

# Risk, return, and asset prices

Corporate Finance

# Building blocks (one period)

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- Consider an investment that pays \$100 in one period and costs \$90 today

- The return on that investment is:

$$r = \frac{(100-90)}{90} = \frac{100}{90} - 1 \approx 11.11\%$$

- I need to invest \$90 to generate \$100 a period from now assuming a return of 11.11%
- In finance parlance, \$90 is the present value of \$100 a period from now assuming a discount rate of 11.11%



# Building blocks (multiple periods)

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- Consider an investment that pays \$50 in one period and another \$50 in two periods and costs \$90 today
- One measure of the return on this investment is the solution to:

$$90 = \frac{50}{1+r} + \frac{50}{(1+r)^2}$$

which is roughly  $r = 7.32\%$

- If I invest  $\frac{50}{1+r}$  today for 1 year at 7.32% and then  $\frac{50}{(1+r)^2}$  for 2 years at 7.32% I will replicate the project's cash flows
  - Put another way, I can replicate the project's cash flow if I have a technology that give me 7.32% per period
  - This measure of return is called the *yield to maturity (YTM)*
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# Risk

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- When cash-flows are uncertain, we can measure the project's return based on *expected cash flows* rather than promised cash-flows
- This is the cash flows I'd get on average if I invested in a large number of projects (or a project a large number of times) with no correlation across attempts
- In that case,  $r$  is called the *internal rate of return (IRR)*



# YTM vs IRR

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- On a project with specified cash-flow promises, the *YTM* is the return you will get if all payments are made as planned
- No default or prepayment, in particular
- It is the *IRR* if all goes according to the plan
- The *IRR* is the return associated with expected cash flows, the cash flow one expects on average on a project of this type
- Typically,\*  $YTM > IRR$



# Promote structure

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- A passive investor finances 90% of the \$100M cost of a project, while an operator finances the other 10%
- In the benchmark scenario, the project will generate \$50M in year 1 and \$80M in year 2
- Incentive clause:
  - ▶ Cash flows are distributed according to the initial stake until the passive investor gets an IRR of 10% (*Tier 1 cash flows*)
  - ▶ Once enough cash flows have been generated to deliver this return, excess cash flows will be split 50-50 (*Tier 2 cash flows*)
- If the benchmark scenario materializes, what IRR is the operator going to get from this project?



# Risk: a deeper dive

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- Asset returns are subject to uncertainty
- Let  $S$  be the set of possible states of the world
- Roll of a fair dice:  $S = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- An *event* is a subset of  $S$
- Ex:  $A = \{2,4,6\}$  is the event that the roll is even
- A *probability distribution* is a function that assigns probabilities to each possible state of the word
- Ex: If dice is fair,  $P(s) = 1/6$  for all  $s \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$



# Random variables

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- A random variable  $X$  on  $S$  attaches a value to each possible state of the world
- Assets (risky strings of cash flows), are random variables
- Ex:  $X$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is even, nothing otherwise:  
$$P(X = 1) = P(s \in \{2,4,6\}) = 0.5$$





# Expectations

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- The *expected value* of a random variable  $X$  is defined as:

$$E(X) = \sum_s P(s) X(s)$$

- $X$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is even, nothing otherwise:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) = & P(s = 1) \times 0 + P(s = 2) \times 1 \\ & + P(s = 3) \times 0 + P(s = 4) \times 1 \\ & + P(s = 5) \times 0 + P(s = 6) \times 1 = 0.5 \end{aligned}$$



# Variances and standard deviations

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- $VAR(X) = \sum_s P(s)(X(s) - E(X))^2$   
 $= E[X - E(X)]^2$
- $X$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is even, nothing otherwise:  
 $VAR(X) =$   
 $P(s = 1)(0 - 0.5)^2 + P(s = 2)(1 - 0.5)^2$   
 $+ P(s = 3)(0 - 0.5)^2 + P(s = 4)(1 - 0.5)^2$   
 $+ P(s = 5)(0 - 0.5)^2 + P(s = 6)(1 - 0.5)^2$
- The *standard deviation* of  $X$  is the square root of its variance



