

Lecture 6: Returns and Moments

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- Periodic Return
- Moments and Sample Moments
 - Mean and Sample Mean
 - Variance and Sample Variance
 - Moments about the Origin and Central Moments
 - Standardized Moments
 - Skewness
 - Kurtosis
 - Other Moments and Sample Moments
- Homework

Periodic Return

Let P_t be the stock price at time t . Simple return R_t over a period Δt is defined from

Simple Return

$$P_t = P_{t-\Delta t} (1 + R_t) \Leftrightarrow R_t = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-\Delta t}} - 1$$

n times compounded return over a period Δt is defined from

n Times Compounded Return

$$P_t = P_{t-\Delta t} \left(1 + \frac{R_t^{(n)}}{n} \right)^n \Leftrightarrow R_t^{(n)} = n \left(\left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t-\Delta t}} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1 \right)$$

where n is called compounding frequency, which indicates the number of re-investments between $t - \Delta t$ and t .

Periodic Return

Log return (continuous compounded return) over a period Δt is defined from

Log return

$$P_t = P_{t-\Delta t} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r_t}{n}\right)^n = P_{t-\Delta t} \exp(r_t)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow r_t = \ln \frac{P_t}{P_{t-\Delta t}} = \ln P_t - \ln P_{t-\Delta t}$$

Let the unit period Δt be 1 (day, week, month, year, etc), and t be integer, then we have

$$R_t = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}} - 1; R_t^{(n)} = n \left(\left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1 \right); r_t = \ln \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}} = \ln P_t - \ln P_{t-1}$$

Periodic Return

Sometimes data may not well ordered

Example

```
> setwd("C:/Users/demonew/Documents/Stevens/Graduate Courses/FE515/20s")
> aapl <- read.csv("AAPL.csv")
> head(aapl) # from 2015-09-11 down to 2013-12-12
```

	Date	Open	High	Low	Close	Volume	Adj.Close
1	2015-09-11	111.79	114.21	111.76	114.21	49441800	114.21
2	2015-09-10	110.27	113.28	109.90	112.57	62675200	112.57
3	2015-09-09	113.76	114.02	109.77	110.15	84344400	110.15
4	2015-09-08	111.75	112.56	110.32	112.31	54114200	112.31
5	2015-09-04	108.97	110.45	108.51	109.27	49963900	109.27
6	2015-09-03	112.49	112.78	110.04	110.37	52906400	110.37

Periodic Return

Since date is not well ordered, we need to reverse the rows of the data

Example

```
> aapl <- aapl[nrow(aapl):1,]  
> head(aapl)
```

	Date	Open	High	Low	Close	Volume	Adj.Close
440	2013-12-12	562.14	565.34	560.03	560.54	65572500	77.44289
439	2013-12-13	562.85	562.88	553.67	554.43	83205500	76.59874
438	2013-12-16	555.02	562.64	555.01	557.50	70648200	77.02289
437	2013-12-17	555.81	559.44	553.38	554.99	57475600	76.67611
436	2013-12-18	549.70	551.45	538.80	550.77	141465800	76.09309
435	2013-12-19	549.50	550.00	543.73	544.46	80077200	75.22131

Periodic Return

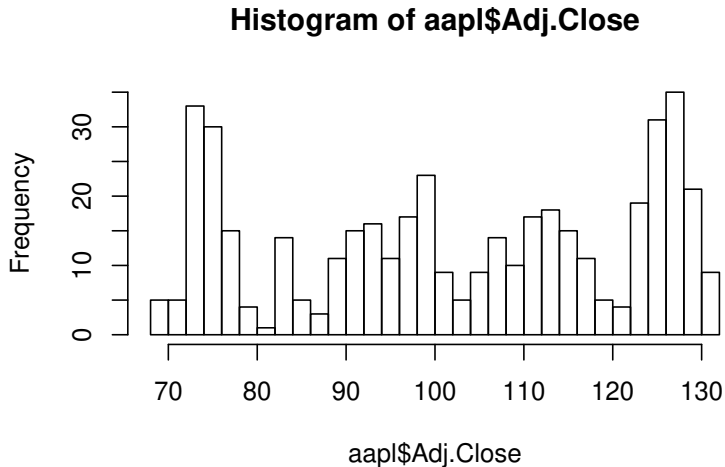
diff() function calculate lagged difference of a vector

