

## Appendix Chapter. Technical Background

### General Mathematical and Statistical Background

- Finding a base:

$$\begin{aligned}3^2 &= 9 \quad \Leftrightarrow 3 = 9^{1/2} \\x^a &= b \quad \Leftrightarrow x = b^{1/a}\end{aligned}$$

A power of  $1/2$  is also equivalent to the square root operation.

- Finding an exponent:

$$\begin{aligned}3^2 &= 9 \Leftrightarrow 2 = \frac{\ln(9)}{\ln(3)} \\a^x &= b \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{\ln(b)}{\ln(a)}\end{aligned}$$

(Instead of the natural log  $\ln$ , you could use any other log, too.)

- Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N f(i) = f(1) + f(2) + \cdots + f(N)$$

This should be read as the “sum over all  $i$  from 1 to  $N$ .” There are  $N$  terms in this sum.  $i$  is not a real variable: It is simply a dummy counter to abbreviate the notation. When 1 and  $N$  are omitted, it usually means “over all possible  $i$ .”

- Summation rules:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^N [a \cdot f(i) + b] &= [a \cdot f(1) + b] + [a \cdot f(2) + b] + \cdots + [a \cdot f(N) + b] \\ &= a \cdot \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N f(i) \right] + N \cdot b\end{aligned}$$

For example,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^3 [5 \cdot i^i + 2] &= [5 \cdot 1^1 + 2] + [5 \cdot 2^2 + 2] + [5 \cdot 3^3 + 2] \\ &= 7 + 22 + 137 = 166 \\ &= 5 \cdot \left( \sum_{i=1}^3 i^i \right) + 3 \cdot 2 = 5 \cdot (1^1 + 2^2 + 3^3) + 6 \\ &= 5 \cdot 32 + 6 = 166\end{aligned}$$

- Linear functions: A function  $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$  is called a linear function if and only if  $\mathcal{L}(a + b \cdot x) = a + \mathcal{L}(b \cdot x) = a + b \cdot \mathcal{L}(x)$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants.

Here is an illustration. The (weighted) average is a linear function. For example, start with  $(5, 10, 15)$  as a data series. The average is 10. Pick  $a = 2$  and  $b = 3$ . For averaging to be a linear function, it must be that

$$\text{Average}(2 + 3 \cdot \text{Data}) = 2 + 3 \cdot \text{Average}(\text{Data})$$

Let's try this—the left-hand side (LHS) would become the average of  $(17, 32, 47)$ , which is 32. The right-hand side (RHS) would become  $2 + 3 \cdot 10 = 32$ . It works: Averaging indeed behaves like a linear function. In contrast, the square root is not a linear function, because  $\sqrt{-2 + 3 \cdot 9} \neq -2 + 3 \cdot \sqrt{9}$ . The LHS is 5, the RHS is 7. Linear functions are very important in financial economics:

- Similar to averaging, expected values are linear functions. This is what has permitted us to interchange expectations and linear functions:

$$\mathbb{E}(a + b \cdot x) = a + b \cdot \mathbb{E}(x)$$

This will be expounded in the next section.

- The rate of return on a portfolio is also a linear function of the investment weights. For example, a portfolio rate of return may be  $r(x) = 20\% \cdot r_x + 80\% \cdot r_y$ , where  $r_x$  is the rate of return on the component into which you invested \$20. For  $r(x)$  to be a linear function, we need

$$\begin{aligned}2 + 3 \cdot r(x) &= r(2 + 3 \cdot x) \\ a + b \cdot r(x) &= r(a + b \cdot x)\end{aligned}$$

Substitute in

$$2 + 3 \cdot (20\% \cdot r_x + 80\% \cdot r_y) = 20\% \cdot (2 + 3 \cdot r_x) + 80\% \cdot (2 + 3 \cdot r_y)$$

Both sides simplify to  $2 + 60\% \cdot r_x + 240\% \cdot r_y$ , so our statement is true and a portfolio return is indeed a linear function.

However, not all functions are linear. The variance is not a linear function, because

$$\text{Var}(a + b \cdot X) \neq a + b \cdot \text{Var}(X)$$

You will confirm this in the next section.

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**Q A.1.** If  $(1+x)^{10} = (1+50\%) = 1.5$ , what is  $x$ ?