# Variances and standard deviations

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- $$\begin{aligned} \text{VAR}(X) &= \sum_s P(s)(X(s) - E(X))^2 \\ &= E[X - E(X)]^2 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{VAR}(X) &= P(s = 1)(0 - 0.5)^2 + P(s = 2)(1 - 0.5)^2 \\ &\quad + P(s = 3)(0 - 0.5)^2 + P(s = 4)(1 - 0.5)^2 \\ &\quad + P(s = 5)(0 - 0.5)^2 + P(s = 6)(1 - 0.5)^2 \\ &= 0.25 \end{aligned}$$

- The standard deviation of  $X$  is the square root of its variance:

$$\sigma_X = \sqrt{\text{VAR}(X)}$$

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# Risk

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- A random variable  $X$  is *risk-free* if

$$VAR(X) = 0 \Leftrightarrow X(s) = x \text{ for all } s \in S$$

- It is *risky* if  $VAR(X) > 0$
- The closest risk we have to risk-free asset in the US (the world?) is a T-bill



# Covariance

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- We need a notion of how two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are related:

$$\begin{aligned} COV(X, Y) &= \sum_s P(s) (X(s) - E(X))(Y(s) - E(Y)) \\ &= E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))] \end{aligned}$$

- $COV(X, Y) > 0$  means that  $X$  tends to be high when  $Y$  tends to be high, and vice-versa
  - Note 1: if  $X$  is risk-free, then  $COV(X, Y) = 0$
  - Note 2:  $COV(X, X) = VAR(X)$
  - Note 3:  $COV(X, Y) = COV(Y, X)$
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# Example

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- $X$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is even,  $Y$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is 4 or more
- Then  $E(X) = E(Y) = 0.5$ , and:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{COV}(X, Y) &= \\ &P(s = 1)(0 - 0.5)(0 - 0.5) + P(s = 2)(1 - 0.5)(0 - 0.5) \\ &+ P(s = 3)(0 - 0.5)(0 - 0.5) + P(s = 4)(1 - 0.5)(1 - 0.5) \\ &+ P(s = 5)(0 - 0.5)(1 - 0.5) + P(s = 6)(1 - 0.5)(1 - 0.5) \\ &= 1/12 \end{aligned}$$



# Coefficient of correlation

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- $\rho_{X, Y} = COV(X, Y) / (\sigma_X \sigma_Y)$
- Varies from  $-1$  to  $1$
- $\rho_{X, Y} = 1$  means that  $Y = aX + b$ , where  $a > 0$
- $\rho_{X, Y} = -1$  means that  $Y = aX + b$ , where  $a < 0$



# Example

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- $X$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is even,  $Y$  pays \$1 if roll of dice is 4 or more

- $$\rho_{X,Y} = COV(X, Y) / (\sigma_X \sigma_Y) = \frac{\frac{1}{12}}{\sqrt{0.25 \times 0.25}} = \frac{1}{3}$$





# Independence

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- $X$  is *independent* of  $Y$  if knowing something about  $X$  does not change the probability distribution of  $Y$
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then  $COV(X, Y) = 0$
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are *dependent* then knowing  $X$  is useful for forecasting  $Y$
- We just need to understand or *model* that dependence in order to exploit it



# A very useful expression

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- $VAR(aX + bY) =$

$$a^2VAR(X) + b^2VAR(Y) + 2abCOV(X, Y)$$

- In words, when you add/combine two risky assets, the variance of the resulting portfolio depends on how risky each asset is but also on how they co-vary with one-another



# Mixing assets

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- Let  $a$  and  $b$  be numbers, and  $X$  and  $Y$  be the returns on two assets
- Investing  $a$  in  $X$  and  $b$  in  $Y$  returns  $aX(s) + bY(s)$  in state  $s$
- $(a, b)$ , in this context, is called a *portfolio*
- We write  $aX + bY$  for the resulting random variable



