### Equilibrium models: the CAPM

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So far we discussed portfolio analysis based on the mean-variance principle:

- ▶ We use the expression mean-variance since we assume that investors are interested only in the average returns and variances of portfolios.
  - This assumption is good as long as returns are normally distributed.

- ➤ Some of the main lessons we learnt from the mean-variance analysis:
  - You need to have the same risky portfolio regardless of the degree of risk aversion.
    - if you want less risk, you will combine the risky portfolio with a risk-free asset.
      - if you want more risk, you will borrow (leverage).
  - In large portfolios, it is important to look at the covariance, and not at the variance.

## What are the problems with the mean-variance analysis?

- Not too many!
  - Caveat: do not forget that according to this model, you should include in your analysis all assets, including human capital, real estate, etc.
- ► However, the Markowitz model does not say anything about the **origin of prices, returns, variances, covariances**, etc.
- In this sense, Markowitz is a partial equilibrium model.
- Now we want to consider an **equilibrium model** that let us understand how prices are determined in an efficient market. This is model is the capital asset pricing model, or simply **CAPM**.

#### Markowitz vs. CAPM I

- ► Mean-variance analysis selects a portfolio, *given* expected returns and the covariances.
- In practice, we need a large number of estimates!
- ➤ Since estimating expected returns is not easy, it would be useful to have a model that tells us what *they should be*.

#### Markowitz vs. CAPM II

- ► The CAPM is an equilibrium model that establishes a relationship between expected returns and covariances for all assets.
  - In equilibrium, all investors are happy of their portfolio holdings, and do not want to change them (this is the meaning of equilibrium model).
  - Note how the Markowtiz portfolio model is relevant for any investor, regardless of the fact that we are in an equilibrium, or that the CAPM is correct.

## Equilibrium pricing

- ► The approach we will follow asks the following question: if all investors have an efficient portfolio, how should we price assets in order for them to be all held in equilibrium?
  - ► For example, suppose that given the price & expected return combination produced by the model, there is no investor that wants to buy the IMB stock.
  - In this case, something in the model is not working.
  - The price of the IMB stock would be too high, and the expected return it offers too low.
  - ► The price of IBM should fall to the point in which, in the aggregate, all investors are happy to hold all the existing stocks.

What kind of prices (and risk-return relationship) are possible in equilibrium?

The CAPM tries to answer to this question.

## CAPM and the empirical evidence

- ► If the CAPM holds in the data, or not, is the subject of much academic debate (we will talk about it).
- Even in the case CAPM did not hold in the data, there are several reasons to study it:
  - 1. if it is *wrong*, then it means that is possible to *beat the market portfolio*, under the assumption that we are interested in expected returns and variances.
  - furthermore, the mean-variance analysis and the CAPM provide us with a framework to study the relationship between risk & return.
- The CAPM then is the backbone of more advanced and complicated asset pricing models.

### The assumptions of the CAPM I

- We need a set of assumptions to formally derive the CAPM. Some of these can be *relaxed* without affecting results too much:
  - 1. No transaction costs.
  - 2. All assets are tradable and infinitely divisible.
  - 3. There are no taxes.
  - 4. All investors are *price takers*, and no one can directly influence the price of a stock.
  - 5. Investors consider only means and variances.
    - returns are normally distributed.
    - all investors have a quadratic utility.
  - There are no constraints with respect to short-sales, or borrowing.
  - Expectations are homogenous (i.e., all investors have same expectations).

## The assumptions of the CAPM II

- Note how assumptions 5 → 7 imply that all investors solve the same optimization problem and face the same efficient frontier.
- Therefore, you can think of a model with a representative investor.

### Tw-fund separation theorem

What did we learn from the solution of the optimal (passive) portfolio?

- All investors hold a linear combinations of two portfolios:
  - the risk-free asset,
  - the tangency portfolio.
- If all investors look at the same CAL, then all investors have the same tangency portfolio!

## CAPM and the tangency portfolio I

- What is the tangency portfolio?
  - 1. Markowitz: investors should hold the tangency portfolio.
  - 2. Equilibrium theory (market clearing):
    - the risk-free asset is in zero-supply: in other words, in the aggregate, lending and borrowing must cancel out.
    - the average investor must hold the market portfolio.
  - 3. CAPM: the tangency portfolio **must be the market portfolio**.

## CAPM and the tangency portfolio II

- ▶ What do we mean by "market portfolio"?
  - ► The market portfolio (or aggregate wealth portfolio) is a portfolio that includes all assets in proportions to their relative value (with respect to the total value).
  - ► This portfolio is the sum of stocks, bonds, real-estate, human capital, etc.