**Q A.2.** If  $(1+10\%)^x = (1+50\%) = 1.5$ , what is  $x$ ?

**Q A.3.** Are  $\sum_{i=1}^N x_i$  and  $\sum_{s=1}^N x_s$  the same?

**Q A.4.** In  $\sum_{x=a}^b f(x, y)$ , what are the variables?

**Q A.5.** Write out and compute  $\sum_{x=1}^3 (3 + 5 \cdot x)$ . Is  $x$  a variable or just a placeholder to write the expression more conveniently?

**Q A.6.** Write out and compute  $\left( \sum_{y=1}^3 3 \right) + 5 \cdot \left( \sum_{y=1}^3 y \right)$ . Compare the result to the previous expression.

**Q A.7.** Is  $\sum_{i=1}^3 (i \cdot i)$  the same as  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^3 i \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{i=1}^3 i \right)$ ?

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## Laws of Probability, Portfolios, and Expectations

Let's go over the algebra of probabilities and portfolios, which you had to use in the investments chapters. It is presented in a more mathematical fashion than it was in the chapters, which you may find easier or harder, depending on your background. If you have a statistics background, realize that our book's notation is simplified, because we do not place tildes over random variables.

### Single Random Variables

The **law of expectations** for single random variables are as follows:

- An expectation is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^N \text{Prob}(i) \cdot [X = X(i)]$$

It is basically a probability-weighted average.

- The expected value of a linear transformation (a and b are known constants):

$$\mathbb{E}(a \cdot X + b) = a \cdot \mathbb{E}(X) + b \quad (\text{A.1})$$

To see this, consider a fair coin that can be either 1 or 2. Say  $a = 4$  and  $b = 10$ . In this case, the LHS is  $\mathbb{E}(a \cdot X + b) = \mathbb{E}(4 \cdot X + 10) = 0.5 \cdot (4 \cdot 1 + 10) + 0.5 \cdot (4 \cdot 2 + 10) = 0.5 \cdot 14 + 0.5 \cdot 18 = 16$ . The RHS is  $4 \cdot (0.5 \cdot 1 + 0.5 \cdot 2) + 10 = 16$ . This all worked because expectation is a linear operator. (It is a fancy way of saying that it is a summation, which allows you to regroup the summation terms of the linear combination  $a \cdot X + b$  inside the expectation, which is also a probability-weighted linear combination.) A little more generally, you could rename  $X$  as  $f(X)$ , so

$$\mathbb{E}(a \cdot f(X) + b) = a \cdot \mathbb{E}(f(X)) + b$$

However, you cannot always “pull” expectations in, so  $\mathbb{E}(f(X))$  is not always  $f(\mathbb{E}(X))$ . For example, if  $f(X) = X^2$ , it is the case that

$$\mathbb{E}(X \cdot X) \neq \mathbb{E}(X) \cdot \mathbb{E}(X)$$

To see this, reconsider the fair “1 or 2” coin. The LHS is  $\mathbb{E}(X^2) = 0.5 \cdot (1 \cdot 1) + 0.5 \cdot (2 \cdot 2) = 2.5$ , but the RHS is  $[\mathbb{E}(X)]^2 = (0.5 \cdot 1 + 0.5 \cdot 2)^2 = (1.5^2) = 2.25$ .

- Definition of variance:

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

It is sometimes easier to rewrite this formula as  $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) - [\mathbb{E}(X)]^2$ .

Let me show you that this works. For our fair 1 or 2 coin example, the variance according to the main formula is  $0.5 \cdot (1 - 1.5)^2 + 0.5 \cdot (2 - 1.5)^2 = 0.25$ . For the second formula, we just computed  $\mathbb{E}(X^2) = 2.5$  and  $[\mathbb{E}(X)]^2 = 2.25$ . Subtracting these terms yields the same 0.25.

- Definition of a standard deviation:

$$\text{Sd}v(x) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(x)}$$

- The variance of a linear combination (where a and b are known constants):

$$\text{Var}(a \cdot X + b) = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X) \quad (\text{A.2})$$

For our fair 1 or 2 coin example, with  $a = 4$  and  $b = 10$ , the LHS is  $0.5 \cdot [(4 \cdot 1 + 10) - 16]^2 + 0.5 + 0.5 \cdot [(4 \cdot 2 + 10) - 16]^2 = 0.5 \cdot [-2]^2 + 0.5 \cdot [2]^2 = 4$ . The RHS is  $4^2 \cdot 0.25 = 4$ .

