

FNCE90056:  
Investment Management

**Lecture 3: Capital Asset Pricing Model**

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# Review

# Overview

Last week:

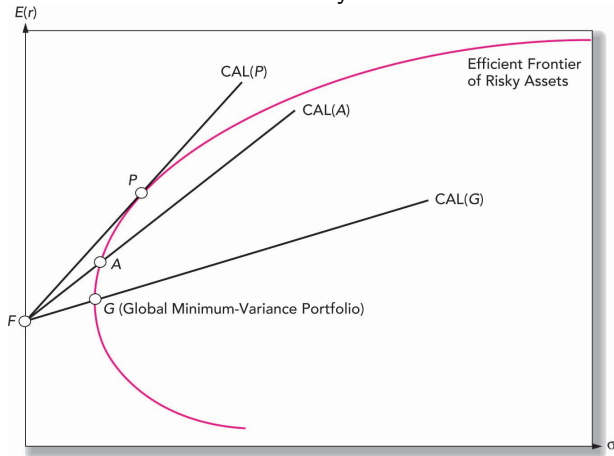
- We built optimal risky portfolios from 2+ risky assets.
- We then added in a risk-free asset to generate the optimal CAL: a line that originates at the risk-free asset and is tangent to the efficient risky frontier.

This week:

- We'll see how to use these portfolio tools to discuss the pricing of **individual assets**.
- We'll focus on the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)

## Capital Allocation Line

- Recall the CAL with the efficient risky frontier:



- The line  $CAL(P)$  is the best way to invest for ANYONE who cares about expected returns and risk.

# Beyond Modern Portfolio Theory

# Modern Portfolio Theory (MPT)

- The **Modern Portfolio Theory (MPT)** framework:
  - ▶ simplifies choices via the efficient frontier of risky assets
  - ▶ shows how to optimally combine risky assets taking their expected returns and variance-covariance matrix as given
  - ▶ **does not** provide guidance with respect to the risk-return tradeoff for **individual** assets
- For that we need the **Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)**, a theoretical model of equilibrium expected returns on risky assets
  - ▶ Extends idea of diversification under simplified assumptions

# MPT plus two sets of assumptions $\implies$ the CAPM

## ● Assumptions on investor behaviors

- ▶ Investors are rational, mean-variance optimizers.
- ▶ static choice of a single period.
- ▶ homogeneous expectations: investors all use identical estimates of expected returns, variances, and covariances.
  - ★ assuming all relevant information is publicly available

## ● Assumptions on market structure

- ▶ All assets are publicly held and trade on public exchanges.  
(nontradable assets are excluded, e.g. education, private firms, etc)
- ▶ Investors can borrow or lend at a common risk-free rate, and they can take short positions on traded securities.
- ▶ No taxes and No transaction costs.
- ▶ There are many investors, no market power and take price as given.

## Tangency portfolio = market portfolio

- If we agree on expected returns,  $\mu$ , and covariances,  $\Sigma$ , we all want (demand) the same tangency portfolio. (Although our weights on the tangency portfolio, relative to the risk-free asset, may vary, depending on our individual risk aversions.)
- The market is the supply of all investments.
- **Equilibrium argument 1**, in equilibrium:

Supply of risky assets = demand of risky assets

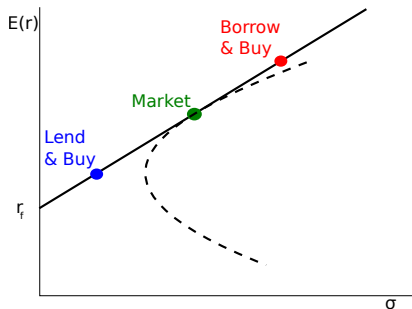
- This must mean everyone holds the **market portfolio** (as the risky component of their overall portfolio).
- Given everyone is holding market portfolio, **portfolio risk** is what matters to investors and is what governs the risk premiums they demand.



## The Capital Market Line (CML)

While we all agree on the same tangency portfolios, our weights on the tangency portfolio, relative to the risk-free asset, may vary, depending on our individual risk aversions:

- Like risk? Borrow and buy the market
- Dislike risk? Put some money in the market, some in the risk-free asset



- Special name for this CAL: The **Capital Market Line (CML)**

# Capital Asset Pricing Model

## Getting beyond the CML

- Everyone wants to be on the CML. Does that tell us anything about the **individual assets**? Yes! And THAT is the power of the CAPM.
- Core insight of the CAPM
  - The appropriate risk premium on an individual asset has to be determined by its individual (marginal) **contribution to the risk of the investors' overall portfolios**.
  - This contribution to overall risk is not just given by an asset's variance, but also its covariance. Step-by-step derivation of CAPM
- Is there a risk-return tradeoff for individual assets? Yes!**

- Equilibrium argument 2:** In equilibrium, the **reward-to-risk ratio** for all asset  $i$  is the same

$$\frac{E(R_i) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)} = \frac{E(R_M) - R_f}{\sigma_M^2}, \text{ for all } i \quad (1)$$

- Thus, we obtain the **fundamental (testable) implication of the CAPM, for any asset  $i$ :**

$$\mathbb{E}[R_i] - R_f = \beta_i (\mathbb{E}[R_M] - R_f); \beta_i = \frac{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)}{\sigma_M^2} \quad (2)$$

