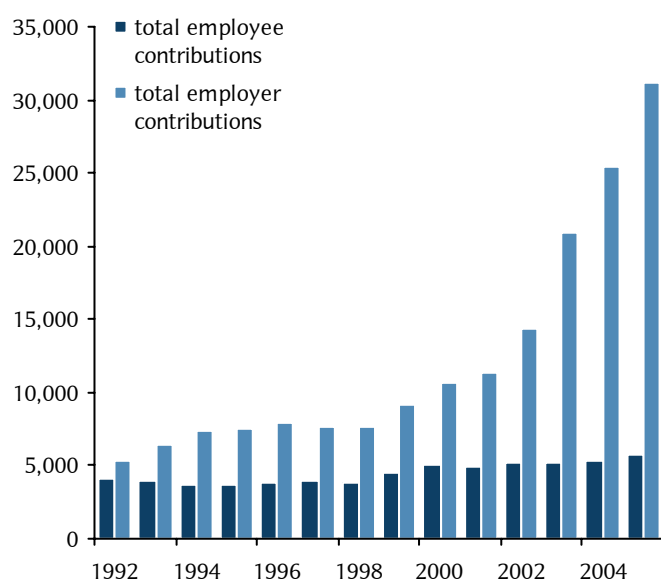
Source: TPR/PPF.

As can be seen, the overall funding position is a volatile item, so we need to look at the sensitivities of the deficits to movements in some of the key drivers. The Purple Book estimates that for a 10 bp move in gilt yields, the aggregate deficit would move by around £13bn, while a 2.5% move in equity prices would move the overall deficit by £11bn. These numbers need to be treated with a degree of caution, as the indexation treatment for PPF benefits does differ. Briefly, the PPF guarantee all pension in payment in full but pensions yet to be paid are only paid up to 90% relative to a compensation cap of £26,050 pa. Also, since the PPF pays no indexation on pre-1997 benefits, the s179 valuation are, in all likelihood, on the optimistic size. In contrast, the estimates for the full buyout deficit are likely to underestimate the true cost as the market for bulk purchase annuities, despite a spate of recent entrants, still has limited capacity and so the “cost” of the buyout is essentially a moving target. Typically, the full buyout cost for a scheme will be around 140% of its accounting (IAS19/FRS17) deficit.

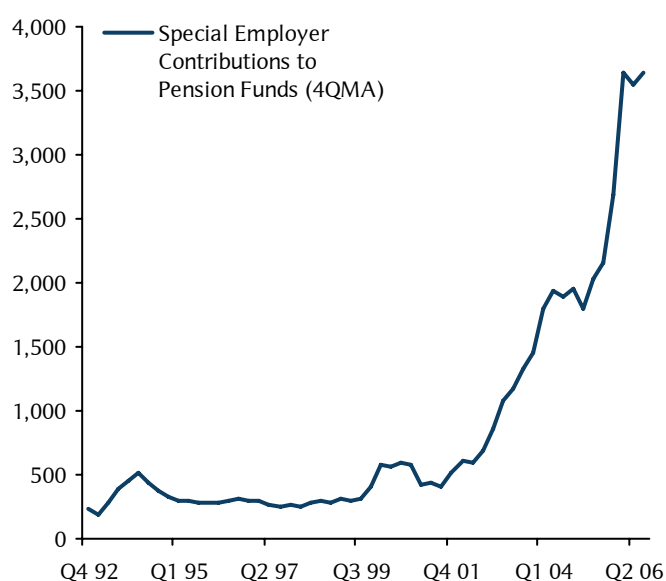
Figure 50 shows that employer contributions into pension schemes have been accelerating since the early part of this decade as the level of underfunding in corporate schemes has become apparent.

Figure 50: Contribution to pension schemes from employers and employees (£ mn)

Total contributions to pension funds (£ mn)



Special employer contributions to pension funds (£ mn)



Source: National Statistics.

This has largely been driven by one-off “special contributions”, which have grown from £1bn in 2000 to £10.8bn in the last full year of data (2005). In total, “special contributions” made up 30% of total employer contributions. Notably, special contributions have been on an accelerating path, with the four-quarter moving average currently running at just under £3.5bn per quarter, having recently fallen back a touch from its highest level in over 10 years.

LDI flow: It’s the longevity that kills you

The growth of LDI flow has been offered as a solution to pension deficits. In simple terms, the argument is that pension liabilities are bond-like in their nature and so by constructing a matching portfolio using a combination of inflation-linked and nominal cash flows, investors can hedge their liabilities effectively. It provides a direct link between the portfolio of assets and the liabilities for which the assets are being held.

Despite the increasing importance of LDI flows, data on how much has actually been done are next to impossible to find. While it is universally accepted that LDI flow is playing an increasing role in pension fund strategies, the increased use of derivative products is not being picked up in the official data produced by National Statistics. Previously, a useful gauge of activity was the amount of turnover in the inter-dealer broker market. But in all likelihood, this number probably underestimates the amount of flow that is seen in the market as, increasingly, inflation flow is being sourced internally not from the market but from specific sources such as debt issues from utilities. We would estimate that currently, LDI flow runs at somewhere around £20bn-25bn per year and is likely to run at this kind of level. Our own estimates suggest that in 2006, assuming an average duration of 20 years, the swap market saw £45-50m PV01 in LDI flow.

What LDI strategies cannot control is the risk associated with increasing longevity. The announcement that WHSmith had closed its scheme to new members illustrates the point. The company had moved its pension scheme over to a LDI-based portfolio but found that even after this, the increasing costs of longevity were making the scheme too expensive and no longer a “reasonable risk”. The risk and extra cost associated with longevity should not be underestimated. In their sensitivity analysis presented in the Purple Book, TPR finds that a one-year error in longevity assumptions would change the aggregate deficit for the pension industry by £20bn at the three-year horizon. According to actuarial consultants Lane Clark and Peacock, of the 37 FTSE 100 companies that disclosed their mortality assumptions, the range of assumptions disclosed could vary the aggregate deficit of the FTSE100 companies by as much as £40bn. Also, the introduction of new mortality tables by the actuarial profession should have the effect of increasing the deficit, all other things being equal. Ultimately, longevity cannot be controlled, as there are no natural sellers of longevity. It has been suggested that the government is a natural seller, but it is, of course, exposed to longevity risk via the state pension system. Initial efforts to create a market in longevity via the issuance of longevity bonds have proved unsuccessful so far.

Corporate activity: the irresistible force behind future flow?

Most recently, the other key driver of LDI flow has been corporate activity. The merger or takeover of a UK company might potentially involve negotiations with the Pension Regulator on how the target company’s pension scheme is being insulated in the face of a highly leveraged takeover. The influence of TPR under such circumstances cannot and should not be underestimated. The Pensions Act grants a host of powers to the regulatory authorities, including ultimately the ability to invest directly into the pension

scheme if it determines that it requires bolstering. It would not instruct on asset allocation, but we would assume that any such investment would ultimately find its way into LDI-type portfolios. Recent examples include the BAA/Ferrovial transaction, where BAA announced that it had sold £580mm of exchange futures to reduce its equity exposure and bought £720mm of inflation and nominal swaps to hedge its market risk. Overall, the transaction had the effect of the £2.1bn pension scheme moving from a 70/30 equity/bond weighting to a net exposure of nearer 40/60 without having to sell any of its underlying assets. We believe these transactions will continue as long as UK corporations remain interesting targets for acquisitions.

This is especially the case for utilities that have stable business models and steady non-cyclical cash flows. Many companies also remain subject to price controls, set by their industry regulator, as many of these companies, particularly network utilities effectively operate natural monopolies where the cost of entering the markets remains prohibitively high. With regulation for some sectors still in some form of RPI cap, these companies are natural issuers of long-dated inflation-linked paper (as was seen in 2006). Additionally, the stability of the business model makes such companies attractive to a private equity bid or leveraged buyout. The added attraction to potential buyout would be that the debt obligations could be funded cheaply in the inflation-linked market as the demand for long-dated inflation-linked paper clearly exists.

Third-party buyouts to the rescue?

One of the most interesting recent developments has been a steady stream of announcements from new players announcing their intention to enter the pension buyout industry – the bulk purchase annuity (BPA) market. Essentially, these new players are third parties, backed by investor capital, that are looking to take on the pension liabilities of corporate entities and manage them independently.

What has motivated the growth of this sector? Partly, it must be a belief that the equity risk premium – the traditional way that pension schemes make money – is not being realised as funds, under advice from the actuarial profession and under pressure from the regulatory authorities, look to build liability hedging portfolios in order to begin to mitigate the risk to the corporate sponsor. Latterly, the growing problem of longevity risk and the headache of having an open-ended liability on the balance sheet will have made corporate sponsors think long and hard about the future of their DB pension scheme.

In the opaque world of the UK pensions industry, traditionally, transfer of obligations to a third party has involved the purchase of a bulk annuity by the scheme in order to meet all the obligations in full. Legally, a solvent corporate entity that wishes to wind up a scheme must meet all its pension obligations, both deferred and active, in this way.

The purchase of the bulk annuity involves the valuation of pension liabilities – these are generally assumed to be discounted at a gilt rate using the most conservative assumptions available for key risks such as mortality, longevity and inflation. Given the size and complexity of this process and the risk involved in the ongoing management of the liabilities, only a very small number of players have felt able to manage these risks and this has led to the perception, rightly or wrongly, that the liability market is oligopolistic in structure and that has left the cost of a pension scheme buyout at an artificially high level.

The attractions to the corporate of handing over the liability to be managed by a third party are obvious. It allows full immunisation of a large and volatile balance sheet item. Also by divesting itself of pension obligations, it frees up valuable capital that can be used to fund investment. Indeed, the increase in pension contributions has been floated

by the Bank of England as a possible underlying reason for the relatively subdued levels of business investment that have recently been seen in the UK. We should acknowledge that it is a myth to think that pension contributions disappear into a “black hole” as some might believe – that is simply not the case. Money invested into the pension schemes is generally used to buy financial assets in order to meet pension obligations and these assets can be debt or equity securities issued to finance investment.

Figure 51 outlines some of the new names that have announced that they will be looking to enter the market in 2007. Where available, we have also added the size of the liabilities that they have said that they can take on and any further comments on investment strategy and who their main backers are.

Figure 51: New and existing players in the BPA market

| Existing Players | Comments | |
|-------------------------------|--|---|
| Prudential | Written 3 of the largest ever, 2 worth >£500mn | Over 400 schemes currently |
| L&G | Smallest £3mn, largest £87mn | |
| Canada Life | Already acquired £6bn of annuity liabilities | |
| New Entrants | Potential capacity | Scheme details and backers |
| Aviva | Scheme sizes up to £150m | Started quoting in 2006 |
| Aegon | Schemes sizes £50mn-200mn | Started quoting in 2006 |
| AIG | Few details available | Started quoting in 2006 |
| Pearl Group | Could consider entering BPA market | Backed by Sun and TDR Capital, up to £7bn capital |
| Paternoster | £5bn liabilities | Backed by Deutsche Bank, Eton Park, £500m capital |
| Synesis | £7bn-10bn liabilities over medium term | Backed by JPM, RBS and Warburg Pincus |
| Pension Insurance Corporation | £10bn-20bn liabilities | Backed by Swiss Re, Duke Street |

Source: Company-specific information, Barclays Capital.

Judging from the numbers that we have collected for a variety of sources, most of the new entrants seem to focus on benefits that they can offer above and beyond pricing, including greater risk management skills, streamlined administrative process and greater flexibility. The latter includes the potential to offer staggered or partial risk transfer. Estimates for the size of the potential business differ greatly, but numbers in the region of £10bn pa have been commonly cited.

While there would seem to be a willingness on the part of the new entrants to come into the market and willingness on the part of the corporate to hand over the deficits to third parties, will TPR sanction such transfers? The transfer of a pension liability to a third party is a “notifiable event” as it involves a material change to the trustee employer covenant. As such, it requires the acquiescence (at the very least) of TPR.

The initial soundings from TPR are not wholly encouraging. On 9 October 2006, David Norgorve, TPR Chairman issued a warning statement on the “*abandonment* of pension liabilities” (our italics), while welcoming the innovation in the approach to the management of pension liabilities, the statement recognised that the primary purpose of such transactions was to allow the corporate sponsor the chance to avoid meeting its pension obligations in full. The most relevant part of the statement is reproduced below:

“While we generally welcome innovation that helps employers and trustees manage risks better, we do not consider that abandonment of a scheme by its employers is usually likely to be in the best interests of scheme members unless the full section 75 debt is paid. Our position remains that the best means of delivering pension scheme members’ benefits is for the scheme to have the continued support of a viable employer. Trustees should be able to secure innovation and improvement in the areas of

administration and investment without breaking the link with the employer. Therefore, promises of access to such better services are not seen as relevant factors for trustees to consider in making decisions on transactions that break the link with the employer...

... trustees should apply an extremely high level of scrutiny to any such proposals brought to them. Their starting presumption should be that it is unlikely to be in the best interests of members to break the link with an employer of substance unless the full section 75 debt is paid. Once the link to any employer is removed trustees will have lost an important backstop to protect scheme members if the pension fund runs into difficulties in the future."

(Abandonment of pension liabilities, Statement from David Norgrove, 9 October 2006)

More recently, TPR has published a discussion paper on the issue, "Abandonment of defined benefit pension schemes" ⁸ on 14 December 2006. The tone of the discussion paper draws from David Norgrove's statement. Of particular relevance is TPR's view that the current pension regulatory framework rests on two distinct pillars: funding targets levels combined with the employer covenant forms the basis of security for defined benefit schemes. A removal of the employer covenant should "...substantially increase the scheme's appropriate level of technical provisions, and they [the trustees] should reflect this potential change in negotiations and mitigation they seek" (p.4). This seems to be TPR's way of saying that a decision to divest liabilities would require a substantive increase in funding to reflect the loss of optionality that comes from having a strong employer behind the scheme. Further on in the paper, on the specific issue of scheme investment strategy, TPR goes on to state that:

"Following the reduction in or removal of the employer covenant, the scheme would have lost an important backstop to protect it against investment risks. It is expected that the investment strategy should reflect the increased exposure of the scheme and the limited protection that it has against these risks. This will interact with any mitigation provided to the scheme as part of the arrangement and the need to consider the technical provisions. It may be that the appropriate investment strategy with a nominal employer prevents the opportunity to achieve the funding of the appropriate technical provisions. This would be a strong argument for trustees not agreeing to the arrangement."

(pp 37-38, Abandonment of defined benefit pension schemes, TPR Discussion Paper, 14 December 2006)

It would seem that, currently, TPR is likely to insist that any transfer of liabilities is backed up by a risk mitigating investment policy that is reflected in any new scheme funding plan or any investment programme. So overall, if the market takes off, we should expect that there should be a steady stream of LDI flows into the long end as schemes seek to satisfy TPR's insistence on risk mitigating strategies.

Will the regulatory capital framework influence the investment behaviour of buyout players who had taken on liabilities? We would argue that it would but not in a direct manner. A cursory glance at the latest available set of annuity fund returns for the largest providers show that typically, annuity funds hold 4-9% of their total asset base in regulatory capital. The reason that so little capital is devoted to regulatory capital is largely because most of their asset base is fixed-income orientated. Typically, they will hold around 70% of all assets in fixed income and very little in equity. Given that under the Pillar 2 test of the regulatory framework, a new annuity fund might look to run their balance sheets more efficiently and in order to minimise its ICA charge will look to divest itself of

⁸ The discussion paper can be found on The Pension Regulator website at: <http://www.thepensionsregulator.gov.uk/pdf/AbandonmentDiscussionPaper.pdf>

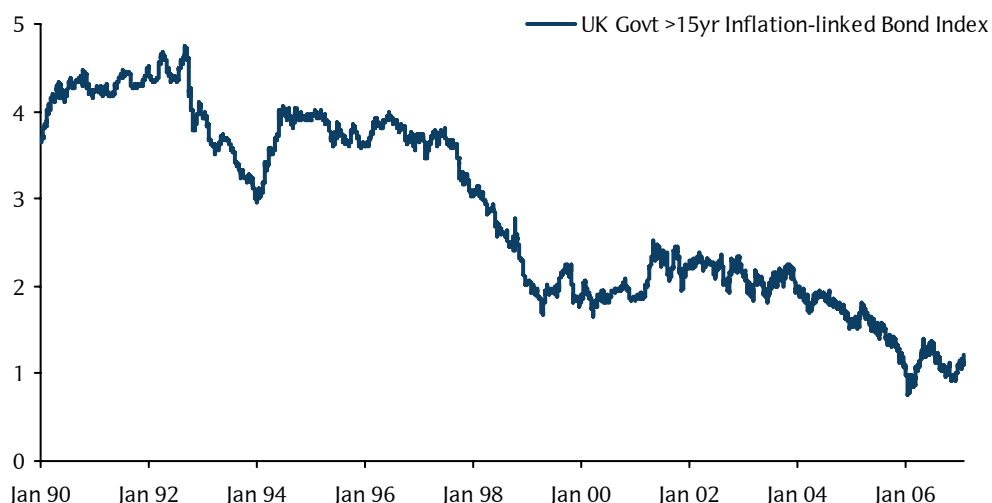
the bulk of any equity holdings that it might inherit. This is where the influence of TPR might come to be felt, since judging from their statement in October, it clearly has doubts over the wisdom of transfers and so may well insist on a more risk averse investment policy be put in place.

How much buying there might be on the back of a transfer is an open question. When the scheme is bought out, the existing assets of the scheme (plus some additional assets to cover the full buyout price) will pass across to the insurer. If the existing assets are a good (duration) match for the liabilities, then there could be very little buying. However, if existing assets are very short (which is most likely), then there will be a large amount of buying that the insurer might do to match duration and hence reduce capital requirements. It is this latter flow, initiated by TPR but aided by the regulatory framework, which may become one of the key themes at the long end of both the nominal and real curves in 2007 if the third party BPA business takes off. It is difficult to quantify exactly how large the flows that we may see might be. But in terms of asset allocation, it is not unreasonable to assume that the bulk of the assets that the third party would buy would be equity-based and that the ultimate portfolio would be fixed income-based and so we could see sizeable portfolio shifts.

Indexation: a “real” problem requires a “real” solution

The issue of indexation is a key one as it has largely been responsible for the development of the inflation derivatives market. The use of inflation derivatives has become a routine part of the array of instruments that real yield investors can use in order to begin to hedge pension liabilities. What has been more interesting is the alternative routes that pension schemes have used to gain exposure to real returns. In particular, schemes are now looking to use alternative asset classes such as infrastructure ownership (directly or via pooled investment vehicles) or even property investments as ways of getting access to inflation-linked cash flows. The property route has most recently garnered most attention after Marks and Spencer’s innovative deal with their pension scheme involving the lease payments on some of their property portfolio. But it can also involve third-party schemes (eg, Tesco’s deal with BA Pension Funds – although strictly speaking our understanding is that this was not a pure inflation deal). This is clearly a route that other retailers might wish to follow as retail sector rents are often linked to RPI and general retailers are often seen as natural issuers of inflation-linked paper. These innovative solutions make sense as long-dated real yields have fallen sharply over the past 10 years and, faced with almost insatiable demand for inflation-linked assets, are unlikely to back up to levels seen in the mid 1990s in the near term.

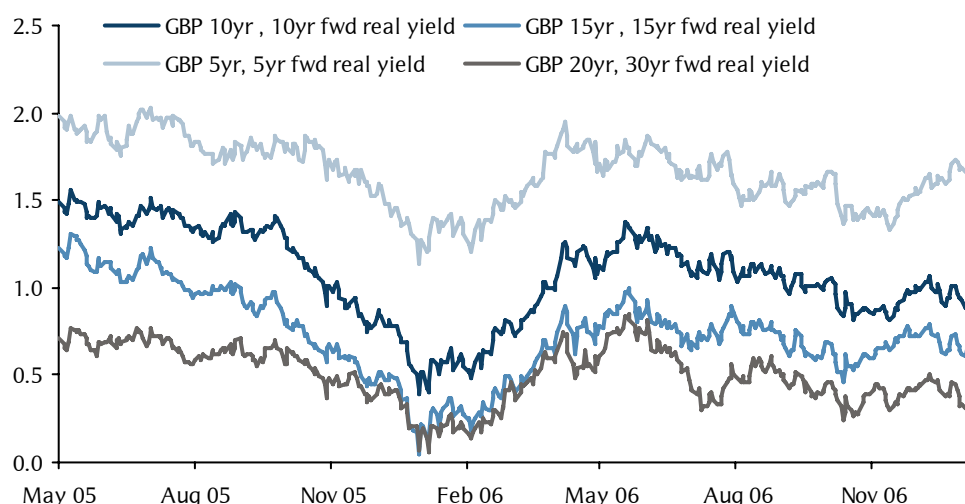
Figure 52: UK Government >15 yr Inflation-linked gilt Index – real yield (%)



Source: Barclays Capital.

The demand has pushed long-dated real yield to levels that are widely regarded as untenable, but have yet broadly persisted. The truth of the matter is that as long as there remains an imbalance between supply of inflation-linked assets and an environment where asset and liability management is actively encouraged by investment advisers, then such levels are likely to persist. Another interesting development has been the fact that the low level of ultra-long real forward rates has meant that investors have preferred intermediate forward rates, balking at locking in ultra-long forward real rates at record low levels and with half an eye on hedging their accounting risk rather than true liability exposure. The difference between the two forms of hedges is that true liability hedging would involve hedging all exposures. However, from an accounting perspective, the discount rate used to value liabilities is taken to the yield of a long dated high quality corporate bond. The duration of a AA >15 yr corporate bond index is currently around 13 years, as the majority of bond in the index will be of between 15-25 yr maturity, so the discount factor applied to liabilities will be highly sensitive to 15-25 yr discount rates rather than anything longer. Liabilities are then discounted at a flat rate rather than using any term structure assumptions. So, in order to hedge accounting risk, pension schemes have focused their attention on shorter maturities on the curve. This has seen the belly of the curve richening relative to other parts of the curve. As Figure 53 illustrates relative to the intermediate forwards, the richness of the ultra-long real forward rates offers little value to long-term investors.

Figure 53: Selected real forward rates (%)



Source: Barclays Capital.

Conclusion

It would seem that 10 years down the line, we appear to be no closer to a solution to the “pension problem”. Accounting and regulatory reform has come and gone and done little to ease the burden, but we would argue that there has been a successive watering down of regulation, which has been an attempt to ease the burden and reduce the level of perverse incentives created in previous legislation.

What is apparent is that when confronted with an issue, the most effective solutions have come from the market – the creation of inflation derivatives, innovative linkages between real assets and real liabilities, creating portfolio structures that provide both return and hedging. And it is the market that drives corporate schemes into hedging – albeit with some encouragement from the regulatory authorities as the flow into ALM strategies is largely determined not solely by regulation but by market level and timing.

Chapter 6 – UK asset returns since 1899

Sree Kochugovindan, Roland Nilsson

We present the real returns of the major asset classes in the UK and analyse returns on equities, gilts and cash from end-1899 to end-2006. Index-linked gilt returns are available from 1982, while corporate bonds begin in 1990. The returns reported in this chapter are real returns. In order to deflate the nominal returns, a cost-of-living index is computed, which uses the Bank of England inflation data from 1899 to 1914 and thereafter the Retail Price Index, calculated by the Office of National Statistics. Figure 54 summarises the real investment returns of each asset class over various time horizons.