Here is an extended illustration. A coin, whose outcome we call  $X$ , has 4 and 8 written on its two sides. These two outcomes can be written as  $4 \cdot i$ , where  $i$  is either 1 or 2. Therefore, the expected value of  $X$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \text{Prob}(X = (4 \cdot i)) \cdot (4 \cdot i) \\ &= \text{Prob}(X = 4) \cdot (4) + \text{Prob}(X = 8) \cdot (8) \\ &= 50\% \cdot 4 + 50\% \cdot 8 = 6 \\ \text{Var}(X) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \text{Prob}(X = (4 \cdot i)) \cdot [(4 \cdot i) - 6]^2 \\ &= \text{Prob}(X = 4) \cdot (4 - 6)^2 + \text{Prob}(X = 8) \cdot (8 - 6)^2 \\ &= 50\% \cdot 4 + 50\% \cdot 4 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

The standard deviation is the square root of the variance, here 2.

$E(X^2)$  is, of course, not the same as  $[E(X)]^2 = [3]^2 = 9$ , because

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \text{Prob}(X = (2 \cdot i)) \cdot (2 \cdot i)^2 \\ &= \text{Prob}(X = 2) \cdot (2^2) + \text{Prob}(X = 4) \cdot (4^2) \\ &= 50\% \cdot 4 + 50\% \cdot 16 = 10 \end{aligned}$$

Now work with a linear transformation of the  $X$ , say,  $Z = \$2.5 \cdot X + \$10$ . This is a fundamental operation in finance, because the rates of return on portfolios are such linear transformations. For example, if you own 25% in A and 75% in B, you will earn  $0.25 \cdot r_A + 0.75 \cdot r_B$ . Thus,

Prob	Coin	X	Z
1/2	Heads	4	\$20
1/2	Tails	8	\$30

You want to convince yourself that the expected value of  $Z$ , defined as  $\$2.5 \cdot X + \$10$ , is  $\$2.5 \cdot E(X) + \$10 = \$25$ . First, compute by hand the expected value the long way from  $Z$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(Z) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \text{Prob}(X = (4 \cdot i), \text{i.e., same as } Z = \$2.5 \cdot X + \$10) \cdot (Z_i) \\
 &= \text{Prob}(X = 4, \text{i.e., same as } Z = \$20) \cdot (\$20) \\
 &\quad + \text{Prob}(X = 8, \text{i.e., same as } Z = \$30) \cdot (\$30) \\
 &= 50\% \cdot \$20 + 50\% \cdot \$30 = \$25
 \end{aligned}$$

Unlike the mean (the expected value), the variance is *not* a linear function. The variance of  $Z = \$2.5 \cdot X + \$10$  is *not*  $\$2.5 \cdot \text{Var}(X) + \$10 = \$2.5 \cdot 4 + \$10 = \$20$ . Instead,  $\text{Var}(Z) = \text{Var}(a \cdot X + b) = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X) = (\$2.5)^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X) = \$\$6.25 \cdot 4 = \$\$25$ . You can confirm this working with  $Z$  directly:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}(Z) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \text{Prob}(X = (4 \cdot i)) \cdot [(Z_i) - E(Z)]^2 \\
 &= \text{Prob}(X = 4, \text{i.e., same as } Z = \$20) \cdot (\$20 - \$25)^2 \\
 &\quad + \text{Prob}(X = 8, \text{i.e., same as } Z = \$30) \cdot (\$30 - \$25)^2 \\
 &= 50\% \cdot (\$5)^2 + 50\% \cdot (\$5)^2 = \$\$25
 \end{aligned}$$

The standard deviation of  $Z$  is therefore  $\sqrt{\$25} = \$5$ .

Let us quickly confirm Formula A.1 for  $Z = \$2.5 \cdot X + \$10$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \$25 &= E(\$2.5 \cdot X + \$10) = \$2.5 \cdot E(X) + \$10 = \$2.5 \cdot 6 + \$10 = \$25 \\
 E(Z) &= E(a \cdot X + b) = a \cdot E(X) + b
 \end{aligned}$$

Let us also quickly confirm Formula A.2:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \$25 &= \text{Var}(\$2.5 \cdot X + \$10) = \$2.5^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X) = \$\$6.25 \cdot 4 = \$\$25 \\
 \text{Var}(Z) &= \text{Var}(a \cdot X + b) = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X)
 \end{aligned}$$

**Q A.8.** What is the expected value and standard deviation of a bet  $B$  that pays off the number of points on a fair die, squared? For example, if the die lands on 3, you receive \$9.

