Topic 7: The Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)

Overview

•	Implications	of Portfolio	Theory
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- The CAPM
- The Security Market Line and the Capital Market Line
- Estimating Beta and testing the CAPM
- Stock Performance Evaluation
- CAPM, Arbitrage and the APT

Implications of Portfolio Theory

- We have seen that all investors hold combinations of the tangency portfolio with borrowing or lending at the risk-free rate.
- -Very risk-averse people put a high weight on the risk-free asset.
- -Less risk-averse people place more weight on the tangency portfolio.
- As a group, investors put some money in the risk-free asset and some money in the tangency portfolio.

This is total demand for assets.

Implications of Portfolio Theory (Cont'd)

• Let the <u>total supply</u> of risky asset j equal $P_j s_j$, where P_j is the price of one share and s_j is the number of shares.

The total supply of all risky assets equals

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} P_{j} S_{j}$$

• This big portfolio of all risky assets is called the <u>market portfolio</u>, or more precisely, the <u>market portfolio of all risky assets</u>.

The weight of asset *k* in the market portfolio is

$$w_k = \frac{P_k S_k}{\sum\limits_{j=1}^{N} P_j S_j}$$

Implications of Portfolio Theory (Cont'd)

• Market equilibrium means total demand=total supply. Since all investors hold the same portfolio of risky assets, this must be the market portfolio.

Key implication: In equilibrium, the tangency portfolio is the market portfolio.

• Example: If the market portfolio has 1% GM, then the tangency portfolio has 1% GM.

If the tangency portfolio has less than 1% GM, then demand for GM < supply of GM. Thus, the price of GM will fall, reducing GM's share of total market.

What happens to expected returns when GM's price falls?

CAPM

 Since the market portfolio is the tangency portfolio, we know from Topic 6 that the rewardto-risk ratio is the same for all risky assets in the market portfolio:

$$\frac{E(R_j) - R_f}{2Cov(R_j, R_m)}$$

where R_m =return on the market portfolio.

Since the market portfolio itself is a risky asset, the reward-to-risk ratio for the market equals the reward-to-risk ratio for all individual assets. So,

$$\frac{E(R_{j}) - R_{f}}{2Cov(R_{j}, R_{m})} = \frac{E(R_{m}) - R_{f}}{2V(R_{m})} \Longrightarrow$$

$$E(R_j) - R_f = \frac{Cov(R_j, R_m)}{V(R_m)} (E(R_m) - R_f)$$

This is the CAPM!

• The Beta of asset *j* is defined as follows:

$$\beta_{j} = \frac{Cov(R_{j}, R_{m})}{V(R_{m})}$$

Using the definition of beta,

$$E(R_{j}) - R_{f} = \beta_{j} \left(E(R_{m}) - R_{f} \right)$$

- So, CAPM says that the expected excess return on asset *j* is determined by its beta (relative to the market) and the expected excess return on the market portfolio.
- Key insight of CAPM: Beta is the relevant measure of risk for an asset.
- -What matters: how much does an asset contribute to the volatility of the market portfolio.
- -What does not matter: how volatile is a stock on its own.

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Intuition: Beta measures the sensitivity of a stock's return to returns in the market.

 If beta is high, asset is very sensitive to market movements.

What stocks have high betas?

 If beta is low, asset is not sensitive to market movements.

What stocks have low betas?

- If beta is zero, asset is uncorrelated with the market.
- If beta is negative, asset is negatively correlated with the market.

What is the expected return of negative beta stocks?

What is the beta for the "typical" stock?

To derive CAPM, we made some assumptions:

- There is a riskless asset and people can borrow or lend at this rate.
- Investors have mean-variance preferences.
- All assets are traded.
- Investors have a 1-period horizon.
- There are no transactions costs.
- Investors have identical information and beliefs.

Many of these can be relaxed.

Uses of CAPM.

Portfolio evaluation

How well has a portfolio or stock performed?

Valuation of stocks (Topic 8)

What is the right stock price?

Capital budgeting (Topic 10)

How can you evaluate a risky project?

CAPM gives the rate to discount expected cash flows.

The SML and the CML

• The <u>Capital Market Line</u> (CML) plots the relationship between the expected return and standard deviation for frontier portfolios:

$$E(R) = R_f + \frac{E(R_m) - R_f}{\sigma(R_m)} \sigma(R)$$

The CML holds only for frontier portfolios!

Key point about CML: The market portfolio lies on the CML.

• Recall <u>Fact # 1</u>: Riskier indices carry a higher average return than safer ones.

This follows because well-diversified portfolio (i.e. indices) lie on (or near) the CML.

The SML and the CML (Cont'd)

• The <u>Security Market Line</u> (SML) plots the relationship between expected return and beta:

$$E(R_{i}) = R_{f} + \beta_{i} (E(R_{m}) - R_{f})$$

This relationship holds for all assets.

• SML says that for individual stocks (e.g. assets *not* on the Portfolio Frontier), expected return depends on its contribution to variance of the market portfolio.

