

ECON 4360: Empirical Finance

Prices, Payoffs, and Notation

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Theory Lecture #04

What are we doing today?

- Using the SDF Methodology
 - Prices, Payoffs, and Notation
- A Basic Pricing Example (MATLAB) with the SDF Methodology.

Basic Pricing Equation

- Recall that last time, we set up a basic problem that derived the central asset pricing equation from the consumption-based model.
 - (We wanted to find the **price** of the asset that set the first order condition to zero.)
- Our basic pricing equation was

$$p_t = E_t \left[\beta \frac{u'(c_{t+1})}{u'(c_t)} x_{t+1} \right]$$

that implied, in equilibrium, the decrease in utility from buying a share of the asset today has to just equal the increase in expected discounted utility that results from having one more share tomorrow.

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- by defining

$$m_{t+1} = \beta \frac{u'(c_{t+1})}{u'(c_t)}$$

- The variable m_{t+1} is a random variable, called the SDF, that maps future payoffs into today's price.

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- Today, we're going to do a stochastic example that illustrates - in a simple way - how the equation

$$p = E(mx)$$

shows that all correction for risk can be captured by **a single random variable** put inside the expectation.

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shows that all correction for risk can be captured by **a single random variable** put inside the expectation.

- Unlike β in a model like the CAPM, the stochastic discount factor m is the **same** for **all** assets...

Example One

- Suppose investor preferences are $u(c) = \frac{c^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}$ with $\gamma = 2$ and $\beta = 0.99$.
- There are three possible states of nature next period: good, average, and bad.
- The investor consumes 7 units of the consumption good today.
- Given the possible payoffs of the security (x^A) in the table that follows, we're going to figure out the price the investor would pay for the security today.

Example One: Asset A

- First, what is the **expected payoff** of the security?

State s	Prob π_{t+1}^s	Future C c_{t+1}	Payoff x_{t+1}^A
Good	0.3	12	20
Average	0.4	9	15
Bad	0.3	6	10

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- In our case,

$$\begin{aligned} E_t(x_{t+1}) &= \sum_s \pi_{t+1}^s x_{t+1}^A \\ &= (0.3)(20) + (0.4)(15) + (0.3)(10) \\ &= 15 \end{aligned}$$

Example One: Asset A

- Next, how do we start figuring out the **price** the investor would pay for the security today?

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- Do you think an investor would pay more or less than \$15 for it? Why?

Example One: Asset A

- Recall our basic pricing equation,

$$p_t = E_t [m_{t+1} x_{t+1}] = E_t \left[\beta \frac{u'(c_{t+1})}{u'(c_t)} x_{t+1} \right]$$

- In order to figure out the price, we really just have another expectation to calculate. Given the information in the table, do we have enough information to figure it out?

State	Prob	Future C	Payoff
s	π_{t+1}^s	c_{t+1}	x_{t+1}^A
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Example One: Asset A

- From $p_t = E_t \left[\beta \frac{u'(c_{t+1})}{u'(c_t)} x_{t+1} \right]$, we just need to calculate

$$p_t = \sum_s \pi_{t+1}^s m_{t+1}^s x_{t+1}^s$$

with

$$m_{t+1}^s = \beta \frac{u'(c_{t+1})}{u'(c_t)}$$

- Let's see if we can do this in MATLAB...

Example One: Asset A

- Answer: The price of asset A is

$$\sum_s \pi^s m_{t+1}^s x_{t+1}^s = 9.66$$

State s	Prob p_{t+1}^s	Fut C c_{t+1}	Payoff A x_{t+1}^A	Marg Util $u'(c_{t+1})$	SDF m_{t+1}
Good	0.3	12	20	0.007	0.337
Ave	0.4	9	15	0.012	0.599
Bad	0.3	6	10	0.028	1.348

Example Two: Asset B

- Assume again that we have the same investor as in Example One
 - He has the same preferences, consumption today, and faces the same three states of nature as before.
- Now, however, he can only invest in another asset, Asset B...

Example Two: Asset B

- First, what is the **expected payoff** of the security?
- And what is its **price**?

State s	Prob π_{t+1}^s	Future C c_{t+1}	Payoff x_{t+1}^B
Good	0.3	12	10
Average	0.4	9	15
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Example Two: Asset B

- Answer: The price of asset B is

$$\sum_s \pi^s m_{t+1}^s x_{t+1}^s = 12.69$$

State s	Prob p_{t+1}^s	Fut C c_{t+1}	Payoff B x_{t+1}^B	Marg Util $u'(c_{t+1})$	SDF m_{t+1}
Good	0.3	12	10	0.007	0.337
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What's the Difference between A and B?

- Why, though the expected payoffs are identical, does asset B sell for a higher price than asset A?

s	π_{t+1}^s	c_{t+1}	x_{t+1}^A	x_{t+1}^B	$u'(c_{t+1})$	m_{t+1}	$\pi(mx^A)$	$\pi(mx^B)$
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 - Because it covaries negatively with consumption - it pays off well when you are feeling poorly.

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- Can you see from this example how m_{t+1} is a random variable that discounts payoffs to prices?

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 - Is this useful if we can't observe future consumption?
- We **can** observe consumption historically and test the model if it correctly explains the relationship between consumption and prices.
 - Often the "market" - for example, the return on the S&P 500 - is used as a proxy for consumption.
 - (This gives us a model like the CAPM.)

- You may be thinking that an asset with price p_t and payoff x_{t+1} is a very restrictive security, but actually this notation is very general...
 - We can easily accommodate many different asset pricing equations with this notation.

- We can easily use this notation to describe stocks.
 - Think about what the "payoff" is for owning a stock...
 - How would you describe this in a today-tomorrow sense?

