Annualized returns

INTRODUCTION TO PORTFOLIO ANALYSIS IN PYTHON



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Comparing returns

- 1. Annual Return: Total return earned over a period of one calendar year
- 2. Annualized return: Yearly rate of return inferred from any time period
- 3. Average Return: Total return realized over a longer period, spread out evenly over the (shorter) periods.
- 4. Cumulative (compounding) return: A return that includes the compounded results of reinvesting interest, dividends, and capital gains.

Why annualize returns?

Average return versus annualized return		
	Value of the portfolio	Return
Year 1	\$100	
Year 2	\$200	100%
Year 3	\$100	-50%

- Average return = (100 50) / 2 = 25%
- Actual return = 0% so average return is not a good measure for performance!
- How to compare portfolios with different time lengths?
- How to account for compounding effects over time?

Calculating annualized returns

- N in years: $rate = (1 + Return)^{1/N} 1$
- N in months: $rate = (1 + Return)^{12/N} 1$
- Convert any time length to an annual rate:
- Return is the total return you want to annualize.
- N is number of periods so far.

Annualized returns in python

```
# Check the start and end of timeseries
apple_price.head(1)
```

```
apple_price.head(1)
date
2015-01-06
             105.05
Name: AAPL, dtype: float64
apple_price.tail(1)
date
2018-03-29
             99.75
Name: AAPL, dtype: float64
# Assign the number of months
months = 38
```



Annualized returns in python

Annualized returns in python

```
# Calculate the annualized returns over months
annualized_return=((1 + total_return)**(12/months))-1
print (annualized_return)
```

```
# Select three year period
apple_price = apple_price.loc['2015-01-01':'2017-12-31']
apple_price.tail(3)
```

```
date
2017-12-27 170.60
2017-12-28 171.08
2017-12-29 169.23
Name: AAPL, dtype: float64
```



Annualized return in Python

```
# Calculate annualized return over 3 years
annualized_return = ((1 + total_return)**(1/3))-1
print (annualized_return)
```



Let's practice!

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Risk adjusted returns

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Choose a portfolio

Portfolio 1

- Annual return of 14%
- Volatility (standard deviation) is 8%

Portfolio 2

- Annual return of 6%
- Volatility is 3%

Risk adjusted return

- It defines an investment's return by measuring how much risk is involved in producing that return
- It's usually a ratio
- Allows you to objectively compare across different investment options
- Tells you whether the return justifies the underlying risk

Sharpe ratio

- Sharpe ratio is the most commonly used risk adjusted return ratio
- It's calculated as follows:
- ullet $Sharpe\ ratio = rac{R_p R_f}{\sigma_p}$
- Where: R_p is the portfolio return, R_f is the risk free rate and σ_p is the portfolio standard deviation
- Remember the formula for the portfolio σ_p ?
- $\sigma_p = \sqrt{(Weights\ transposed(Covariance\ matrix\ *\ Weights))}$

Annualizing volatility

- Annualized standard deviation is calculated as follows: $\sigma_a = \sigma_m * \sqrt{T}$
- ullet σ_m is the measured standard deviation
- σ_a is the annualized standard deviation
- T is the number of data points per year
- Alternatively, when using variance instead of standard deviation; $\sigma_a^2 = \sigma_m^2 * T$

Calculating the Sharpe Ratio

```
# Calculate the annualized standard deviation
annualized_vol = apple_returns.std()*np.sqrt(250)
print (annualized_vol)
0.2286248397870068
# Define the risk free rate
risk_free = 0.01
# Calcuate the sharpe ratio
sharpe_ratio = (annualized_return - risk_free) / annualized_vol
print (sharpe_ratio)
0.6419569149994251
```



Which portfolio did you choose?

Portfolio 1

- Annual return of 14%
- Volatility (standard deviation) is 8%
- Sharpe ratio of 1.75

Portfolio 2

- Annual return of 6%
- Volatility is 3%
- Sharpe ratio of 2



Let's practice!