### What about individual assets?

► The CAL of the CAPM is also called CML, or capital market line: it describes optimal combinations of risk and return as follows:

$$E(r_e) = r_f + \left(\frac{E(r_m) - r_f}{\sigma_m}\right)\sigma_e,$$

where with  $r_e$  we denote the return of any *efficient* portfolio, and with  $r_m$  the return on the market portfolio.

#### The CML

- Note how the CML implies that all investors should exclusively hold combinations of the market portfolio and the risk-free asset.
- What can we say about inefficient portfolios (or about individual assets)? What can we say about their equilibrium expected return?

## Equilibrium portfolio model I

Investors will want to keep an asset in their portfolio only if it provides an additional return in exchange of the contribution to portfolio risk.

### Equilibrium portfolio model II

- Preview: For each asset, the quantity of risk contributed to the portfolio will be exactly equal to the contribution in terms of expected return.
- ► Therefore, the ratio between marginal return and marginal variance must be the same for each asset.
  - ► The contribution in terms of expected return is equal to the expected excess return.
  - ► The contribution in terms of risk is proportional to the covariance with the portfolio return.
  - This is the fundamental intuition for the standard CAPM formula, that relates the so called asset- $\beta$  and expected return.

#### Portfolio variance and covariances I

► How does variance change if we add a little bit of a stock to the market portfolio?

$$\sigma_m^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N w_i w_j cov(r_i, r_j)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N w_i [\sum_{j=1}^N w_j cov(r_i, r_j)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N w_i cov(r_i, [\sum_{j=1}^N w_j r_j]).$$
vw mkt return

where the vw mkt return is the value-weighted market return (i.e., weights are the relative market cap).

#### Portfolio variance and covariances II

► Therefore, what matters to determine the marginal increase in risk when we modify the quantity invested in a individual stock is the covariance with the portfolio return.

#### Useful results: moments of combinations I

- Constants come out of expectations and expectations of sums are equal to sums of expectations.
- ▶ If c and d are numbers:

$$E(c \times R^{a}) = c \times E(R^{a}),$$
  
$$E(R^{a} + R^{b}) = E(R^{a}) + E(R^{b}).$$

More in generally:

$$E[c \times R^a + d \times R^b] = c \times E(R^a) + d \times E(R^b).$$

### Useful results: moments of combinations II

▶ Variance of sums works like taking a square:

$$var(cR^a + dR^b) = c^2 var(R^a) + d^2 var(R^b) + 2 \times cd \times cov(R^a, R^b).$$

Covariances work linearly:

$$cov(cR^a, dR^b) = cd \times cov(R^a, R^b).$$

#### Formal derivation of the CAPM

- 1. Under our assumptions, all investors must hold the market portfolio.
- Given our definition of equilibrium, all investors must be happy of their portfolios. If not, prices should adjust accordingly.
- This means that in equilibrium no one can do anything to increase the Sharpe ratio of his/her portfolio.

#### Semi-Formal derivation of the CAPM I

Suppose that you currently hold the market portfolio, and that you decide to invest a **small additional quantity** of funds equal to  $\delta_{GM}$  in the GM stock, and that you finance your purchase at the risk-free rate.

#### Semi-Formal derivation of the CAPM II

1. The return is then:

$$r_c = r_m - \delta_{GM} r_f + \delta_{GM} r_{GM}$$
.

2. Expected return and variance are:

$$E(r_c) = E(r_m) + \delta_{GM}(E(r_{GM}) - r_f)$$
  
$$\sigma_c^2 = \sigma_m^2 + \delta_{GM}^2 + 2\delta_{GM}cov(r_{GM}, r_m)$$

3. The variation  $(\Delta)$  in these two quantities is equal to:

$$\Delta E(r_c) = \delta_{GM}(E(r_{GM}) - r_f)$$
  
$$\Delta \sigma_c^2 = 2\delta_{GM}cov(r_{GM}, r_m),$$

where we ignored  $\delta_{GM}^2$ , since it is a very small number for small values of  $\delta_{GM}$ .

#### Semi-Formal derivation of the CAPM III

What happens if we invest  $\delta$  additional funds in GM and a little less in IBM so that we leave the portfolio variance unchanged?

### Semi-Formal derivation of the CAPM IIII

1. The change in variance is equal to:

$$\Delta\sigma_c^2 = 2(\delta_{GM}cov(r_{GM}, r_m) + \delta_{IBM}cov(r_{IBM}, r_m)).$$

2. In order for this change to be equal to zero:

$$\delta_{IBM} = -\delta_{GM}(\frac{cov(r_{GM}, r_m)}{cov(r_{IBM}, r_m)}).$$

3. In this case, the variation in the portfolio expected return is:

$$\Delta E(r_c) = \delta_{GM} E(r_{GM} - r_f) + \delta_{IBM} E(r_{IBM} - r_f)$$

$$= \delta_{GM} [E(r_{GM} - r_f) - E(r_{IBM} - r_f) (\frac{cov(r_{GM}, r_m)}{cov(r_{IBM}, r_m)})]$$

# Marginal benefit = marginal cost

- Recall that the investor holds the market portfolio, which is also the tangency portfolio.
- ► This portfolio has the highest Sharpe ratio among all the possible portfolios.
- ► Therefore, by definition, we cannot increase the expected return, by keeping variance constant. For this to be true:

$$\frac{E(r_{GM}) - r_f}{cov(r_{GM}, r_m)} = \frac{E(r_{IBM}) - r_f}{cov(r_{IBM}, r_m)} = \lambda.$$

 $\lambda$  denotes the ratio between marginal benefit and marginal cost.