Figure 54: Real investment returns by asset class (% pa)

| Last | 2006 | 10 years | 20 years | 50 years | 107 years* |
|-----------------|------|----------|----------|----------|------------|
| Equities | 11.4 | 4.9 | 6.9 | 7.1 | 5.3 |
| Gilts | -4.4 | 4.6 | 5.6 | 2.2 | 1.1 |
| Corporate bonds | -4.5 | 6.7 | | | |
| Index-linked | -2.1 | 4.5 | 4.5 | | |
| Cash | 0.4 | 2.6 | 3.7 | 2.0 | 1.0 |

*Note: * Entire sample. Source: Barclays Capital.*

The first column provides the real returns over one year, the second column the real annualised returns over 10 years, and so on. The equity rally continued in 2006. Equities outperformed all other assets for the fourth consecutive year. Despite the sharp global equity sell off during May, the FTSE All Share posted annual real returns of 11.4% in 2006, slightly weaker than the 19% seen in 2005. UK equity performance was in line with the US equity market last year; however, the FTSE All share lagged behind its European counterparts. Most major European indices posted gains of over 19% in real terms with Spanish equities posting real returns of 31%. Over the past few years equity markets across Europe and the US have been boosted by strong M&A activity as well as robust economic growth. ONS figures showed that the net value of UK-targeted M&A deals had almost doubled since the end of 2003 and by the end of the third quarter of 2006 was approaching levels last seen in 1999, when the dot-com boom was well underway.

Bonds posted a lacklustre performance in 2006. Nominal returns for 15-year gilts were flat over the year. The stronger pace of inflation eroded bond returns further. Annual RPI inflation rate of 4.4% during 2006 was the highest since 1991 and pushed real total returns into negative territory. Longer-run averages were lowered as a result of last year's bond returns. Ten-year annualised averages fell from 5.6% to 4.6%, while the 20-year average dipped from 6.2% to 5.6%. Fifteen-year corporate bonds and index-linked returns also suffered in 2006 both posting negative real returns.

Cash returns remained fairly stable in nominal terms. However, monetary tightening of half a percentage point during 2006, helped protect real returns and led to cash outperforming bonds.

Figure 55: Real investment returns (% pa)

| | Equities | Gilts | Index-Linked | Cash |
|-----------|----------|-------|--------------|------|
| 1906-16 | -3.7 | -6.6 | | -2.8 |
| 1916-26 | 6.5 | 3.1 | | 2.6 |
| 1926-36 | 9.7 | 10.3 | | 4.2 |
| 1936-46 | 2.5 | 1.6 | | -2.1 |
| 1946-56 | 2.3 | -6.9 | | -2.8 |
| 1956-66 | 7.8 | -0.3 | | 1.8 |
| 1966-76 | -0.3 | -5.6 | | -2.0 |
| 1976-86 | 14.6 | 6.0 | | 2.6 |
| 1986-96 | 9.0 | 6.6 | 4.4 | 4.9 |
| 1996-2006 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 2.6 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 55 decomposes real asset returns for consecutive 10-year intervals. Fifteen-year gilts lost the title of best-performing asset over the past decade as last year's weakness dragged the 10-year annualised average lower. Four consecutive years of growth have helped equities erase the losses in the wake of the technology stock crash and equities are now the best performing asset of the past 10 years.

Ranking the annual returns and placing them into deciles provides a clearer illustration of their historical significance. The results for 2006 are shown in Figure 56, and as highlighted earlier, are weaker than the returns seen in 2005. The equity portfolio is ranked in the fifth decile for 2006. Slightly weaker than the third decile ranking seen in 2005, but still, a dramatic improvement from 2002, when equities were ranked in the worst decile in the recorded history. The ranking for both gilts and index-linked bonds has dropped from the third decile in 2005 to the eighth decile in 2006, while the ranking for cash fell from fifth to seventh.

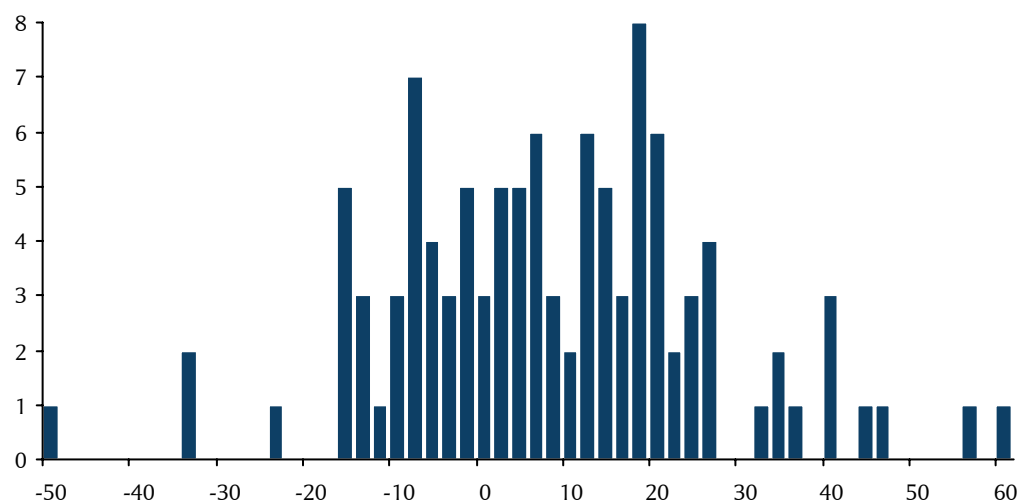
Figure 56: 2006 real returns with historical performance ranked by decile

| | Decile |
|--------------|--------|
| Equities | 5 |
| Gilts | 8 |
| Index-Linked | 8 |
| Cash | 7 |

Notes: deciles ranking: 1 signifies the best 10% of the history, 10 the worst 10%. Source: Barclays Capital.

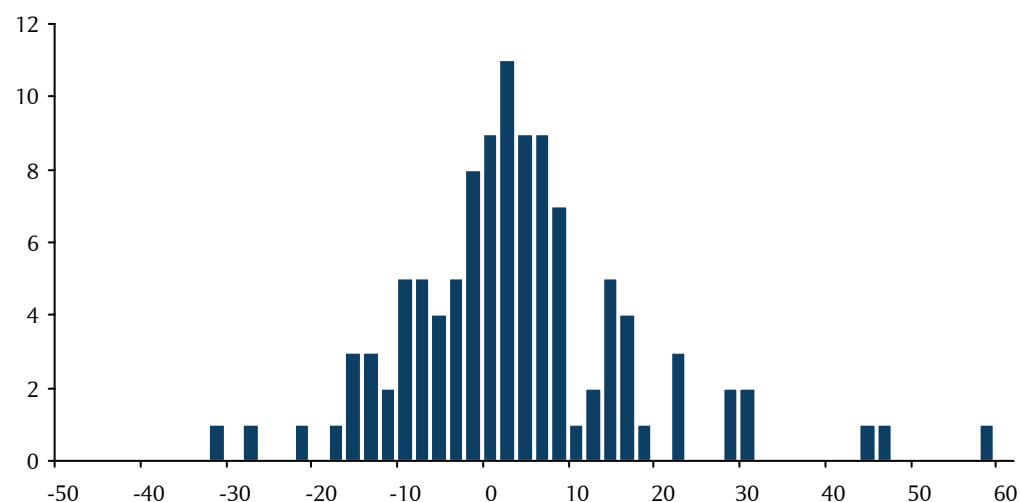
The following charts illustrate the distribution of returns over the past 107 years. The charts clearly show that equity returns have the widest dispersion, followed by gilts and then cash. The observed distributions are in accordance with financial theory; from an ex ante perspective we would apply the highest risk premium to equities given their perpetual nature and our uncertainty over future growth in corporate profits and changes in the rate of inflation. For gilts, the uncertainty with respect to inflation remains, but the risk from the perspective of coupon and principal is reduced given their government guarantee. Over the past 30 years, the dispersion of annual gilt returns has widened significantly; in the 1970s and 1980s, an unexpected increase in the inflation rate led to significant negative real returns, while in the 1990s, an unanticipated fall in inflation in conjunction with lower government deficits facilitated above-average real gilt returns. The cash return index has the lowest dispersion. In recent years, the real returns to cash have been relatively stable, with the move towards inflation targeting by the Bank of England stabilising the short-term real interest rate.

Figure 57: Distribution of real annual equity returns



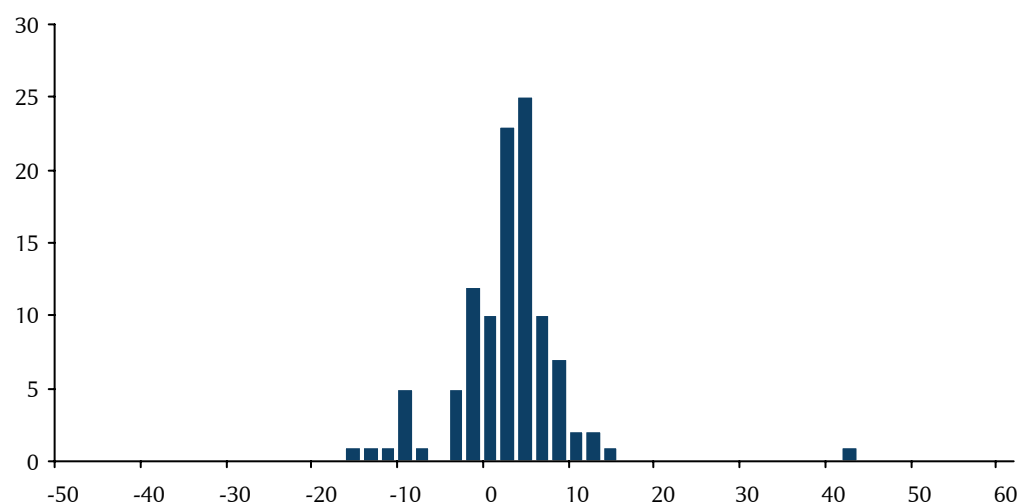
Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 58: Distribution of real annual gilt returns



Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 59: Distribution of real annual cash returns

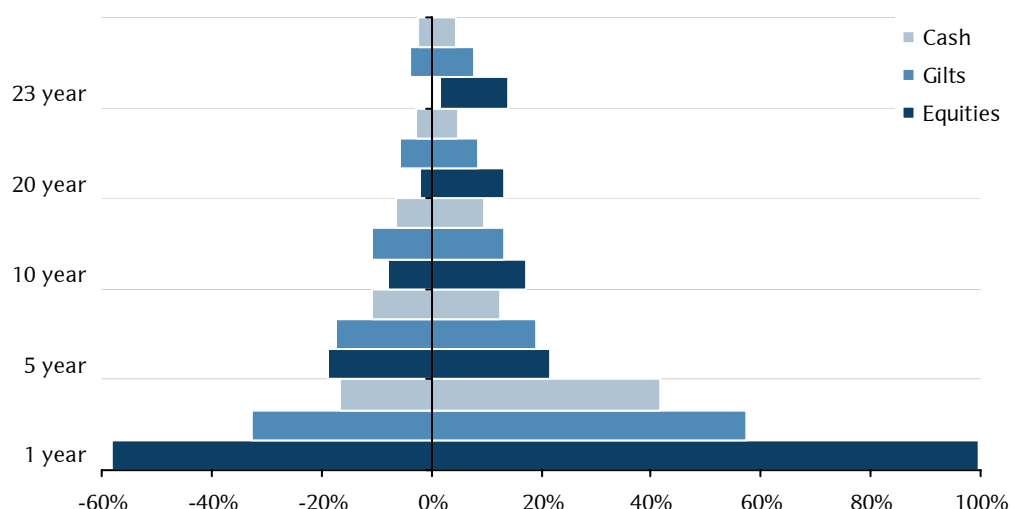


Source: Barclays Capital.

Performance over time

Having analysed the annual real returns since 1899, we now examine returns over various holding periods. The following chart compares the annualised returns when the holding period is extended to 5, 10 and 20 years.

Figure 60: Maximum and minimum real returns over different time periods



Source: Barclays Capital.

The most striking feature of the chart is the change in the volatility of returns as the investments are held for longer periods. The variance of equity returns falls significantly in relation to the other assets as the holding period is extended. When equities are held for as long as 20 years, the minimum return is actually greater than for either gilts or cash. However, as discussed in previous issues of this study, we do not believe that this fall in volatility should be interpreted as an indication of mean reversion in the returns. The series used are of rolling returns, hence there is an overlap in the data. For example, in the 10-year holding period, nine of the annual returns will be the same in any consecutive period, thus the observations cannot be considered as independently drawn.

The following table illustrates the performance of equities against gilts and cash for different holding periods. The first column shows that over a holding period of two years, equities outperformed cash in 71 out of 107 years, thus the sample-based probability of equity outperformance is 67%. Extending the holding period out to 10 years, the probability of equity outperformance rises to 93%.

Figure 61: Equity performance

| | Number of consecutive years | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10 | 18 |
| Outperform cash | 71 | 74 | 77 | 77 | 91 | 89 |
| Underperform cash | 35 | 31 | 27 | 26 | 7 | 1 |
| Total number of years | 106 | 105 | 104 | 103 | 98 | 90 |
| Probability of Equity Outperformance | 67% | 70% | 74% | 75% | 93% | 99% |
| Outperform gilts | 74 | 80 | 81 | 78 | 81 | 82 |
| Underperform gilts | 32 | 25 | 23 | 25 | 17 | 8 |
| Total number of years | 106 | 105 | 104 | 103 | 98 | 90 |
| Probability of Equity Outperformance | 70% | 76% | 78% | 76% | 83% | 91% |

Source: Barclays Capital.

The importance of reinvestment

The following tables show how the reinvestment of income affects the performance of the various asset classes. The first table shows the value of £100 invested at the end of 1899 without reinvesting income, the second table with reinvestment. £100 invested in equities at the end of 1899 would be worth just £213 in real terms without the reinvestment of dividend income, while with reinvestment the portfolio would have grown to £25,022. The impact upon the gilt portfolio is less in absolute terms, but the ratio of the reinvested to non-reinvested portfolio is over 300 in real terms.

Figure 62: Today's value of £100 invested at the end of 1899 without reinvesting income

| | Nominal | Real |
|----------|---------|------|
| Equities | 13,311 | 213 |
| Gilts | 45 | 1 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

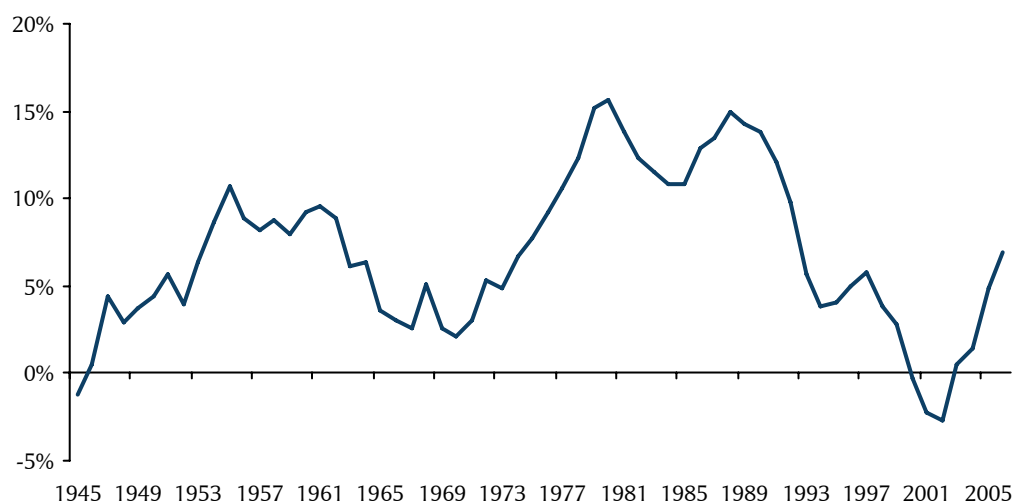
Figure 63: Today's value of £100 invested at the end of 1899, income reinvested gross

| | Nominal | Real |
|----------|-----------|--------|
| Equities | 1,561,732 | 25,022 |
| Gilts | 20,132 | 323 |
| Cash | 17,856 | 286 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Turning to the dividend growth ratio, the next chart shows that the five-year average growth rate has reached 6.9%, boosted by a 10% rise during 2006. Between 1997 and 2001, dividend income had fallen a cumulative 15% as companies cut dividends with the reasoning that funds would be put to better use by corporates than the shareholder. In the wake of the dotcom crash, investors actively sought income-yielding stocks as a method of lowering risk, a trend that has remained in place since 2001. As a result, value stocks have outperformed growth stocks by about 25% over the past five years, and have resulted in a cumulative 39% growth in overall dividend income since 2001.

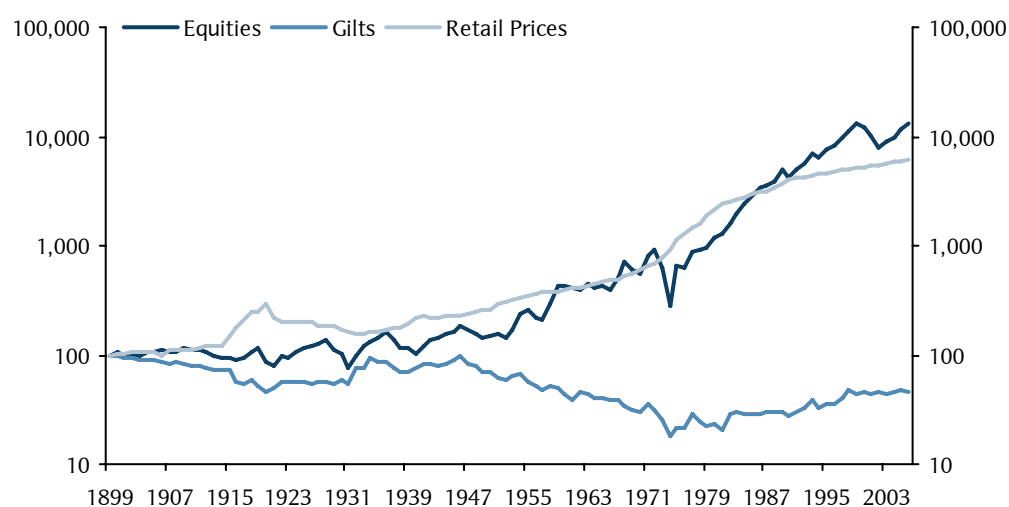
Figure 64: Five-year average dividend growth rates



Source: Barclays Capital.

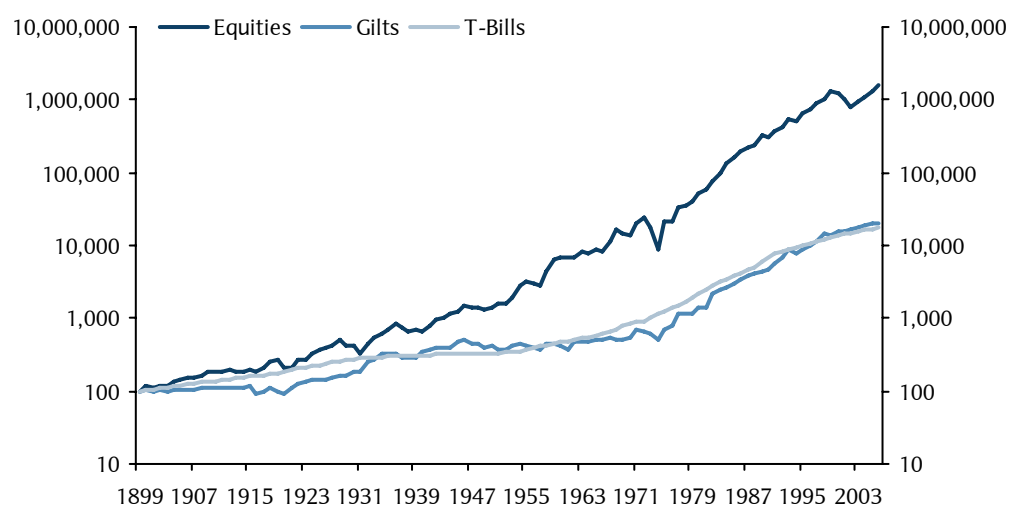
The following charts illustrate the time series of price indices and total return indices for equities, gilts and cash over the entire series. These returns are in nominal terms and are shown with the use of a logarithmic scale.

Figure 65: Barclays price indices: Nominal terms



Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 66: Barclays total return indices: Nominal terms, gross income reinvested



Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 67: Today's value of £100 invested at the end of 1945 without reinvesting income

| | Nominal | Real |
|----------|---------|------|
| Equities | 8,342 | 302 |
| Gilts | 49 | 2 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 68: Today's value of £100 invested at the end of 1945, gross income reinvested

| | Nominal | Real |
|----------|---------|-------|
| Equities | 125,243 | 4,531 |
| Gilts | 4,323 | 156 |
| Cash | 5,468 | 198 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 69: Today's value of £100 invested at the end of 1990, gross income reinvested

| | Nominal | Real |
|--------------------|---------|------|
| Equities | 523 | 335 |
| Gilts | 425 | 272 |
| Index-linked gilts | 335 | 215 |
| Treasury bills | 262 | 168 |
| Corporate bonds | 603 | 386 |

Source: Barclays Capital.

Chapter 7 – US asset returns since 1925

Sree Kochugovindan, Roland Nilsson

This is the eighth year in which we have incorporated US asset return data, kindly provided by the Centre for Research into Security Prices (CRSP). The CRSP database continues to be maintained by the Chicago Graduate School of Business. The first holding period covered in the analysis below is the calendar year 1926, which would represent money invested at the end of 1925 and its value at the end of 1926. The total sample includes 81 annual return observations for equities, bonds and cash. The construction of the series is explained in more detail in the indices section towards the back of the study. The nominal return series are deflated by the change in the consumer price index, which is calculated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Figure 70: Real investment returns (% pa)

| Last | 2006 | 10 years | 20 years | 50 years | 81 years* |
|----------|------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Equities | 13.3 | 6.4 | 8.5 | 6.6 | 7.1 |
| Bonds | -1.2 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| TIPS | -4.5 | | | | |
| Cash | 2.2 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 0.7 |

Note: *Entire sample.

Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 70 provides the real annualised returns over various time horizons. US equities rallied 13% in real terms during 2006, a strong rebound from the lacklustre returns produced in the previous year. Equities returned less than 4% in real terms during 2005, and even underperformed bonds. As with the UK stock market, US equities benefited from the mergers and acquisitions boom, and also overcame a sharp 9% sell off in May 2006. The 10 year equity risk premium narrowed to 1.2% from 1.9% last year, while the long run equity risk premium rose by 0.1% to 4.8%.

US 20 yr bond nominal returns were flat over the year, leaving real returns in negative territory. Bonds were the worst-performing asset, even underperforming cash. Cash benefited from two years of monetary tightening and provided the first positive real return since 2001. Figure 71 breaks the study period down into consecutive decades.

Figure 71: Real Investment Returns (% pa)

| | Equities | Bonds | Cash |
|-----------|----------|-------|------|
| 1927-36 | 8.7 | 7.4 | 4.1 |
| 1937-46 | 0.9 | -0.7 | -4.0 |
| 1947-56 | 14.4 | -1.7 | -1.2 |
| 1957-66 | 7.8 | 1.0 | 1.2 |
| 1967-76 | 0.4 | -1.4 | -0.2 |
| 1977-86 | 7.9 | 3.2 | 2.5 |
| 1987-96 | 10.7 | 5.3 | 1.6 |
| 1997-2006 | 6.4 | 5.2 | 1.1 |

Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Equities have outperformed bonds and cash over each decade since the inception of the data. Equities' best decade was that immediately after WWII. Bonds have enjoyed the strongest back-to-back performance over the past three decades, since the 1930s.

