### Chapter 1 - Financial Asset Prices and Returns

Finance 5330: Financial Econometrics

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### Section 1.1: What is Financial Econometrics?

- No simple definition
- Data analysis for finance/economics (we will be reading Tukey's paper later)
- Empirical implementation of financial models (ex: CAPM)
- Methods of estimation and inference
- Forecasting, policy analysis, academic understanding of financial market phenomena
- Draws on finance/economics, probability, statistics, applied math
- Connections to ML & AI
- Basics: Finance Theory + Data Analysis

### Section 1.2: Financial Assets

- Fixed income
- Equity
- Derivatives
- Cash flows generated from these securities/contracts (streams of cash flows)

- Cash: claim on stream of services that it can secure by virtue of its role as a medium of exchange
  - Ludwig von Mises on the evolution of money
  - Cash is a kind of derivative security that derives its value from the opportunity cost of goods and services
  - Exchange rates between currencies (foreign exchange markets are the largest financial markets in the world)

### Fixed-Income Securities

- Two streams of cash flows
  - Stream of coupon payments made at regular fixed intervals
  - The eventual return of principal at maturity
  - Financial innovation is a major factor in these markets
  - (the original term fixed-income came from the simplest forms. Subsequent forms are much more sophisticated)
- Money Markets
  - Short-term, very liquid
    - Treasury bills: simplest form of government debt (3,6,9 month maturities | pure discount bonds)
  - Eurodollar deposits: deposits of US banks held in financial institutions outside the US denominated in USD.

- Bond markets
  - Government bonds (e.g. US Treasury) (often zero-coupon or pure discount)
  - Corporate bonds (e.g. CAT)
    - Typically coupon-paying bonds
- Equity Securities
  - Common stock: give the owner an equity stake in the assets of the company and it's earnings
    - ► (call option on assets w/ K = face value of liabilities)
  - Dividends: payments representing distribution of company earnings
  - Dividend yield: \$ amount per share, or as a percentage of current market price

- Derivative contracts
  - "Derive" their value from a reference asset (called the underlying or spot)
  - Payoff based on an underlying asset (commodities, stocks, interest, rates, etc)

- Two main classes:
  - (1) options:
    - Call: the right, but not the obligation, to buy an underlying asset at a predetermined price (strike) at a predetermined time (expiry)
    - Put: the right, but not the obligation, to sell an underlying asset at a strike price at expiry
  - (2) futures: specify delivery of an asset (or cash value equivalent) at a time known as maturity for an agreed upon price (payable at maturity)
    - Long futures (person buying / taking delivery)
    - ► Short futures (person selling / making delivery)

# Section 1.3: Equity Prices & Returns

- Prices: represent the most basic type of data for financial econometrics
  - Quoted bid/ask prices
  - · Historical transaction prices
  - Frequency
    - ► High: intraday (sub-second time resolution)
    - Medium: daily, weekly,
    - Low: monthly, quarterly, annual

### Hayek on the Informational Role of Prices

- AER 1945 article titled "The Use of Knowledge in Society"
- Prices convey information
  - CME closing due to flooding (grain elevators would not quote prices)
  - Roll on weather and OJ futures
  - · Armen Alchian on stocks who were contractors to build the first atomic bomb
- Prices are what we want to work with, but they present very challenging statistical problems (nonstationarity)
  - Project II focuses on one particular econometric technique (cointegration and error-correction) that powerfully overcomes these problems

#### Section 1.3.2 Returns

Dollar returns

$$\$R_{kt} = P_t - P_{t-k}$$

- where  $P_t$  is the price at time t and  $P_{t-k}$  is the price at t-k (k is the length of the period)
- Problems:
  - Not scale-free (still in \$ terms)
  - Not proportional to initial investment

• Simple returns

$$R_t = \frac{P_t - P_{t-1}}{P_{t-1}} = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}} - 1$$

• where  $\frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}$  is the price relative quotient (or gross return)

Note that:

$$1 + R_t = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}$$

• Represents the value of investing \$1 at t-1 from perspective of t

• Holding period return  $R_t(k)$  is given by

$$R_{t}(k) = \frac{P_{t}}{P_{t-1}} - 1$$

$$= \frac{P_{t}}{P_{t-1}} \times \frac{P_{t-1}}{P_{t-2}} \times \dots \times \frac{P_{t-k+2}}{P_{t-k+1}} \times \frac{P_{t-k+1}}{P_{t-k}} - 1$$

$$= (1 + R_{t}) \times (1 + R_{t-1}) \times \dots \times (1 + R_{t-k+2}) \times (1 + R_{t-k+2}) \times (1 + R_{t-k+1}) - 1$$

$$= \left[\prod_{t=0}^{k-1} (1 + R_{t-j})\right] - 1$$

Ex: If the frequency is monthly, then the simple return for a holding period of 1 year is given by

$$R_t(12) = \left[\prod_{i=0}^{11} (1 + R_{t-j})\right] - 1$$

• The annualized return  $R_t(12) = (1+R_t)^{12}-1$ 

# Log Returns

The log return of an asset is defined as

$$r_t = \log(1 + R_t) = \log P_{t-} - \log P_{t-1}$$

- Log returns are continuously compounded returns
- Note:  $\log_e(\cdot) = \ln(\cdot)$  (natural logarithm)
- Loenhard Euler (1707 1783)

$$e \equiv \lim_{s \to \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{s})^s \approx 2.71828$$

- So called natural expotential (and natural log) because e is the natural limit
  of this quantity
- Demo in Julia

 The limit formula represents the value of an account at the end of the year that started with \$1 and paid 100% interest per year but with the interest compounded continuously over time rather than at discrete intervals (i.e. at every infinitesimal increment of time)

• If m is the compounding period and  $r_t$  the return, then

$$P_t = P_{t-1} \left( 1 + \frac{r_t}{m} \right)^m$$

• Continuous compounding is produced when  $m \to \infty$ 

$$P_t = P_{t-1} \lim_{m \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{r_t}{m} \right)^m$$

• Let  $s = \frac{m}{r}$ , then we can rewrite this as

$$P_{t} = P_{t-1} \lim_{s \to \infty} \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{1}{s} \right)^{sr_{t}} \right]$$
$$= P_{t-1} \left[ \lim_{s \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{s} \right)^{s} \right]^{r_{t}}$$
$$= P_{t-1} e^{r_{t}}$$

• Note:  $\ln(\cdot)$  is the inverse of  $\exp(\cdot)$ , so taking logs gives us

$$e^{r_t} = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}$$

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

$$r_t = \ln\left(P_t\right) - \ln\left(P_{t-1}\right)$$

• (So we've come full circle)

- Log returns are especially useful for multiperiod calculations because products become sums
- Example:

$$R_t(2) = \log(P_t) - \log(P_{t-2})$$

$$= [\log(P_t) - \log(P_{t-1})] + [\log(P_{t-1}) - \log(P_{t-2})]$$

$$= r_t + r_{t-1}$$

• The k-period return (by extension) is

$$\begin{split} r_t(k) &= \log{(P_t)} - \log{(P_{t-k})} \\ &= r_t + r_{t-1} + \dots + r_{t-(k-1)} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} r_{t-j} \quad \text{(i.e. sum of single-period log returns)} \end{split}$$