# Intuition of CAPM

## Intuition behind CAPM

- CAPM builds on the insight that the appropriate risk premium on an asset is determined by its contribution to the risk of investors' overall portfolio.
- What is the contribution of an asset  $i$  to the overall portfolio ?
  - ▶ let's consider a 2 assets case with portfolio level returns

$$R^P = \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2$$

- ▶ Then the variance covariance matrix is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}(R_1, R_1) & \text{Cov}(R_2, R_1) \\ \text{Cov}(R_1, R_2) & \text{Cov}(R_2, R_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- We can then **calculate** the portfolio level variance and **decompose** it into the contribution of each individual asset

$$\begin{aligned}
 V[R^P] &= V\left[\sum_{i=1}^2 \omega_i R_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 \omega_i \omega_j \text{Cov}[R_i, R_j] \\
 &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_2] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_2 \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_2, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_2 \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, R_2] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2} \\
 &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, \omega_1 R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, \omega_2 R_2] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, \omega_1 R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, \omega_2 R_2] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2} \\
 &= \omega_1 \text{Cov}(R_1, \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2) + \omega_2 \text{Cov}(R_2, \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2) \\
 &= \underbrace{\omega_1 \text{Cov}(R_1, R^P)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\omega_2 \text{Cov}(R_2, R^P)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- In this two assets case, the contribution of an asset  $i$  to the overall portfolio is just weight  $w_i$  times its **covariance** with  $R_P$

$$w_i \text{Cov} (R_i, R^P)$$

- We then calculate reward of asset  $i$  as its contribution to the portfolio level risk premium, recall that  $R^P = \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2$

$$\begin{aligned} E (R^P) - R_f &= \omega_1 E (R_1) + \omega_2 E (R_2) - R_f \\ &= \underbrace{\omega_1 (E (R_1) - R_f)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\omega_2 (E (R_2) - R_f)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2} \end{aligned}$$

- So the reward of asset  $i$  is just

$$w_i (E (R_i) - R_f)$$

- Then asset  $i$ 's **reward-to-risk ratio** is given by

$$\frac{w_i (E (R_i) - R_f)}{w_i \text{Cov} (R_i, R^P)} = \frac{E (R_i) - R_f}{\text{Cov} (R_i, R^P)}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- How about a case with 3 assets? What is the contribution of an asset  $i$  to the overall portfolio ?

- ▶ With 3 assets, portfolio level return is given by

$$R^P = \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2 + \omega_3 R_3$$

- ▶ Portfolio level expected return is given by

$$E(R^P) = \omega_1 E(R_1) + \omega_2 E(R_2) + \omega_3 E(R_3)$$

- ▶ Portfolio level variance covariance matrix is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}(R_1, R_1) & \text{Cov}(R_2, R_1) & \text{Cov}(R_3, R_1) \\ \text{Cov}(R_1, R_2) & \text{Cov}(R_2, R_2) & \text{Cov}(R_3, R_2) \\ \text{Cov}(R_1, R_3) & \text{Cov}(R_2, R_3) & \text{Cov}(R_3, R_3) \end{bmatrix}$$



## Intuition behind CAPM

- We can then **calculate** the portfolio level variance and **decompose** it into the contribution of each individual asset

$$\begin{aligned}
 V[R^P] &= V\left[\sum_{i=1}^3 \omega_i R_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 \omega_i \omega_j \text{Cov}[R_i, R_j] \\
 &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_2] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \omega_3 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_3] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_2 \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_2, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_2 \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, R_2] \\ + \\ \omega_2 \omega_3 \text{Cov}[R_2, R_3] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_3 \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_3, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_3 \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_3, R_2] \\ + \\ \omega_3 \omega_3 \text{Cov}[R_3, R_3] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_3} \\
 &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, \omega_1 R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, \omega_2 R_2] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, \omega_3 R_3] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, \omega_1 R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, \omega_2 R_2] \\ + \\ \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_2, \omega_3 R_3] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_3 \text{Cov}[R_3, \omega_1 R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_3 \text{Cov}[R_3, \omega_2 R_2] \\ + \\ \omega_3 \text{Cov}[R_3, \omega_3 R_3] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_3} \\
 &= \omega_1 \text{Cov}(R_1, \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2 + \omega_3 R_3) + \cdots + \omega_3 \text{Cov}(R_3, \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2 + \omega_3 R_3) \\
 &= \omega_1 \text{Cov}(R_1, R^P) + \omega_2 \text{Cov}(R_2, R^P) + \omega_3 \text{Cov}(R_3, R^P)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- In this two assets case, the contribution of an asset  $i$  to the overall portfolio is just weight  $w_i$  times its **covariance** with  $R_P$

$$\omega_i \text{Cov} (R_i, R^P)$$

- We then calculate the reward of asset  $i$  as its contribution to the portfolio level risk premium

$$\begin{aligned} E(R^P) - R_f &= \omega_1 E(R_1) + \omega_2 E(R_2) + \omega_3 E(R_3) - R_f \\ &= \underbrace{\omega_1 (E(R_1) - R_f)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \underbrace{\omega_2 (E(R_2) - R_f)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_2} + \underbrace{\omega_3 (E(R_3) - R_f)}_{\text{Contribution of } R_3} \end{aligned}$$

- So the reward of asset  $i$  is also just

$$\omega_i (E(R_i) - R_f)$$

- Then asset  $i$ 's **reward-to-risk ratio** is given by

$$\frac{\omega_i (E(R_i) - R_f)}{\omega_i \text{Cov}(R_i, R^P)} = \frac{E(R_i) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_i, R^P)}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- CAPM builds on the insight that the appropriate risk premium on an asset is determined by its contribution to the risk of investors' overall portfolio.
- Now, let's move to the case with  $n$  assets, the variance-covariance matrix is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{1,2} & \cdots & \sigma_{1,N} \\ \sigma_{2,1} & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{2,N} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \sigma_{i,1} & \sigma_{i,2} & \cdots & \sigma_{i,N} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \sigma_{N,1} & \sigma_{N,2} & \cdots & \sigma_N^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- For  $R^M = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i R_i$ , the variance of the market portfolio  $V(R^M)$  can also be calculated and decomposed into contribution of each asset

