#### Introduction to Finance for Data Scientists

### Session 2: Valuation

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### Contact

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#### Asset valuation

#### This morning

Assets stocks, bonds, bank loans, insurance contracts, etc.

What they are used for financing, risk sharing, etc.

How they are created and traded
 IPOs, exchanges, etc.

#### Now

- What determines the value of assets, i.e., the price at which assets trade
- Ex.: Lemonade sold 20% of its shares for \$319M. How investors came up with this valuation?

### Asset valuation

- Valuation principle: Value of asset = Value of benefits generated by the asset
  - Benefits usually are in cash: dividends, interests, rents, royalties, etc.
  - Can also be non-monetary, e.g., environmental
  - Called "cash flow" (CF) for brevity
- Two steps
  - 1. Forecast CF → data science
  - 2. Value forecasted CF → finance
- Value future and uncertain CF → discount for time and risk

## Road map

Risk-free assets

Risky assets

Diversification

# Time discounting

**Q1.** Do you prefer to earn €1 now or €1 in one year?



## Time discounting

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• Time preference: future cash flows are discounted

**Q2.** You are indifferent between  $\in X$  now and  $\in 1$  in one year: X=?

## Time discounting

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• Time preference: future cash flows are discounted

**Q2.** You are indifferent between  $\in X$  now and  $\in 1$  in one year: X=?

- X is the present value (PV) of €1 in one year
- r such that PV = 1/(1+r) is the **discount rate**

### PV of risk-free cash flow

- More generally  $\in D_t$  in t years has present value  $\frac{D_t}{(1+r)^t}$
- $\Rightarrow$  Stream of risk-free cash flow  $\{D_t\}_{t\geq 1}$  has present value

$$PV = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{D_t}{(1+r)^t}$$

- NB
  - Discount rate r is expressed on a per year basis, hence the power t
  - "Risk-free", "safe", "deterministic" ≠ "risky", "stochastic"

## Valuing risk-free assets

**Ex.** 1 Consider two assets with the following risk-free cash flow

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Asset A	10	10	10
Asset B	0	0	31

The discount rate is 5% per year

**Q.** Which project is more valuable?

② 2 minutes

$$PV(asset A) =$$

⇒ Asset . . . has higher present value

## Valuing risk-free assets

Ex. 2 US government bond that promises 100 USD in one year. Discount rate = 4% per year

**Q1.** What is the price of the bond?



*P* =

## Valuing risk-free assets

Ex. 2 US government bond that promises 100 USD in one year. Discount rate = 4% per year

**Q1.** What is the price of the bond?

P =

Q2. You buy the bond and hold it for one year. What is your rate of return? 2 minutes

$$r \equiv \frac{\text{what you get}}{\text{what you paid}} - 1 =$$

### Risk-free interest rate

- Return on a risk-free asset = discount rate of a risk-free asset = risk-free interest rate (r<sub>f</sub>)
  - 1.  $r_f$  is the same for all risk-free assets with cash flow at the same dates in the same currency
  - 2.  $r_f$  depends on the currency
  - 3.  $r_f$  depends on the horizon of cash flow

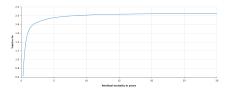
#### Risk-free interest rate

#### 2. $r_f$ depends on the currency

Australia	4.08%
Austria	2.77%
Belgium	2.79%
Canada	
Denmark	2.61%
Finland	2.78%
France	2.76%
Germany	2.10%
Greece	4.74%
Ireland	2.74%
Italy	4.71%
Japan	0.25%
Netherlands	2.46%
New Zealand	4.28%
Portugal	3.21%
Spain	3.35%
Sweden	2.23%
Switzerland	1.40%
UK	4.15%
US	3.88%

10-year interest rate on government bonds [source]

#### 3. $r_f$ depends on the horizon of CF



Yield curve (a.k.a. term structure of interest rates) in euro [source]

## Remark — Market efficiency

- "Value" and "price" are conceptually different
  - (Present) Value: how much investors <u>should</u> be willing to pay for the asset
  - Price: how much investors actually pay for the asset
- For now, we assume price = value, based on the following argument
  - If price < value, investors buy, which pushes price up
  - If price > value, investors sell, which pushes price down
  - ⇒ At the equilibrium of the market, it must be that price = value
- This assumption is called market efficiency. We'll return to it in session 3