## The security market line

- This result holds also for a portfolio of assets, not only for individual stocks.
- Let's use the market portfolio in place of the IMB stock:

$$\frac{E(r_{GM}) - r_f}{cov(r_{GM}, r_m)} = \frac{E(r_m) - r_f}{cov(r_m, r_m)} = \frac{E(r_m) - r_f}{\sigma_m^2} = \lambda,$$

this means that:

$$E(r_{GM}) - r_f = \frac{E(r_m) - r_f}{\sigma_m^2} cov(r_{GM}, r_m)$$

$$= (E(r_m) - r_f) \underbrace{\frac{cov(r_{GM}, r_m)}{\sigma_m^2}}_{\beta_{GM}}$$

This is the formal representation of the SML, or security market line.

#### SML vs. CML

- Every stock lies on the SML (in the plane expected return-beta).
- Only the market portfolio and the risk-free asset, and the linear combinations of the two, are on the CML (in the plane expected return-standard deviation).
- The SML represents return vs. systematic risk.
- The CML represents return vs. total risk (systematic + non-systematic).

### To sum-up I

- By the definition of tangency portfolio, investors are not able to get a higher Sharpe ratio by combining the tangency portfolio with any other assets.
- This constraint implies a linear relationship between the equilibrium return of an asset, and its  $\beta$  with respect to the tangency portfolio

$$E(r_i) - r_f = [E(r_T) - r_f]\beta_i$$

### To sum-up II

- ► The CAPM states that the equilibrium tangency portfolio *is* the market portfolio.
- One possible interpretation of this result is that the excess return of asset i,  $E(r_i) r_f$ , must be equal to the quantity of priced risk  $\beta$  times the market price of risk  $E(r_M) r_f$ .

# Statistical interpretation of an asset eta

We can interpret  $\beta$  as a linear regression coefficient (OLS):

Consider the following regression equation:

$$r_i^e = \alpha_i + \beta_i r_m^e + \epsilon_i.$$

The OLS slope coefficient is:

$$\beta_i = \frac{cov(r_i^e, r_m^e)}{\sigma_m^2},$$

which is equivalent to the relationship we have derived earlier.

# Systematic vs. idiosyncratic risk I

- The fraction of  $r_i^e$  that is explained by the market return is  $\beta_i r_m^e$ :  $\rightarrow$  this quantity represents the systematic (or also "market", or "aggregate") risk of an asset.
- ▶ The fraction that *is not explained* is instead  $\epsilon_i$ :  $\rightarrow$  this part represents the "specific", or "idiosyncratic" risk, of an asset.

# Systematic vs. idiosyncratic risk II

- ▶ We have learnt that we can decompose total variance in:
  - 1. the systematic component  $\beta_i^2 \sigma_m^2$ .
  - 2. the idiosyncratic component  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2$ .

## Food for thought

- ► The CAPM implies that *only* the systematic component is priced.
- Why don't investors look at non-systematic risk?
- ▶ What is the interpretation of the  $R^2$  in the CAPM regression?

#### Some definitions and clarifications

- ► In the CAPM framework, diversification and idiosyncratic risk can be confused. In fact, it is usually possible to find two definitions:
  - 1. A well diversified portfolio will have the minimum possible variance for a given level of expected return.
    - ALL minimum variance portfolios on the frontier are well diversified according to this definition.
    - ► These portfolios might also have idiosyncratic risk, defined as risk that is not correlated with the aggregate market.
  - 2. A well diversified portfolio will have zero idiosyncratic risk, or  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2=0$ .
    - ONLY the market portfolio (and the combinations of this latter portfolio with the risk-free asset, i.e., all portfolios on the CAL) is well diversified according to this second definition.

#### Deviations from CAPM

- ▶ What is the interpretation of  $\alpha_i$  according to the CAPM?
- $\triangleright$   $\alpha_i$  represents deviations from the SML.
- For example,  $\alpha_i > 0$  denotes the situation when a stock offers a return that is higher than the equilibrium return, for a given level of systematic risk.
- Therefore,  $\alpha_i$  are pricing errors (or anomalies): if you believe the model is correct, than these are signals which drive your investment strategies.