Strong real bond returns are largely explained by continued disinflation since the late 1970s, raising the value of the discounted principal for long-term Treasury bonds.

Figure 72 ranks the relative performance of the 2006 returns by deciles, in order to get a clearer indication of the historical significance. US equity ranking has risen from the seventh decile in 2005 to the fifth decile in 2006. This is similar to the performance of UK equities, which was also ranked in the fifth decile last year. Last year's negative real returns pushed the bond ranking down to the seventh decile, while cash moved up to the third decile.

Figure 72: 2005 real returns with historical performance ranked by decile

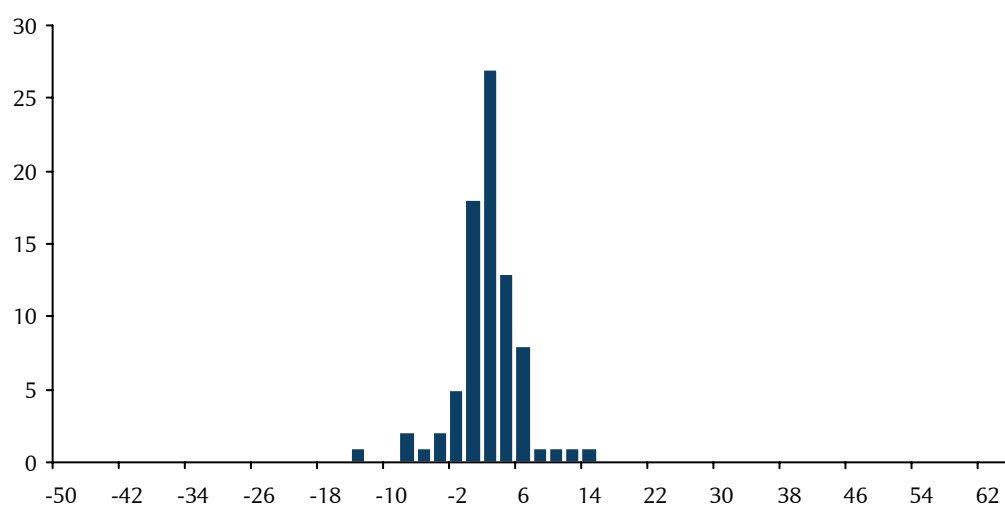
| | Decile |
|----------|--------|
| Equities | 5 |
| Bonds | 7 |
| Cash | 3 |

Notes: deciles ranking: 1 signifies the best 10% of the history, 10 the worst 10%.

Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

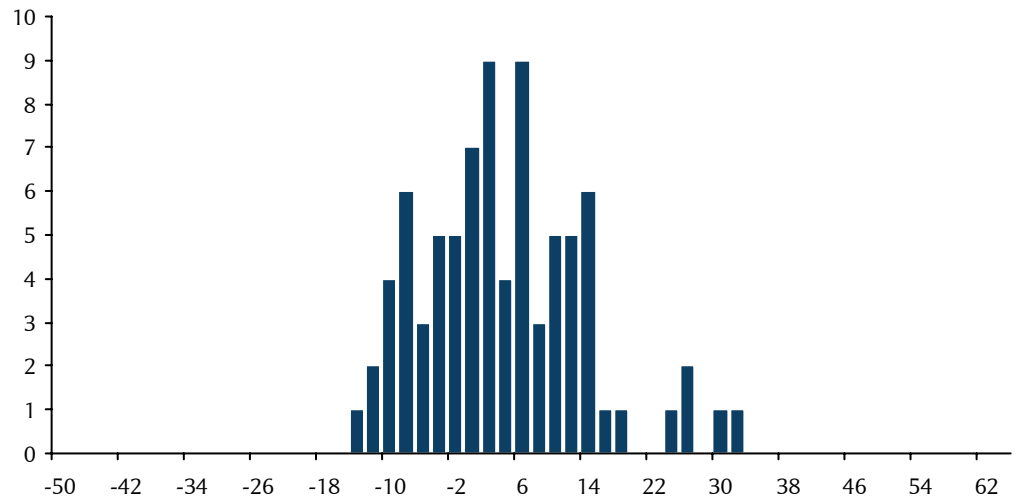
Figure 73, Figure 74 and Figure 75 plot the sample distributions using a histogram with identical maximum and minimum categories across each. These charts are useful in so much as they allow the reader to appreciate the volatility of each asset class, while at the same time gain an understanding of the distribution of the annual return observations. It is clear from the charts that cash exhibits the lowest volatility of each asset class, with bonds next and equities exhibiting the highest dispersion of returns.

Figure 73: Distribution of real annual cash returns



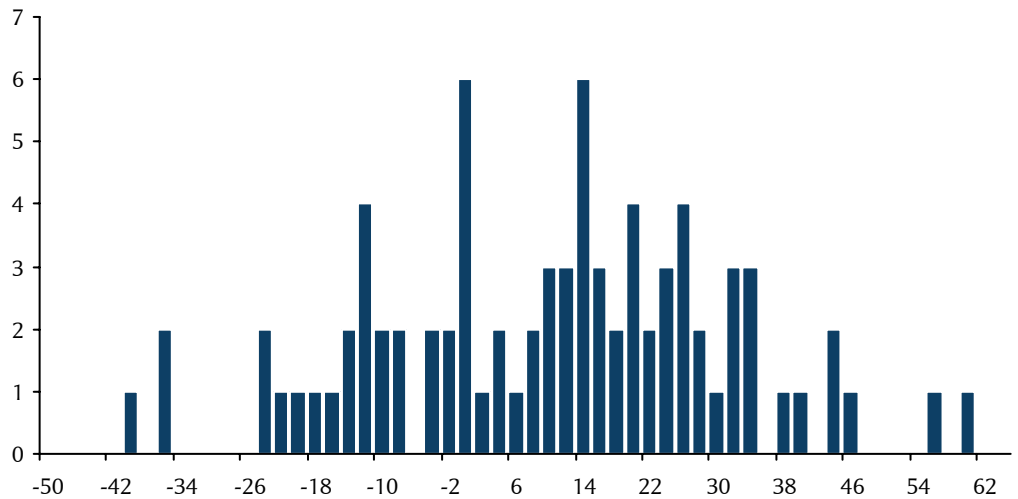
Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 74: Distribution of real annual bond returns



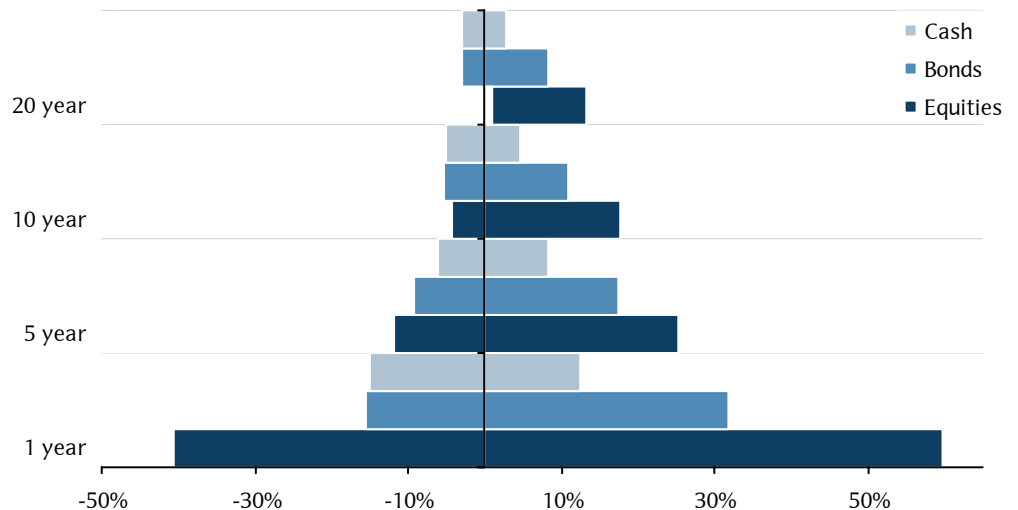
Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 75: Distribution of real annual equity returns



Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 76: Maximum and minimum real returns over different periods



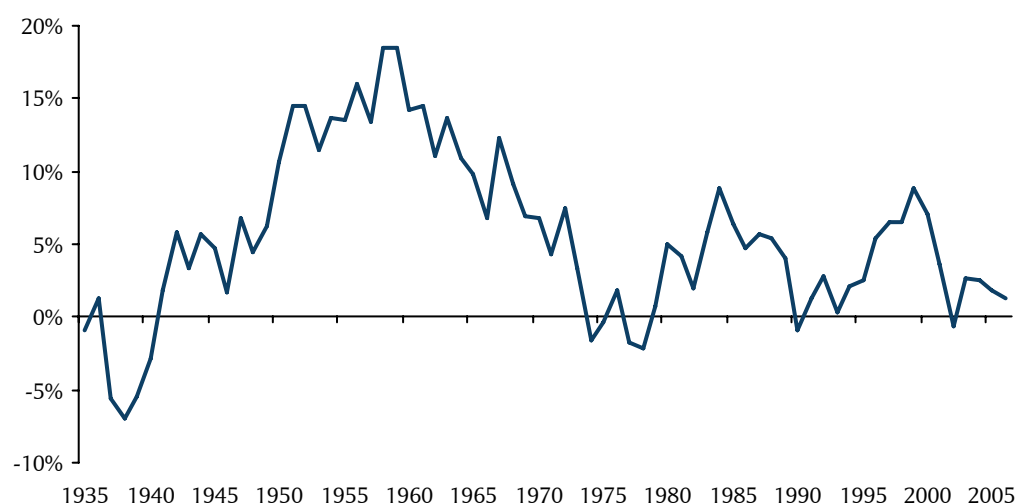
Source: Barclays Capital, CRSP.

In Figure 76, we show the return distribution extremes for various holding periods. The volatility of equities over very short horizons is shown clearly in the maximum and minimum distribution of one-year returns. As we extend the holding period, the distribution begins to narrow. Figure 77 shows that over the past 80 years, the worst average annualised 20-year return for equities has been 0.9%, while the best average annualised return stood at 13.2%. This does not indicate that it is impossible to lose money by holding equities over a 20-year period, in our view, as the analysis is being conducted on an ex post basis. It is still possible that equities generate negative real returns over a 20-year period. The chart is merely highlighting the fact that such an occurrence seems unlikely given their performance over the past 81 years.

In addition, over the long term, we would expect the ex ante equity risk premium to provide a cushion against future uncertainty. Over the long term, we would expect such a premium to provide an offset against the effect of unanticipated events. It could be argued that the lower extreme of the long-term equity return distribution is a function of the embedded risk premium in the ex ante valuation of equities. Bonds and cash have experienced negative returns over a 20-year horizon, a reflection of the unexpected jumps in inflation, which took effect at various points in the past century.

Figure 77 plots the US equity risk premium and shows that the 10-year annualised excess return of equities over bonds currently stands at 1.2%. The equity risk premium had bounced back from the lows of 2002. However, over the past two years, the risk premium has dipped slightly.

Figure 77: Equity-risk premium – Excess return of equities relative to bonds (10 years annualised)

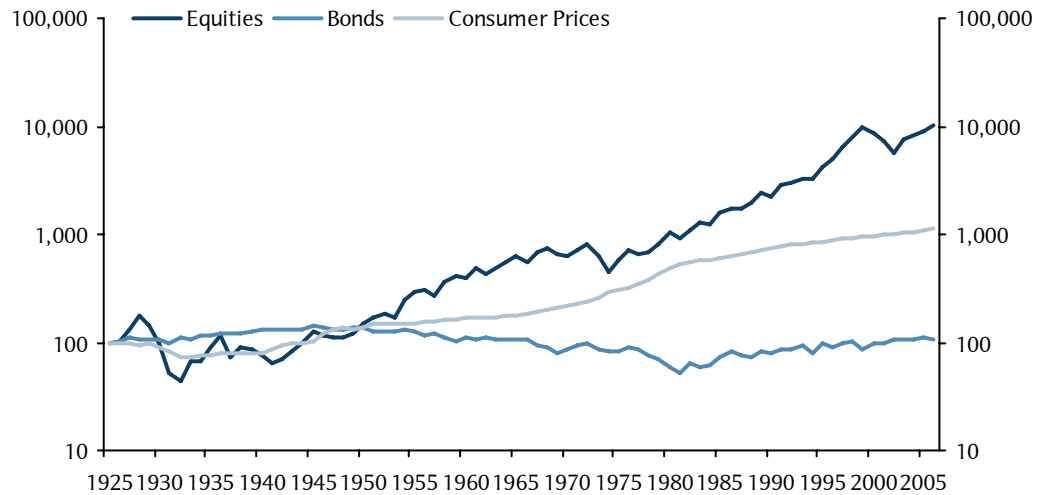


Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

The Importance of reinvestment

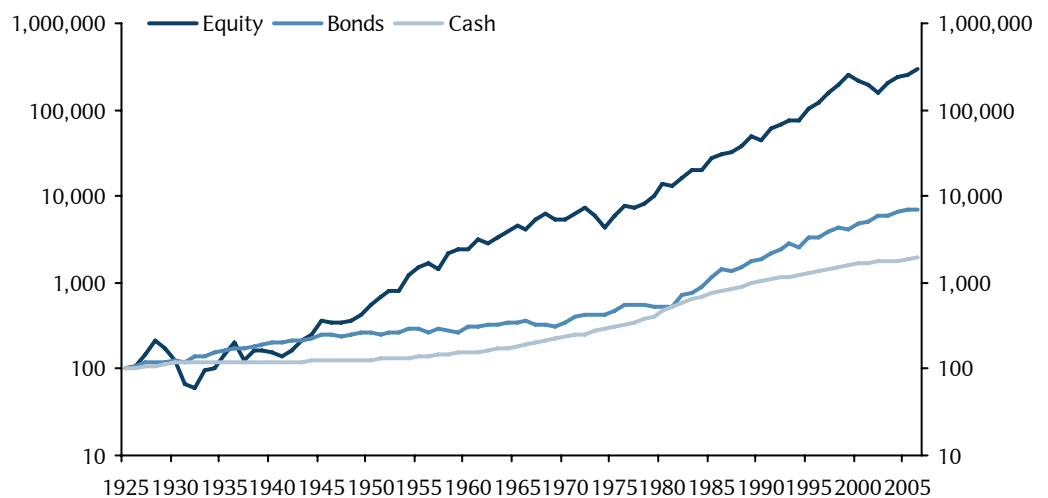
Figure 78 and Figure 79 show the importance of income reinvestment both in the form of dividends on equity investments and coupons on government bonds.

Figure 78: Barclays US price indices in nominal terms



Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 79: Barclays US total return indices in nominal terms with gross income reinvested



Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 80: Value of \$100 invested at the end of 1925 without reinvesting income

| | Nominal | Real |
|----------|---------|------|
| Equities | 10,025 | 889 |
| Bonds | 105 | 9 |

Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Figure 81: Value of \$100 invested at the end of 1925 with income reinvested gross

| | Nominal | Real |
|----------|---------|--------|
| Equities | 292,196 | 25,918 |
| Bonds | 7,156 | 635 |

Source: CRSP, Barclays Capital.

Chapter 8 – Barclays indices

We have calculated three indices: changes in the capital value of each asset class; changes to income from these investments; and a combined measure of the overall return on the assumption that all income is reinvested.

Additional series allow for the effects of inflation. The data for cash includes building society deposit rates and Treasury bills. The series on index-linked securities is based at December 1982 and the corporate bond index starts at the end of 1990.

Barclays Equity Index

The Barclays Equity Index is designed to give as accurate a measure as possible of the performance of a representative portfolio of equities. Three main types of index can be used. The FT Index, which for years was the most widely used in the UK, is a geometric index, which means that the price changes of the 30 shares that comprise it are multiplied together to produce the change on the index. This is a fair basis for indicating short-term market behaviour, but over long periods imparts a downward bias. The second type of index uses the Dow formula, in which the prices of a number of shares are added together. This does not have the distorting effect of a geometric index, but the weighting of the various shares is arbitrary and varies with changes in capitalisation.

The most accurate and representative indices are arithmetic indices, weighted by the number of shares in issue by each company. These indices include virtually all the large quoted companies, they accurately reflect the behaviour of an equity market. The Standard & Poor's Indices are of this type, and they date back to the 1920s. The FT Actuaries Indices, introduced in the 1960s, were the first of this type in the UK. Subsequently, a number of weighted arithmetic international indices, such as those calculated by Morgan Stanley Capital International and Datastream, have been introduced. More recently, the FTSE 100 Index, which uses the same construction but incorporates only the 100 leading shares, has been introduced and is now generally used as the main market indicator because it is calculated on a real-time basis throughout the day.

The new Barclays Equity Index, which is used in this study, is a weighted arithmetic index, and is now available for the period since 1899 with a dividend yield and an income index. The original Barclays Equity Index, used in editions of this study until 1999, was first calculated retrospectively in 1956 and included 30 shares chosen to be similar to those in the FT 30 Index, which covers the period 1935 to 1962. For the 2000 edition of this study, we compiled a new index for the years between 1899 and 1935, based on the 30 largest shares by market capitalisation in each year. From 1962, the Barclays Equity Index is based on the FTSE Actuaries All-Share Index because, with its broader coverage, it gives a more accurate picture of market movements. The indices are only calculated annually, at year-end.

The equity returns between 1899 and 1935 are therefore calculated from a new Equity Index, consisting of the 30 largest shares by market capitalisation in each year; between 1935 and 1962 they are calculated from the FT 30 Index and from 1962 onwards they are derived from the FTSE Actuaries All-Share Index.

Figure 82: Equity Index constituents

| Constituents at December 1899 | Constituents at December 1934 | Constituents at December 1962 |
|---|--|-------------------------------|
| De Beers Consolidated Mines | Woolworth Ltd | Associated Portland Cemen |
| Rio Tinto Ltd | Imperial Chemical Industries | Bass Mitchells & Butlers |
| Armstrong Whitworth | Shell" Transport & Trading Ltd | British Motor |
| Consolidated Gold Fields | CourtauldsLtd | Coats Patons |
| London and County Bank | Royal Insurance Co | Cory (William) |
| London City & Midland Bank Ltd | Barclay & Company | Courtaulds |
| Lloyds Bank Ltd | Lloyds Bank | Distillers |
| London & Westminster Bank Ltd | Prudential Assurance Co Ltd | Dunlop |
| Vickers, Sons & Maxim Ltd | Westminster Bank Ltd | EMI |
| Imperial Ottoman Bank | Midland Bank Ltd | Fine Spinners & Doublers |
| Parrs Bank Ltd | London & Lancashire Fire Ins. Co | General Electric |
| Royal Insurance Co | North British & Mercantile In. Co Ltd | Guest Keen |
| Tharsis Sulphur & Copper Ltd | Reckitt & Sons Ltd | Hawker Siddeley |
| Great Northern of Copenhagen | County of London Electric Supply Co | House of Fraser |
| Simmer & Jack ProprietaryMines Ltd | Unilever Ltd | ICI |
| North British & Mercantile Insurance | Tate & Lyle Ltd | Imperial Tobacco |
| Consett Iron Ltd | Alliance Assurance Company | International Stores |
| Eastern Extension Australasia * China Ltd | Boots Pure Drug Co Ltd | Leyland Motors |
| Nobel Dynamite TstLtd | Pearl Assurance Co | London Brick |
| Mysore Gold Mining Ltd | Marks & Spencer Ltd | Murex |
| Exploration Co | Cory (WM.) & Son | P & O Steam Navigation |
| Alliance Assurance Co | National Bank Of Egypt | Rolls-Royce |
| Aerated Bread Ltd | Consolidated Gold Fields Of South Africa | Swan Hunter |
| Howard & BulloughLtd | Bass, Ratcliff & Gretton Ltd | Tate & Lyle |
| Sun Insurance Office | GeduldProp Mines Ltd | Tube Investments |
| New JagersfonteinMining & Expl Ltd | Sun Insurance Office | Turner & Newall |
| Champion Reef Gold Mining | Bank Of Australasia | United Steel |
| National Telephone Ltd | British South Africa Co | Vickers |
| Northern Assurance | Chartered Bank Of India, Australia & China | WatneyMann |
| Phoenix Assurance Co | North Eastern Elec Supply Co | Woolworth |

Source: Barclays Capital.

The Equity Index is a weighted arithmetic average; the weights of the constituent companies for each year are proportional to their market capitalisation at the beginning of the year. Each year a fund was constructed. The number of shares in the fund of each of the 30 constituent companies was calculated so that their market value at the beginning of the year was the weighting of the company in the index. The value of the fund was calculated annually at the end of the year.

For the period 1899-1962 the Equity Income Index is based on the Barclays Equity Fund. The Income Index relates to the dividend income actually received in the 12 months prior to the date of the index. It is calculated by totalling the dividends paid on the shares in the fund. We believe that it is the only published index based on actual income receipts.

From 1963 the Income Index is derived from the yield on the FTSE All-Share Index. Despite a minimal discontinuity in the yield, in our view this is the most representative method of evaluating equity performance over the period. The dividend yield is quoted net from 1998, with non-taxpayers no longer able to reclaim ACT.

Barclays Gilt Index

The Gilt Index measures the performance of long-dated gilts. From 1899 to 1962 the index is based on the prices of undated British funds. During this period the undated stocks were a major part of the gilt market, but over the years the effect of high interest rates on their prices, together with the growing number of conventional long-dated issues, meant that undated stocks became less and less representative of the market as a whole.

Since 1962, the Barclays Gilt Index is based on a portfolio of long-dated stocks, selected on 1 January each year. The portfolio was chosen to represent as closely as possible a 20-year security on a par yield, and contains a weighted combination of four long-dated stocks with a mean life of 20½ years (so that the average life of the stocks for the year in which they are in the portfolio was 20 years). The combination and weightings of the four stocks are chosen to have the minimum possible deviation from a par yield. Small issues (less than £1bn) are excluded and in any year none of the four stocks has been allocated a weight of more than 40% or less than 5% of the index.

During the late 1980s there was a steady contraction in the number of issues that satisfy the criteria for inclusion in the Gilt Index. As a result of the lack of issues of new long-dated stocks and the fall in the remaining life of existing stocks, the universe of eligible stocks narrowed sharply. By the end of 1989 there were four stocks with a life of more than 20 years, and only two of these were over £1bn nominal.

Thus from the beginning of 1990 the index has been constructed to represent a portfolio of 15-year par yielding gilts.

Barclays Index-linked Index

The index-linked market has now been established for two decades and is capitalised at £116bn (compared with the £280bn capitalisation of the conventional market). The index has been constructed to mirror as closely as possible the rules of the conventional gilt index. An average life of 20 years was used up until 1990, and 15 years thereafter. Again, stocks have been chosen to be as close to par as possible, although of course in this case par means “indexed par”.

Barclays Corporate Bond Index

The UK corporate bond market has expanded dramatically since the beginning of 1991. The index and returns are based on the Barclays Capital Over 15-year Sterling Credit Index. Clearly, we are unable to select individual stocks for this index in the way we do for the gilt indices because such a small sample of stocks cannot be representative of the market. The Over 15-year index was chosen because it is similar to the Gilt and Index-linked Gilt indices in terms of remaining life and duration.