Example

```
> x <- 1:10
> diff(x) # x[2]-x[1], x[3]-x[2], ..., x[10]-x[9]
[1] 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
> length(diff(x))
[1] 9
>
> aapl.price <- aapl$Adj.Close # P1,P2,...
> aapl.log.price <- log(aapl.price) # ln(P1),ln(P2),...
> aapl.log.return <- diff(aapl.log.price) # ln(P2)-ln(P1),ln(P3)-ln(P2)...
> aapl.simple.return <- exp(aapl.log.return) - 1 # (P2/P1)-1,(P3/P2)-1,...
>
> hist(aapl$Adj.Close, 40)
> hist(aapl.log.return, 40)
```

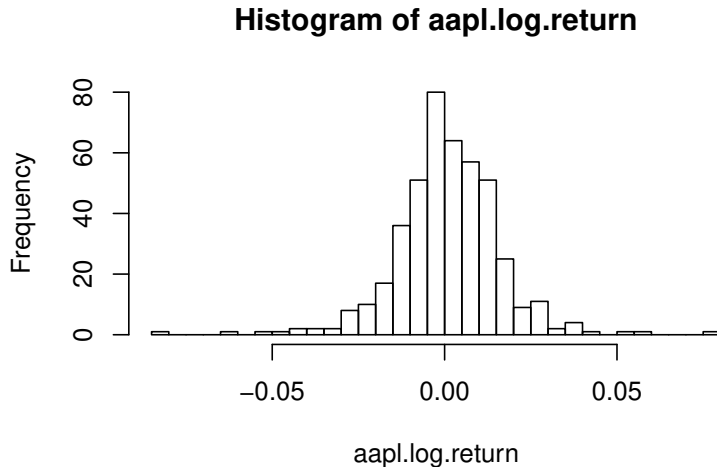
Periodic Return

Histogram of AAPL adjusted close price



Periodic Return

Histogram of AAPL log return is more like normal



Periodic Return

Functions in *quantmod* package calculates periodic returns (default is simple return)

Example

```
> library(quantmod)
> msft <- getSymbols("MSFT", auto.assign = F)
> msft.monthly.return <- periodReturn(msft, period = "monthly")
> msft.annual.return <- periodReturn(msft, period = "yearly")
> msft.all.return <- allReturns(msft)
> head(msft.all.return)
```

	daily	weekly	monthly	quarterly	yearly
2007-01-03	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
2007-01-04	-0.001674548	NA	NA	NA	NA
2007-01-05	-0.005702784	-0.009027115	NA	NA	NA
2007-01-08	0.009784110	NA	NA	NA	NA
2007-01-09	0.001002305	NA	NA	NA	NA
2007-01-10	-0.010013318	NA	NA	NA	NA

Mean and Sample Mean

Let X be a random variable, then (population) mean is defined to be the expectation of X

(Population) Mean

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i p_i, \text{ for } X \text{ discrete with probability mass } p_i \text{ at } x_i, i = 1, \dots, k$$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x) dx, \text{ for } X \text{ continuous with probability density function } f(x)$$

Suppose X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are n observations drawn from population, then sample mean is

Sample Mean

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$$

Mean and Sample Mean

Example

Suppose Y is *one* outcome for rolling a die, then Y takes value $x_i = i$ with probability $p_i = \frac{1}{6}$, $i = 1, \dots, 6$, then population mean of Y is given by

$$E[Y] = \sum_{i=1}^6 x_i p_i = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 x_i = 3.5$$

Suppose Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n are n outcomes for rolling a die, then the sample mean of the observations Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n is

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

Mean and Sample Mean

Example

Suppose Z follows uniform distribution in $[0, 1]$, then population mean of Z is given by

$$E[Z] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x * 1_{\{0 \leq x \leq 1\}} dx = \int_0^1 x dx = 0.5$$