# Big facts

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- $E(aX + bY) = aE(X) + bE(Y)$
- $VAR(aX) = a^2VAR(X) \Leftrightarrow \sigma_{aX} = a \sigma_X$
- $VAR(aX + bY) = a^2VAR(X) + b^2VAR(X) + 2ab COV(X, Y)$
- $VAR(0.5X + 0.5Y) =$   
 $0.25VAR(X) + 0.25VAR(X) + 0.5 COV(X, Y)$



# Diversification

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- Combining risky assets reduces risk unless  $\rho_{X, Y} = 1$
- Returns on risky assets that do not covary perfectly tend to offset each-other, at least a little bit
- If they co-vary negatively, diversification is even greater
- If you bet the same amount on both red and black at the roulette, you're taking on virtually no risk



# More facts

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- $COV(aX + bY, Z) = aCOV(X, Z) + bCOV(Y, Z)$
- And the big monster:

$$VAR\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j COV(X_i, X_j)$$



# Towards CAPM

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- Consider an investor who can split her wealth across three risky assets:

1. Bonds ( $E(r^B) = 6\%$ ,  $\sigma(r^B) = 7\%$ )
2. Stocks ( $E(r^S) = 15\%$ ,  $\sigma(r^S) = 10\%$ )
3. Real Estate ( $E(r^E) = 6\%$ ,  $\sigma(r^E) = 7\%$ )

- Covariance matrix (in percentage points) is:

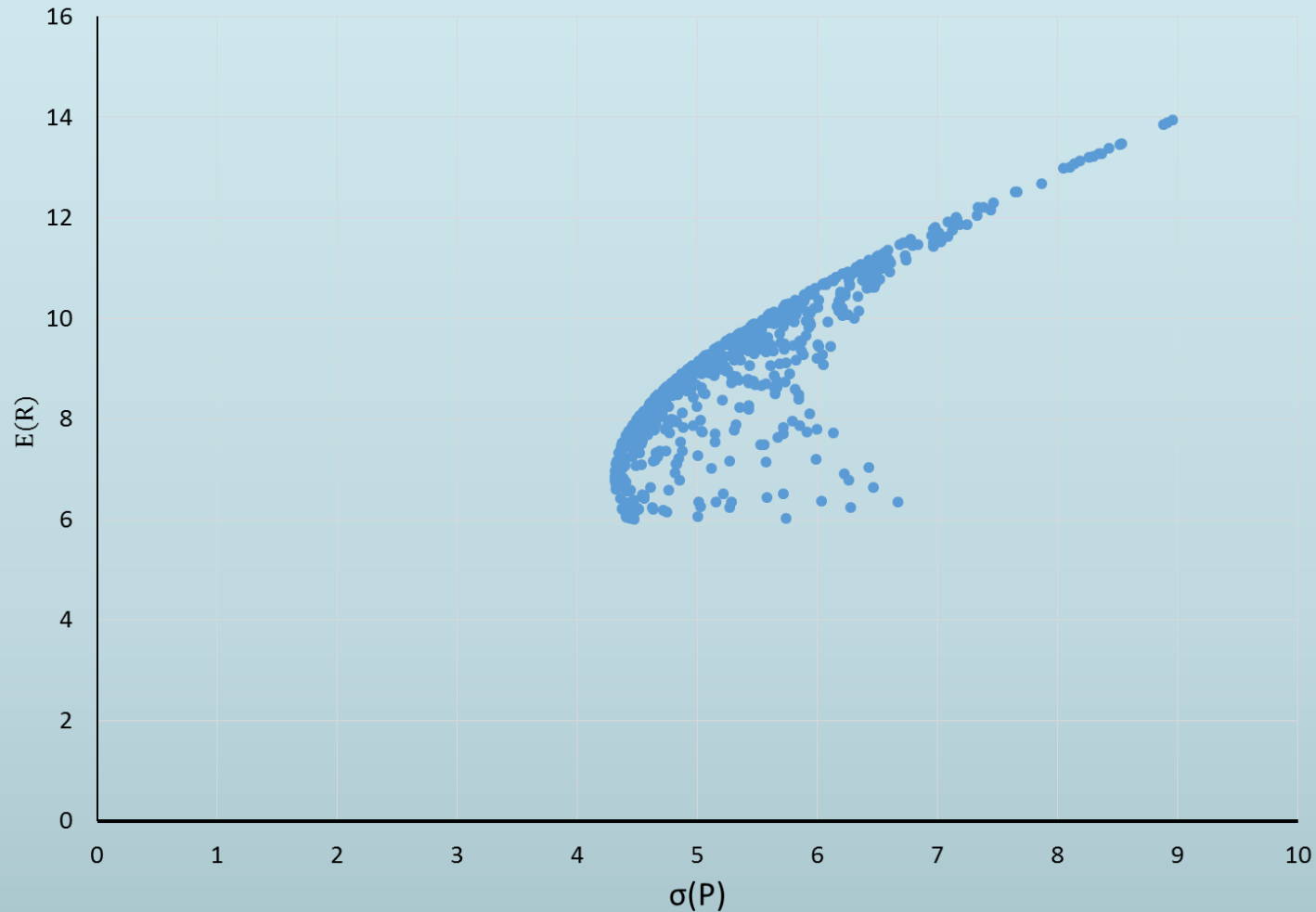
$$\begin{bmatrix} 49 & 10 & -10 \\ 10 & 100 & 10 \\ -10 & 10 & 49 \end{bmatrix}$$