Barclays Building Society Fund

In previous editions of this study we have included indices of the value of £100 invested in a building society at the end of 1945. We originally used the average interest rate on an ordinary share account. In the mid-1980s many building societies introduced new tiered interest rate accounts, which provided a higher rate of interest while still allowing instant access. In response to this we have been tracking both types of account, but as time progressed the old style “ordinary share accounts” became less and less representative and by the mid-1990s had been completely superseded by the new accounts. From 1986 the Barclays Index follows the Halifax Liquid Gold Account (formerly called the Halifax Instant Xtra) as a representative of the newer tiered interest rate style accounts. The Halifax is no longer a building society, having converted to a bank, so from 1998 we follow the Nationwide Invest Direct Account. This is the closest equivalent account offered by the Nationwide Building Society (which is now the largest remaining building society in the UK); the difference is that it is operated by post. This type of postal account is considered to be more representative of building society returns than the branch operated passbook accounts, which are more in the nature of a cash-based transaction account.

US asset returns

The US indices used in this study were provided by the Center for Research in Security Prices (CRSP) at the Graduate School of Business in the University of Chicago. The value weighted equity index covers all common stocks trading on the New York, American and Nasdaq Stock Exchanges, excluding ADRs. For the bond index the CRSP has used software which selects the bond that is closest to a 20-year bond in each month. The same methodology has been employed for the 30 day T-Bill.

Total returns

In this study we have shown the performance of representative investments in British equities and long gilts with additional analysis of equivalent US returns in both monetary and real (inflation adjusted) terms. The total returns to the investor, however, also include the income on the investment. This is important throughout the study for comparability between asset classes. For example, when constructing an index for a cash investment such as the Treasury Bill Index, the £100 invested at the end of 1899 grew to approximately £104 by the end of the following year. This full amount is reinvested and by the end of 1920 the value of this investment had grown to about £190. In contrast, equity and bond market returns can be split into two components: capital appreciation and dividend income. The most commonly quoted stock market indices usually only include the capital component of the return. In order to calculate returns on a comparable basis we need to include the returns obtained by reinvesting this income. This is particularly important in looking at bonds where the scope for capital appreciation is small so almost all the return will be from income. In this study total returns are calculated assuming income is reinvested at the end of the year.

Taxation

The total return to an investor depends crucially upon the tax regime. The largest long-term investors in the British equity and gilt markets are pension funds and similar institutions that (until the abolition of the advance corporation tax (ACT) credit) have not suffered tax on their income or capital; our main tables therefore make no allowance for tax until 1998, which was the first full year that non-taxpayers were unable to reclaim the ACT credit. This effectively reduced the dividend yield to non-taxpayers, and is reflected in our main tables and gross total return series.

The personal investor must suffer tax. The net return to a building society account is straightforward to compute. However, changes in the tax regime in recent years make the net return to equity and gilt investment less straightforward to calculate on a consistent basis. For example, the change to total return taxation for gilts means that it is inappropriate to calculate a net total return on the basis of taxing income alone. Thus returns are quoted gross throughout, but for reference we also quote basic tax rates.

Arithmetic and geometric averages

Our analysis of past data usually relies on calculations of the geometric mean for each series. Arithmetic averages can provide a misleading picture. For example, suppose equities rose from a base of 100 to 200 over one year and then fell back to 100 over the next year. The return for year one would have been 100% and for year two minus 50%. The arithmetic average return would be 25% even though equities are actually unchanged in value over the two years.

The geometric average return in this example would be zero. This method of calculation is therefore preferable. Over long periods of time the geometric average for total returns is the rate at which a sum invested at the beginning of the period will grow to by the end of the period assuming all income is reinvested. The calculation of geometric averages depends only on the initial and final values for the investment, not particular values at any other point in time.

For periods of one year, arithmetic and geometric averages will be the same. But over longer periods the geometric average is always less than the arithmetic average except when all the individual yearly returns are the same. For the mathematically minded, the geometric return is approximately equal to the arithmetic return minus one-half the variance of the arithmetic return.

Although geometric returns are appropriate to analyse the past, arithmetic returns should be used to provide forecasts. Arithmetic averages provide the better unbiased estimator of returns (for a statistical proof of this see Ian Cooper's paper *Arithmetic vs Geometric Premium: setting discount rates for capital budgeting calculations*, IFA Working Paper 174-93, April 1993).

Capital value indices

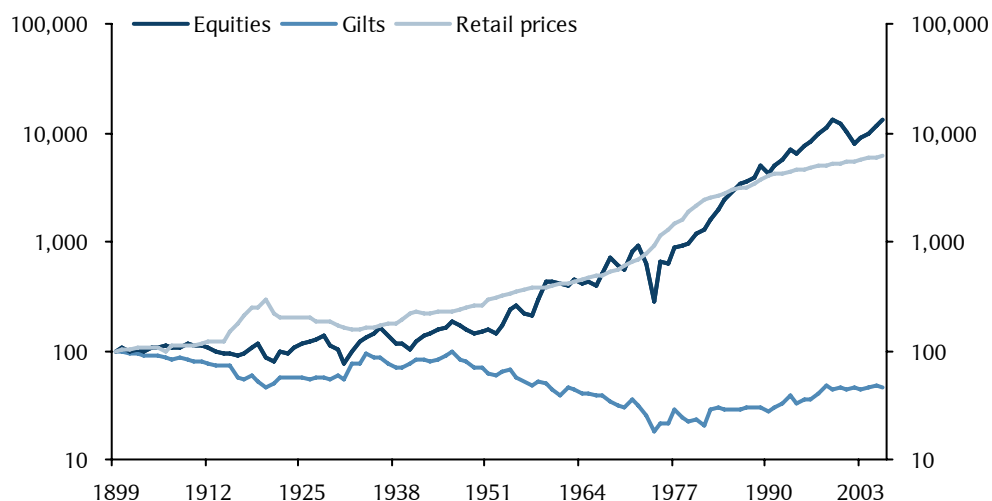
The indices in Figure 83 show the nominal capital value of £100 invested in equities and gilts at the end of 1899. The chart also plots the Barclays Cost of Living Index. Note how the equity index has correlated with increases in the cost of living versus a similar investment in gilts. The index values at the end of 2006 were 13,311 for equities, 45 for gilts, and 6,241 for the cost of living.

We then show the same capital indices adjusted for the increase in the cost of living since 1899. Figure 84 shows the end-2006 real equity price index at 213 with the real gilt price index at 0.7.

Total return indices

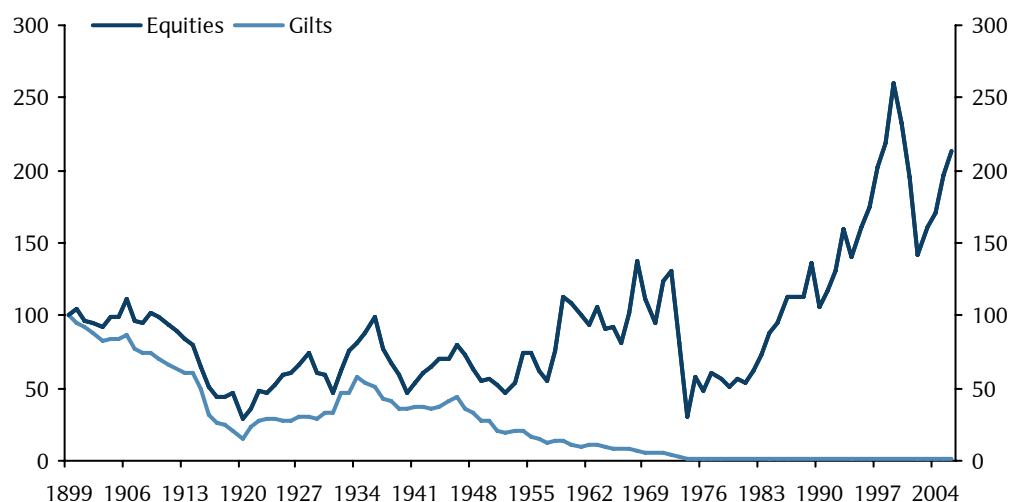
The next two charts show the nominal and real value of the equity, gilt and cash funds with gross income received reinvested at the end of each year since 1899. Figure 85 shows that the nominal worth of £100 invested in equities at the end of 1899 was £1,561,732. The same investment in gilts was worth £20,132 and in T-Bills £17,856. When these values are adjusted for inflation, the equity fund is worth £25,022, the gilt £323 and the cash fund £286.

Figure 83: Barclays price indices in nominal terms



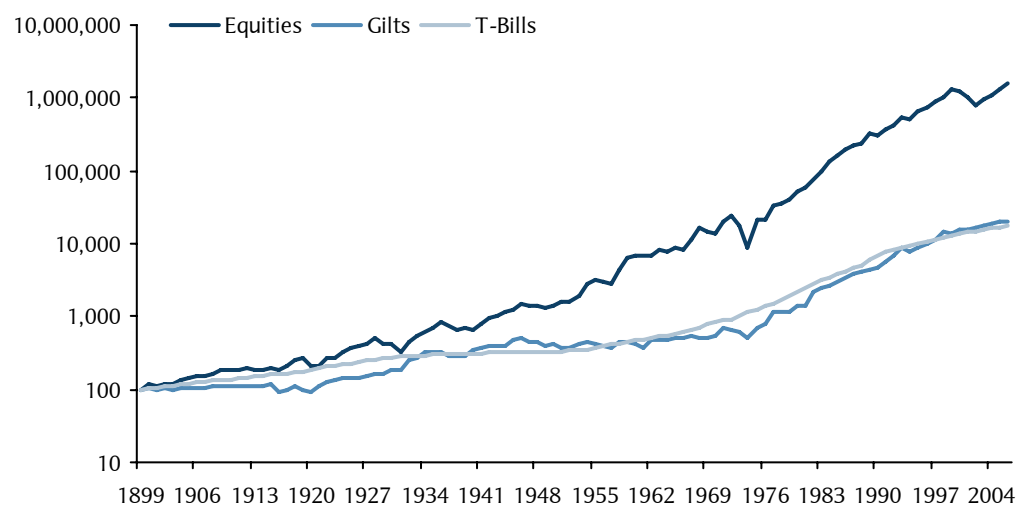
Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 84: Barclays price indices in real terms



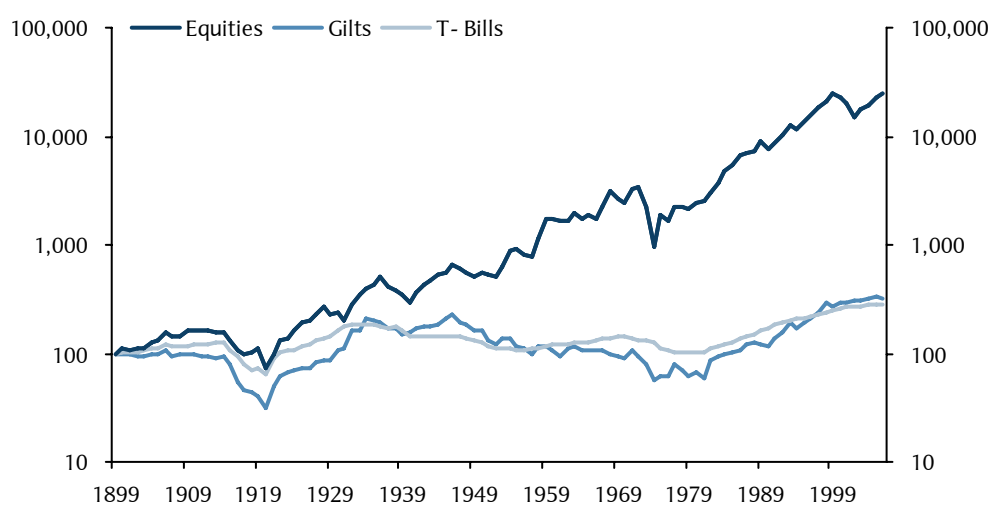
Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 85: Barclays total return indices in nominal terms with gross income reinvested



Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 86: Barclays total return indices in real terms with gross income reinvested



Source: Barclays Capital.

Figure 87: UK Cost of Living Index

| Year | December (1899=100) | Change % | | Year | December | Change % | |
|------|------------------------|----------|----------------------|------|----------|----------|----------------------|
| | | In Year | Five-Year Average | | | In Year | Five-Year Average |
| 1900 | 103.3 | 3.3 | | 1953 | 316.0 | 1.1 | 5.2 |
| 1901 | 103.3 | 0.0 | | 1954 | 328.5 | 4.0 | 5.3 |
| 1902 | 106.7 | 3.2 | | 1955 | 347.7 | 5.8 | 5.8 |
| 1903 | 106.7 | 0.0 | | 1956 | 358.3 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| 1904 | 106.7 | 0.0 | 1.3 | 1957 | 374.9 | 4.6 | 3.7 |
| 1905 | 106.7 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 1958 | 381.8 | 1.8 | 3.9 |
| 1906 | 100.0 | -6.2 | -0.7 | 1959 | 381.8 | 0.0 | 3.1 |
| 1907 | 110.0 | 10.0 | 0.6 | 1960 | 388.7 | 1.8 | 2.3 |
| 1908 | 113.3 | 3.0 | 1.2 | 1961 | 405.7 | 4.4 | 2.5 |
| 1909 | 113.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1962 | 416.5 | 2.6 | 2.1 |
| 1910 | 113.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1963 | 424.2 | 1.9 | 2.1 |
| 1911 | 116.7 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 1964 | 444.6 | 4.8 | 3.1 |
| 1912 | 120.0 | 2.9 | 1.8 | 1965 | 464.5 | 4.5 | 3.6 |
| 1913 | 120.0 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 1966 | 481.6 | 3.7 | 3.5 |
| 1914 | 120.0 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 1967 | 493.4 | 2.5 | 3.4 |
| 1915 | 148.3 | 23.6 | 5.5 | 1968 | 522.7 | 5.9 | 4.3 |
| 1916 | 175.8 | 18.5 | 8.6 | 1969 | 547.1 | 4.7 | 4.2 |
| 1917 | 212.5 | 20.9 | 12.1 | 1970 | 590.3 | 7.9 | 4.9 |
| 1918 | 244.7 | 15.2 | 15.3 | 1971 | 643.6 | 9.0 | 6.0 |
| 1919 | 250.3 | 2.3 | 15.8 | 1972 | 692.9 | 7.7 | 7.0 |
| 1920 | 299.2 | 19.6 | 15.1 | 1973 | 766.2 | 10.6 | 7.9 |
| 1921 | 221.4 | -26.0 | 4.7 | 1974 | 912.8 | 19.1 | 10.8 |
| 1922 | 200.2 | -9.5 | -1.2 | 1975 | 1140.0 | 24.9 | 14.1 |
| 1923 | 196.9 | -1.7 | -4.3 | 1976 | 1311.8 | 15.1 | 15.3 |
| 1924 | 201.3 | 2.3 | -4.3 | 1977 | 1471.1 | 12.1 | 16.3 |
| 1925 | 196.9 | -2.2 | -8.0 | 1978 | 1594.4 | 8.4 | 15.8 |
| 1926 | 199.1 | 1.1 | -2.1 | 1979 | 1869.3 | 17.2 | 15.4 |
| 1927 | 188.0 | -5.6 | -1.3 | 1980 | 2151.9 | 15.1 | 13.5 |
| 1928 | 186.9 | -0.6 | -1.0 | 1981 | 2411.2 | 12.0 | 12.9 |
| 1929 | 185.8 | -0.6 | -1.6 | 1982 | 2541.6 | 5.4 | 11.6 |
| 1930 | 172.4 | -7.2 | -2.6 | 1983 | 2676.7 | 5.3 | 10.9 |
| 1931 | 164.6 | -4.5 | -3.7 | 1984 | 2799.3 | 4.6 | 8.4 |
| 1932 | 159.1 | -3.4 | -3.3 | 1985 | 2958.5 | 5.7 | 6.6 |
| 1933 | 159.1 | 0.0 | -3.2 | 1986 | 3068.6 | 3.7 | 4.9 |
| 1934 | 160.2 | 0.7 | -2.9 | 1987 | 3182.0 | 3.7 | 4.6 |
| 1935 | 163.5 | 2.1 | -1.1 | 1988 | 3397.6 | 6.8 | 4.9 |
| 1936 | 168.0 | 2.7 | 0.4 | 1989 | 3659.5 | 7.7 | 5.5 |
| 1937 | 178.0 | 6.0 | 2.3 | 1990 | 4001.4 | 9.3 | 6.2 |
| 1938 | 173.5 | -2.5 | 1.8 | 1991 | 4180.0 | 4.5 | 6.4 |
| 1939 | 192.4 | 10.9 | 3.7 | 1992 | 4287.8 | 2.6 | 6.1 |
| 1940 | 216.9 | 12.7 | 5.8 | 1993 | 4369.3 | 1.9 | 5.2 |
| 1941 | 223.6 | 3.1 | 5.9 | 1994 | 4495.6 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| 1942 | 222.5 | -0.5 | 4.6 | 1995 | 4640.3 | 3.2 | 3.0 |
| 1943 | 221.4 | -0.5 | 5.0 | 1996 | 4754.2 | 2.5 | 2.6 |
| 1944 | 223.6 | 1.0 | 3.0 | 1997 | 4926.6 | 3.6 | 2.8 |
| 1945 | 225.8 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 1998 | 5062.1 | 2.8 | 3.0 |
| 1946 | 226.9 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 1999 | 5151.4 | 1.8 | 2.8 |
| 1947 | 234.2 | 3.2 | 1.0 | 2000 | 5302.3 | 2.9 | 2.7 |
| 1948 | 245.7 | 4.9 | 2.1 | 2001 | 5339.2 | 0.7 | 2.3 |
| 1949 | 254.3 | 3.5 | 2.6 | 2002 | 5496.3 | 2.9 | 2.2 |
| 1950 | 262.4 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 2003 | 5650.2 | 2.8 | 2.2 |
| 1951 | 294.0 | 12.0 | 5.3 | 2004 | 5847.3 | 3.5 | 2.6 |
| 1952 | 312.7 | 6.3 | 6.0 | 2005 | 5976.6 | 2.2 | 2.4 |
| | | | | 2006 | 6241.4 | 4.4 | 3.2 |

Figure 88: Barclays UK Equity Index

| Year | Equity Price Index December | | Equity Income Index December | | Income Yield % | Equity Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Equity Income Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|--------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------|-------------------|--|--------|---|--------|
| 1899 | 100 | | | | | 100 | | | |
| 1900 | 108 | +8.3% | 100 | | 6.3 | 105 | +4.8% | 100 | |
| 1901 | 100 | -7.9% | 69 | -30.6% | 4.8 | 97 | -7.9% | 69 | -30.6% |
| 1902 | 101 | +1.3% | 80 | +15.6% | 5.4 | 95 | -1.9% | 78 | +11.9% |
| 1903 | 98 | -2.7% | 66 | -17.3% | 4.6 | 92 | -2.7% | 64 | -17.3% |
| 1904 | 106 | +8.0% | 62 | -6.1% | 4.0 | 100 | +8.0% | 60 | -6.1% |
| 1905 | 105 | -0.7% | 71 | +13.7% | 4.6 | 99 | -0.7% | 69 | +13.7% |
| 1906 | 112 | +6.1% | 77 | +8.5% | 4.7 | 112 | +13.2% | 79 | +15.7% |
| 1907 | 107 | -4.7% | 79 | +2.9% | 5.1 | 97 | -13.3% | 74 | -6.4% |
| 1908 | 108 | +1.3% | 57 | -27.4% | 3.6 | 95 | -1.7% | 52 | -29.5% |
| 1909 | 115 | +6.3% | 73 | +26.5% | 4.3 | 101 | +6.3% | 66 | +26.5% |
| 1910 | 112 | -2.1% | 69 | -4.5% | 4.2 | 99 | -2.1% | 63 | -4.5% |
| 1911 | 109 | -2.9% | 71 | +2.1% | 4.4 | 94 | -5.7% | 63 | -0.8% |
| 1912 | 108 | -1.4% | 69 | -3.2% | 4.4 | 90 | -4.2% | 59 | -5.8% |
| 1913 | 100 | -7.1% | 57 | -16.5% | 3.9 | 83 | -7.1% | 49 | -16.5% |
| 1914 | 96 | -4.4% | 57 | +0.1% | 4.1 | 80 | -4.4% | 49 | +0.1% |
| 1915 | 96 | 0.0% | 36 | -37.8% | 2.6 | 64 | -19.1% | 25 | -49.7% |
| 1916 | 89 | -6.8% | 67 | +88.2% | 5.2 | 51 | -21.4% | 39 | +58.8% |
| 1917 | 93 | +4.2% | 66 | -2.2% | 4.8 | 44 | -13.8% | 32 | -19.1% |
| 1918 | 108 | +16.3% | 63 | -3.6% | 4.0 | 44 | +1.0% | 27 | -16.3% |
| 1919 | 116 | +7.7% | 34 | -47.0% | 2.0 | 46 | +5.3% | 14 | -48.2% |
| 1920 | 86 | -25.6% | 77 | +128.9% | 6.1 | 29 | -37.8% | 26 | +91.4% |
| 1921 | 80 | -7.1% | 79 | +2.7% | 6.7 | 36 | +25.5% | 37 | +38.8% |
| 1922 | 96 | +19.8% | 73 | -7.9% | 5.2 | 48 | +32.5% | 37 | +1.8% |
| 1923 | 92 | -4.0% | 72 | -0.8% | 5.3 | 47 | -2.4% | 38 | +0.9% |
| 1924 | 106 | +15.3% | 67 | -7.5% | 4.3 | 53 | +12.8% | 34 | -9.5% |
| 1925 | 117 | +9.9% | 73 | +10.3% | 4.3 | 59 | +12.4% | 39 | +12.7% |
| 1926 | 119 | +1.8% | 83 | +12.5% | 4.8 | 60 | +0.7% | 43 | +11.2% |
| 1927 | 124 | +4.0% | 76 | -8.2% | 4.2 | 66 | +10.1% | 42 | -2.8% |
| 1928 | 139 | +12.2% | 79 | +3.9% | 3.9 | 74 | +12.9% | 44 | +4.5% |
| 1929 | 113 | -19.1% | 90 | +14.9% | 5.5 | 61 | -18.6% | 50 | +15.6% |
| 1930 | 102 | -9.2% | 80 | -11.0% | 5.4 | 59 | -2.1% | 48 | -4.2% |
| 1931 | 77 | -24.3% | 65 | -18.7% | 5.8 | 47 | -20.8% | 41 | -14.8% |
| 1932 | 99 | +27.9% | 64 | -2.4% | 4.4 | 62 | +32.4% | 41 | +1.0% |
| 1933 | 119 | +20.6% | 60 | -5.6% | 3.5 | 75 | +20.6% | 39 | -5.6% |
| 1934 | 131 | +9.8% | 70 | +15.7% | 3.6 | 82 | +9.0% | 45 | +14.9% |
| 1935 | 144 | +9.9% | 78 | +11.5% | 3.7 | 88 | +7.7% | 49 | +9.2% |
| 1936 | 166 | +15.1% | 82 | +5.8% | 3.4 | 99 | +12.1% | 51 | +3.0% |
| 1937 | 138 | -16.7% | 93 | +12.7% | 4.6 | 78 | -21.4% | 54 | +6.4% |
| 1938 | 118 | -14.9% | 94 | +1.8% | 5.5 | 68 | -12.7% | 56 | +4.4% |
| 1939 | 114 | -3.1% | 90 | -4.8% | 5.4 | 59 | -12.6% | 48 | -14.2% |
| 1940 | 102 | -10.2% | 94 | +4.8% | 6.3 | 47 | -20.3% | 45 | -7.1% |
| 1941 | 119 | +16.8% | 91 | -3.6% | 5.2 | 53 | +13.3% | 42 | -6.5% |
| 1942 | 135 | +12.9% | 86 | -4.5% | 4.4 | 61 | +13.4% | 40 | -4.0% |
| 1943 | 144 | +7.1% | 86 | -0.2% | 4.1 | 65 | +7.7% | 40 | +0.3% |
| 1944 | 156 | +8.3% | 87 | +0.4% | 3.8 | 70 | +7.3% | 40 | -0.6% |
| 1945 | 160 | +2.0% | 88 | +2.0% | 3.8 | 71 | +1.0% | 40 | +1.0% |
| 1946 | 182 | +13.9% | 93 | +4.9% | 3.5 | 80 | +13.3% | 42 | +4.4% |
| 1947 | 170 | -6.3% | 107 | +15.1% | 4.3 | 73 | -9.2% | 47 | +11.6% |
| 1948 | 157 | -7.7% | 98 | -7.7% | 4.3 | 64 | -12.1% | 41 | -12.1% |
| 1949 | 141 | -10.3% | 103 | +4.4% | 5.0 | 55 | -13.3% | 42 | +0.8% |
| 1950 | 149 | +5.6% | 109 | +5.6% | 5.0 | 57 | +2.3% | 43 | +2.3% |
| 1951 | 153 | +3.0% | 121 | +11.2% | 5.4 | 52 | -8.1% | 42 | -0.7% |