$$\begin{aligned}
 V[R^M] &= V\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i R_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \omega_i \omega_j \text{Cov}[R_i, R_j] \\
 &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_1 \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_1, R_2] \\ + \\ \vdots \\ \omega_1 \omega_n \text{Cov}[R_1, R_n] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_1} + \dots + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_i \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_i, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_i \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_i, R_2] \\ + \\ \vdots \\ \omega_i \omega_n \text{Cov}[R_i, R_n] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_i} + \dots + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_n \omega_1 \text{Cov}[R_n, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_n \omega_2 \text{Cov}[R_n, R_2] \\ + \\ \vdots \\ \omega_n \omega_n \text{Cov}[R_n, R_n] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_n}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- Thus, if we pick out all the terms related to asset  $i$  in above red term, we obtain the contribution of asset  $i$ 's stock to  $V \left[ R^M \right]$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \omega_i \omega_1 \text{Cov} [R_i, R_1] \\ + \\ \omega_i \omega_2 \text{Cov} [R_i, R_2] \\ + \\ \vdots \\ \omega_i \omega_n \text{Cov} [R_i, R_n] \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Contribution of } R_i}$$

Alternatively, we can rewrite it as

$$\begin{aligned} & \omega_i [\omega_1 \text{Cov} (R_i, R_1) + \omega_2 \text{Cov} (R_i, R_2) + \cdots \\ & \quad + \omega_i \text{Cov} (R_i, R_i) + \cdots + \omega_n \text{Cov} (R_i, R_n)] \\ & = \omega_i \text{Cov} (R_i, R_M) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

- Same result as before

## Intuition behind CAPM

- The contribution of asset  $i$  to the risk premium of the market portfolio is  $\omega_i [E(R_i) - R_f]$

► Note that  $R^M = \omega_1 R_1 + \omega_2 R_2 + \dots + \omega_i R_i + \dots + \omega_n R_n$ , we have

$$E(R^M) - R_f = \dots + \omega_i (E(R_i) - R_f) + \dots + \omega_n (E(R_n) - R_f)$$

- Therefore, the **reward-to-risk ratio** for investments in asset  $i$  is

$$\frac{\text{asset } i\text{'s contribution to risk premium}}{\text{asset } i\text{'s contribution to variance}} = \frac{\omega_i [E(R_i) - R_f]}{\omega_i \text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)} = \frac{E(R_i) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)}$$

- Market portfolio is the tangency (mean-variance efficient) portfolio, its reward-to-risk ratio is

$$\frac{\text{Market risk premium}}{\text{Market variance}} = \frac{E(R_M) - R_f}{\sigma_M^2} = \frac{E(R_i) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)} \quad (4)$$

## Intuition behind CAPM

- For any component asset of market portfolio, we **measure its risk** as **the contribution to portfolio variance**
  - ▶ depends on its covariance with the market portfolio
- For individual asset, CAPM turns the measure of risk of individual assets from its own variance to its contribution to portfolio variance.
- In contrast, for the efficient portfolio itself, variance is the appropriate measure of risk.
- **Equilibrium argument:** a basic **principle of equilibrium** is that all assets should offer the same reward-to-risk ratio, as the market
  - ▶ If the ratio were better for one asset than another, investors would **rearrange their portfolios**, tilting toward the alternative with the better trade-off and shying away from the other.
  - ▶ Such activity would impose pressure on security prices (expected return) until the ratios were equalized.

## Intuition behind CAPM

- Portfolio adjustments of all investors put pressure on the price, thus lead to the **equilibrium condition**

$$\frac{E(R_i) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)} = \frac{E(R_M) - R_f}{\sigma_M^2} \quad (5)$$

- To determine the fair risk premium of asset  $i$

$$E(R_i) - R_f = \frac{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)}{\sigma_M^2} [E(R_M) - R_f] \quad (6)$$

- The ratio  $\frac{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)}{\sigma_M^2}$  measures the share of total variance of  $M$  contributed by asset  $i$  (normalized by its weight  $\omega_i$ ).
- The ratio is denoted by  $\beta$ , **the expected return – beta relationship**

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \beta_i [E(R_M) - R_f] \quad (7)$$



## Expected Returns on Individual Securities

- The expected return-beta relationship hold for all individual stock in the market portfolio

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \beta_i [E(R_M) - R_f] \quad (8)$$

$$\beta_i = \frac{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_M)}{\sigma_M^2} \quad (9)$$

where  $[E(R_M) - R_f]$  is the market risk premium,  $\beta_i$  is asset  $i$ 's risk loading.

- It tells us that the total expected rate of return is the sum of two
  - ▶ the risk-free rate (compensation for **waiting**, i.e., the time value of money)
  - ▶ the risk premium (compensation for **worrying**, specifically about investment returns)
- Moreover, it makes a very specific prediction about the size of each asset's risk premium.

## Expected Returns on Individual Securities

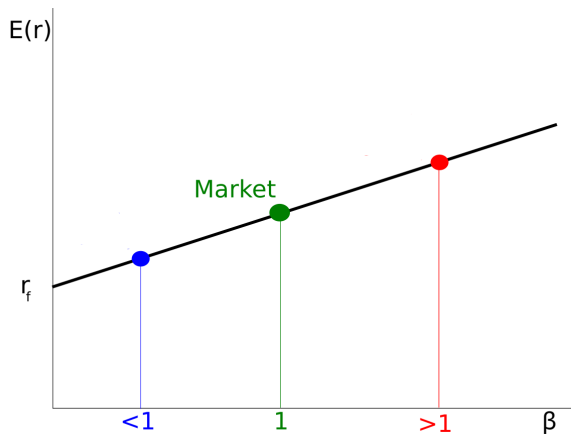
- Notice that the risk premium of asset  $i$  does not depend on its own volatility  $\sigma^i$ , but depends of its  $\beta_i$  risk loading.
- CAPM predicts that **only systematic risk (loading on the market portfolio) should command a risk premium**
  - ▶ while idiosyncratic (firm-specific variation uncorrelated with market portfolio) risk should not.
- If the expected return-beta relationship holds for each asset, it must hold for any combination or weighted average of assets.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \omega_1 E(R_1) &= \omega_1 R_f + \omega_1 \beta_1 [E(R_M) - R_f] \\
 + \omega_2 E(R_2) &= \omega_2 R_f + \omega_2 \beta_2 [E(R_M) - R_f] \\
 + \dots &= \dots \\
 + \omega_n E(R_n) &= \omega_n R_f + \omega_n \beta_n [E(R_M) - R_f] \\
 \hline
 E(R_P) &= R_f + \beta_P [E(R_M) - R_f]
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