- She likes expected returns, she dislikes variance, she doesn't care about anything else
  - That is, she has *mean-variance preferences* and is *risk-averse*
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# Feasible risk return combinations

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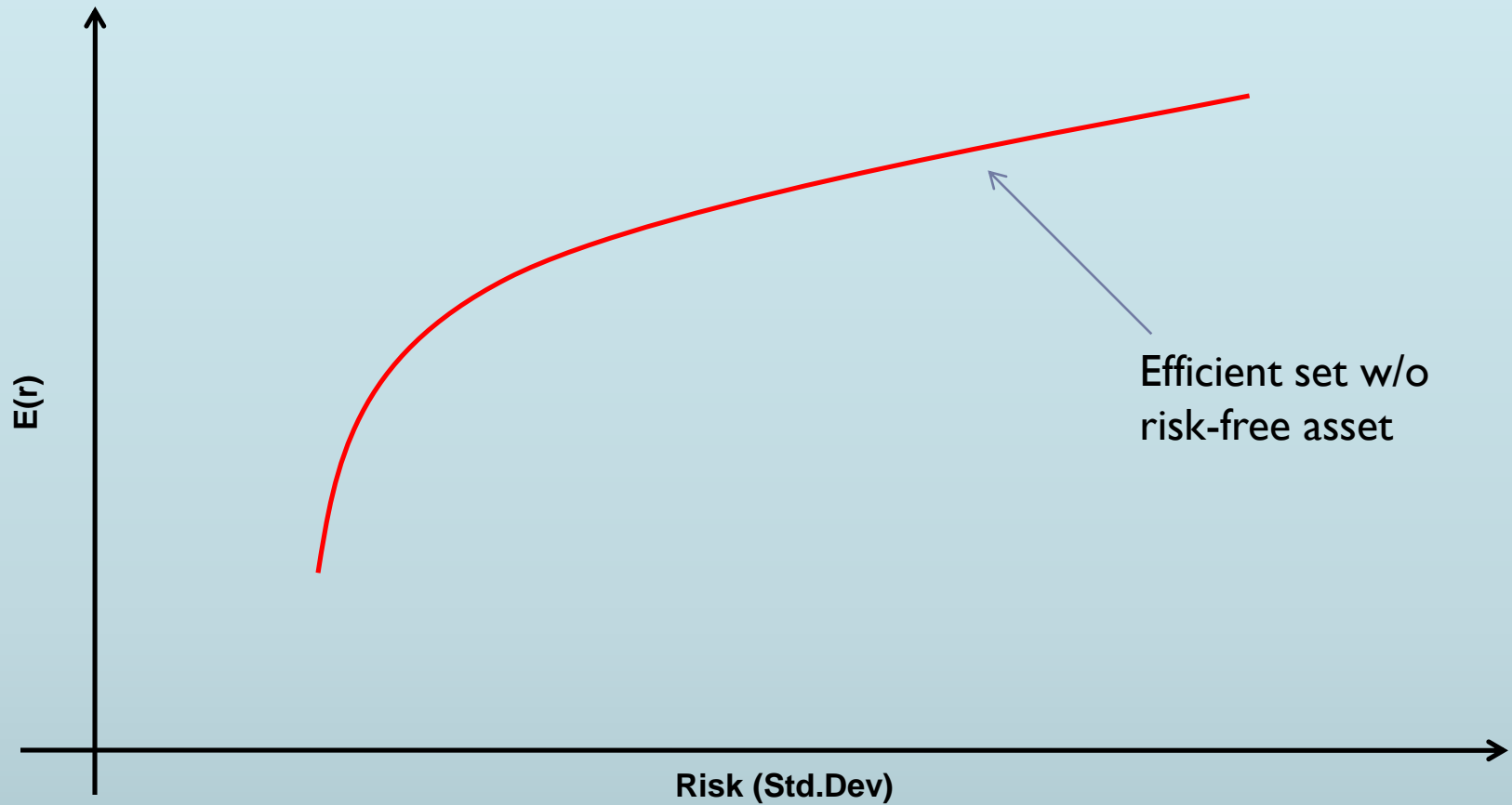
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► See Python notebook, [movie version](#)