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Non-normal distribution of returns

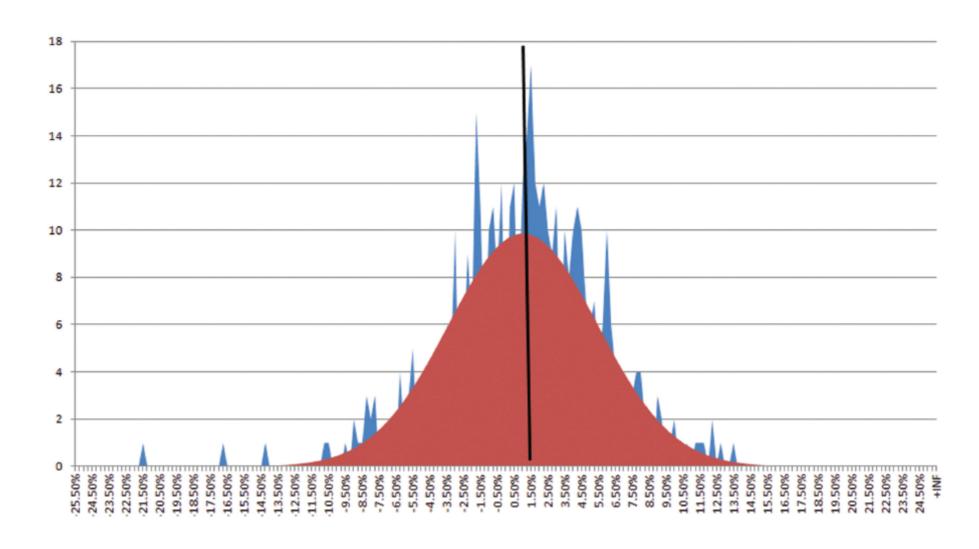
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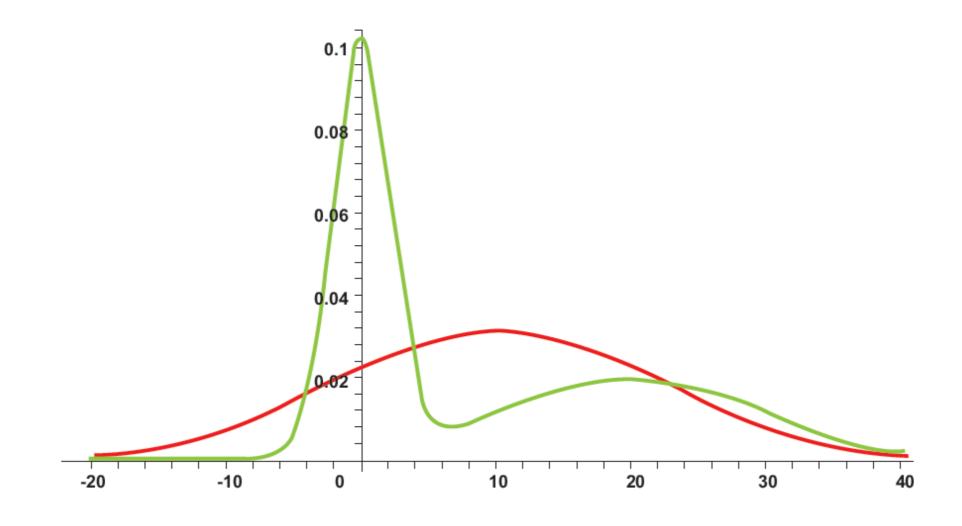
In a perfect world returns are distributed normally