- For market portfolio,  $\beta_M = 1$

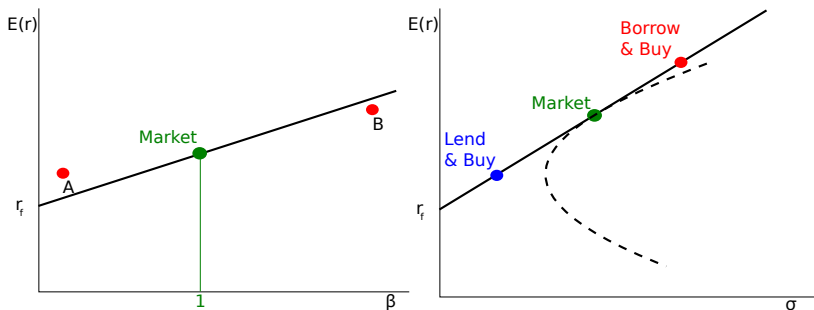
## Security Market Line

A change in picture; let  $\beta$  be the x-axis instead of  $\sigma$ :



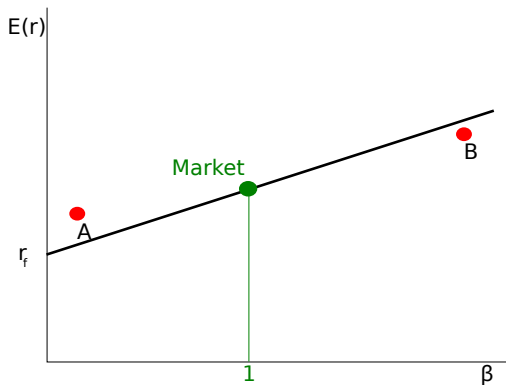
Special name for this line: The **Security Market Line (SML)**

# SML versus CML



- The SML holds for EVERYTHING (if CAPM is true): assets, portfolios.
- Contrast that with the CML that holds only for EFFICIENT PORTFOLIOS.

## SML: evaluating mispricing



- The SML is defined by (2): the  $y$ -intercept is  $r_f$  and the slope is the expected excess return on the market.
- If the CAPM holds:
  - ▶ Once an asset is on the SML, it is held there by market forces.
  - ▶ A's expected return is too high; B's is too low.

## Alpha

**CAPM alpha** is the expected return in excess of that implied by the CAPM, which is also called pricing error:

$$\alpha_{CAPM} = E[r] - r_f - \beta(E[r_m] - r_f)$$

- Stock ABC has an expected return of 15% and beta of 1.2. Another stock, DEF, has expected return of 17% and a beta of 1.9. The expected return of the market is 8% and the risk-free rate is 4%.
  - ▶ Which stock should an investor buy?
  - ▶ Find the alpha of each stock.
- Required return of ABC:  $4 + 1.2 \times (8 - 4) = 8.8\%$   
Alpha of ABC:  $15\% - 8.8\% = 6.2\%$   
Required return of DEF:  $4 + 1.9 \times (8 - 4) = 11.6\%$   
Alpha of DEF:  $17\% - 11.6\% = 5.4\%$
- ABC is a better investment (if you must have only one of them).

## SML: evaluating mispricing

- If CAPM hold (dots on SML), we have 0  $\alpha$  for every asset

$$\alpha_{CAPM} = E(r_i) - \widehat{E(r_i)}_{CAPM} = E(r_i) - (r_f + \beta_i (E(r_m) - r_f)) = 0$$

- For any dots above SML, like dot A, we have positive  $\alpha$

$$\alpha_A = \mathbb{E}[r_A] - \widehat{\mathbb{E}[r_A]}_{CAPM} = \mathbb{E}[r_A] - [r_f + \beta_A (\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f)] > 0$$

which implies  $\mathbb{E}[r_A] - r_f > \beta_A (\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f)$

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[r_A] - r_f}{\beta_A} > \frac{\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f}{1} \Rightarrow \frac{E(r_i) - r_f}{Cov(r_i, r_M)} > \frac{\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f}{\sigma_M^2}$$

- $E(r_A)$  is too high relative to CAPM, or we say the A is underpriced
  - ▶ Asset A's reward-to-risk ratio is higher than the market, investors would prefer such assets

## SML: evaluating mispricing

- For any dots below SML, like dot B, we have negative  $\alpha$

$$\alpha_B = \mathbb{E}[r_B] - \widehat{\mathbb{E}[r_B]}_{CAPM} = \mathbb{E}[r_B] - [r_f + \beta_B (\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f)] < 0$$

which implies  $\mathbb{E}[r_B] - r_f < \beta_B (\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f)$