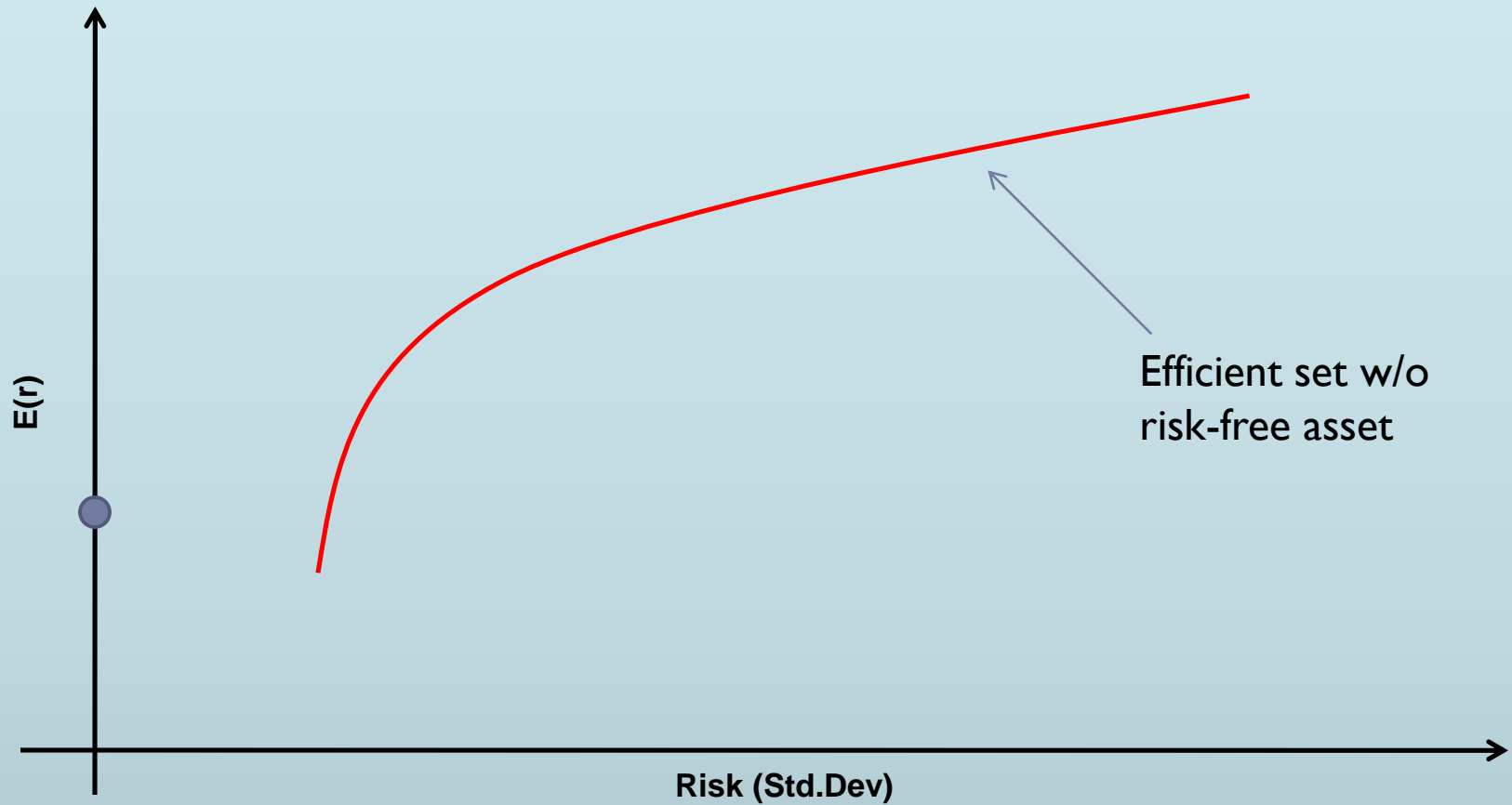
# Efficient frontier (no risk-free asset)