**Q A.9.** Assume that you have to pay \$30, but you receive twice the outcome of the bet  $B$  from Question A.8. This is a new bet, called  $C$ . That is, your payoff is  $C = -\$30 + 2 \cdot B$ . What is the expected payoff and risk of your position? (Suggestion: Make your life easy by working with your answers from Question A.8.)

## Portfolios

A portfolio is a set of weights in possible investment assets. That is, for a set of assets  $i$ , each known investment is usually denoted as  $w_i$ . The rate of return on a portfolio is

$$r_p = \sum_i w_i \cdot r_i$$

where  $r_i$  is the security return on security  $i$ . Portfolio returns are the weighted sum of multiple random variables.

- Portfolio return expectations:

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\sum_i w_i \cdot r_i\right) = \sum_i w_i \cdot \mathbb{E}(r_i)$$

Although the weights are fixed and known constants, they cannot be pulled out of the summation, because they are indexed by  $i$  (each could be different from the others).

- Portfolio return riskiness:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}\left(\sum_i w_i \cdot r_i\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^N [w_i \cdot w_j \cdot \text{Cov}(r_i, r_j)] \right\} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N [w_i \cdot w_j \cdot \text{Cov}(r_i, r_j)] \end{aligned}$$

Of course, for intuition, one would often compute the standard deviation by taking the square-root of the variance.

Here is an illustration. A coin toss outcome is a random variable,  $T$ , and it will return either \$2 (heads) or \$4 (tails). You have to pay \$2 to receive this bet. This looks like a good bet: The mean rate of return on each coin toss,  $\mathbb{E}(r_T)$ , is 50%. The variance on each coin toss is

$$\text{Var}(r_T) = 1/2 \cdot (0\% - 50\%)^2 + 1/2 \cdot (100\% - 50\%)^2 = 2,500\% = 0.25$$

Therefore, the standard deviation of each coin toss is  $\sqrt{2,500\%} = 50\%$ .

Now, bet on two independent such coin toss outcomes. Say you invest \$10 on the first bet ( $w_1 = \$10$ ) and \$20 on the second bet ( $w_2 = \$20$ ). Your portfolio is  $\{w_1, w_2\} = \{\$10, \$20\}$ . You can also compute your portfolio's investment weights instead of its absolute investments.

$$w_1 = \frac{\$10}{\$30} \approx 0.33 \quad \text{and} \quad w_2 = (1 - w_1) = \frac{\$20}{\$30} \approx 0.67$$

Your overall portfolio rate of return is

$$r = \sum_{i=1}^2 w_i \cdot r_i$$

We can now use the formulas to compute your expected rate of return ( $\mathbb{E}(r)$ ) and risk ( $\text{Sdv}(r)$ ). To compute your expected rate of return, use

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(r) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 w_i \cdot \mathbb{E}(r_i) = w_1 \cdot \mathbb{E}(r_1) + w_2 \cdot \mathbb{E}(r_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \cdot (50\%) + \frac{2}{3} \cdot (50\%) = 50\%\end{aligned}$$

(Recall that an expectation is a linear operator, that is, a summation. A portfolio is a summation, too. Because both are ultimately nothing but summations, you can regroup terms, which means that the above formula works.) To compute your variance, use

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(r) &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 w_i \cdot w_j \cdot \text{Cov}(r_i, r_j) \\ &= w_1 \cdot w_1 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_1, r_1) + w_1 \cdot w_2 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_1, r_2) + w_2 \cdot w_1 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_2, r_1) + w_2 \cdot w_2 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_2, r_2) \\ &= w_1^2 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_1, r_1) + 2 \cdot w_1 \cdot w_2 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_1, r_2) + w_2^2 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_2, r_2) \\ &= w_1^2 \cdot \text{Var}(r_1) + 2 \cdot w_1 \cdot w_2 \cdot \text{Cov}(r_1, r_2) + w_2^2 \cdot \text{Var}(r_2) \\ &= (1/3)^2 \cdot \text{Var}(r_1) + 2 \cdot w_1 \cdot w_2 \cdot 0 + (2/3)^2 \cdot \text{Var}(r_2) \\ &= (1/9) \cdot \text{Var}(r_1) + (4/9) \cdot \text{Var}(r_2) \\ &= (1/9) \cdot 0.25 + (4/9) \cdot 0.25 \\ &\approx 0.1389\end{aligned}$$

The standard deviation is therefore  $\sqrt{0.1389} \approx 37.3\%$ . This is lower than the 50% that a single coin toss would provide you with.