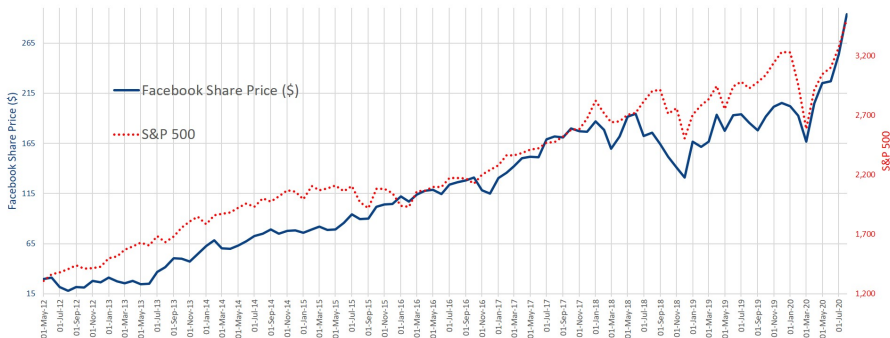
$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[r_B] - r_f}{\beta_B} < \frac{\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f}{1} \Rightarrow \frac{E(r_i) - r_f}{Cov(r_i, r_M)} < \frac{\mathbb{E}[r_m] - r_f}{\sigma_M^2}$$

- $E(r_B)$  is too low relative to CAPM, or we say the B is overpriced
  - Asset B's reward-to-risk ratio is lower than the market, investors would sell such assets



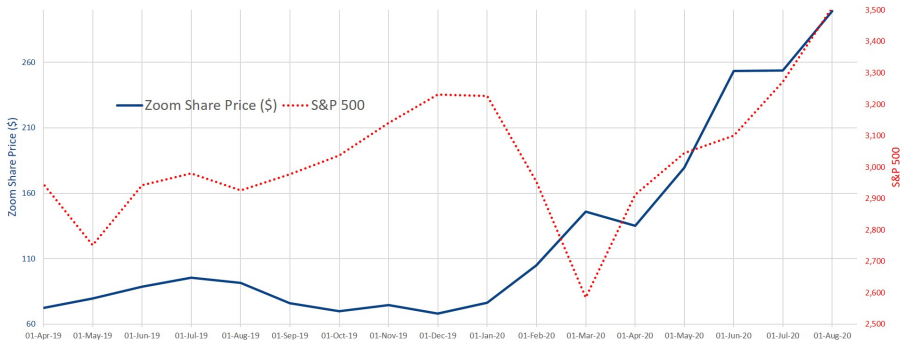
# Estimating $\beta$

Facebook:  $\text{Correl}[R_{FB}, R_{SP500}] = 0.41$ ,  $\text{Beta} = 1.15$



Facebook's market cap. is over \$1 trillion, making it one of the largest components of the S&P 500. So its correlation and beta with the market are positive.

Zoom:  $\text{Correl}[R_{ZM}, R_{SP500}] = -0.45$ ,  $\text{Beta} = -1.25$



Zoom is a countercyclical stock – doing well when the economy has been doing badly, so its correlation and beta with the market are negative.

## Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression

- Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression is a method used to estimate the relationship between one **dependent variable** and one or more **independent variables**.
- We assume following linear model:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{ik} + \varepsilon_i \quad (11)$$

where  $y_i$  is the dependent variable,  $x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik}$  are independent variables.

- OLS chooses the coefficients  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$  so that the sum of squared differences between the actual  $y_i$  values and the predicted values  $\hat{y}_i$  is as small as possible:

$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

- By doing this, we are trying to get dependent variable  $y_i$  as a linear function of independent variables  $x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik}$ .

## Computing Beta

Beta ( $\beta_i$ ) is the slope from the following regression:

$$r_{i,t} - r_f = \alpha_i + \beta_i(r_{m,t} - r_f) + \epsilon_{i,t},$$

**i.e. regressing  $r_{i,t} - r_f$  on  $r_{m,t} - r_f$  and a constant.**

We can compute beta by taking covariances of both sides with  $r_{m,t}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, r_{i,t} - r_f] &= \text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, \alpha_i + \beta_i(r_{m,t} - r_f) + \epsilon_{i,t}] \\ \text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, r_{i,t}] &= \underbrace{\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, \alpha_i]}_{=0} + \beta_i \underbrace{\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, r_{m,t} - r_f]}_{\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, r_{m,t}]} + \underbrace{\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, \epsilon_{i,t}]}_{\text{assume} = 0} \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, \alpha_i] = 0$  since  $\alpha_i$  is constant.
- $\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, r_{i,t} - r_f] = \text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, r_{i,t}]$  since  $r_f$  is constant.

Assume  $\text{Cov}[r_{m,t}, \epsilon_{i,t}] = 0$  (standard regression assumption):

$$\beta_i = \frac{\sigma_{i,m}}{\sigma_m^2}$$

# Regression

To estimate the  $\beta$  of a stock:

## 1 Collect Data.

Let  $r_{i,t}$ ,  $r_{m,t}$ , and  $r_{f,t}$  denote historical individual security  $i$ , market, and risk-free returns respectively over some time period  $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$ .

## 2 Estimate the following regression:

$$r_{i,t} - r_{f,t} = \alpha_i + \beta_i (r_{m,t} - r_{f,t}) + \epsilon_{i,t} \quad (12)$$

## Proxies for $r_m$ and $r_f$

- For the market portfolio, a market-cap weighted stock index is used, e.g. the S&P500 index, or the CRSP value-weighted (CRSP-VW) Index.
  - ▶ Remember to make sure that your market proxy includes dividends.
- For the risk-free rate, it is common to use a 1-month T-bill for portfolio applications.
  - ▶ The 1-month T-bill is used as many portfolio applications consider rebalancing every month.

## Beta of a portfolio

The beta of a portfolio is the weighted average of the betas of its constituent assets, where the weights are the portfolio weights in those assets.