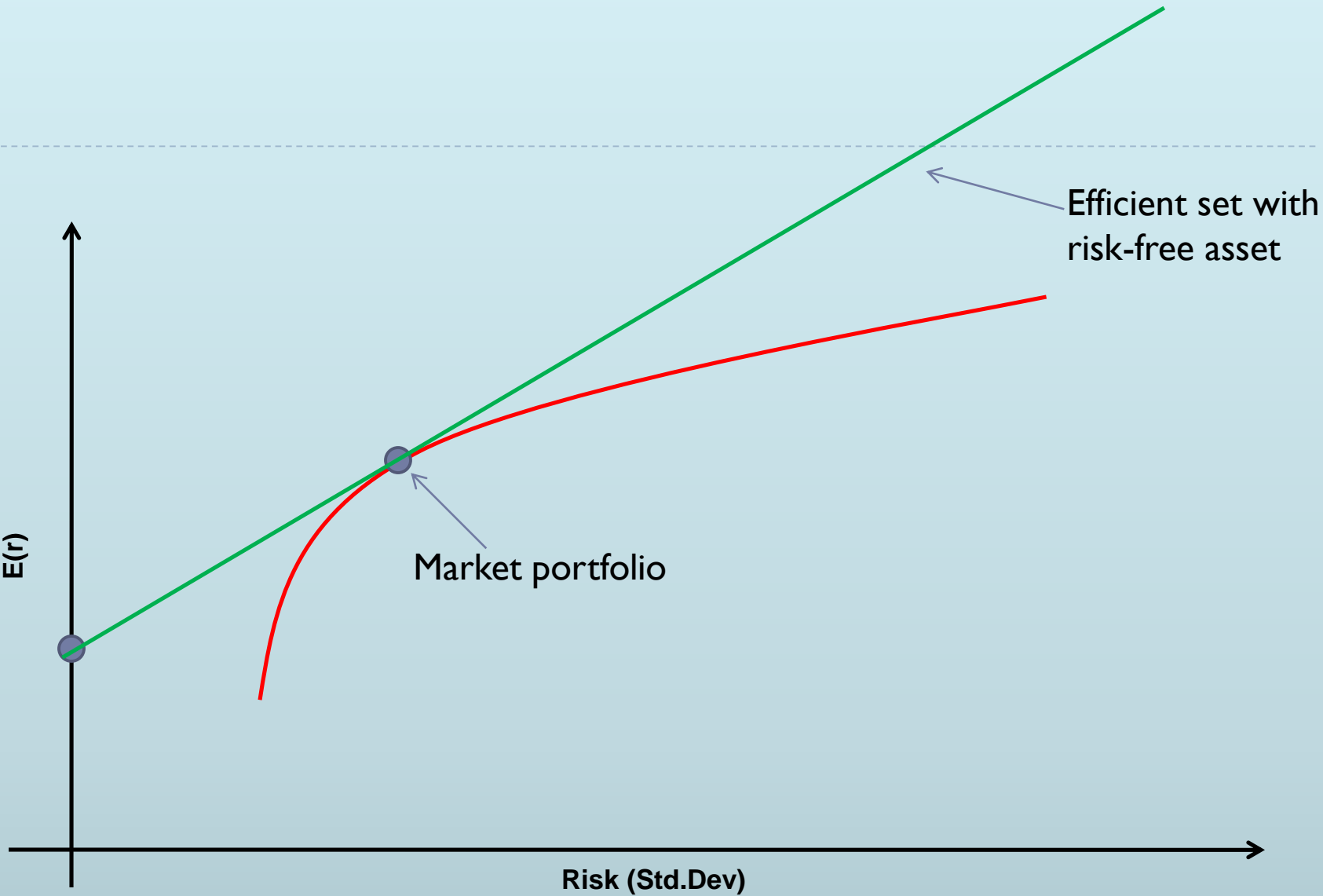
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