Suppose Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n are n observations from uniform distribution in $[0, 1]$, then the sample mean of the observations Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n is

$$\bar{Z} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$$

- Population mean is the expectation of the random variable, which is a number determined from the distribution
- Sample mean is the average of the sample, which is an estimator of the population mean, a random variable

Variance and Sample Variance

(Population) Variance

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - E[X])^2] = \sum_{i=1}^k (x_i - E[X])^2 p_i, \text{ for discrete } X$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - E[X])^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x - E[X])^2 f(x) dx, \text{ for continuous } X$$

Suppose X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are n observations, then sample variance is

Sample Variance

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2 \text{ (unadjusted), or } \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2 \text{ (adjusted)}$$

Variance and Sample Variance

Unbiased Estimator

$\hat{\theta}$ is an unbiased estimator of θ when

$$E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$$

Proposition

Unadjusted sample variance is not an unbiased estimator of population variance

$$E \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2 \right] = \frac{n-1}{n} (E[X^2] - E^2[X]) = \frac{n-1}{n} \text{Var}(X)$$

In order to correct the bias, we multiply a factor of $\frac{n}{n-1}$ to the estimator, which gives the adjusted sample variance.

Variance and Sample Variance

Recall sample mean, unadjusted sample variance, and adjusted sample variance

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j, m_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2, \hat{m}_2 = \frac{n}{n-1} m_2$$

Since function **mean()** corresponds to the average operator $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \cdot$, we have

Example

```
> x <- rnorm(100000, mean = 0, sd = 5)
> (x.sample.mean <- mean(x)) # sample mean of x
[1] -0.0449756
> (x.sample.variance <- mean((x-x.sample.mean)^2)) # unadjusted sample variance of x
[1] 25.40703
> n <- length(x)
> (x.sample.variance.adjusted <- n/(n-1)*x.sample.variance) # adjusted sample variance of x
[1] 25.40957
> var(x) # built-in function for adjusted sample variance only
[1] 25.40957
> sd(x) # standard deviation
[1] 5.04079
```


Moments about the Origin and Central Moments

r -th moment about the origin

$$\mu'_r = E[X^r]$$

r -th sample moment about the origin

$$m'_r = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j^r$$

r -th central moment

$$\mu_r = E[(X - E[X])^r]$$

r -th sample central moment

$$m_r = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^r, (\text{unadjusted})$$

Moments about the Origin and Central Moments

- (Population) Mean is the first moment about the origin
- Sample mean is the first sample moment about the origin
- (Population) Variance is the second central moment
- Sample variance is the second sample central moment
- Sample moments (sample mean, sample variance, etc) are estimators of population moments (population mean, population variance, etc)
- When people say "moments" of a random variable or a known distribution, they usually mean population moments.
- When people say "moments" of a vector of observations, they usually mean sample moments.
- Softwares (e.g. R) usually calculates sample moments

Moments about the Origin and Central Moments

We can calculate higher sample moments ourselves, since

$$m'_r = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j^r, m_r = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^r$$

and the function **mean()** corresponds to $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \cdot$ in R, then for $r = 3$ or $r = 4$,

Example

```
> (m3.prime <- mean(x^3))# 3rd sample moment about the origin
[1] -8.607392
> (m4.prime <- mean(x^4))# 4th sample moment about the origin
[1] 1913.961
> (m3 <- mean((x-mean(x))^3))# 3rd sample central moment
[1] -5.179213
> (m4 <- mean((x-mean(x))^4))# 4th sample central moment
[1] 1912.721
```

Standardized Moments

Standardized Moments

The r th standardized moment of X is defined to be

$$\tilde{\mu}_r = \frac{\mu_r}{\sigma^r} = \frac{\mu_r}{(\mu_2)^{\frac{r}{2}}}$$

where μ_r is the r th central moment of X , σ is the standard deviation of X .

Sample Standardized Moments

The r th sample standardized moment of observations X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is defined to be

$$\tilde{m}_r = \frac{m_r}{(m_2)^{\frac{r}{2}}}$$

where m_r is the r th sample central moment of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .

Skewness

Skewness

Skewness of X is defined to be the 3rd standardized moment $\tilde{\mu}_3$ of X .