- With 2 assets:

$$\begin{aligned}
 r_{p,t} - r_f &= (w_a r_{a,t} + w_b r_{b,t}) - r_f \\
 &= w_a (r_{a,t} - r_f) + w_b (r_{b,t} - r_f) \\
 &= w_a (\alpha_a + \beta_a (r_{m,t} - r_f) + \epsilon_{a,t}) + w_b (\alpha_b + \beta_b (r_{m,t} - r_f) + \epsilon_{b,t}) \\
 &= \underbrace{(w_a \alpha_a + w_b \alpha_b)}_{\alpha_p} + \underbrace{(w_a \beta_a + w_b \beta_b)}_{\beta_p} (r_{m,t} - r_f) + \underbrace{(w_a \epsilon_{a,t} + w_b \epsilon_{b,t})}_{\epsilon_t^p}
 \end{aligned}$$

- More generally:  $\beta_p = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \beta_i$



# Example $\beta$ Estimation

## General Motors' $\beta$

Let's compute a  $\beta$  on General Motors Co (GM). To keep this transparent, we will only look at one year of data.

Month	GM Return	Market Return	T-Bill Return	GM Excess Return	Market Excess Return
Jan	6.06	7.89	0.65	5.41	7.24
Feb	-2.86	1.51	0.58	-3.44	0.93
Mar	-8.18	0.23	0.62	-8.80	-0.39
Apr	-7.36	-0.29	0.72	-8.08	-1.01
May	7.76	5.58	0.66	7.10	4.92
Jun	0.52	1.73	0.55	-0.03	1.18
Jul	-1.74	-0.21	0.62	-2.36	-0.83
Aug	-3.00	-0.36	0.55	-3.55	-0.91
Sep	-0.56	-3.58	0.60	-1.16	-4.18
Oct	-0.37	4.62	0.65	-1.02	3.97
Nov	6.93	6.85	0.61	6.32	6.24
Dec	3.08	4.55	0.65	2.43	3.90

## Regression output — estimating GM's $\alpha$ and $\beta$

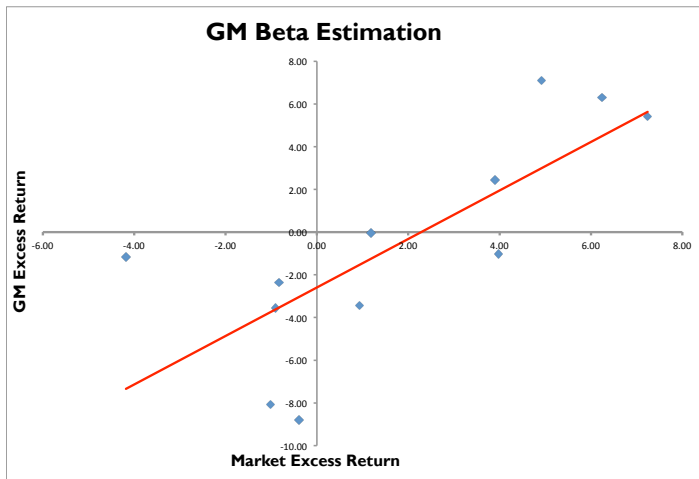
<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
Multiple R	0.7582
R Square	0.5749
Adjusted R Square	0.5324
Standard Error	3.5492
Observations	12

<i>ANOVA</i>					
	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
Regression	1	170.3797	170.3797	13.5256	0.0043
Residual	10	125.9687	12.5969		
Total	11	296.3484			

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>
Intercept	-2.5923	1.1592	-2.2363	0.0493	-5.1751	-0.0095
Beta	1.1362	0.3089	3.6777	0.0043	0.4478	1.8245

- $\hat{\beta}_{GM} = 1.14$ . The p-value on that beta is  $0.0043 < 0.05$ , so the beta is significantly positive.
- $\hat{\alpha}_{GM} = -2.59\%$ . The p-value on that alpha is  $0.0493 < 0.05$ , so the alpha is significantly negative.
- $R^2 = 0.57$ , so the market can explain 57% of the variance of GM, but there is also a lot it can't explain.

## Regression output — graphical representation



- $\alpha$  is the intercept, and  $\beta$  is the slope.
- The residuals of the regression represent the part of the returns that are not due to systematic market risk.

# $\beta$ for a New Firm

## New firm

- With no historical data, how would you estimate  $\beta$  for a new company?
- The standard industry practice is to use “comparables”.
  - ▶ Find a similar company, that is traded on an exchange, and use the  $\beta$  of that company.
  - ▶ Alternatively, use an industry  $\beta$  for the new firm.
- Here is an approach in the same spirit, but more useful in some applications:
  - ▶ Often it is tough to find a comparable firm.
  - ▶ Often firms differ a great deal within an industry.
  - ▶ Instead, let's compute a model-predicted  $\beta$  from a sample of companies with similar characteristics.

## Which characteristics?

- Industry
- Firm size
- Financial leverage
- Operating leverage
- Growth/Value (book-to-market ratio)
- and many more...

## Financial leverage and beta

- $\beta$  is shown to be positively related to firms' financial leverage.
  - ▶ How much firm borrow to run the business?
    - ★ **Financial leverage effects:** higher financial leverage tends to amplify the movement of firm return over the business cycles

	High leverage	Low leverage
<b>Equity</b>	\$10	\$20
<b>Debt</b>	\$90	\$80
<b>Investment today</b>	\$100	\$100

- ▶ Suppose loan interest rate is 1, if asset value increase by 10% tomorrow, what's the return on equity for each firm?



## Methodology

- 1 Select a sample of companies to estimate the model.
- 2 Estimate  $\beta_{i,t}$  for these companies using historical return data.
- 3 Regress estimated betas  $\hat{\beta}_{i,t}$  on several characteristics that can drive betas. For example,

$$\hat{\beta}_{i,t} = a_0 + \sum_j \gamma_j IND_{j,i} + a_1 SIZE_{i,t} + a_2 FLEV_{i,t} + a_3 OLEV_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t},$$

where  $IND_{j,i}$  is a dummy variable that takes the value 1 if firm  $i$  belongs in industry  $j$  and 0 otherwise.