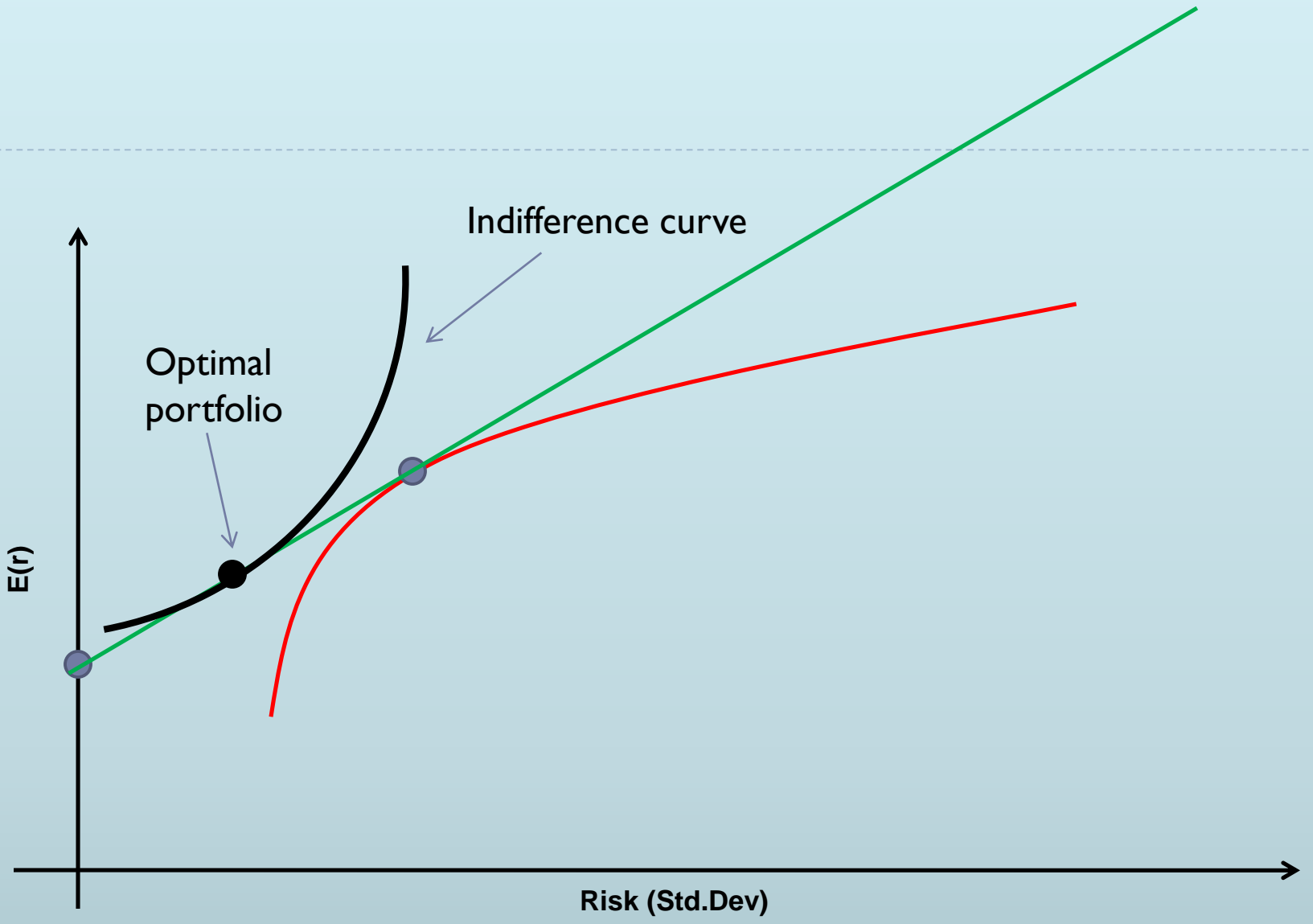