¹ Source: Distribution of monthly returns from the S&P500 from evestment.com



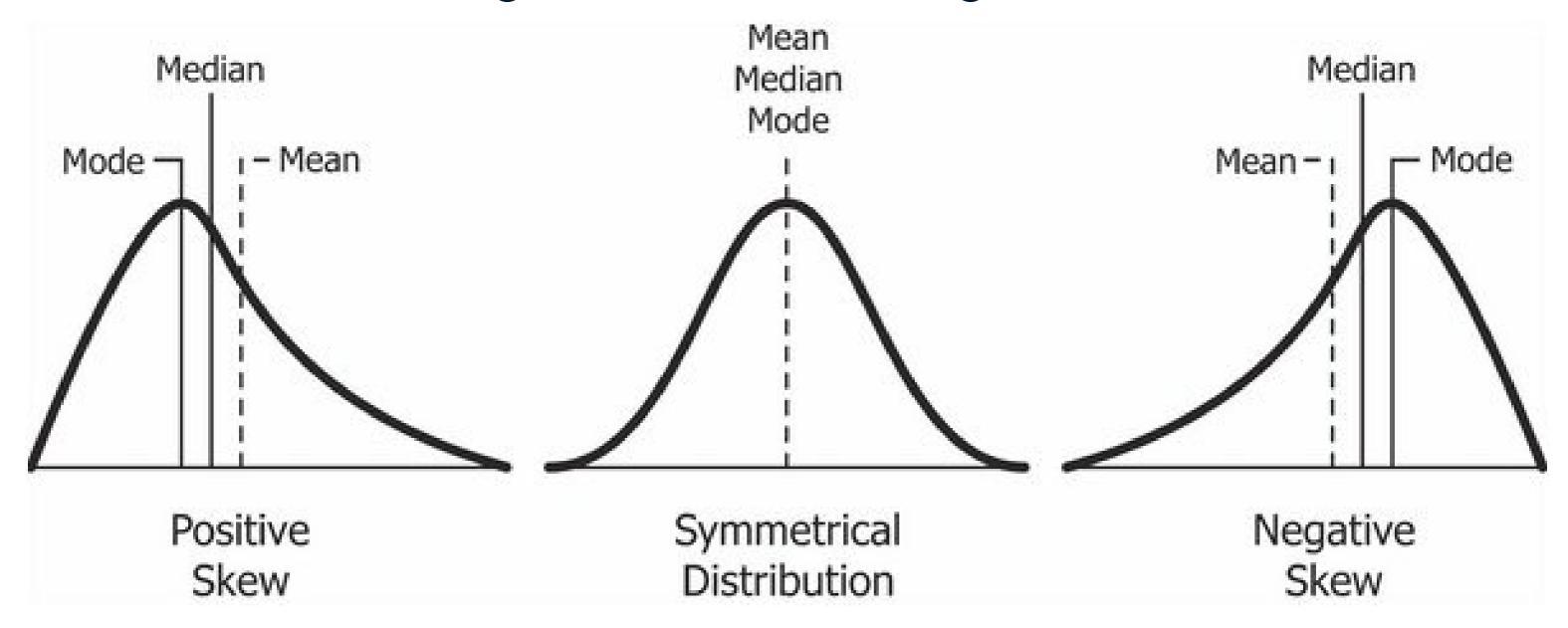
But using mean and standard deviations can be deceiving



¹ Source: "An Introduction to Omega, Con Keating and William Shadwick, The Finance Development Center, 2002



Skewness: leaning towards the negative



Pearson's Coefficient of Skewness

$$Skewness = rac{3(mean-median)}{\sigma}$$

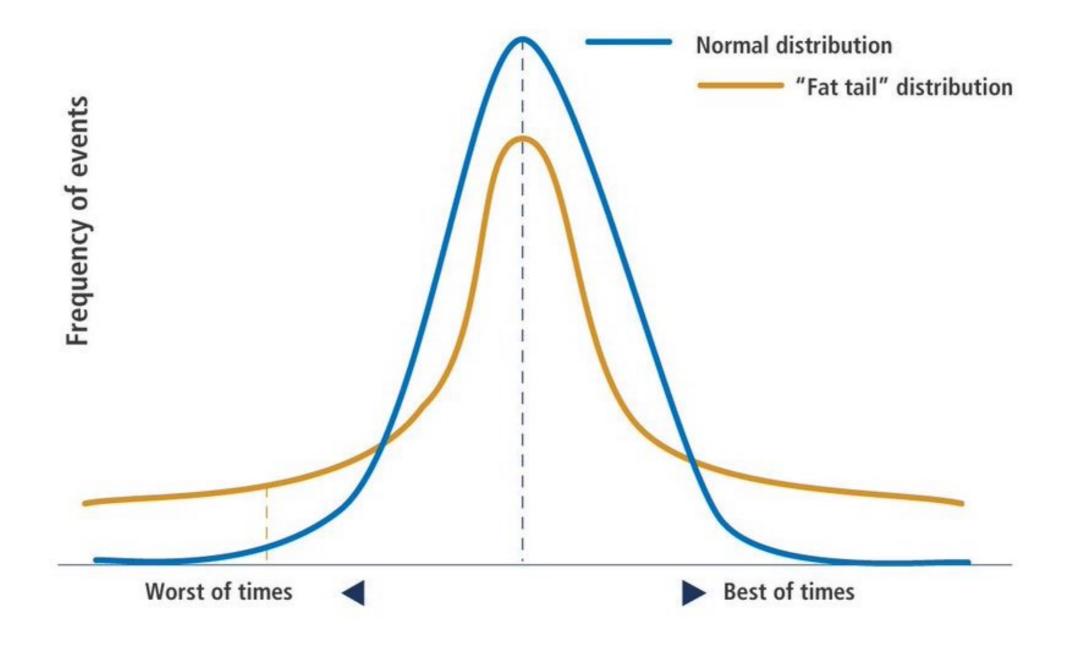
Rule of thumb:

- Skewness < -1 or $Skewness > 1 \Rightarrow$ Highly skewed distribution
- ullet -1 < Skewness < -0.5 or $0.5 < Skewness < 1 <math>\Rightarrow$ Moderately skewed distribution
- ullet $-0.5 < Skewness < 0.5 <math>\Rightarrow$ Approximately symmetric distribution

¹ Source: https://brownmath.com/stat/shape.htm



Kurtosis: Fat tailed distribution



¹ Source: Pimco



Interpreting kurtosis

"Higher kurtosis means more of the variance is the result of infrequent extreme deviations, as opposed to frequent modestly sized deviations."

- A normal distribution has kurtosis of exactly 3 and is called (mesokurtic)
- A distribution with kurtosis <3 is called platykurtic. Tails are shorter and thinner, and central
 peak is lower and broader.
- A distribution with kurtosis >3 is called leptokurtic: Tails are longer and fatter, and central
 peak is higher and sharper (fat tailed)

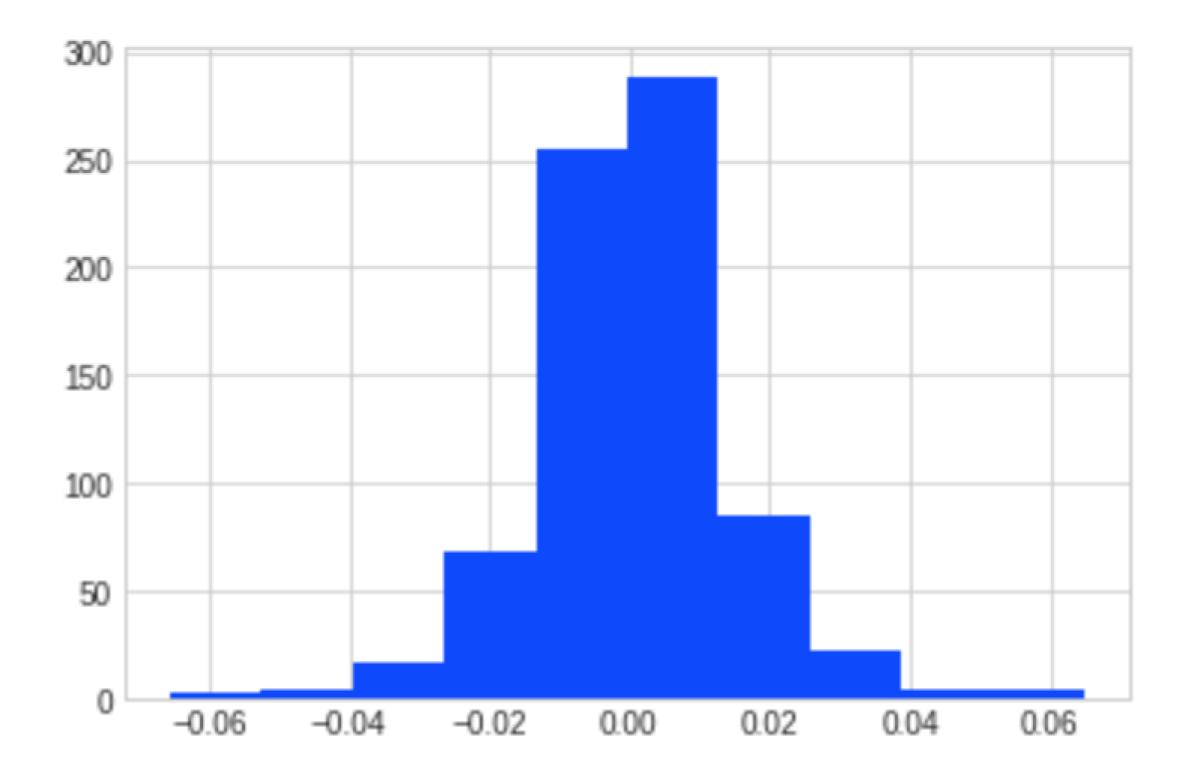
¹ Source: https://brownmath.com/stat/shape.htm



Calculating skewness and kurtosis

```
apple_returns=apple_price.pct_change()
apple_returns.head(3)
date
2015-01-02
                 NaN
2015-01-05 -0.028172
2015-01-06 0.000094
Name: AAPL, dtype: float64
apple_returns.hist()
```





Calculating skewness and kurtosis

```
print("mean : ", apple_returns.mean())
print("vol : ", apple_returns.std())
print("skew : ", apple_returns.skew())
print("kurt : ", apple_returns.kurtosis())
```

```
mean: 0.0006855391415724799
```

vol: 0.014459504468360529

skew: -0.012440851735057878

kurt: 3.197244607586669



Let's practice!