| Year | | Equity Price Index December | | Equity Income Index December | | Income Yield % | Equity Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Equity Income Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|--|--------------------------------|---------|---------------------------------|--------|-------------------|--|--------|---|--------|
| 1952 | | 144 | -5.9% | 128 | +6.3% | 6.1 | 46 | -11.5% | 42 | -0.0% |
| 1953 | | 170 | +17.8% | 134 | +4.3% | 5.4 | 54 | +16.6% | 44 | +3.2% |
| 1954 | | 242 | +42.4% | 155 | +16.0% | 4.4 | 74 | +36.9% | 49 | +11.6% |
| 1955 | | 256 | +5.8% | 179 | +15.4% | 4.8 | 74 | -0.0% | 53 | +9.1% |
| 1956 | | 220 | -13.9% | 183 | +2.2% | 5.7 | 62 | -16.5% | 53 | -0.8% |
| 1957 | | 205 | -7.0% | 188 | +2.8% | 6.3 | 55 | -11.1% | 52 | -1.7% |
| 1958 | | 289 | +41.1% | 202 | +7.5% | 4.8 | 76 | +38.5% | 55 | +5.5% |
| 1959 | | 432 | +49.5% | 227 | +12.1% | 3.6 | 113 | +49.5% | 61 | +12.1% |
| 1960 | | 421 | -2.6% | 276 | +21.7% | 4.5 | 108 | -4.4% | 73 | +19.5% |
| 1961 | | 409 | -3.0% | 286 | +3.5% | 4.8 | 101 | -7.0% | 73 | -0.8% |
| 1962 | | 391 | -4.4% | 285 | -0.4% | 5.0 | 94 | -6.9% | 71 | -3.0% |
| 1963 | | 450 | +15.2% | 266 | -6.5% | 4.1 | 106 | +13.1% | 65 | -8.2% |
| 1964 | | 405 | -10.0% | 303 | +13.7% | 5.1 | 91 | -14.2% | 70 | +8.5% |
| 1965 | | 428 | +5.9% | 326 | +7.7% | 5.2 | 92 | +1.3% | 73 | +3.1% |
| 1966 | | 389 | -9.3% | 328 | +0.5% | 5.8 | 81 | -12.5% | 70 | -3.1% |
| 1967 | | 500 | +28.7% | 319 | -2.5% | 4.4 | 101 | +25.6% | 67 | -4.8% |
| 1968 | | 718 | +43.5% | 339 | +6.1% | 3.2 | 137 | +35.4% | 67 | +0.2% |
| 1969 | | 609 | -15.2% | 342 | +0.8% | 3.9 | 111 | -19.0% | 65 | -3.7% |
| 1970 | | 563 | -7.5% | 360 | +5.5% | 4.4 | 95 | -14.3% | 63 | -2.3% |
| 1971 | | 799 | +41.9% | 379 | +5.1% | 3.3 | 124 | +30.2% | 61 | -3.6% |
| 1972 | | 901 | +12.8% | 414 | +9.3% | 3.2 | 130 | +4.8% | 62 | +1.6% |
| 1973 | | 619 | -31.4% | 430 | +3.9% | 4.8 | 81 | -37.9% | 58 | -6.0% |
| 1974 | | 276 | -55.3% | 472 | +9.6% | 11.7 | 30 | -62.5% | 53 | -8.0% |
| 1975 | | 653 | +136.3% | 521 | +10.4% | 5.5 | 57 | +89.2% | 47 | -11.6% |
| 1976 | | 628 | -3.9% | 588 | +12.8% | 6.4 | 48 | -16.5% | 46 | -2.0% |
| 1977 | | 886 | +41.2% | 682 | +16.1% | 5.3 | 60 | +25.9% | 48 | +3.5% |
| 1978 | | 910 | +2.7% | 768 | +12.6% | 5.8 | 57 | -5.3% | 50 | +3.9% |
| 1979 | | 949 | +4.3% | 951 | +23.8% | 6.9 | 51 | -11.0% | 53 | +5.6% |
| 1980 | | 1206 | +27.1% | 1073 | +12.8% | 6.1 | 56 | +10.4% | 52 | -2.0% |
| 1981 | | 1294 | +7.2% | 1111 | +3.5% | 5.9 | 54 | -4.3% | 48 | -7.6% |
| 1982 | | 1579 | +22.1% | 1211 | +9.0% | 5.3 | 62 | +15.8% | 49 | +3.4% |
| 1983 | | 1944 | +23.1% | 1309 | +8.1% | 4.6 | 73 | +16.9% | 51 | +2.7% |
| 1984 | | 2450 | +26.0% | 1578 | +20.6% | 4.4 | 88 | +20.5% | 58 | +15.3% |
| 1985 | | 2822 | +15.2% | 1781 | +12.8% | 4.3 | 95 | +9.0% | 62 | +6.8% |
| 1986 | | 3452 | +22.3% | 2033 | +14.1% | 4.0 | 112 | +17.9% | 68 | +10.0% |
| 1987 | | 3596 | +4.2% | 2264 | +11.4% | 4.3 | 113 | +0.4% | 74 | +7.4% |
| 1988 | | 3829 | +6.5% | 2628 | +16.1% | 4.7 | 113 | -0.3% | 80 | +8.7% |
| 1989 | | 4978 | +30.0% | 3076 | +17.0% | 4.2 | 136 | +20.7% | 87 | +8.7% |
| 1990 | | 4265 | -14.3% | 3401 | +10.5% | 5.5 | 107 | -21.6% | 88 | +1.1% |
| 1991 | | 4907 | +15.1% | 3591 | +5.6% | 5.0 | 117 | +10.1% | 89 | +1.1% |
| 1992 | | 5635 | +14.8% | 3573 | -0.5% | 4.4 | 131 | +11.9% | 86 | -3.0% |
| 1993 | | 6951 | +23.3% | 3414 | -4.4% | 3.4 | 159 | +21.0% | 81 | -6.2% |
| 1994 | | 6286 | -9.6% | 3684 | +7.9% | 4.0 | 140 | -12.1% | 85 | +4.9% |
| 1995 | | 7450 | +18.5% | 4127 | +12.0% | 3.8 | 161 | +14.8% | 92 | +8.5% |
| 1996 | | 8320 | +11.7% | 4536 | +9.9% | 3.7 | 175 | +9.0% | 99 | +7.3% |
| 1997 | | 9962 | +19.7% | 4690 | +3.4% | 3.2 | 202 | +15.5% | 98 | -0.2% |
| 1998 | | 11048 | +10.9% | 4026 | -14.2% | 2.5 | 218 | +7.9% | 82 | -16.5% |
| 1999 | | 13396 | +21.2% | 4140 | +2.8% | 2.1 | 260 | +19.1% | 83 | +1.0% |
| 2000 | | 12329 | -8.0% | 4007 | -3.2% | 2.2 | 233 | -10.6% | 78 | -5.9% |
| 2001 | | 10428 | -15.4% | 3998 | -0.2% | 2.6 | 195 | -16.0% | 77 | -0.9% |
| 2002 | | 7825 | -25.0% | 4049 | +1.3% | 3.6 | 142 | -27.1% | 76 | -1.6% |
| 2003 | | 9121 | +16.6% | 4121 | +1.8% | 3.1 | 161 | +13.4% | 75 | -1.0% |
| 2004 | | 9961 | +9.2% | 4428 | +7.5% | 3.1 | 170 | +5.5% | 78 | +3.8% |
| 2005 | | 11764 | +18.1% | 5058 | +14.2% | 3.0 | 197 | +15.5% | 87 | +11.8% |
| 2006 | | 13311 | +13.2% | 5549 | +9.7% | 2.9 | 213 | +8.3% | 92 | +5.0% |

Figure 89: Barclays UK Gilt Index

| Year | Gilt Price Index December | | Yield % | Gilt Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|------------------------------|--------|---------|---|--------|
| 1899 | 100.0 | | | 100.0 | |
| 1900 | 98.4 | -1.6% | 2.8 | 95.2 | -4.8% |
| 1901 | 94.6 | -3.8% | 2.9 | 91.5 | -3.8% |
| 1902 | 93.7 | -0.9% | 3.0 | 87.8 | -4.0% |
| 1903 | 88.3 | -5.8% | 2.9 | 82.8 | -5.8% |
| 1904 | 89.4 | +1.2% | 2.8 | 83.8 | +1.2% |
| 1905 | 90.1 | +0.8% | 2.8 | 84.4 | +0.8% |
| 1906 | 86.6 | -3.8% | 2.9 | 86.6 | +2.6% |
| 1907 | 84.1 | -2.9% | 3.0 | 76.5 | -11.7% |
| 1908 | 84.6 | +0.6% | 3.0 | 74.7 | -2.4% |
| 1909 | 83.6 | -1.3% | 3.0 | 73.7 | -1.3% |
| 1910 | 80.0 | -4.3% | 3.1 | 70.6 | -4.3% |
| 1911 | 77.7 | -2.8% | 3.2 | 66.6 | -5.6% |
| 1912 | 75.8 | -2.4% | 3.3 | 63.2 | -5.1% |
| 1913 | 72.3 | -4.7% | 3.5 | 60.2 | -4.7% |
| 1914 | 73.0 | +1.0% | 3.4 | 60.9 | +1.0% |
| 1915 | 73.0 | 0.0 | 3.4 | 49.2 | -19.1% |
| 1916 | 55.7 | -23.8% | 4.5 | 31.7 | -35.7% |
| 1917 | 54.9 | -1.4% | 4.6 | 25.8 | -18.4% |
| 1918 | 59.4 | +8.3% | 4.2 | 24.3 | -6.0% |
| 1919 | 51.9 | -12.7% | 4.8 | 20.7 | -14.6% |
| 1920 | 45.6 | -12.1% | 5.5 | 15.2 | -26.5% |
| 1921 | 50.6 | +11.1% | 4.9 | 22.9 | +50.2% |
| 1922 | 56.2 | +10.9% | 4.4 | 28.1 | +22.6% |
| 1923 | 56.1 | -0.2% | 4.5 | 28.5 | +1.5% |
| 1924 | 57.7 | +2.9% | 4.3 | 28.6 | +0.6% |
| 1925 | 55.4 | -3.9% | 4.5 | 28.1 | -1.7% |
| 1926 | 54.5 | -1.6% | 4.6 | 27.4 | -2.7% |
| 1927 | 55.9 | +2.6% | 4.5 | 29.8 | +8.7% |
| 1928 | 56.7 | +1.3% | 4.4 | 30.3 | +1.9% |
| 1929 | 53.3 | -6.0% | 4.7 | 28.7 | -5.4% |
| 1930 | 57.8 | +8.5% | 4.3 | 33.5 | +16.9% |
| 1931 | 55.0 | -4.7% | 4.5 | 33.4 | -0.2% |
| 1932 | 74.7 | +35.6% | 3.3 | 46.9 | +40.4% |
| 1933 | 74.6 | -0.1% | 3.3 | 46.9 | -0.1% |
| 1934 | 92.8 | +24.4% | 2.7 | 57.9 | +23.5% |
| 1935 | 87.4 | -5.8% | 2.9 | 53.4 | -7.8% |
| 1936 | 85.1 | -2.6% | 2.9 | 50.7 | -5.2% |
| 1937 | 74.8 | -12.2% | 3.3 | 42.0 | -17.1% |
| 1938 | 70.7 | -5.4% | 3.5 | 40.8 | -3.0% |
| 1939 | 68.9 | -2.6% | 3.6 | 35.8 | -12.2% |
| 1940 | 77.4 | +12.3% | 3.2 | 35.7 | -0.3% |
| 1941 | 83.1 | +7.4% | 3.0 | 37.2 | +4.2% |
| 1942 | 82.9 | -0.3% | 3.0 | 37.2 | +0.2% |
| 1943 | 80.0 | -3.4% | 3.1 | 36.1 | -3.0% |
| 1944 | 82.1 | +2.6% | 3.0 | 36.7 | +1.6% |
| 1945 | 91.8 | +11.8% | 2.7 | 40.6 | +10.7% |
| 1946 | 99.2 | +8.0% | 2.5 | 43.7 | +7.5% |
| 1947 | 82.5 | -16.8% | 3.0 | 35.2 | -19.4% |
| 1948 | 80.6 | -2.3% | 3.1 | 32.8 | -6.9% |
| 1949 | 70.9 | -12.0% | 3.5 | 27.9 | -15.0% |
| 1950 | 71.3 | +0.5% | 3.5 | 27.2 | -2.6% |
| 1951 | 61.9 | -13.1% | 4.0 | 21.1 | -22.4% |

| Year | Gilt Price Index December | | Yield % | Gilt Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|------------------------------|--------|---------|---|--------|
| 1952 | 59.0 | -4.8% | 4.2 | 18.9 | -10.5% |
| 1953 | 64.7 | +9.7% | 3.9 | 20.5 | +8.5% |
| 1954 | 66.1 | +2.2% | 3.8 | 20.1 | -1.7% |
| 1955 | 56.9 | -13.8% | 4.4 | 16.4 | -18.6% |
| 1956 | 52.7 | -7.5% | 4.7 | 14.7 | -10.2% |
| 1957 | 46.9 | -10.9% | 5.3 | 12.5 | -14.9% |
| 1958 | 52.4 | +11.7% | 4.8 | 13.7 | +9.6% |
| 1959 | 50.4 | -3.9% | 5.0 | 13.2 | -3.9% |
| 1960 | 44.3 | -11.9% | 5.6 | 11.4 | -13.5% |
| 1961 | 38.3 | -13.7% | 6.5 | 9.4 | -17.3% |
| 1962 | 45.3 | +18.3% | 5.4 | 10.9 | +15.3% |
| 1963 | 44.5 | -1.7% | 5.5 | 10.5 | -3.5% |
| 1964 | 41.0 | -7.9% | 6.1 | 9.2 | -12.1% |
| 1965 | 40.3 | -1.7% | 6.2 | 8.7 | -6.0% |
| 1966 | 39.5 | -2.1% | 6.4 | 8.2 | -5.5% |
| 1967 | 37.9 | -4.1% | 6.9 | 7.7 | -6.4% |
| 1968 | 34.4 | -9.3% | 7.6 | 6.6 | -14.4% |
| 1969 | 31.7 | -7.6% | 8.5 | 5.8 | -11.7% |
| 1970 | 30.1 | -5.2% | 9.3 | 5.1 | -12.2% |
| 1971 | 35.4 | +17.6% | 8.3 | 5.5 | +7.8% |
| 1972 | 31.0 | -12.3% | 9.6 | 4.5 | -18.5% |
| 1973 | 25.3 | -18.6% | 11.9 | 3.3 | -26.4% |
| 1974 | 18.3 | -27.5% | 17.0 | 2.0 | -39.2% |
| 1975 | 21.8 | +19.2% | 14.8 | 1.9 | -4.6% |
| 1976 | 21.6 | -1.1% | 15.0 | 1.6 | -14.0% |
| 1977 | 28.2 | +30.6% | 10.9 | 1.9 | +16.4% |
| 1978 | 24.4 | -13.3% | 13.2 | 1.5 | -20.0% |
| 1979 | 22.2 | -9.2% | 14.7 | 1.2 | -22.6% |
| 1980 | 23.5 | +6.2% | 13.9 | 1.1 | -7.8% |
| 1981 | 20.7 | -12.1% | 15.8 | 0.9 | -21.6% |
| 1982 | 28.2 | +36.2% | 11.1 | 1.1 | +29.2% |
| 1983 | 29.5 | +4.9% | 10.5 | 1.1 | -0.4% |
| 1984 | 28.5 | -3.4% | 10.6 | 1.0 | -7.7% |
| 1985 | 28.7 | +0.4% | 10.5 | 1.0 | -5.0% |
| 1986 | 28.8 | +0.4% | 10.5 | 0.9 | -3.2% |
| 1987 | 30.6 | +6.2% | 9.5 | 1.0 | +2.4% |
| 1988 | 30.6 | +0.0% | 9.3 | 0.9 | -6.3% |
| 1989 | 29.4 | -3.7% | 10.0 | 0.8 | -10.6% |
| 1990 | 28.1 | -4.5% | 10.6 | 0.7 | -12.7% |
| 1991 | 30.4 | +8.0% | 9.8 | 0.7 | +3.4% |
| 1992 | 33.0 | +8.7% | 8.7 | 0.8 | +6.0% |
| 1993 | 39.4 | +19.3% | 6.4 | 0.9 | +17.1% |
| 1994 | 32.2 | -18.1% | 8.6 | 0.7 | -20.4% |
| 1995 | 35.5 | +10.3% | 7.6 | 0.8 | +6.8% |
| 1996 | 35.7 | +0.6% | 7.6 | 0.8 | -1.8% |
| 1997 | 40.0 | +11.8% | 6.3 | 0.8 | +7.9% |
| 1998 | 47.4 | +18.6% | 4.4 | 0.9 | +15.4% |
| 1999 | 43.4 | -8.4% | 5.3 | 0.8 | -10.0% |
| 2000 | 45.2 | +4.0% | 4.7 | 0.9 | +1.0% |
| 2001 | 43.4 | -3.8% | 5.0 | 0.8 | -4.5% |
| 2002 | 45.5 | +4.8% | 4.4 | 0.8 | +1.8% |
| 2003 | 44.1 | -3.2% | 4.7 | 0.8 | -5.8% |
| 2004 | 45.2 | +2.5% | 4.5 | 0.8 | -1.0% |
| 2005 | 47.0 | +3.9% | 4.1 | 0.8 | +1.7% |
| 2006 | 44.8 | -4.6% | 4.7 | 0.7 | -8.6% |

Figure 90: Barclays UK Treasury Bill Index

| Year | Treasury Bill Index December | | Treasury Bill Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|---------------------------------|-------|---|--------|
| 1899 | 100 | | 100 | |
| 1900 | 104 | +4.0% | 101 | +0.6% |
| 1901 | 107 | +2.5% | 103 | +2.5% |
| 1902 | 110 | +3.0% | 103 | -0.3% |
| 1903 | 114 | +3.4% | 106 | +3.4% |
| 1904 | 117 | +2.9% | 110 | +2.9% |
| 1905 | 119 | +2.2% | 112 | +2.2% |
| 1906 | 123 | +3.0% | 123 | +9.9% |
| 1907 | 128 | +3.8% | 116 | -5.7% |
| 1908 | 130 | +2.2% | 115 | -0.8% |
| 1909 | 133 | +2.1% | 118 | +2.1% |
| 1910 | 137 | +3.1% | 121 | +3.1% |
| 1911 | 141 | +2.8% | 121 | -0.1% |
| 1912 | 144 | +2.0% | 120 | -0.8% |
| 1913 | 148 | +3.0% | 124 | +3.0% |
| 1914 | 153 | +3.0% | 127 | +3.0% |
| 1915 | 158 | +3.0% | 106 | -16.6% |
| 1916 | 162 | +3.0% | 92 | -13.1% |
| 1917 | 167 | +3.0% | 79 | -14.7% |
| 1918 | 172 | +3.0% | 70 | -10.5% |
| 1919 | 179 | +3.6% | 71 | +1.3% |
| 1920 | 190 | +6.5% | 64 | -11.0% |
| 1921 | 199 | +4.7% | 90 | +41.5% |
| 1922 | 204 | +2.6% | 102 | +13.4% |
| 1923 | 210 | +2.7% | 107 | +4.4% |
| 1924 | 217 | +3.5% | 108 | +1.2% |
| 1925 | 226 | +4.2% | 115 | +6.6% |
| 1926 | 237 | +4.6% | 119 | +3.5% |
| 1927 | 247 | +4.4% | 131 | +10.5% |
| 1928 | 257 | +4.3% | 138 | +4.9% |
| 1929 | 271 | +5.4% | 146 | +6.1% |
| 1930 | 278 | +2.5% | 161 | +10.5% |
| 1931 | 289 | +3.7% | 175 | +8.6% |
| 1932 | 293 | +1.5% | 184 | +5.0% |
| 1933 | 295 | +0.6% | 185 | +0.6% |
| 1934 | 297 | +0.7% | 185 | +0.0% |
| 1935 | 298 | +0.5% | 182 | -1.5% |
| 1936 | 300 | +0.6% | 179 | -2.1% |
| 1937 | 302 | +0.6% | 170 | -5.1% |
| 1938 | 304 | +0.6% | 175 | +3.2% |
| 1939 | 308 | +1.3% | 160 | -8.6% |
| 1940 | 311 | +1.0% | 143 | -10.4% |
| 1941 | 314 | +1.0% | 140 | -2.0% |
| 1942 | 317 | +2.0% | 143 | +1.5% |
| 1943 | 320 | +1.0% | 145 | +1.5% |
| 1944 | 324 | +1.0% | 145 | +0.0% |
| 1945 | 327 | +0.9% | 145 | -0.1% |
| 1946 | 328 | +0.5% | 145 | +0.0% |
| 1947 | 330 | +0.5% | 141 | -2.6% |
| 1948 | 332 | +0.5% | 135 | -4.2% |
| 1949 | 333 | +0.5% | 131 | -2.9% |
| 1950 | 335 | +0.5% | 128 | -2.6% |
| 1951 | 337 | +0.5% | 115 | -10.3% |

| Year | Treasury Bill Index December | | Treasury Bill Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|---------------------------------|--------|---|--------|
| 1952 | 344 | +2.1% | 110 | -4.0% |
| 1953 | 352 | +2.4% | 111 | +1.3% |
| 1954 | 359 | +1.9% | 109 | -2.0% |
| 1955 | 371 | +3.5% | 107 | -2.2% |
| 1956 | 390 | +5.0% | 109 | +1.9% |
| 1957 | 409 | +5.0% | 109 | +0.4% |
| 1958 | 430 | +5.1% | 113 | +3.2% |
| 1959 | 445 | +3.4% | 117 | +3.4% |
| 1960 | 467 | +5.0% | 120 | +3.2% |
| 1961 | 491 | +5.1% | 121 | +0.7% |
| 1962 | 513 | +4.5% | 123 | +1.8% |
| 1963 | 533 | +3.8% | 126 | +1.9% |
| 1964 | 556 | +4.4% | 125 | -0.4% |
| 1965 | 591 | +6.3% | 127 | +1.7% |
| 1966 | 627 | +6.1% | 130 | +2.4% |
| 1967 | 664 | +5.9% | 135 | +3.4% |
| 1968 | 714 | +7.4% | 137 | +1.4% |
| 1969 | 770 | +7.9% | 141 | +3.1% |
| 1970 | 828 | +7.5% | 140 | -0.4% |
| 1971 | 879 | +6.2% | 137 | -2.6% |
| 1972 | 927 | +5.4% | 134 | -2.1% |
| 1973 | 1010 | +9.0% | 132 | -1.4% |
| 1974 | 1137 | +12.6% | 125 | -5.5% |
| 1975 | 1259 | +10.8% | 110 | -11.3% |
| 1976 | 1402 | +11.3% | 107 | -3.2% |
| 1977 | 1534 | +9.4% | 104 | -2.4% |
| 1978 | 1658 | +8.1% | 104 | -0.3% |
| 1979 | 1881 | +13.5% | 101 | -3.2% |
| 1980 | 2204 | +17.2% | 102 | +1.8% |
| 1981 | 2507 | +13.8% | 104 | +1.5% |
| 1982 | 2817 | +12.4% | 111 | +6.6% |
| 1983 | 3103 | +10.1% | 116 | +4.6% |
| 1984 | 3399 | +9.5% | 121 | +4.8% |
| 1985 | 3803 | +11.9% | 129 | +5.8% |
| 1986 | 4219 | +10.9% | 137 | +7.0% |
| 1987 | 4624 | +9.6% | 145 | +5.7% |
| 1988 | 5133 | +11.0% | 151 | +4.0% |
| 1989 | 5880 | +14.6% | 161 | +6.4% |
| 1990 | 6812 | +15.9% | 170 | +6.0% |
| 1991 | 7602 | +11.6% | 182 | +6.8% |
| 1992 | 8322 | +9.5% | 194 | +6.7% |
| 1993 | 8810 | +5.9% | 202 | +3.9% |
| 1994 | 9286 | +5.4% | 207 | +2.4% |
| 1995 | 9911 | +6.7% | 214 | +3.4% |
| 1996 | 10522 | +6.2% | 221 | +3.6% |
| 1997 | 11246 | +6.9% | 228 | +3.1% |
| 1998 | 12137 | +7.9% | 240 | +5.0% |
| 1999 | 12805 | +5.5% | 249 | +3.7% |
| 2000 | 13601 | +6.2% | 257 | +3.2% |
| 2001 | 14349 | +5.5% | 269 | +4.8% |
| 2002 | 14939 | +4.1% | 272 | +1.1% |
| 2003 | 15500 | +3.8% | 274 | +0.9% |
| 2004 | 16211 | +4.6% | 277 | +1.1% |
| 2005 | 17022 | +5.0% | 285 | +2.7% |
| 2006 | 17856 | +4.9% | 286 | +0.4% |