# Adding a risk-free asset

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Optimal portfolio

Indifference curve

$E(r)$

Risk (Std.Dev)

# Two-portfolio theorem

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- With a risk-free asset, efficient set begins at portfolio that puts all wealth in risk-free asset, and touch the risky part of the feasible set in exactly one point
- That point is called the market portfolio
- **Theorem:** In equilibrium, all investors hold a portfolio made of a positive investment in the market portfolio, and a positive or negative investment in the risk-free asset



# Market portfolio

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- All risky assets have positive weight in it
- The risky-part of all investors portfolios is the same, namely the market portfolio
- It follows that the market portfolio can be computed as the fraction of total risky holdings in a given asset
- Decent practical proxy: capitalization-weighted index, such as the S&P500



# Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)

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- What should be the average return on asset  $i$  in equilibrium? Equivalently, what should be its price?
- Intuitively, riskier assets should command a higher return
- Investors should be compensated for the risk a given asset contributes to their portfolio
- This contribution depends on how it co-varies with all elements of the portfolio, including itself



# Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)

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- Theorem:

$$E(r_i) = r_f + \beta_i [E(r_m) - r_f]$$

where:





# Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)

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- Theorem:

$$E(r_i) = r_f + \beta_i [E(r_m) - r_f]$$

where:

$$\beta_i = \frac{\text{COV}(r_i, r_m)}{\text{VAR}(r_m)}$$



# CAPM

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- Investors want to be compensated for a very specific form of risk: the asset's beta
- Return on a given asset is the risk-free rate plus a risk premium
- Risk premium is the product of beta (the *quantity of risk*) and  $E(r_m) - r_f$  (the *market price of risk*)



# CAPM: a statistical perspective

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- What return should I expect from IBM given how I expect the overall market (the S&P500) to perform?
- Assume (heroically) that IBM's beta is time-invariant
- Data: historical returns for IBM and S&P500
- Would any other data be useful? CAPM says no
- In fact, it says that the “best” model for our purposes is a simple *linear regression* model:

$$r_{IBM} - r_f = \alpha + \beta(r_{S\&P} - r_f) + \varepsilon$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is noise (i.e. mean zero and independent of everything)

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# CAPM: it fails bigly

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- Augment CAPM regression to:

$$r_i - r_f = \alpha_i + \beta_i (r_m - r_f) + \beta_{SML} (SML) + \beta_{HML} (HML) + \varepsilon_i$$

where:

SML = difference between returns on diversified portfolios of small and large capitalization stocks

HML = difference between returns on diversified portfolios of high and low B/M stocks

- The asset/portfolio's empirical intercept (the "alpha") is the return that can't be explained by exposure to FF factors
  - Estimates of factor loadings (the beta's) together with forecasts for expected factor values over holding period can be used to calibrate required returns
  - Data: Fama-French library
  - See Python notebook
- 



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*“There is a long tradition in finance that regards high Sharpe ratios as good deals that are unlikely to survive... we assume that the investor would take any opportunity with a Sharpe ratio twice that of the S&P 500.”*

*John Cochrane and Jesus Saa-Requejo (Journal of Political Economy, 2000)*

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