- 4 Suppose you are asked to find the beta for a new company XYZ in the tech industry given XYZ's characteristics. Your estimate will then be

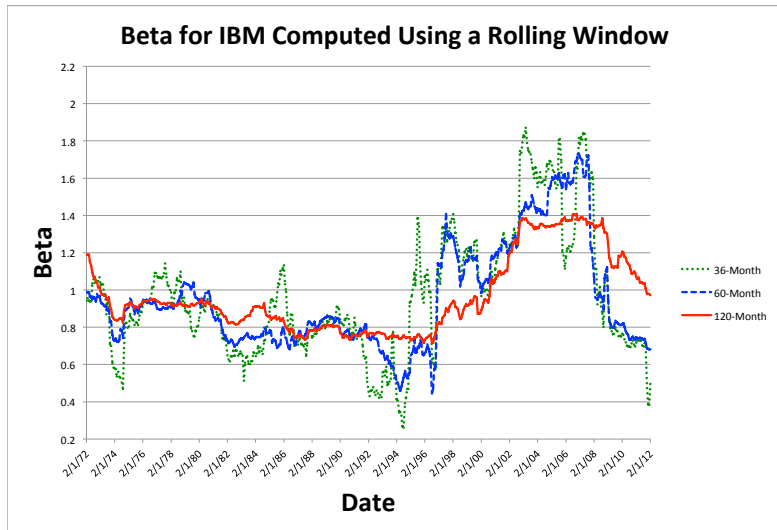
$$\hat{\beta}_{xyz,t} = \hat{a}_0 + \hat{\gamma}_{tech} + \hat{a}_1 SIZE_{xyz,t} + \hat{a}_2 FLEV_{xyz,t} + \hat{a}_3 OLEV_{xyz,t}.$$

# Rolling $\beta$ Estimation

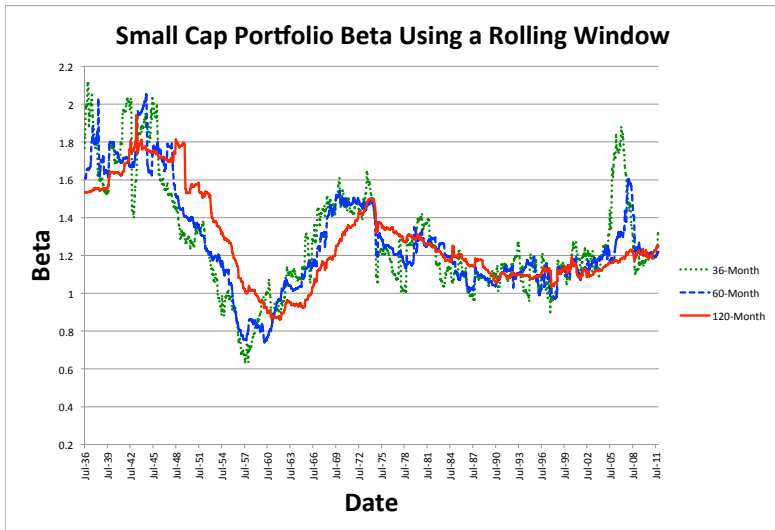
## Time-varying $\beta$

- **Betas may change over time.** That is why we typically use a 5-year window to estimate them.
- Reasons for time-varying betas:
  - ① Changes in financial leverage.
  - ② Changes in operating leverage.
  - ③ Changes in the type of a firm's operations.
  - ④ Mergers and acquisitions.
- A *rolling window* approach can be used to estimate a *time-series of  $\beta$* :
  - ▶ At month  $t$ , estimate  $\beta$  using data from months  $t - 60$  through  $t - 1$ ,
  - ▶ At month  $t + 1$ , estimate  $\beta$  using data from months  $t - 59$  through  $t$ .
- Alternatively, more sophisticated statistical models can be used that allow for time-variation in  $\beta$ .

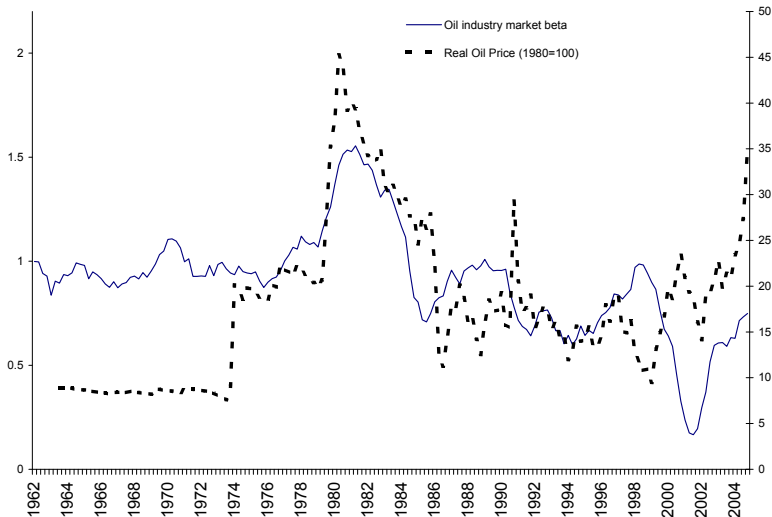
# Rolling $\beta$ for a stock



# Rolling $\beta$ for a style



# Rolling $\beta$ for an industry



# Conclusions

## Summary

- 1 In equilibrium, the tangency portfolio is the market portfolio, and investors hold only the market and the risk-free asset.
- 2 CAPM beta is a measure of systematic risk of an asset.
- 3 Betas are typically estimated by running a regression:

$$r_{i,t} - r_{f,t} = \alpha_i + \beta_i (r_{m,t} - r_{f,t}) + \epsilon_{i,t}.$$

- 4 Data restrictions and time-variation in  $\beta$  dictate how the estimation should be done. New firm  $\beta$ 's can be found by appealing to the characteristics of other similar firms.
- 5 CAPM alpha measures mis-pricing, assuming the CAPM holds.
- 6 Expected (required) return from CAPM can be used as a hurdle/discount rate when evaluating a firm's projects.