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Alternative measures of risk

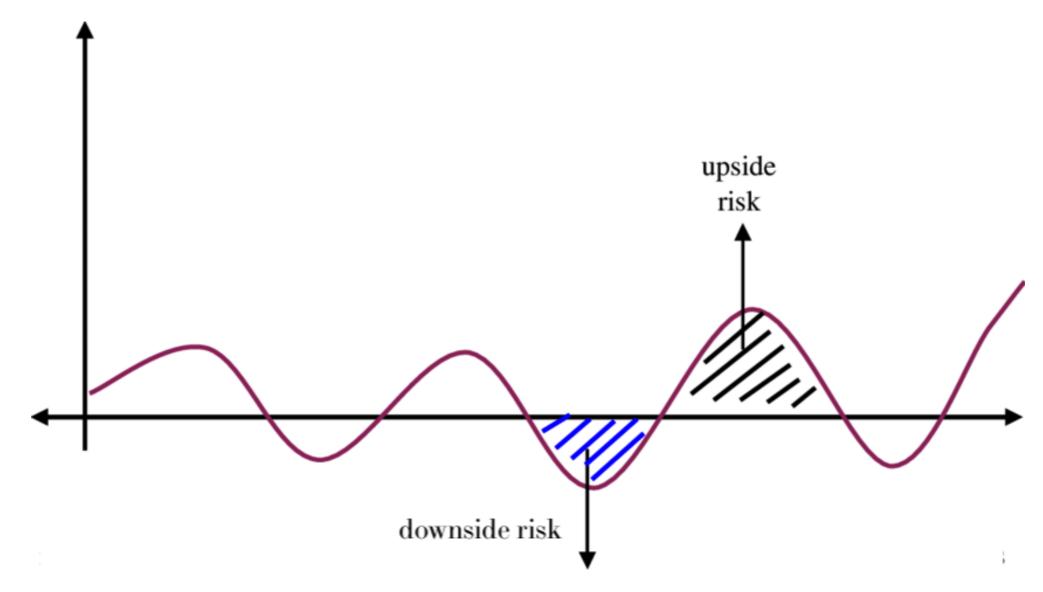
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Looking at downside risk



• A good risk measure should focus on potential losses i.e. downside risk

Sortino ratio

- Similar to the Sharpe ratio, just with a different standard deviation
- ullet $Sortino\ Ratio = rac{R_p R_f}{\sigma_d}$
- σ_d is the standard deviation of the downside.

Downside risk =
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (return - target \ return)^{2} \ f(t)}$$

$$f(t) = 1$$
 if return < target return

$$f(t) = 0$$
 if return \geq target return

Sortino ratio in python

```
# Define risk free rate and target return of 0
rfr = 0
target_return = 0
# Calcualte the daily returns from price data
apple_returns=pd.DataFrame(apple_price.pct_change())
# Select the negative returns only
negative_returns = apple_returns.loc[apple_returns['AAPL'] < target]</pre>
```