Figure 91: Barclays UK Index-linked Gilt Index

| Year | Index Linked Gilt Price Index December | | Real Yield % | Money Yield % | Index Linked Gilt Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|--|--------|--------------|---------------|---|--------|
| 1982 | 100 | | 2.7 | 8.3 | 100 | |
| 1983 | 98.1 | -1.9% | 3.2 | 8.7 | 93.2 | -6.8% |
| 1984 | 101.6 | +3.6% | 3.3 | 8.1 | 92.3 | -1.0% |
| 1985 | 98.5 | -3.1% | 3.9 | 9.8 | 84.6 | -8.3% |
| 1986 | 101.4 | +3.0% | 4.1 | 7.9 | 84.0 | -0.7% |
| 1987 | 105.1 | +3.6% | 4.0 | 7.9 | 84.0 | -0.1% |
| 1988 | 116.0 | +10.4% | 3.8 | 10.8 | 86.8 | +3.3% |
| 1989 | 129.1 | +11.3% | 3.5 | 11.5 | 89.7 | +3.3% |
| 1990 | 130.8 | +1.3% | 4.0 | 13.8 | 83.1 | -7.4% |
| 1991 | 133.2 | +1.8% | 4.5 | 9.2 | 81.0 | -2.5% |
| 1992 | 151.1 | +13.4% | 3.9 | 6.6 | 89.6 | +10.6% |
| 1993 | 177.1 | +17.2% | 2.9 | 4.9 | 103.0 | +15.0% |
| 1994 | 158.3 | -10.6% | 4.0 | 7.0 | 89.5 | -13.1% |
| 1995 | 171.1 | +8.1% | 3.6 | 6.9 | 93.7 | +4.7% |
| 1996 | 176.2 | +3.0% | 3.6 | 6.1 | 94.2 | +0.5% |
| 1997 | 193.4 | +9.8% | 3.1 | 6.9 | 99.8 | +5.9% |
| 1998 | 227.4 | +17.6% | 2.0 | 4.8 | 114.2 | +14.4% |
| 1999 | 233.7 | +2.8% | 2.2 | 4.0 | 115.3 | +1.0% |
| 2000 | 235.4 | +0.8% | 2.3 | 5.3 | 112.9 | -2.1% |
| 2001 | 227.7 | -3.3% | 2.7 | 3.4 | 108.4 | -4.0% |
| 2002 | 240.7 | +5.7% | 2.1 | 5.1 | 111.3 | +2.7% |
| 2003 | 251.9 | +4.7% | 1.7 | 4.5 | 113.3 | +1.8% |
| 2004 | 267.6 | +6.3% | 1.7 | 5.3 | 116.3 | +2.7% |
| 2005 | 286.7 | +7.1% | 1.5 | 3.8 | 121.9 | +4.8% |
| 2006 | 287.0 | +0.1% | 1.6 | 6.0 | 116.9 | -4.1% |

Figure 92: Barclays UK Total Sterling Corporate Bond Index

| Year | Total Sterling Bond Price Index December | | Redemption Yield % | Total Sterling Bond Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|--|--------|--------------------|---|--------|
| 1990 | 100 | | 11.8 | 100 | |
| 1991 | 107.7 | +7.7% | 10.6 | 103.1 | +3.1% |
| 1992 | 116.8 | +8.4% | 9.1 | 109.0 | +5.7% |
| 1993 | 133.2 | +14.1% | 6.8 | 122.0 | +12.0% |
| 1994 | 115.0 | -13.7% | 9.3 | 102.3 | -16.1% |
| 1995 | 123.4 | +7.3% | 8.0 | 106.4 | +4.0% |
| 1996 | 123.4 | -0.0% | 8.0 | 103.8 | -2.4% |
| 1997 | 130.7 | +5.9% | 7.0 | 106.1 | +2.2% |
| 1998 | 141.4 | +8.2% | 5.6 | 111.8 | +5.3% |
| 1999 | 131.8 | -6.8% | 6.5 | 102.4 | -8.4% |
| 2000 | 135.8 | +3.0% | 5.9 | 102.5 | +0.1% |
| 2001 | 135.8 | +0.0% | 5.9 | 101.8 | -0.7% |
| 2002 | 140.4 | +3.4% | 5.4 | 102.2 | +0.4% |
| 2003 | 140.5 | +0.0% | 5.3 | 99.5 | -2.7% |
| 2004 | 141.5 | +0.8% | 5.2 | 96.9 | -2.6% |
| 2005 | 146.6 | +3.6% | 4.7 | 98.2 | +1.4% |
| 2006 | 140.3 | -4.3% | 5.2 | 89.9 | -8.4% |

Figure 93: Barclays UK Equity, Gilt and Treasury Bill Funds

| | Equities | | | | Gilts | | | | Treasury Bills | | | |
|------|-----------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|--------|----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|
| | Value of Fund December £ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Value of Fund December£ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Value of Fund December £ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
| 1945 | 100 | | 100 | | 100 | | 100 | | 100 | | 100 | |
| 1946 | 118 | +17.9% | 117 | +17.3% | 111 | +10.7% | 110 | +10.2% | 101 | +0.5% | 100 | +0.0% |
| 1947 | 115 | -2.3% | 111 | -5.3% | 95 | -14.3% | 92 | -16.9% | 101 | +0.5% | 97 | -2.6% |
| 1948 | 111 | -3.8% | 102 | -8.3% | 96 | +0.7% | 88 | -4.0% | 102 | +0.5% | 93 | -4.2% |
| 1949 | 104 | -5.8% | 93 | -8.9% | 87 | -8.9% | 77 | -12.0% | 102 | +0.5% | 91 | -2.9% |
| 1950 | 116 | +10.9% | 100 | +7.4% | 91 | +4.0% | 78 | +0.8% | 103 | +0.5% | 88 | -2.6% |
| 1951 | 126 | +8.5% | 97 | -3.1% | 82 | -9.6% | 63 | -19.3% | 103 | +0.5% | 79 | -10.3% |
| 1952 | 126 | -0.1% | 91 | -6.1% | 81 | -0.8% | 59 | -6.7% | 105 | +2.1% | 76 | -4.0% |
| 1953 | 156 | +24.2% | 111 | +22.9% | 93 | +14.0% | 66 | +12.8% | 108 | +2.4% | 77 | +1.3% |
| 1954 | 232 | +48.6% | 159 | +42.9% | 98 | +6.1% | 67 | +2.0% | 110 | +1.9% | 75 | -2.0% |
| 1955 | 257 | +10.9% | 167 | +4.8% | 88 | -10.1% | 57 | -15.0% | 114 | +3.5% | 74 | -2.2% |
| 1956 | 234 | -9.0% | 147 | -11.7% | 85 | -3.2% | 54 | -6.0% | 119 | +5.0% | 75 | +1.9% |
| 1957 | 231 | -1.1% | 139 | -5.5% | 80 | -6.2% | 48 | -10.4% | 125 | +5.0% | 75 | +0.4% |
| 1958 | 342 | +47.9% | 202 | +45.2% | 94 | +17.0% | 55 | +14.9% | 132 | +5.1% | 78 | +3.2% |
| 1959 | 529 | +54.8% | 313 | +54.8% | 95 | +0.9% | 56 | +0.9% | 136 | +3.4% | 81 | +3.4% |
| 1960 | 539 | +1.8% | 313 | -0.1% | 88 | -7.0% | 51 | -8.7% | 143 | +5.0% | 83 | +3.2% |
| 1961 | 548 | +1.7% | 305 | -2.5% | 81 | -8.1% | 45 | -11.9% | 150 | +5.1% | 84 | +0.7% |
| 1962 | 550 | +0.4% | 298 | -2.2% | 101 | +24.7% | 55 | +21.5% | 157 | +4.5% | 85 | +1.8% |
| 1963 | 659 | +19.9% | 351 | +17.7% | 105 | +3.7% | 56 | +1.8% | 163 | +3.8% | 87 | +1.9% |
| 1964 | 623 | -5.4% | 317 | -9.8% | 102 | -2.3% | 52 | -6.7% | 170 | +4.4% | 87 | -0.4% |
| 1965 | 694 | +11.4% | 337 | +6.6% | 107 | +4.4% | 52 | -0.1% | 181 | +6.3% | 88 | +1.7% |
| 1966 | 666 | -4.0% | 312 | -7.4% | 111 | +4.2% | 52 | +0.5% | 192 | +6.1% | 90 | +2.4% |
| 1967 | 895 | +34.3% | 410 | +31.1% | 114 | +2.6% | 52 | +0.1% | 203 | +5.9% | 93 | +3.4% |
| 1968 | 1326 | +48.1% | 573 | +39.8% | 111 | -2.4% | 48 | -7.8% | 219 | +7.4% | 94 | +1.4% |
| 1969 | 1168 | -11.9% | 482 | -15.9% | 112 | +0.2% | 46 | -4.2% | 236 | +7.9% | 97 | +3.1% |
| 1970 | 1127 | -3.5% | 431 | -10.5% | 116 | +3.6% | 44 | -4.0% | 253 | +7.5% | 97 | -0.4% |
| 1971 | 1652 | +46.5% | 579 | +34.4% | 147 | +27.3% | 52 | +16.8% | 269 | +6.2% | 94 | -2.6% |
| 1972 | 1922 | +16.4% | 626 | +8.1% | 142 | -3.8% | 46 | -10.7% | 284 | +5.4% | 92 | -2.1% |
| 1973 | 1382 | -28.1% | 407 | -35.0% | 129 | -8.9% | 38 | -17.6% | 309 | +9.0% | 91 | -1.4% |
| 1974 | 690 | -50.1% | 171 | -58.1% | 109 | -15.2% | 27 | -28.8% | 348 | +12.6% | 86 | -5.5% |
| 1975 | 1719 | +149.3% | 341 | +99.6% | 150 | +36.8% | 30 | +9.5% | 386 | +10.8% | 76 | -11.3% |
| 1976 | 1759 | +2.3% | 303 | -11.1% | 170 | +13.7% | 29 | -1.1% | 429 | +11.3% | 74 | -3.2% |
| 1977 | 2614 | +48.6% | 401 | +32.5% | 247 | +44.8% | 38 | +29.1% | 470 | +9.4% | 72 | -2.4% |
| 1978 | 2839 | +8.6% | 402 | +0.2% | 242 | -1.8% | 34 | -9.4% | 508 | +8.1% | 72 | -0.3% |
| 1979 | 3165 | +11.5% | 382 | -4.9% | 252 | +4.1% | 30 | -11.2% | 576 | +13.5% | 70 | -3.2% |
| 1980 | 4268 | +34.8% | 448 | +17.1% | 305 | +20.9% | 32 | +5.0% | 675 | +17.2% | 71 | +1.8% |
| 1981 | 4846 | +13.6% | 454 | +1.3% | 310 | +1.8% | 29 | -9.2% | 768 | +13.8% | 72 | +1.5% |
| 1982 | 6227 | +28.5% | 553 | +21.9% | 469 | +51.3% | 42 | +43.6% | 863 | +12.4% | 77 | +6.6% |
| 1983 | 8019 | +28.8% | 676 | +22.3% | 544 | +15.9% | 46 | +10.0% | 950 | +10.1% | 80 | +4.6% |
| 1984 | 10552 | +31.6% | 851 | +25.8% | 581 | +6.8% | 47 | +2.1% | 1041 | +9.6% | 84 | +4.8% |
| 1985 | 12680 | +20.2% | 968 | +13.7% | 644 | +11.0% | 49 | +5.0% | 1165 | +11.9% | 89 | +5.8% |
| 1986 | 16139 | +27.3% | 1188 | +22.7% | 715 | +11.0% | 53 | +7.0% | 1292 | +10.9% | 95 | +7.0% |
| 1987 | 17536 | +8.7% | 1244 | +4.8% | 831 | +16.3% | 59 | +12.1% | 1416 | +9.6% | 100 | +5.7% |
| 1988 | 19552 | +11.5% | 1299 | +4.4% | 909 | +9.4% | 60 | +2.4% | 1572 | +11.0% | 104 | +4.0% |
| 1989 | 26498 | +35.5% | 1635 | +25.8% | 963 | +5.9% | 59 | -1.7% | 1801 | +14.6% | 111 | +6.4% |

| | Equities | | | | Gilts | | | | Treasury Bills | | | |
|------|-----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|-------|
| | Value of Fund December £ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Value of Fund December£ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Value of Fund December £ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
| 1990 | 23947 | -9.6% | 1351 | -17.4% | 1017 | +5.6% | 57 | -3.4% | 2086 | +15.9% | 118 | +6.0% |
| 1991 | 28936 | +20.8% | 1563 | +15.7% | 1209 | +18.9% | 65 | +13.8% | 2328 | +11.6% | 126 | +6.8% |
| 1992 | 34672 | +19.8% | 1826 | +16.8% | 1432 | +18.4% | 75 | +15.4% | 2549 | +9.5% | 134 | +6.7% |
| 1993 | 44207 | +27.5% | 2285 | +25.1% | 1844 | +28.8% | 95 | +26.4% | 2698 | +5.9% | 139 | +3.9% |
| 1994 | 41590 | -5.9% | 2089 | -8.6% | 1635 | -11.3% | 82 | -13.8% | 2844 | +5.4% | 143 | +2.4% |
| 1995 | 51163 | +23.0% | 2490 | +19.2% | 1945 | +19.0% | 95 | +15.3% | 3035 | +6.7% | 148 | +3.4% |
| 1996 | 59275 | +15.9% | 2815 | +13.1% | 2095 | +7.7% | 100 | +5.1% | 3222 | +6.2% | 153 | +3.6% |
| 1997 | 73263 | +23.6% | 3358 | +19.3% | 2503 | +19.4% | 115 | +15.3% | 3444 | +6.9% | 158 | +3.1% |
| 1998 | 83284 | +13.7% | 3715 | +10.6% | 3129 | +25.0% | 140 | +21.7% | 3717 | +7.9% | 166 | +5.0% |
| 1999 | 103120 | +23.8% | 4520 | +21.7% | 3018 | -3.5% | 132 | -5.2% | 3921 | +5.5% | 172 | +3.7% |
| 2000 | 97023 | -5.9% | 4132 | -8.6% | 3296 | +9.2% | 140 | +6.1% | 4165 | +6.2% | 177 | +3.2% |
| 2001 | 84226 | -13.2% | 3562 | -13.8% | 3340 | +1.3% | 141 | +0.6% | 4394 | +5.5% | 186 | +4.8% |
| 2002 | 65440 | -22.3% | 2689 | -24.5% | 3668 | +9.8% | 151 | +6.7% | 4575 | +4.1% | 188 | +1.1% |
| 2003 | 78643 | +20.2% | 3143 | +16.9% | 3725 | +1.6% | 149 | -1.2% | 4747 | +3.8% | 190 | +0.9% |
| 2004 | 88508 | +12.5% | 3418 | +8.8% | 3994 | +7.2% | 154 | +3.6% | 4964 | +4.6% | 192 | +1.1% |
| 2005 | 107609 | +21.6% | 4066 | +18.9% | 4329 | +8.4% | 164 | +6.0% | 5213 | +5.0% | 197 | +2.7% |
| 2006 | 125243 | +16.4% | 4531 | +11.4% | 4323 | -0.1% | 156 | -4.4% | 5468 | +4.9% | 198 | +0.4% |

Note: Original Investment of £100 December 1945, gross income reinvested.

Figure 94: Barclays UK Treasury Bills and Building Society Accounts

| | Treasury Bills Annual Return % | Building Society Acc. Annual Rate of Interest | Basic Rate Income Tax Calendar Year Average | | Treasury Bills Annual Return % | Building Society Acc. Annual rate of Interest | Basic Rate Income Tax Calendar Year Average |
|------|--------------------------------------|---|--|------|--------------------------------------|---|--|
| 1946 | 0.51 | 6.51 | 46.25 | 1976 | 11.34 | 10.65 | 35.00 |
| 1947 | 0.51 | 6.36 | 45.00 | 1977 | 9.44 | 10.65 | 34.25 |
| 1948 | 0.51 | 6.36 | 45.00 | 1978 | 8.06 | 9.42 | 33.25 |
| 1949 | 0.52 | 6.36 | 45.00 | 1979 | 13.45 | 12.22 | 30.75 |
| 1950 | 0.52 | 6.36 | 45.00 | 1980 | 17.17 | 15.00 | 30.00 |
| 1951 | 0.52 | 4.82 | 46.88 | 1981 | 13.76 | 12.94 | 30.00 |
| 1952 | 2.09 | 4.65 | 47.50 | 1982 | 12.38 | 12.19 | 30.00 |
| 1953 | 2.36 | 4.60 | 45.62 | 1983 | 10.14 | 9.64 | 30.00 |
| 1954 | 1.89 | 4.55 | 45.00 | 1984 | 9.55 | 9.99 | 30.00 |
| 1955 | 3.50 | 4.69 | 43.12 | 1985 | 11.87 | 10.81 | 30.00 |
| 1956 | 5.02 | 5.44 | 42.50 | 1986 | 10.95 | 10.55 | 29.26 |
| 1957 | 5.01 | 6.09 | 42.50 | 1987 | 9.58 | 9.66 | 27.50 |
| 1958 | 5.11 | 6.09 | 42.50 | 1988 | 11.01 | 8.26 | 25.50 |
| 1959 | 3.42 | 5.59 | 39.69 | 1989 | 14.55 | 10.71 | 25.00 |
| 1960 | 5.04 | 5.52 | 38.75 | 1990 | 15.86 | 12.04 | 25.00 |
| 1961 | 5.14 | 5.81 | 38.75 | 1991 | 11.59 | 9.32 | 25.00 |
| 1962 | 4.46 | 6.12 | 38.75 | 1992 | 9.47 | 9.59 | 24.68 |
| 1963 | 3.80 | 5.81 | 38.75 | 1993 | 5.86 | 4.12 | 24.50 |
| 1964 | 4.40 | 5.71 | 38.75 | 1994 | 5.40 | 3.69 | 20.00 |
| 1965 | 6.29 | 6.50 | 40.62 | 1995 | 6.74 | 3.93 | 20.00 |
| 1966 | 6.12 | 6.81 | 41.25 | 1996 | 6.16 | 2.61 | 20.00 |
| 1967 | 5.90 | 7.23 | 41.25 | 1997 | 6.88 | 3.06 | 20.00 |
| 1968 | 7.43 | 7.52 | 41.25 | 1998 | 7.92 | 7.06 | 20.00 |
| 1969 | 7.93 | 8.29 | 41.25 | 1999 | 5.51 | 5.11 | 23.00 |
| 1970 | 7.45 | 8.51 | 41.25 | 2000 | 6.22 | 5.50 | 22.00 |
| 1971 | 6.18 | 8.25 | 39.38 | 2001 | 5.50 | 4.70 | 22.00 |
| 1972 | 5.42 | 8.16 | 38.75 | 2002 | 4.12 | 3.40 | 22.00 |
| 1973 | 9.01 | 9.70 | 32.19 | 2003 | 3.75 | 3.33 | 22.00 |
| 1974 | 12.56 | 11.07 | 32.25 | 2004 | 4.59 | 4.21 | 22.00 |
| 1975 | 10.75 | 11.01 | 34.50 | 2005 | 5.00 | 3.95 | 22.00 |
| | | | | 2006 | 4.90 | 4.36 | 22.00 |

Notes:

1. Annual returns on treasury bills is based on four consecutive investments in 91-day bills.
2. The building society rate of interest above is gross of tax.