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### Risk aversion

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 Risk aversion: Investors are willing to accept a lower expected payoff if risk is lower. Conversely, investors require a higher expected payoff if risk is higher

⇒ Risky cash flows are discounted

## Valuing risky assets

- Most assets are risky: stocks, debt with default risk, etc.
- Valuation principle: Value of risky asset = PV of cash flow = expected cash flow discounted for time and risk
- ullet An asset with risky payoff  $ilde{D}$  in one year has present value

$$PV = \frac{E[\tilde{D}]}{1+k}$$

where discount rate 
$$k = \underbrace{\text{risk-free rate}}_{\text{time discounting}} + \underbrace{\text{risk premium}}_{\text{risk discounting}}$$

Discount rate = expected return

$$\tilde{r} = \frac{\tilde{D}}{P} - 1 \implies E(\tilde{r}) = \frac{E(\tilde{D})}{P} - 1 = \frac{E(\tilde{D})}{\frac{E(\tilde{D})}{1+k}} - 1 = k$$

## Valuing risky assets Quiz

- Consider two stocks of companies specialized in facial recognition
  - 1. GreatTech has great technology: its expected CF next year is €400 million
  - 2. LameDuck has so-so technology: its expected CF next year is €100 million

(NB: Next year's CF is in expectation. Assume same risk for both companies. To simplify, assume no CF after next year.)

- **Q1.** Which stock has the higher price?
- 1 minute

- a. GreatTech
- b. LameDuck c. Both have same price
- **Q2.** Which stock has the higher expected return?



- a. GreatTech
- b. LameDuck c. Both have same expected return

## Valuing risky assets

• An asset with risky cash flow  $\{\tilde{D}_t\}_{t\geq 1}$  has present value

$$PV = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{E[\tilde{D}_t]}{(1+k)^t}$$

where:

discount rate 
$$(k)$$
 = risk-free rate  $(r_f)$  + risk premium

NB: The PV formula has several names: *Dividend Discount Model (DDM)* in asset pricing, *Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) method* in corporate finance.

## Valuing risky assets

Expected return = discount rate

$$E_t(\tilde{r}_{t+1}) = k$$

where  $\tilde{r}_{t+1} = \frac{\tilde{D}_{t+1} + \tilde{P}_{t+1}}{P_t} - 1$  is the (uncertain) return between t and t+1, and  $\tilde{P}_{t+1}$  is the (uncertain) price at t+1 after the dividend payment

Riskier assets have a higher risk premium

 i.e., a higher discount rate
 i.e., a higher expected return

#### Proof that expected return = discount rate

Expected return from 
$$t$$
 to  $t+1$ :  $E_t(\tilde{r}_{t+1}) = \frac{E_t(\tilde{D}_{t+1}) + E_t(\tilde{P}_{t+1})}{P_t} - 1$ 

Using the PV formula: 
$$P_t = \sum_{\tau=1}^{\infty} \frac{E_t(D_{t+\tau})}{(1+k)^{\tau}}$$

Expected price at 
$$t+1$$
:  $E_t(\tilde{P}_{t+1}) = E_t\left[\sum_{\tau=1}^{\infty} \frac{E_{t+1}(D_{t+1+\tau})}{(1+k)^{\tau}}\right]$ 

Using Bayes rule: 
$$E_t(\tilde{P}_{t+1}) = \sum_{\tau=1}^{\infty} \frac{E_t(D_{t+1+\tau})}{(1+k)^{\tau}}$$

Finally: 
$$E_t(\tilde{r}_{t+1}) = \frac{(1+k)P_t}{P_t} - 1 = k$$

## Historical perspective

Historical returns of main asset classes, 1960–2017<sup>1</sup>

Moments of return distribution
(in % per year)

	S.D.	Mean
Stocks	17.3	11.3
Real estate	19.3	12.3
Corporate bonds	8.4	7.8
Commodities <sup>2</sup>	24.9	8.7

⇒ Riskier assets have higher expected returns

NB: Commodities are puzzling: high S.D. but not high mean return. Any idea?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Doeswijk, Lam and Swinkels, "Historical Returns of the Market Portfolio," *Review of Asset Pricing Studies* 2019 [pdf]

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ Commodities include mainly metals (such as gold), energy products (such as oil) and agricultural products