- The payoff tomorrow is the price you get plus its dividends,

$$x_{t+1} = p_{t+1} + d_{t+1}$$

so for a stock we can write

$$\begin{aligned} p_t &= E_t [m_{t+1} x_{t+1}] \\ &= E_t [m_{t+1} (p_{t+1} + d_{t+1})] \end{aligned}$$

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- We often talk and work in terms of returns, since the gross return is what tells us what our dollar payoff is for each dollar invested.

- Since a gross return is the dollar payoff per dollar invested,
 - You can think of a return as a payoff with a price of one.
 - Then we can write

$$1 = E_t (m_{t+1} R_{t+1})$$

simply by re-writing the fundamental asset pricing equation

$$p_t = E_t (m_{t+1} x_{t+1})$$

- Note how the SDF discounts gross returns to their price; which, by definition, is 1.

Notes about Returns

- Note that
 - Capital letters denote gross returns
 - Lowercase letters denote net returns $r = R - 1$
 - The return can also be defined in continuous compounding terms as $r = \ln(R)$
 - In our example, the net return r is $r = R - 1 = 0.06$, or 6%
- Returns are "nice" and useful in empirical work because they are "stationary" over time in the sense that they don't have trends and you can meaningfully take averages

Price-Dividend Ratio

- We use returns a lot in empirical work, but often we would prefer a stationary variable that lets us think in terms of prices...
- Return to our definition of the payoff for a stock, $x_{t+1} = p_{t+1} + d_{t+1}$
- First, write the asset pricing equation as

$$p_t = E_t [m_{t+1}(p_{t+1} + d_{t+1})]$$

- If we divide by today's dividend, we get the present value of the price/dividend ratio...

Price-Dividend Ratio

- Next, dividing by today's dividend

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{p_t}{d_t} &= \frac{E_t [m_{t+1}(p_{t+1} + d_{t+1})]}{d_t} \\ \frac{p_t}{d_t} &= E_t \left[m_{t+1} \left(\frac{p_{t+1}}{d_{t+1}} \frac{d_{t+1}}{d_t} + \frac{d_{t+1}}{d_t} \right) \right] \\ \frac{p_t}{d_t} &= E_t \left[m_{t+1} \left(\frac{p_{t+1}}{d_{t+1}} + 1 \right) \left(\frac{d_{t+1}}{d_t} \right) \right]\end{aligned}$$

- This gets us back to thinking about asset **prices**, but we are still looking at stationary variables
 - The price is p_t/d_t
 - The payoff is $x_{t+1} = \left(1 + \frac{p_{t+1}}{d_{t+1}}\right) \frac{d_{t+1}}{d_t}$

Excess Returns

- What is an "excess return"?
 - Generally speaking, it is the difference between two returns
 - Also called a "zero-cost" portfolio...
- It is often common to study equity strategies where you sell short one stock/portfolio and invest the proceeds in another to generate an "excess" return
- Think about this... You can borrow a dollar today at R^f and invest it in an asset with return R .
 - You pay no money out of pocket today, but you get the payoff $R - R^f$
 - This is a payoff with zero price.

Example: Excess Returns

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- Consider a strategy of borrowing \$100 to buy a share of Apple stock for \$100. This costs you \$0 today (its price is zero) since you put none of your own money into the investment.
 - But the payoff is not zero! You could make or lose money on the investment.
 - The payoff of such a long-short strategy with price today of zero is an "excess return" where $R_{t+1}^e = R_{t+1}^a - R^f$

Excess Returns: Long-Short Strategy

- You can see that you don't have to just borrow at the risk-free rate - this can be done with any two assets, say $R_{t+1}^e = R_{t+1}^a - R_{t+1}^b$
 - This strategy is equivalent to "going long" stock A and "going short" stock B
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- Notes on "shorting" a stock:
 - Going short is the practice of selling assets that have been borrowed from a third party, with the intention to buying identical assets back at a later date to return to that third party.
 - A short seller hopes to profit from a decline in the asset's price, since the seller will pay less to buy the assets back than it received for earlier selling them.

Excess Returns: Long-Short Strategy

- You can see that - mathematically - short selling is equivalent to buying a negative amount of an asset

$$\begin{aligned}1 &= E_t(m_{t+1}R_{t+1}^a) \\ -1 &= -E_t(m_{t+1}R_{t+1}^b)\end{aligned}$$

- So our asset pricing equation for excess returns becomes

$$0 = E_t\left(m_{t+1}\left(R_{t+1}^a - R_{t+1}^b\right)\right) = E_t(m_{t+1}R_{t+1}^e)$$

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 - You can always borrow at R^f , so the interesting thing is the return you get **over and above** the risk-free rate.
 - Interest rate variation has little to do with our understanding of risk-premia, so we want to look at interest rates and risk premia separately

Managed Portfolios

- A managed portfolio is simply one where the weight on each asset varies through time.
- Let z_t be the amount (in dollars) of an asset owned at time t . I.e., the "price" of such an asset is the amount invested (in dollars).
- Then the payoff is $z_t R_{t+1}$ or

$$z_t = E_t [m_{t+1} (z_t R_{t+1})]$$

- Example: a value-oriented timing strategy might make investments proportional to p_t/d_t ratios, investing less when prices are high relative to dividends such that

$$z_t = a - b \left(\frac{p_t}{d_t} \right)$$

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- Using our key equation, the price of a bond is given by

$$p_t = E_t [m_{t+1} 1]$$

Bonds: Example

- If we go back to the same setup we used in our earlier example,

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- What is its return?
 - $R_{t+1} = 1/p_t = 1/0.75 = 1.34$, or 34 percent

End of Today's Lecture.

- That's all for today. Today's material corresponds to parts of Chapter 1 in Cochrane (2005).