# Appendix

## Derivation of CAMP: Mean-variance analysis

- Assumptions on **investor behaviors** imply that investors are alike in most important ways, thus greatly simplify the demand side.
- Assumptions on **market structure** imply a well-functioned market in which trading behaviors ensure equilibrium to happen.
- To derive CAPM, we start from the MV analysis in the case with  $N$  risky assets and one risk-free asset
  - ▶ Investor choose weights of risky assets ( $\omega = [\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N]'$ ) and risk-free asset ( $\omega_0 = (1 - \omega' \mathbf{1})$ ) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} R^P &= \omega_0 R_f + \omega_1 R_1 + \dots + \omega_N R_N = \omega_0 R_f + \omega' R \\ &= \omega' R + (1 - \omega' \mathbf{1}) R_f = R_f + \omega' (R - R_f \mathbf{1}) = R_f + (R^e)' \omega \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

where  $\omega$  ( $N \times 1$ ) is the weights of risky assets, and

$R^e = [R_1 - R_f, \dots, R_N - R_f]'$  ( $N \times 1$ ) is the vector of excess returns

## Derivation of CAMP: Mean-variance analysis

- The **mean-variance optimization problem** is to minimize variance

$$\min_{\omega} \frac{1}{2} V \left[ R^P \right] = \min_{\omega} \frac{1}{2} \omega' \Sigma \omega \quad (14)$$

$\Sigma$  ( $N \times N$ ) is the variance-covariance matrix. For a given level of expected portfolio return

$$E \left[ R^P \right] = R_f + E \left( R^e \right)' \omega = \mu \quad (15)$$

- **Step 1:** Set up the Lagrangian with multiplier  $\lambda$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \omega' \Sigma \omega + \lambda \left( \mu - R_f - E \left( R^e \right)' \omega \right) \quad (16)$$

## Derivation of CAMP: Mean-variance analysis

- **Step 2:** Derive first order conditions

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \omega} = 0 \Rightarrow \Sigma \omega^* = \lambda E[R^e] \implies \omega^* = \lambda \Sigma^{-1} E[R^e] \quad (17)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = 0 \Rightarrow \mu = R_f + E[R^e]' \omega^* \quad (18)$$

- With optimal portfolio  $\omega^*$ , the portfolio P's variance is

$$\begin{aligned} V[R^P] &= \omega^{*'} \Sigma \omega^* \\ &= \omega^{*'} \Sigma (\lambda \Sigma^{-1} E[R^e]) \\ &= \lambda \omega^{*'} \Sigma \Sigma^{-1} E[R^e] \\ &= \lambda \omega^{*'} E[R^e] \\ &= \lambda \left( E[R^P] - R_f \right) \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

which hold for all optimal  $P$  on CML, including the tangency portfolio

## Derivation of CAMP: Mean-variance analysis

- We know that one optimal portfolio  $P$  is the tangency portfolio, let's denote it by  $M$  instead:

$$R^M = R' \omega^* \quad (20)$$

- according to equation (19), we have

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{E[R^M] - R_f}{V[R^M]} \quad (21)$$

- Now let's denote  $Cov(R, R^M)$  be the  $N \times 1$  vector of covariances of returns on all risky assets with the return on the tangency portfolio

$$\begin{aligned} Cov(R, R^M) &= Cov(R, R) \omega^* \\ &= \Sigma \omega^* \\ &= \Sigma \lambda \Sigma^{-1} E[R^e] \\ &= \lambda \Sigma \Sigma^{-1} E[R^e] \\ &= \lambda E[R^e] \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

## Derivation of CAMP: Mean-variance analysis

- For each asset  $i$ , from (22), we must have

$$\text{Cov} (R^i, R^M) = \lambda E [R^{i,e}] \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{E(R^i) - R_f}{\text{Cov} (R^i, R^M)} \quad (23)$$

- Recall from (21), for market portfolio  $M$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{E [R^M] - R_f}{V [R^M]}$$

- Equating both equations yields CAPM!

$$\frac{E(R^i) - R_f}{\text{Cov} (R^i, R^M)} = \frac{E [R^M] - R_f}{V [R^M]} \quad (24)$$

or equivalently

$$E(R^i) - R_f = \frac{\text{Cov} (R^i, R^M)}{V [R^M]} \left[ E (R^M) - R_f \right] \quad (25)$$

- This relationship is called the **Sharpe-Lintner CAPM**.

## Derivation of CAMP: Mean-variance analysis

- One last question, what is that tangent portfolio  $M$ ?
- Given above assumptions, according to MV analysis, all investors will hold (demand) the same tangent portfolio  $M$ 
  - ▶ Thus,  $M$  will be the market portfolio, the value-weighted portfolio of all assets in the investable universe (current supply of assets).
  - ▶ Demand = Supply:  $M$  is market portfolio
- Individual investors with different risk averse level will choose a different position along the CAL, but same tangent portfolio
- The market portfolio is based on the common input list, which incorporates all relevant information about the universe of securities.
- Investors can skip the trouble of doing security analysis and obtain an efficient portfolio simply by holding the market portfolio.
  - ▶ the passive strategy of investing in a market portfolio is efficient.