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**Q A.10.** Repeat the example, but assume that you invest \$15 into each coin toss rather than \$10 and \$20, respectively. Would you expect the risk to be higher or lower? (Hint: What happens if you choose a portfolio that invests more and more into just one of the two bets?)

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### Cumulative Normal Distribution Table

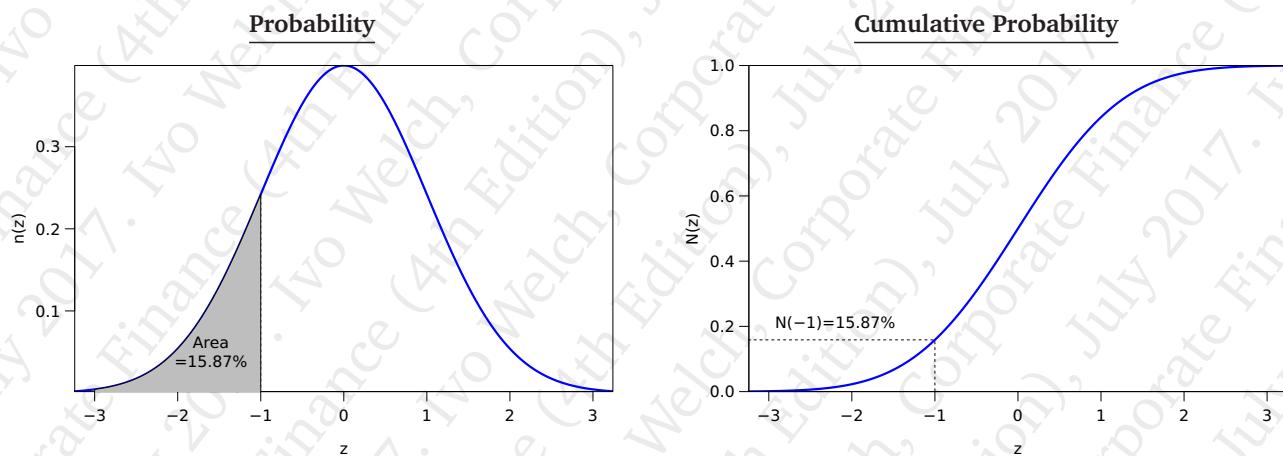
Exhibit 1 allows you to determine the probability that an outcome  $X$  will be less than a prespecified value  $x$ , when standardized into the score  $z$ , if  $X$  (and thus  $z$ ) follow a **normal distribution**. For example, if the mean is 15 and the standard deviation is 5, an outcome of  $X = 10$  is 1 standard deviation below the mean. This standardized score can be obtained by computing  $z(x) = [x - \mathbb{E}(x)] / \text{Sd}(x) = (x - 15)/5 = (10 - 15)/5 = (-1)$ . This table then indicates that the probability that the outcome of  $X$  (i.e., drawn from this distribution with mean 15 and standard deviation 5) will be less than 10 (i.e., less than its score of  $z = -1$ ) is 15.87%.

Exhibit 2 shows what the table represents. Exhibit 2(a) shows the classical bell curve. Recall that at  $z = -1$ , the table gives  $\mathcal{N}(z = -1) = 15.87\%$ . This 15.87% is the shaded area under the curve up to and including  $z = -1$ . Exhibit 2(b) just plots the values in the table itself, that is, the area under the graph to the left of each value from Exhibit 2(a).

If you ever need to approximate the cumulative normal distribution in a spreadsheet, you can use the built-in function **normsdist**.

$z$	$\mathcal{N}(z)$	$z$	$\mathcal{N}(z)$	$z$	$\mathcal{N}(z)$	$z$	$\mathcal{N}(z)$	$z$	$\mathcal{N}(z)$	$z$	$\mathcal{N}(z)$
-4.0	0.00003			-2.0	0.0228	-1.0	0.1587	0.0	0.5000	1.0	0.8413
-3.5	0.00023			-1.9	0.0287	-0.9	0.1841	0.1	0.5398	1.1	0.8643
-3.0	0.0013			-1.8	0.0359	-0.8	0.2119	0.2	0.5793	1.2	0.8849
-2.9	0.0019			-1.7	0.0446	-0.7	0.2420	0.3	0.6179	1.3	0.9032
-2.8	0.0026			-1.6	0.0548	-0.6	0.2743	0.4	0.6554	1.4	0.9192
-2.7	0.0035			-1.5	0.0668	-0.5	0.3085	0.5	0.6915	1.5	0.9332
-2.6	0.0047			-1.4	0.0808	-0.4	0.3446	0.6	0.7257	1.6	0.9452
-2.5	0.0062			-1.3	0.0968	-0.3	0.3821	0.7	0.7580	1.7	0.9554
-2.4	0.0082			-1.2	0.1151	-0.2	0.4207	0.8	0.7881	1.8	0.9641
-2.3	0.0107			-1.1	0.1357	-0.1	0.4602	0.9	0.8159	1.9	0.9713
-2.2	0.0139			-1.0						2.9	0.9981
-2.1	0.0179			-0.9						3.5	0.99977
				-0.8						4.0	0.99997