Figure 95: Barclays Index-linked and Corporate Bond Funds

| | Index Linked gilts | | | | Sterling Corporate Bonds | | | |
|------|-----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|
| | Value of Fund December £ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Value of Fund December £ | | Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
| 1982 | 100 | | 100 | | | | | |
| 1983 | 101 | +0.8% | 96 | -4.3% | | | | |
| 1984 | 107 | +6.6% | 98 | +1.9% | | | | |
| 1985 | 107 | -0.2% | 92 | -5.5% | | | | |
| 1986 | 114 | +6.1% | 94 | +2.3% | | | | |
| 1987 | 122 | +6.9% | 97 | +3.1% | | | | |
| 1988 | 138 | +13.7% | 103 | +6.5% | | | | |
| 1989 | 158 | +14.5% | 110 | +6.3% | | | | |
| 1990 | 165 | +4.4% | 105 | -4.5% | 100 | | 100 | |
| 1991 | 174 | +5.2% | 106 | +0.7% | 122 | +22.4% | 117 | +17.1% |
| 1992 | 204 | +17.1% | 121 | +14.1% | 147 | +20.3% | 137 | +17.3% |
| 1993 | 247 | +21.1% | 144 | +18.9% | 204 | +38.4% | 187 | +35.9% |
| 1994 | 227 | -7.9% | 128 | -10.5% | 183 | -10.0% | 163 | -12.5% |
| 1995 | 254 | +12.0% | 139 | +8.5% | 215 | +17.4% | 186 | +13.7% |
| 1996 | 271 | +6.5% | 145 | +4.0% | 240 | +11.6% | 202 | +8.9% |
| 1997 | 307 | +13.4% | 158 | +9.4% | 296 | +23.4% | 241 | +19.1% |
| 1998 | 369 | +20.3% | 186 | +17.1% | 364 | +22.7% | 288 | +19.5% |
| 1999 | 388 | +5.0% | 191 | +3.2% | 362 | -0.6% | 281 | -2.3% |
| 2000 | 400 | +3.1% | 192 | +0.1% | 393 | +8.6% | 296 | +5.5% |
| 2001 | 396 | -0.9% | 189 | -1.6% | 421 | +7.2% | 316 | +6.5% |
| 2002 | 428 | +8.2% | 198 | +5.1% | 459 | +9.1% | 334 | +6.0% |
| 2003 | 457 | +6.8% | 206 | +3.9% | 504 | +9.7% | 357 | +6.7% |
| 2004 | 497 | +8.6% | 216 | +4.9% | 538 | +6.9% | 368 | +3.3% |
| 2005 | 542 | +9.1% | 231 | +6.7% | 604 | +12.2% | 404 | +9.8% |
| 2006 | 554 | +2.3% | 226 | -2.1% | 603 | -0.3% | 386 | -4.5% |

Figure 96: Barclays US Equity Index

| Year | Equity Price Index December | | Equity Income Index December | | Income Yield % | Equity Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Equity Income Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|--------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------|-------------------|--|--------|---|---------|
| 1925 | 100 | | | | | 100 | | | |
| 1926 | 104 | +4.0% | 100 | | 5.6 | 105 | +5.2% | 100 | |
| 1927 | 132 | +27.1% | 142 | +42.3% | 6.3 | 137 | +30.0% | 145.6089 | +45.6% |
| 1928 | 176 | +33.5% | 162 | +13.7% | 5.3 | 185 | +35.1% | 167.4343 | +15.0% |
| 1929 | 145 | -17.8% | 79 | -51.4% | 3.2 | 151 | -18.3% | 80.86848 | -51.7% |
| 1930 | 99 | -31.9% | 56 | -28.9% | 3.3 | 110 | -27.2% | 61.41282 | -24.1% |
| 1931 | 52 | -47.7% | 29 | -48.5% | 3.3 | 63 | -42.4% | 34.90812 | -43.2% |
| 1932 | 44 | -15.4% | 45 | +56.3% | 6.0 | 60 | -5.7% | 60.81674 | +74.2% |
| 1933 | 66 | +51.3% | 73 | +61.8% | 6.4 | 90 | +50.2% | 97.67563 | +60.6% |
| 1934 | 66 | +0.0% | 48 | -34.7% | 4.2 | 88 | -1.5% | 62.80398 | -35.7% |
| 1935 | 92 | +38.8% | 92 | +93.7% | 5.8 | 119 | +34.8% | 118.1321 | +88.1% |
| 1936 | 116 | +26.9% | 114 | +23.3% | 5.7 | 149 | +25.1% | 143.5295 | +21.5% |
| 1937 | 72 | -38.1% | 43 | -62.1% | 3.5 | 90 | -39.8% | 52.91273 | -63.1% |
| 1938 | 88 | +22.7% | 82 | +91.3% | 5.4 | 113 | +26.3% | 104.1232 | +96.8% |
| 1939 | 86 | -2.8% | 70 | -14.7% | 4.8 | 110 | -2.8% | 88.77239 | -14.7% |
| 1940 | 75 | -12.7% | 68 | -3.8% | 5.2 | 95 | -13.3% | 84.78751 | -4.5% |
| 1941 | 63 | -15.7% | 66 | -2.0% | 6.1 | 73 | -23.3% | 75.54953 | -10.9% |
| 1942 | 69 | +8.5% | 90 | +35.9% | 7.6 | 73 | -0.5% | 94.16578 | +24.6% |
| 1943 | 84 | +21.8% | 92 | +2.1% | 6.4 | 86 | +18.3% | 93.34229 | -0.9% |
| 1944 | 97 | +15.5% | 98 | +6.3% | 5.9 | 97 | +12.9% | 97.0002 | +3.9% |
| 1945 | 128 | +32.9% | 122 | +24.6% | 5.5 | 126 | +30.0% | 118.1846 | +21.8% |
| 1946 | 116 | -9.7% | 76 | -37.5% | 3.8 | 96 | -23.6% | 62.54816 | -47.1% |
| 1947 | 113 | -2.2% | 109 | +43.3% | 5.6 | 87 | -10.2% | 82.32676 | +31.6% |
| 1948 | 109 | -3.9% | 117 | +7.0% | 6.2 | 81 | -6.7% | 85.5678 | +3.9% |
| 1949 | 122 | +12.3% | 167 | +43.7% | 8.0 | 93 | +14.6% | 125.6061 | +46.8% |
| 1950 | 148 | +21.2% | 221 | +31.9% | 8.7 | 106 | +14.4% | 156.4511 | +24.6% |
| 1951 | 169 | +14.2% | 194 | -12.4% | 6.7 | 114 | +7.7% | 129.3421 | -17.3% |
| 1952 | 182 | +7.4% | 185 | -4.4% | 5.9 | 122 | +6.6% | 122.7073 | -5.1% |
| 1953 | 172 | -5.1% | 160 | -13.6% | 5.4 | 115 | -5.8% | 105.2465 | -14.2% |
| 1954 | 247 | +43.2% | 299 | +86.8% | 7.1 | 165 | +44.3% | 198.1194 | +88.2% |
| 1955 | 297 | +20.3% | 256 | -14.4% | 5.0 | 198 | +19.8% | 168.9608 | -14.7% |
| 1956 | 310 | +4.3% | 223 | -12.8% | 4.2 | 201 | +1.3% | 143.1421 | -15.3% |
| 1957 | 266 | -14.1% | 170 | -23.8% | 3.7 | 168 | -16.5% | 105.9732 | -26.0% |
| 1958 | 370 | +39.3% | 351 | +106.2% | 5.5 | 229 | +36.9% | 214.7285 | +102.6% |
| 1959 | 404 | +9.0% | 248 | -29.3% | 3.6 | 246 | +7.1% | 149.297 | -30.5% |
| 1960 | 395 | -2.2% | 230 | -7.2% | 3.4 | 237 | -3.5% | 136.6705 | -8.5% |
| 1961 | 486 | +23.3% | 310 | +34.8% | 3.7 | 290 | +22.4% | 183.068 | +33.9% |
| 1962 | 422 | -13.3% | 216 | -30.5% | 3.0 | 248 | -14.4% | 125.5253 | -31.4% |
| 1963 | 494 | +17.1% | 321 | +48.9% | 3.8 | 286 | +15.2% | 183.8893 | +46.5% |
| 1964 | 557 | +12.8% | 330 | +2.9% | 3.5 | 320 | +11.8% | 187.4387 | +1.9% |
| 1965 | 619 | +11.0% | 360 | +9.0% | 3.4 | 348 | +8.9% | 200.4217 | +6.9% |
| 1966 | 547 | -11.7% | 281 | -22.1% | 3.0 | 297 | -14.6% | 150.9648 | -24.7% |
| 1967 | 682 | +24.7% | 449 | +60.1% | 3.8 | 360 | +21.0% | 234.4999 | +55.3% |
| 1968 | 756 | +10.9% | 421 | -6.2% | 3.2 | 381 | +5.9% | 210.0573 | -10.4% |
| 1969 | 654 | -13.5% | 300 | -28.8% | 2.7 | 310 | -18.6% | 140.878 | -32.9% |

| Year | Equity Price Index December | | Equity Income Index December | | Income Yield % | Equity Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | | Equity Income Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|--------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------|-------------------|--|--------|---|---------|
| 1970 | 632 | -3.4% | 377 | +25.6% | 3.5 | 284 | -8.5% | 167.6676 | +19.0% |
| 1971 | 713 | +12.8% | 414 | +9.7% | 3.4 | 310 | +9.2% | 178.1692 | +6.3% |
| 1972 | 814 | +14.3% | 431 | +4.1% | 3.1 | 343 | +10.5% | 179.4298 | +0.7% |
| 1973 | 642 | -21.2% | 267 | -38.0% | 2.4 | 249 | -27.5% | 102.2718 | -43.0% |
| 1974 | 442 | -31.1% | 237 | -11.3% | 3.1 | 153 | -38.6% | 80.74978 | -21.0% |
| 1975 | 583 | +31.8% | 554 | +134.0% | 5.5 | 188 | +23.3% | 176.7312 | +118.9% |
| 1976 | 711 | +21.9% | 592 | +6.8% | 4.9 | 219 | +16.3% | 180.0172 | +1.9% |
| 1977 | 659 | -7.3% | 489 | -17.5% | 4.3 | 190 | -13.1% | 139.2653 | -22.6% |
| 1978 | 681 | +3.3% | 614 | +25.6% | 5.3 | 180 | -5.3% | 160.4196 | +15.2% |
| 1979 | 805 | +18.3% | 846 | +37.8% | 6.1 | 188 | +4.4% | 195.1555 | +21.7% |
| 1980 | 1023 | +27.1% | 1073 | +26.9% | 6.1 | 212 | +13.0% | 220.1058 | +12.8% |
| 1981 | 938 | -8.4% | 703 | -34.5% | 4.4 | 179 | -15.9% | 132.4277 | -39.8% |
| 1982 | 1072 | +14.2% | 1136 | +61.5% | 6.2 | 197 | +10.0% | 205.9271 | +55.5% |
| 1983 | 1263 | +17.9% | 1032 | -9.1% | 4.8 | 223 | +13.6% | 180.3626 | -12.4% |
| 1984 | 1249 | -1.1% | 923 | -10.5% | 4.3 | 212 | -4.9% | 155.2309 | -13.9% |
| 1985 | 1579 | +26.5% | 1341 | +45.2% | 4.9 | 259 | +21.8% | 217.1584 | +39.9% |
| 1986 | 1765 | +11.8% | 1143 | -14.8% | 3.8 | 286 | +10.6% | 183.0703 | -15.7% |
| 1987 | 1741 | -1.4% | 952 | -16.7% | 3.2 | 270 | -5.6% | 146.092 | -20.2% |
| 1988 | 1967 | +13.0% | 1545 | +62.2% | 4.6 | 292 | +8.2% | 226.878 | +55.3% |
| 1989 | 2440 | +24.0% | 1844 | +19.4% | 4.4 | 346 | +18.5% | 258.8343 | +14.1% |
| 1990 | 2211 | -9.4% | 1255 | -32.0% | 3.3 | 296 | -14.6% | 165.9898 | -35.9% |
| 1991 | 2866 | +29.6% | 1972 | +57.1% | 4.0 | 372 | +25.8% | 253.0563 | +52.5% |
| 1992 | 3041 | +6.1% | 1538 | -22.0% | 2.9 | 384 | +3.1% | 191.8336 | -24.2% |
| 1993 | 3309 | +8.8% | 1584 | +3.0% | 2.8 | 406 | +5.9% | 192.2562 | +0.2% |
| 1994 | 3200 | -3.3% | 1387 | -12.4% | 2.5 | 383 | -5.8% | 163.964 | -14.7% |
| 1995 | 4240 | +32.5% | 2301 | +66.0% | 3.2 | 494 | +29.2% | 265.3797 | +61.9% |
| 1996 | 5035 | +18.8% | 2082 | -9.5% | 2.4 | 568 | +14.9% | 232.3439 | -12.4% |
| 1997 | 6454 | +28.2% | 2395 | +15.1% | 2.2 | 716 | +26.0% | 262.8498 | +13.1% |
| 1998 | 7779 | +20.5% | 2345 | -2.1% | 1.8 | 850 | +18.6% | 253.2508 | -3.7% |
| 1999 | 9618 | +23.6% | 2670 | +13.9% | 1.6 | 1023 | +20.4% | 280.8318 | +10.9% |
| 2000 | 8462 | -12.0% | 1420 | -46.8% | 1.0 | 870 | -14.9% | 144.4877 | -48.6% |
| 2001 | 7409 | -12.4% | 1491 | +5.0% | 1.2 | 751 | -13.8% | 149.3665 | +3.4% |
| 2002 | 5771 | -22.1% | 1256 | -15.8% | 1.3 | 571 | -23.9% | 122.8626 | -17.7% |
| 2003 | 7548 | +30.8% | 3051 | +143.0% | 2.4 | 733 | +28.4% | 293.0102 | +138.5% |
| 2004 | 8367 | +10.9% | 3089 | +1.2% | 2.2 | 787 | +7.4% | 287.2881 | -2.0% |
| 2005 | 8817 | +5.4% | 2914 | -5.7% | 1.9 | 802 | +1.9% | 262.0621 | -8.8% |
| 2006 | 10025 | +13.7% | 3701 | +27.0% | 2.2 | 889 | +10.9% | 324.6494 | +23.9% |

Figure 97: Barclays US Bond Index

| Year | Bond Price Index December | | yield % | Bond Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|------------------------------|--------|---------|---|--------|
| 1925 | 100 | | | 100 | |
| 1926 | 104 | +3.9% | 3.5 | 105 | +5.1% |
| 1927 | 110 | +5.4% | 3.2 | 113 | +7.8% |
| 1928 | 106 | -3.1% | 3.4 | 111 | -2.0% |
| 1929 | 106 | -0.2% | 3.4 | 110 | -0.8% |
| 1930 | 107 | +1.3% | 3.3 | 119 | +8.2% |
| 1931 | 98 | -8.5% | 4.1 | 120 | +0.9% |
| 1932 | 111 | +12.9% | 3.2 | 151 | +25.8% |
| 1933 | 107 | -3.1% | 3.4 | 146 | -3.9% |
| 1934 | 115 | +6.8% | 2.9 | 153 | +5.2% |
| 1935 | 117 | +2.1% | 2.8 | 152 | -0.8% |
| 1936 | 122 | +4.6% | 2.6 | 157 | +3.1% |
| 1937 | 119 | -2.5% | 2.7 | 148 | -5.2% |
| 1938 | 123 | +2.8% | 2.5 | 157 | +5.8% |
| 1939 | 127 | +3.5% | 2.3 | 163 | +3.5% |
| 1940 | 132 | +3.8% | 1.9 | 167 | +3.0% |
| 1941 | 131 | -1.0% | 2.0 | 151 | -10.0% |
| 1942 | 131 | +0.7% | 2.4 | 139 | -7.6% |
| 1943 | 131 | -0.4% | 2.5 | 135 | -3.3% |
| 1944 | 131 | +0.3% | 2.4 | 132 | -1.9% |
| 1945 | 142 | +8.1% | 2.0 | 140 | +5.8% |
| 1946 | 139 | -2.4% | 2.1 | 115 | -17.4% |
| 1947 | 132 | -4.9% | 2.4 | 101 | -12.6% |
| 1948 | 133 | +0.9% | 2.4 | 99 | -2.0% |
| 1949 | 138 | +4.0% | 2.1 | 105 | +6.2% |
| 1950 | 135 | -2.3% | 2.2 | 97 | -7.8% |
| 1951 | 127 | -6.3% | 2.7 | 86 | -11.6% |
| 1952 | 125 | -1.4% | 2.8 | 84 | -2.1% |
| 1953 | 126 | +0.9% | 2.7 | 84 | +0.2% |
| 1954 | 131 | +4.1% | 2.6 | 88 | +4.9% |
| 1955 | 126 | -3.6% | 3.0 | 84 | -4.0% |
| 1956 | 115 | -9.1% | 3.4 | 75 | -11.7% |
| 1957 | 120 | +4.7% | 3.2 | 76 | +1.8% |
| 1958 | 110 | -8.4% | 3.8 | 68 | -10.0% |
| 1959 | 103 | -6.4% | 4.4 | 63 | -8.0% |
| 1960 | 112 | +9.0% | 3.8 | 68 | +7.5% |
| 1961 | 109 | -3.4% | 4.0 | 65 | -4.0% |
| 1962 | 113 | +4.0% | 3.8 | 67 | +2.6% |
| 1963 | 108 | -4.3% | 4.1 | 63 | -5.8% |
| 1964 | 109 | +0.4% | 4.1 | 62 | -0.6% |
| 1965 | 104 | -3.9% | 4.4 | 59 | -5.7% |
| 1966 | 104 | +0.0% | 4.5 | 57 | -3.3% |
| 1967 | 94 | -9.9% | 5.2 | 50 | -12.6% |
| 1968 | 89 | -14.9% | 5.7 | 45 | -21.1% |
| 1969 | 79 | -11.1% | 6.6 | 37 | -16.3% |

| Year | Bond Price Index December | | yield % | Bond Price Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|------------------------------|--------|---------|---|--------|
| 1970 | 85 | +7.0% | 6.2 | 38 | +1.4% |
| 1971 | 95 | +12.2% | 4.5 | 41 | +8.6% |
| 1972 | 96 | +1.3% | 4.5 | 40 | -2.1% |
| 1973 | 88 | -8.8% | 7.1 | 34 | -16.1% |
| 1974 | 84 | -3.8% | 7.7 | 29 | -14.4% |
| 1975 | 83 | -1.7% | 7.7 | 27 | -8.0% |
| 1976 | 91 | +9.8% | 6.9 | 28 | +4.7% |
| 1977 | 86 | -6.0% | 7.5 | 25 | -11.9% |
| 1978 | 77 | -10.3% | 8.8 | 20 | -17.7% |
| 1979 | 69 | -10.0% | 9.9 | 16 | -20.5% |
| 1980 | 60 | -13.3% | 11.6 | 12 | -22.9% |
| 1981 | 53 | -11.5% | 13.7 | 10 | -18.7% |
| 1982 | 65 | +23.3% | 10.5 | 12 | +18.8% |
| 1983 | 59 | -9.4% | 11.6 | 10 | -12.7% |
| 1984 | 61 | +2.5% | 11.3 | 10 | -1.4% |
| 1985 | 72 | +18.7% | 9.3 | 12 | +14.3% |
| 1986 | 84 | +16.1% | 7.6 | 14 | +14.8% |
| 1987 | 75 | -11.0% | 8.8 | 12 | -14.8% |
| 1988 | 74 | -0.6% | 8.8 | 11 | -4.8% |
| 1989 | 81 | +9.5% | 7.9 | 12 | +4.6% |
| 1990 | 79 | -2.8% | 8.2 | 11 | -8.4% |
| 1991 | 86 | +9.1% | 7.3 | 11 | +5.9% |
| 1992 | 86 | -0.3% | 7.3 | 11 | -3.1% |
| 1993 | 93 | +8.8% | 6.4 | 11 | +5.9% |
| 1994 | 80 | -14.3% | 7.9 | 10 | -16.5% |
| 1995 | 97 | +21.1% | 5.9 | 11 | +18.1% |
| 1996 | 90 | -7.0% | 6.6 | 10 | -10.0% |
| 1997 | 97 | +7.7% | 5.9 | 11 | +5.9% |
| 1998 | 103 | +6.1% | 5.3 | 11 | +4.4% |
| 1999 | 88 | -14.5% | 6.7 | 9 | -16.8% |
| 2000 | 100 | +13.3% | 5.5 | 10 | +9.6% |
| 2001 | 98 | -2.1% | 5.7 | 10 | -3.6% |
| 2002 | 108 | +10.5% | 4.8 | 11 | +7.9% |
| 2003 | 105 | -2.9% | 5.0 | 10 | -4.7% |
| 2004 | 107 | +2.4% | 4.8 | 10 | -0.8% |
| 2005 | 110 | +2.2% | 4.6 | 10 | -1.2% |
| 2006 | 105 | -4.1% | 4.8 | 9 | -6.5% |

Figure 98: Barclays US Treasury Bill Index

| Year | Treasury Bill Index December | | Treasury Bill Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|---------------------------------|-------|--|--------|
| 1925 | 100 | | 100 | |
| 1926 | 103 | +3.2% | 104 | +4.4% |
| 1927 | 106 | +3.1% | 110 | +5.5% |
| 1928 | 110 | +3.8% | 116 | +5.0% |
| 1929 | 116 | +4.7% | 120 | +4.1% |
| 1930 | 118 | +2.3% | 132 | +9.3% |
| 1931 | 120 | +1.0% | 147 | +11.4% |
| 1932 | 121 | +0.8% | 165 | +12.3% |
| 1933 | 121 | +0.3% | 164 | -0.5% |
| 1934 | 121 | +0.2% | 162 | -1.3% |
| 1935 | 121 | +0.2% | 157 | -2.7% |
| 1936 | 122 | +0.2% | 155 | -1.3% |
| 1937 | 122 | +0.3% | 152 | -2.5% |
| 1938 | 122 | +0.0% | 156 | +2.9% |
| 1939 | 122 | +0.0% | 156 | +0.0% |
| 1940 | 122 | -0.1% | 155 | -0.8% |
| 1941 | 122 | +0.0% | 141 | -9.0% |
| 1942 | 122 | +0.3% | 130 | -8.0% |
| 1943 | 123 | +0.3% | 126 | -2.5% |
| 1944 | 123 | +0.3% | 124 | -1.9% |
| 1945 | 124 | +0.3% | 121 | -1.9% |
| 1946 | 124 | +0.4% | 103 | -15.1% |
| 1947 | 125 | +0.5% | 95 | -7.7% |
| 1948 | 126 | +1.0% | 93 | -2.0% |
| 1949 | 127 | +1.1% | 96 | +3.2% |
| 1950 | 129 | +1.2% | 92 | -4.5% |
| 1951 | 131 | +1.5% | 88 | -4.3% |
| 1952 | 133 | +1.6% | 89 | +0.9% |
| 1953 | 135 | +1.8% | 90 | +1.0% |
| 1954 | 136 | +0.9% | 91 | +1.6% |
| 1955 | 138 | +1.6% | 92 | +1.2% |
| 1956 | 142 | +2.4% | 92 | -0.5% |
| 1957 | 146 | +3.1% | 92 | +0.2% |
| 1958 | 148 | +1.4% | 92 | -0.3% |
| 1959 | 152 | +2.8% | 93 | +1.1% |
| 1960 | 156 | +2.6% | 94 | +1.2% |
| 1961 | 160 | +2.2% | 95 | +1.5% |
| 1962 | 164 | +2.7% | 97 | +1.4% |
| 1963 | 169 | +3.2% | 98 | +1.5% |
| 1964 | 175 | +3.5% | 101 | +2.5% |
| 1965 | 182 | +4.0% | 103 | +2.0% |
| 1966 | 191 | +4.7% | 104 | +1.2% |
| 1967 | 199 | +4.1% | 105 | +1.1% |
| 1968 | 209 | +9.7% | 105 | +0.5% |
| 1969 | 223 | +6.6% | 106 | +0.4% |

| Year | Treasury Bill Index December | | Treasury Bill Index Adjusted for Cost of Living | |
|------|---------------------------------|--------|--|-------|
| 1970 | 237 | +6.4% | 107 | +0.8% |
| 1971 | 247 | +4.3% | 108 | +1.0% |
| 1972 | 257 | +3.9% | 108 | +0.5% |
| 1973 | 275 | +7.1% | 107 | -1.5% |
| 1974 | 297 | +8.1% | 103 | -3.8% |
| 1975 | 315 | +5.8% | 102 | -1.0% |
| 1976 | 331 | +5.2% | 102 | +0.3% |
| 1977 | 348 | +5.2% | 100 | -1.5% |
| 1978 | 373 | +7.3% | 99 | -1.6% |
| 1979 | 413 | +10.7% | 96 | -2.3% |
| 1980 | 461 | +11.5% | 96 | -0.9% |
| 1981 | 529 | +14.9% | 101 | +5.4% |
| 1982 | 586 | +10.7% | 107 | +6.6% |
| 1983 | 638 | +8.8% | 113 | +4.9% |
| 1984 | 701 | +10.0% | 119 | +5.8% |
| 1985 | 755 | +7.7% | 124 | +3.7% |
| 1986 | 801 | +6.1% | 130 | +4.9% |
| 1987 | 844 | +5.4% | 131 | +0.9% |
| 1988 | 897 | +6.3% | 133 | +1.8% |
| 1989 | 971 | +8.2% | 138 | +3.4% |
| 1990 | 1046 | +7.7% | 140 | +1.5% |
| 1991 | 1103 | +5.5% | 143 | +2.4% |
| 1992 | 1141 | +3.4% | 144 | +0.5% |
| 1993 | 1174 | +2.9% | 144 | +0.1% |
| 1994 | 1219 | +3.9% | 146 | +1.2% |
| 1995 | 1287 | +5.5% | 150 | +2.9% |
| 1996 | 1353 | +5.1% | 153 | +1.8% |
| 1997 | 1422 | +5.1% | 158 | +3.3% |
| 1998 | 1490 | +4.8% | 163 | +3.1% |
| 1999 | 1558 | +4.6% | 166 | +1.8% |
| 2000 | 1647 | +5.8% | 169 | +2.3% |
| 2001 | 1710 | +3.8% | 173 | +2.2% |
| 2002 | 1738 | +1.6% | 172 | -0.7% |
| 2003 | 1755 | +1.0% | 170 | -0.8% |
| 2004 | 1776 | +1.2% | 167 | -2.0% |
| 2005 | 1829 | +3.0% | 166 | -0.4% |
| 2006 | 1916 | +4.8% | 170 | +2.2% |

Chapter 9 – Total investment returns

Sree Kochugovindan, Roland Nilsson

Our final chapter presents a series of tables showing the performance of equity and fixed-interest investments over any period of years since December 1899.