### Example — Valuing the stock market

- What should be the valuation of the US stock market?
  - That is, the aggregate value of all companies listed in the US  $(P_t)$
  - Calculate it as a multiple of current earnings  $(E_t)$
- Valuation principle: value = PV of all future dividends
  - US companies pay on average half of earnings as dividends:  $D_t = 0.5E_t$
  - Suppose aggregate earnings has constant expected growth rate:

$$E_t[E_{t+\tau}] = (1+g)^{\tau} E_t \text{ for } \tau \ge 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad P_t = \frac{(1+g)0.5 E_t}{k-g}$$

Discount rate: k = risk-free rate + risk premium

Risk-free rate = interest rate on US government bonds  $\simeq 3.5\%$ 

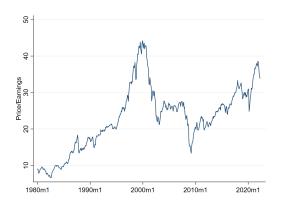
Risk premium: calibrate using historical stock market risk premium  $\simeq 6\%,$  but lower today, say 4%

– Earnings growth: calibrate using historical (nominal) GDP growth  $\approx 6\%$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  Value of US stocks  $\simeq \frac{1.06 \times 0.5}{0.075 - 0.06} \simeq$  35 times current earnings

## Example — Valuing the stock market

Compare to data: price/earnings ratio of US stock market



[source]

- $\Rightarrow$  PV formula + ballpark calibration  $\Rightarrow$  correct order of magnitude
- **Q.** How do you interpret the spike around 2000? the drop in 2008? the increasing trend since 2010?

### Using the PV formula

Input needed to calculate the PV of a given asset

- Expected future CF: data analysis
- Discount CF at k = risk-free rate + risk premium
- Risk-free rate is observable
- Risk premium = ?

Which dimension of risk determines the risk premium?

Variance? No, covariance, because of diversification

## Road map

Risk-free assets

Risky assets

Diversification

a Nobel winning idea



Harry M. Markowitz (1990)

A fund invests €10 million spread equally over n companies

- Each €1 invested in company i returns €(1+ $r_i$ ) with the same  $E(r_i)$  and  $V(r_i) \equiv \sigma^2$  for all i
- Portfolio return:  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(1+r_i)\times 10 \text{ million}/n}{10 \text{ million}} 1 = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}r_i$
- **Q1.** Is it safer to invest in n = 1 or n = 10 companies?

a. 
$$n = 1$$
 b.  $n = 10$  c. It depends

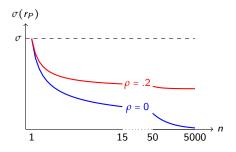
Consider two investment portfolios

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A. n = 1000 companies in the same industry: Cov(r_i, r_j) = 0.2 \sigma^2 for i \neq j
```

B. n = 1000 companies in unrelated industries:  $Cov(r_i, r_j) = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ 

**Q.** Which portfolio is safer?

A. B. It depends



1. Portfolio risk ↓ n

Proof: 
$$\sigma(r_P) = \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n}\rho\right)^{1/2}\sigma \downarrow n$$

2. When  $n \to \infty$ , portfolio risk does not depend on the total variance of individual asset returns, but on their **covariance** 

Proof: 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sigma(r_P) = \rho^{1/2}\sigma$$

## Diversification — Summary

Risk independent between assets can be eliminated by diversification

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= idiosyncratic (diversifiable) risk
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 Risk correlated between assets cannot be eliminated by diversification

= systematic (non-diversifiable) risk

NB: A portfolio with large *n* is said to be "well diversified", which does not mean risk-free: idiosyncratic risk is eliminated but systematic risk is not

## Diversification — Implication for risk premium

**Q.** Do you require a higher expected return on portfolio with  $\rho$  = 0 or portfolio with  $\rho$  = 0.2?

## Diversification — Implication for risk premium

Idiosyncratic risk does <u>not</u> command a risk premium

Systematic risk <u>commands</u> a risk premium

- How to measure an asset's systematic risk and the associated risk premium?
  - In previous example with symmetric assets: systematic risk = covariance with other assets
  - More generally: systematic risk = covariance with portfolio of all assets ⇒ the Capital Asset Pricing Model (next class)

### One last brain-teaser

Do expect high or low expected return on gold?



### Until tomorrow

• Practice problems on Slack

• See you tomorrow morning ©