**Exhibit 1:** Cumulative Normal Distribution Table. Normal score ( $z$ ) versus standardized normal cumulative distribution probability  $\mathcal{N}(z)$



**Exhibit 2:** The Normal Distribution.

## Keywords

Law of expectation, 624. Normal distribution, 628.

## Answers

**Q A.1**  $x \approx 4.138\%$ . Check:  $(1 + 4.138\%)^{10} \approx 1.5$ .

**Q A.2**  $x \approx 4.254$ . Check:  $1.1^{4.254} \approx 1.5$ .

**Q A.3** Yes!  $i$  and  $s$  are not variables, but notation!

**Q A.4**  $x$  is not a variable, but simply a notation shortcut. Written out, the expression is  $f(a, y) + f(a + 1, y) + \dots + f(b - 1, y) + f(b, y)$ , which makes it clear that  $a$ ,  $y$ , and  $b$  are the variables.

**Q A.5** The expression is

$$\sum_{x=1}^3 (3 + 5 \cdot x) = (3 + 5 \cdot 1) + (3 + 5 \cdot 2) + (3 + 5 \cdot 3) \\ = 8 + 13 + 18 = 39$$

$x$  is not a variable. It is simply a counter dummy used for writing convenience. It is not a part of the expression itself.

**Q A.6** The expression is

$$\left( \sum_{y=1}^3 3 \right) + 5 \cdot \left( \sum_{y=1}^3 y \right) = (3 + 3 + 3) + 5 \cdot (1 + 2 + 3) = 39$$

The result is the same. This is an example of why  $\sum_i a + b \cdot x = \left( \sum_i a \right) + b \cdot \sum_i x$ .

**Q A.7** No. The two expressions are

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^3 (i \cdot i) &= 1 + 4 + 9 = 14 \\ \left( \sum_{i=1}^3 i \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{i=1}^3 i \right) &= (1 + 2 + 3) \cdot (1 + 2 + 3) = 36 \end{aligned}$$

The two are not the same! Thus, be careful not to try to pull out multiplying  $i$ 's! You can only pull out constants, not counters. Incidentally, this is also why  $E(X^2) \neq E(X)^2$ , as stated in the next section.

**Q A.8** The expected value is

$$E(B) = (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot \$1 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot \$4 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot \$9 \\ + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot \$16 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot \$25 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot \$36 \approx \$15.17$$

The variance is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(B) &= (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot (\$1 - \$15.17)^2 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot (\$4 - \$15.17)^2 \\ &\quad + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot (\$9 - \$15.17)^2 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot (\$16 - \$15.17)^2 \\ &\quad + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot (\$25 - \$15.17)^2 + (\frac{1}{6}) \cdot (\$36 - \$15.17)^2 \\ &\approx \$149.14 \end{aligned}$$

The standard deviation is therefore

$$SdV(B) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(B)} \approx \sqrt{\$149.14} \approx \$12.21$$

**Q A.9** You expect to receive

$$\begin{aligned} E(C) &= -\$30 + 2 \cdot E(B) \approx -\$30 + 2 \cdot \$15.17 \approx \$0.34 \\ \text{Var}(C) &= 2^2 \cdot \text{Var}(B) \approx 4 \cdot \$149.14 = \$595.56 \\ SdV(C) &= \sqrt{\text{Var}(C)} \approx \$24.42 \end{aligned}$$

**Q A.10** Your investment weights are now  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$ . The mean rate of return remains the same 50%. The variance of the rate of return is computed similarly to the example in the text:

$$\text{Var}(r) = (\frac{1}{2})^2 \cdot 0.25 + (\frac{1}{2})^2 \cdot 0.25 = 0.125$$

Therefore, the risk (standard deviation) is 35.35%. This is lower than it was when you put more weight on one of the coin tosses. This makes sense: As you put more and more into one of the two coin tosses, you lose the benefit of diversification!