The first section reviews the performance of each asset class taking account of inflation. The second section reviews the performance over the past 46 years since December 1960. On each page we provide two tables illustrating the same information in alternative forms. The first table shows the average annual real rate of return; the second shows the real value of a portfolio at the end of each year, which includes reinvested income. This section provides data on equities and gilts, with dividend income reinvested gross. Lastly, we provide figures for Treasury bills and building society shares.

The final pullout section provides the annual real rate of return on both UK and US equities and bonds (with reinvestment of income for each year since 1899 for the UK, and 1925 for the US). There is also a table showing the real capital value of equities for the UK.

- 1960-2006**
- Equities – income gross
 - Gilts – income gross
 - Treasury Bills – income gross
 - Building Society Shares – income gross
 - Index-linked gilts
 - Corporate bonds

- UK: 1899-2006**
- US: 1925-2006**
- UK and US real bond returns – income gross
 - UK and US real equities returns – income gross
 - UK Equities – real capital value

REAL RETURN ON EQUITIES - GROSS INCOME RE-INVESTED
AVERAGE ANNUAL REAL RATE OF RETURN

| INVESTMENT TO END YEAR | INVESTMENT FROM END YEAR | | | | | | | | | | INVESTMENT FROM END YEAR | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|------|--------|------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|--------|------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|-------|--------|--------|------|------|------|------|------|--|
| | 1960 | 1961 | 1962 | 1963 | 1964 | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | |
| 1961 | (2.5) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | (2.4) | (2.2) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1963 | 3.9 | 7.3 | 17.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1964 | 0.3 | 1.3 | 3.0 | (9.8) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1965 | 1.5 | 2.6 | 4.2 | (1.9) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1966 | (0.0) | 0.5 | 1.2 | (3.8) | (0.7) | (7.4) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1967 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 6.6 | 3.9 | 9.0 | 10.2 | 31.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1968 | 7.8 | 9.4 | 11.5 | 10.3 | 16.0 | 19.3 | 35.4 | 39.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1969 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 7.1 | 5.4 | 8.8 | 9.3 | 15.5 | 8.5 | (15.9) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1970 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 3.0 | 5.3 | 5.0 | 8.4 | 1.7 | (13.2) | (10.5) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1971 | 5.8 | 6.6 | 7.7 | 6.5 | 9.0 | 9.4 | 13.2 | 9.1 | 0.4 | 9.7 | 34.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1972 | 6.0 | 6.8 | 7.7 | 6.7 | 8.9 | 9.2 | 12.3 | 8.9 | 2.3 | 9.1 | 20.5 | 8.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1973 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 1.5 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 3.9 | (0.1) | (6.6) | (4.1) | (1.9) | (16.2) | (35.0) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1974 | (4.2) | (4.4) | (4.5) | (6.3) | (6.0) | (7.3) | (7.3) | (11.8) | (18.3) | (18.7) | (20.7) | (33.5) | (47.8) | (58.1) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1975 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.0 | (0.2) | 0.7 | 0.1 | 1.0 | (2.3) | (7.2) | (5.6) | (4.6) | (12.4) | (18.4) | (8.6) | 99.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1976 | (0.2) | (0.0) | 0.1 | (1.1) | (0.4) | (1.0) | (0.3) | (3.3) | (7.7) | (6.4) | (5.7) | (12.2) | (16.6) | (9.4) | 33.2 | (11.1) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1977 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 2.3 | (0.2) | (3.9) | (2.3) | (1.0) | (5.9) | (8.5) | (0.4) | 33.0 | 8.5 | 32.5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1978 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 0.9 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 2.1 | (0.2) | (3.5) | (2.0) | (0.9) | (5.1) | (7.1) | (0.3) | 23.9 | 5.7 | 15.2 | 0.2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1979 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 0.5 | 1.3 | 0.9 | 1.6 | (0.6) | (3.6) | (2.3) | (1.3) | (5.1) | (6.8) | (1.1) | 17.5 | 2.9 | 8.1 | (2.4) | (4.9) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 1.4 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 0.7 | (2.0) | (0.7) | 0.4 | (2.8) | (4.1) | 1.4 | 17.4 | 5.6 | 10.3 | 3.7 | 5.5 | 17.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1981 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 0.7 | (1.8) | (0.5) | 0.5 | (2.4) | (3.5) | 1.4 | 15.0 | 4.9 | 8.4 | 3.1 | 4.1 | 8.9 | 1.3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1982 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.4 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 2.0 | (0.2) | 1.1 | 2.1 | (0.4) | (1.2) | 3.5 | 15.8 | 7.2 | 10.6 | 6.6 | 8.3 | 13.1 | 11.1 | 21.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1983 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 3.2 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 5.2 | 16.5 | 9.0 | 12.2 | 9.1 | 11.0 | 15.3 | 14.7 | 22.3 | 30.2 | 12.2 | 3.0 | 12.3 | 9.7 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 11.8 | 11.4 | 10.7 | 8.8 | 12.0 | 10.7 | 10.1 | 7.2 | 5.5 | (8.6) | | | | | | | | |
| 1984 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 5.0 | 5.7 | 4.4 | 2.5 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 6.9 | 17.4 | 10.7 | 13.8 | 11.3 | 13.3 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 23.3 | 24.0 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 25.8 | | |
| 1985 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 4.9 | 3.1 | 4.5 | 5.5 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 7.5 | 17.1 | 11.0 | 13.8 | 11.6 | 13.4 | 16.7 | 16.7 | 20.8 | 20.5 | 19.6 | 13.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1986 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 5.4 | 6.2 | 6.2 | 6.9 | 5.8 | 4.1 | 5.4 | 6.5 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 8.6 | 17.5 | 12.0 | 14.6 | 12.8 | 14.5 | 17.6 | 17.7 | 21.2 | 21.0 | 20.6 | 18.1 | 22.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1987 | 5.2 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 5.4 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 8.3 | 16.5 | 11.4 | 13.7 | 12.0 | 13.4 | 15.9 | 15.7 | 18.3 | 17.6 | 16.5 | 13.5 | 13.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1988 | 5.3 | 5.8 | 6.1 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 6.0 | 6.7 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 5.4 | 6.3 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 8.1 | 15.6 | 10.9 | 12.9 | 11.3 | 12.4 | 14.6 | 14.2 | 16.2 | 15.3 | 13.9 | 11.2 | 10.3 | 4.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1989 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 6.5 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 7.5 | 6.5 | 5.1 | 6.3 | 7.3 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 9.1 | 16.3 | 11.9 | 13.9 | 12.4 | 13.6 | 15.6 | 15.5 | 17.4 | 16.7 | 15.8 | 13.9 | 14.0 | 11.2 | 14.6 | 25.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 5.0 | 5.3 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 6.3 | 5.3 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 5.9 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 7.3 | 13.8 | 9.6 | 11.3 | 9.8 | 10.6 | 12.2 | 11.7 | 12.9 | 11.8 | 10.4 | 8.0 | 6.9 | 3.3 | 2.8 | 2.0 | (17.4) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1991 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 6.7 | 5.7 | 4.5 | 5.5 | 6.3 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 7.8 | 13.9 | 10.0 | 11.6 | 10.2 | 11.0 | 12.4 | 12.0 | 13.2 | 12.2 | 11.0 | 9.1 | 8.3 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 6.4 | (2.2) | 15.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 5.9 | 6.5 | 6.5 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 6.8 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 8.1 | 11.9 | 9.4 | 10.4 | 9.5 | 9.9 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 10.9 | 10.3 | 9.7 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 7.6 | 7.8 | 8.1 | 6.7 | 9.2 | 8.6 | 7.7 | 5.7 | 7.9 | 6.2 | 4.8 | 1.5 | (1.4) | (11.2) | (13.8) | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 6.2 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 6.4 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 7.6 | 6.8 | 5.7 | 6.7 | 7.5 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 9.0 | 14.6 | 11.2 | 12.6 | 11.5 | 12.3 | 13.6 | 13.4 | 14.4 | 13.8 | 12.9 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 9.8 | 10.7 | 11.9 | 8.7 | 19.1 | 20.9 | 25.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1994 | 5.7 | 6.0 | 6.3 | 5.9 | 6.5 | 6.5 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 5.1 | 6.0 | 6.8 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 8.1 | 13.3 | 10.0 | 11.3 | 10.2 | 10.8 | 12.0 | 11.6 | 12.5 | 11.7 | 10.8 | 9.4 | 8.9 | 7.3 | 7.7 | 8.2 | 5.0 | 11.5 | 10.1 | 7.0 | (8.6) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 6.1 | 6.4 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 7.4 | 6.7 | 5.6 | 6.5 | 7.3 | 6.3 | 6.2 | 8.6 | 13.6 | 10.5 | 11.7 | 10.7 | 11.3 | 12.4 | 12.1 | 12.9 | 12.3 | 11.5 | 10.2 | 9.9 | 8.6 | 9.1 | 9.7 | 7.3 | 13.0 | 12.3 | 10.9 | 4.4 | 19.2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1996 | 6.3 | 6.6 | 6.8 | 6.5 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 7.6 | 6.9 | 5.9 | 6.8 | 7.5 | 6.5 | 6.5 | 8.8 | 13.6 | 10.6 | 11.8 | 10.8 | 11.4 | 12.5 | 12.2 | 12.9 | 12.3 | 11.6 | 10.5 | 10.2 | 9.0 | 9.5 | 10.1 | 8.1 | 13.0 | 12.5 | 11.4 | 7.2 | 16.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1997 | 6.6 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 6.9 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 8.0 | 7.3 | 6.3 | 7.2 | 7.9 | 7.0 | 6.9 | 9.2 | 13.8 | 11.0 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 11.8 | 12.8 | 12.6 | 13.3 | 12.8 | 12.1 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 9.9 | 10.4 | 11.1 | 9.4 | 13.9 | 13.6 | 13.0 | 10.1 | 17.1 | 16.1 | 19.3 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 6.7 | 7.0 | 7.3 | 7.0 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 8.0 | 7.4 | 6.4 | 7.3 | 8.0 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 9.2 | 13.7 | 10.9 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 11.8 | 12.7 | 12.5 | 13.2 | 12.6 | 12.0 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 10.0 | 10.5 | 11.1 | 9.5 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 12.6 | 10.2 | 15.5 | 14.3 | 14.9 | 10.6 | | | | | | | | | |
| 1999 | 7.1 | 7.4 | 7.6 | 7.4 | 7.9 | 7.9 | 8.4 | 7.8 | 6.9 | 7.7 | 8.4 | 7.6 | 7.6 | 9.7 | 14.0 | 11.4 | 12.5 | 11.6 | 12.2 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 13.6 | 13.2 | 12.6 | 11.8 | 11.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

[illegible][illegible]

REAL RETURN ON TREASURY BILLS - GROSS INCOME RE-INVESTED
AVERAGE ANNUAL REAL RATE OF RETURN

| | INVESTMENT FROM END YEAR | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | INVESTMENT FROM END YEAR | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|--|--|--|--|
| | 1960 | 1961 | 1962 | 1963 | 1964 | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | | | | |
| 1961 | 0.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 1.3 | 1.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1963 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 1.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1964 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 0.8 | (0.4) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1965 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1966 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 2.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1967 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1968 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 1.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1969 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 3.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1970 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.3 | (0.4) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1971 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 0.0 | (1.5) | (2.6) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1972 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.4 | (0.1) | (0.5) | (1.7) | (2.3) | (2.1) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1973 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.2 | (0.4) | (0.7) | (1.6) | (2.0) | (1.7) | (1.4) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1974 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.2) | (0.6) | (1.1) | (1.5) | (2.4) | (2.9) | (3.0) | (3.5) | (5.5) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1975 | (0.6) | (0.7) | (0.8) | (1.1) | (1.1) | (1.4) | (1.8) | (2.4) | (3.0) | (4.0) | (4.7) | (5.2) | (6.2) | (8.5) | (11.3) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1976 | (0.7) | (0.8) | (1.0) | (1.2) | (1.3) | (1.6) | (2.0) | (2.5) | (3.0) | (3.9) | (4.4) | (4.8) | (5.4) | (6.8) | (7.4) | (3.2) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1977 | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.1) | (1.3) | (1.4) | (1.6) | (2.0) | (2.5) | (2.9) | (3.7) | (4.1) | (4.4) | (4.8) | (5.7) | (5.7) | (2.8) | (2.4) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1978 | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.1) | (1.3) | (1.3) | (1.5) | (1.9) | (2.3) | (2.7) | (3.3) | (3.7) | (3.8) | (4.1) | (4.6) | (4.4) | (2.0) | (1.4) | (0.3) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1979 | (0.9) | (1.0) | (1.1) | (1.4) | (1.4) | (1.7) | (2.0) | (2.4) | (2.7) | (3.3) | (3.6) | (3.7) | (4.0) | (4.4) | (4.2) | (2.3) | (1.8) | (3.2) | (3.2) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.0) | (1.2) | (1.2) | (1.4) | (1.7) | (2.1) | (2.4) | (2.9) | (3.1) | (3.1) | (3.3) | (3.5) | (3.2) | (1.5) | (1.1) | (0.6) | (0.8) | 1.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1981 | (0.7) | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.0) | (1.1) | (1.3) | (1.5) | (1.8) | (2.1) | (2.5) | (2.7) | (2.7) | (2.8) | (2.9) | (2.5) | (1.0) | (0.5) | (0.1) | (0.0) | 1.7 | 1.5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1982 | (0.4) | (0.4) | (0.5) | (0.7) | (0.7) | (0.8) | (1.0) | (1.3) | (1.5) | (1.8) | (1.9) | (1.9) | (1.9) | (1.9) | (1.4) | 0.1 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 6.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1983 | (0.2) | (0.2) | (0.3) | (0.4) | (0.4) | (0.5) | (0.7) | (0.9) | (1.1) | (1.4) | (1.5) | (1.4) | (1.3) | (0.8) | 0.6 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 3.6 | 4.2 | 5.6 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 4.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1984 | 0.0 | 0.0 | (0.1) | (0.2) | (0.1) | (0.2) | (0.4) | (0.6) | (0.7) | (1.0) | (1.0) | (0.9) | (0.8) | (0.7) | (0.3) | 1.1 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 5.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1985 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | (0.1) | (0.3) | (0.4) | (0.6) | (0.6) | (0.4) | (0.3) | (0.2) | 0.3 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.2 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 5.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1986 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.0 | (0.1) | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 6.4 | 7.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1987 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.7 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 6.2 | 6.3 | 5.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1988 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 4.8 | 4.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1989 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 6.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 6.2 | 6.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1991 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 6.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 5.2 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 6.1 | 6.2 | 6.3 | 6.4 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 6.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.3 | 3.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1994 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 4.3 | 3.2 | 2.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 4.1 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 3.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1996 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1997 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 3.9 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.0 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 5.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1999 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

REAL RETURN ON BUILDING SOCIETY ACCOUNT - GROSS INCOME RE-INVESTED
AVERAGE ANNUAL REAL RATE OF RETURN

| | INVESTMENT FROM END YEAR | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | INVESTMENT FROM END YEAR | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | 1960 | 1961 | 1962 | 1963 | 1964 | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | | | | | | |
| 1961 | 1.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 2.4 | 3.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1963 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 3.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1964 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 0.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1965 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 1.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1966 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 3.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1967 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 4.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1968 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 1.5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1969 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 2.5 | 3.5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1970 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 0.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1971 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 1.2 | 1.1 | (0.1) | (0.7) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1972 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.1 | (0.1) | 0.5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1973 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 0.6 | (0.1) | (0.3) | (0.2) | (0.8) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1974 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.2 | (0.4) | (0.7) | (1.5) | (2.0) | (2.4) | (3.8) | (6.8) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1975 | 0.3 | 0.2 | (0.0) | (0.3) | (0.4) | (0.7) | (1.1) | (1.8) | (2.2) | (3.2) | (3.9) | (4.7) | (6.3) | (9.0) | (11.1) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1976 | 0.0 | (0.1) | (0.3) | (0.6) | (0.7) | (1.0) | (1.4) | (2.0) | (2.4) | (3.3) | (3.9) | (4.5) | (7.7) | (7.3) | (7.6) | (3.8) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1977 | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.4) | (0.7) | (0.8) | (1.0) | (1.4) | (1.9) | (2.3) | (3.0) | (3.5) | (4.0) | (4.8) | (5.8) | (5.5) | (2.6) | (1.3) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1978 | 0.0 | (0.1) | (0.3) | (0.6) | (0.7) | (0.9) | (1.2) | (1.7) | (2.0) | (2.6) | (3.0) | (3.3) | (3.9) | (4.5) | (3.9) | (1.4) | (0.2) | 1.0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1979 | (0.2) | (0.3) | (0.5) | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.1) | (1.4) | (1.9) | (2.2) | (2.8) | (3.1) | (3.4) | (4.0) | (4.5) | (4.0) | (2.1) | (1.6) | (1.7) | (4.3) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | (0.2) | (0.3) | (0.5) | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.0) | (1.3) | (1.8) | (2.0) | (2.5) | (2.8) | (3.1) | (3.5) | (3.9) | (3.4) | (1.7) | (1.2) | (1.2) | (2.2) | (0.1) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1981 | (0.2) | (0.2) | (0.4) | (0.7) | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.2) | (1.6) | (1.8) | (2.2) | (2.5) | (2.7) | (3.0) | (3.3) | (2.8) | (1.3) | (0.8) | (0.7) | (1.2) | 0.3 | 0.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1982 | 0.1 | 0.1 | (0.1) | (0.3) | (0.4) | (0.5) | (0.7) | (1.1) | (1.3) | (1.6) | (1.8) | (1.9) | (2.1) | (2.3) | (1.7) | (0.3) | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 6.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1983 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | (0.1) | (0.3) | (0.4) | (0.8) | (0.9) | (1.2) | (1.3) | (1.4) | (1.6) | (1.6) | (1.1) | 0.3 | 0.9 | 1.3 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 5.3 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 4.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1984 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | (0.1) | (0.4) | (0.5) | (0.8) | (0.9) | (0.9) | (1.0) | (1.0) | (0.4) | 0.8 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 5.2 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 3.5 | 1.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1985 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.1 | (0.1) | (0.2) | (0.5) | (0.5) | (0.5) | (0.6) | (0.6) | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 5.0 | 4.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1986 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.0) | 0.6 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 6.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1987 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.9 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 5.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1988 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 3.5 | 1.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1989 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 3.3 | 2.1 | 2.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1991 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 4.6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.3 | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 6.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 2.2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1994 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 1.5 | 0.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 1.2 | 0.7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1996 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1997 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.1 | (0.2) | (0.5) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

(annual average rates of return between year ends

(annual average rates of return between year ends)

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1899 | 1900 | 1901 | 1902 | 1903 | 1904 | 1905 | 1906 | 1907 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 | 1911 | 1912 | 1913 | 1914 | 1915 | 1916 | 1917 | 1918 | 1919 | 1920 | 1921 | 1922 | 1923 | 1924 | 1925 | 1926 | 1927 | 1928 | 1929 | 1930 | 1931 | 1932 | 1933 | 1934 | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 | 1938 | 1939 | 1940 | 1941 | 1942 | 1943 | 1944 | 1945 | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 | 1953 | 1954 | 1955 | 1956 | 1957 | 1958 | 1959 | 1960 | 1961 | 1962 | 1963 | 1964 | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|

(annual average rates of return between year ends)

INVESTMENT TO END YEAR

(annual average rates of return between year ends)

HOW TO USE TABLES OF TOTAL RETURNS

The dates along the top (and bottom) are those on which each portfolio starts; those down the side are the dates to which the annual rate of return is calculated. Thus the figure at the bottom right hand corner – 13.3 – shows that the real return on a portfolio bought at the end of December 2005 and held for one year to December 2006 was 13.3%. Figures in brackets indicate negative returns.

Each figure on the bottom line of the table shows the average annual return up to the end of December 2006 from the year shown below the figure. The first figure is 7.1, showing that the average annual rate of return over the whole period since 1925 has been 7.1%.

The top figure in each column is the rate of return in the first year, so that reading diagonally down the table gives the real rate of return in each year since 1925. The table can be used to see the rate of return over any period; thus a purchase made at the end of 1926 would have gained 38.1% in value in one year (allowing for reinvestment of income) but, over the first five years (up to the end of 1931), would have fallen in value by an average annual real rate of –5.7%.

(annual average rates of return between year ends)

HOW TO USE TABLES OF TOTAL RETURNS

The dates along the top (and bottom) are those on which each portfolio starts; those down the side are the dates to which the annual rate of return is calculated. Thus the figure at the bottom right hand corner $-(1.2)$ – shows that the real return on a portfolio bought at the end of December 2005 and held for one year to December 2006 was minus 1.2%. Figures in brackets indicate negative returns.

Each figure on the bottom line of the table shows the average annual return up to the end of December 2006 from the year shown below the figure. The first figure is 2.3, showing that the average annual rate of return over the whole period since 1925 has been 2.3%.

The top figure in each column is the rate of return in the first year, so that reading diagonally down the table gives the real rate of return in each year since 1925. The table can be used to see the rate of return over any period; thus a purchase made at the end of 1926 would have gained 11.3% in value in one year (allowing for reinvestment of income) but, over the first five years (up to the end of 1931), would have risen in value by an average annual real rate of 6.2%.

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