Sample Skewness

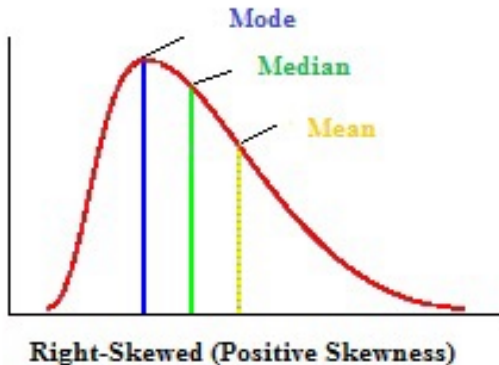
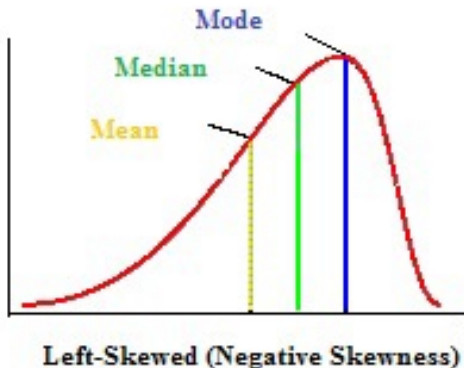
(Unadjusted) Sample skewness of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is the 3rd sample standardized moment \tilde{m}_3 .
Adjusted sample skewness is defined to be

$$\hat{m}_3 = \frac{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}{n-2} \tilde{m}_3$$

- For normal distribution, skewness is 0
- When skewness is negative, the distribution is said to be left skewed
- When skewness is positive, the distribution is said to be right skewed

Skewness

In probability theory and statistics, skewness is a measure of the asymmetry of the probability distribution of a real-valued random variable about its mean.



Kurtosis

Kurtosis

Kurtosis of X is defined to be the 4th standardized moment $\tilde{\mu}_4$ of X .

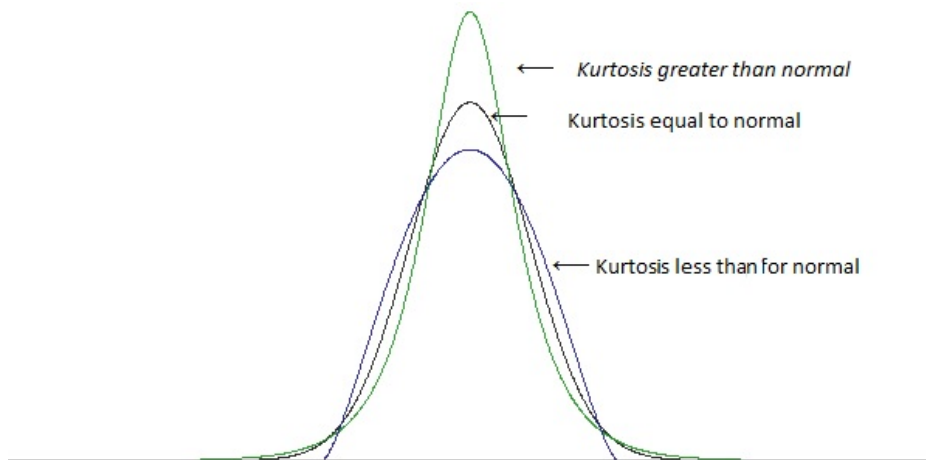
Sample Kurtosis

(Unadjusted) Sample kurtosis of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is the 4th sample standardized moment \tilde{m}_4 .
Adjusted sample kurtosis is defined to be

$$\hat{m}_4 = \frac{n-1}{(n-2)(n-3)}((n+1)\tilde{m}_4 - 3(n-1)) + 3$$

- For normal distribution, kurtosis is 3
- Excess kurtosis = kurtosis - 3 (Some packages use excess kurtosis to define kurtosis)
- If kurtosis > 3 , the distribution has fat tail (Leptokurtic)
- If kurtosis < 3 , the distribution has thin tail (Platykurtic)

Kurtosis



Other Moments and Sample Moments

Variance

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2] - E^2[X]$$

Covariance

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

Sample Covariance

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})(Y_j - \bar{Y})$$

Covariance is also a central cross-moment.