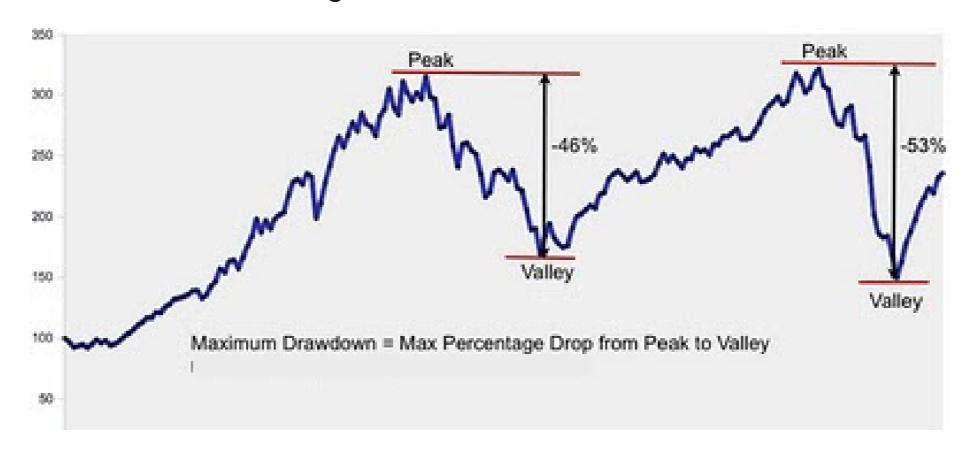
```
# Calculate expected return and std dev of downside returns
expected_return = apple_returns['AAPL'].mean()
down_stdev = negative_returns.std()

# Calculate the sortino ratio
sortino_ratio = (expected_return - rfr)/down_stdev
print(sortino_ratio)
```



Maximum draw-down

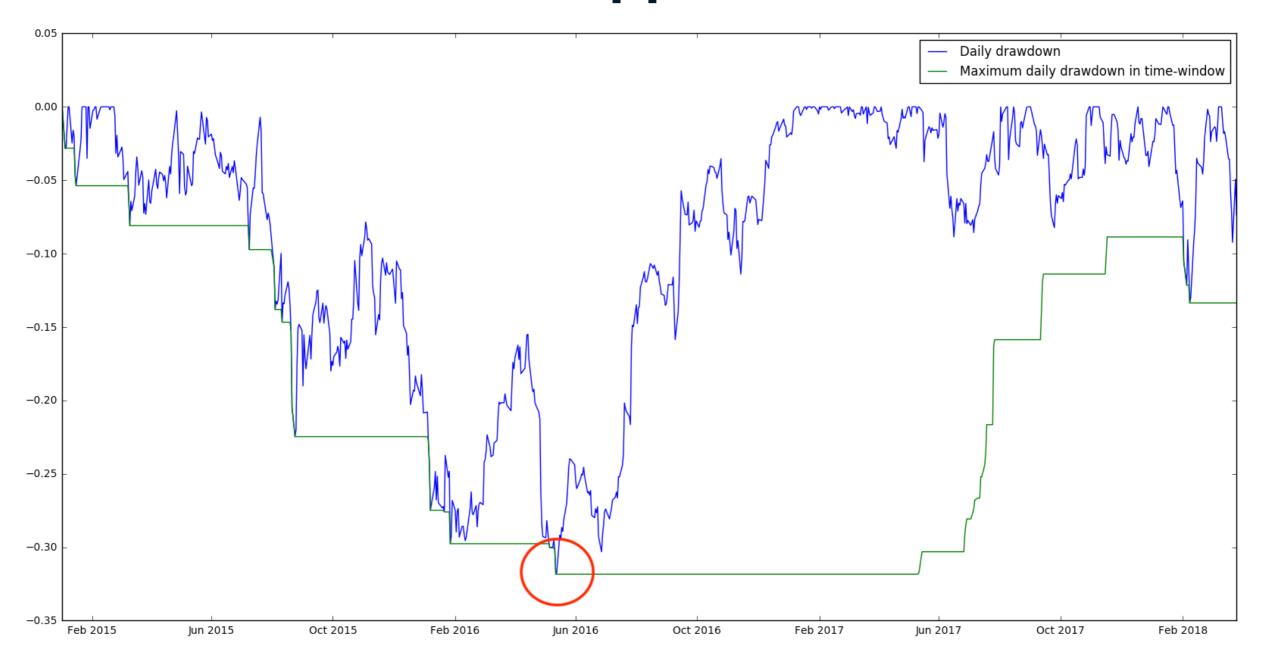
- The largest percentage loss from a market peak to trough
- Dependent on the chosen time window
- The recovery time: time it takes to get back to break-even



Maximum daily draw-down in Python

```
# Calculate the maximum value of returns using rolling().max()
roll_max = apple_price.rolling(min_periods=1, window=250).max()
# Calculate daily draw-down from rolling max
daily_drawdown = apple_price/roll_max - 1.0
# Calculate maximum daily draw-down
max_daily_drawdown = daily_drawdown.rolling(min_periods=1, window=250).min()
# Plot the results
daily_drawdown.plot()
max_daily_drawdown.plot()
plt.show()
```

Maximum draw-down of Apple





Let's practice!

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