This explains <u>Fact #2</u>: The relationship between volatility and risk for individual stocks is much less apparent.

Estimating Beta and Testing CAPM

We can always write excess returns as follows:

$$R_{j} - R_{f} = \alpha_{j} + \beta_{j}(R_{m} - R_{f}) + \varepsilon_{j}$$

So, excess returns are the sum of three things:

- A constant (α_j)
- The <u>systematic part of the return</u> $(\beta_j(R_m-R_f))$. This is the part of the return that is perfectly correlated with the excess return on the market.
- The <u>idiosyncratic part of the return</u> (ε_i). This is the part of the return that is uncorrelated with the excess return on the market.

That is:

$$E(\varepsilon_{j}) = 0$$

$$Cov(R_{m}, \varepsilon_{j}) = 0$$

What does CAPM imply about α_i?

To compute beta, estimate the following with a <u>linear regression:</u>

$$R_{j} - R_{f} = \alpha_{j} + \beta_{j}(R_{m} - R_{f}) + \varepsilon_{j}$$

This regression model is called the <u>market</u> model.

• We do not know α_j and β_j , but we can estimate them from historical data on R_j , R_m and R_f .

$$b_{j} = \frac{\overline{Cov(R_{j} - R_{f}, R_{m} - R_{f})}}{s^{2}(R_{m} - R_{f})}$$

$$a_{j} = (\overline{R_{j}} - \overline{R_{f}}) - b_{j}(\overline{R_{m}} - \overline{R_{f}})$$

• In practice, use excess returns in the market model. (Does not matter in theory.)

 The market model allows you to decompose the total return variability as follows

$$R_{j} - R_{f} = \alpha_{j} + \beta_{j} (R_{m} - R_{f}) + \varepsilon_{j} \Longrightarrow$$

$$V(R_{j}) = \beta_{j}^{2} V(R_{m}) + V(\varepsilon_{j})$$

 The variance decomposition allows us to define idiosyncratic and systematic risk, as follows

IdiosyncraticRisk =
$$\sigma(\varepsilon_j)$$

SystematicRisk = $\beta_j \sigma(R_m)$

 These can be estimated from the market model regression as

$$IdiosyncraticRisk = s(e_j)$$
$$SystematicRisk = b_j s(R_m - R_f)$$

Here are some estimates of Beta using monthly data (1967-1998):

		Sample	Sample	CAPM
		Std.	Mean	Expected
		Dev. of	Excess	Excess
	Beta	Return	Return	Return
Duke Pow.	0.54	5.43%	0.42%	0.29%
Exxon	0.73	5.03%	0.79	0.39
IBM	0.85	6.74%	0.33	0.45
GM	0.90	6.87%	0.35	0.48
Coke	0.91	6.38%	1.03	0.48
Goodyear	1.10	9.17%	0.60	0.58
Boeing	1.29	9.87%	1.06	0.68
Disney	1.36	9.04%	1.39	0.72
United	1.47	12.02%	0.78	0.78
"Market"	1.00	4.62%	0.53	0.53

Problems testing CAPM...

• The return on the "market" is not observable.

Best proxy: Value-Weighted Return on NYSE/Amex/NASDAQ stocks

Weight on asset *k*:

$$W_k = \frac{P_k S_k}{\sum_{j=1}^N P_j S_j}$$

where N is the number of stocks trading on NYSE/Amex/NASDAQ.

- -What about international stocks?
- -What about non-traded assets?
- -What about bonds?

More problems testing CAPM...

• Betas and expected excess return on market may change over time.

Is IBM the same today as it was in the 1970s?

- We do not observe true beta, only an estimate.
- Unanswered questions:

What determines risk-free rate?

What determines expected excess return on market?

Bottom line on CAPM

CAPM Says

- (1) Expected Excess Return increase linearly with Beta
 - -True
- (2) With a slope equal to market risk premium
 - -False. Too flat.
- (3) And nothing else matters...
 - -False. Size and Book-to-Market (15.433).

Stock Performance Evaluation

 Suppose we estimate the market model regression for asset j:

$$R_{j} - R_{f} = \alpha_{j} + \beta_{j}(R_{m} - R_{f}) + \varepsilon_{j}$$

CAPM says α_{j} =0, but an individual stock may do better or worse than its expected return over any given period of time.

Thus, the estimate of α_j over a period (a_j) of time represents how well (or badly) a stock performed relative to CAPM expectations.

CAPM says

$$\alpha_{j} = E(R_{j} - R_{f}) - \beta_{j} E(R_{m} - R_{f}) = 0$$

But, in any sample...

$$a_{j} = (\overline{R_{j}} - \overline{R_{f}}) - b_{j}(\overline{R_{m}} - \overline{R_{f}})$$

...can be greater or less than zero.

a_i is called <u>Jensen's Alpha</u> for stock j.

Stock Performance Evaluation (Cont'd)

 Suppose you want to evaluate well-diversified portfolios, like mutual funds.

Best fund is the one closest to the Portfolio Frontier.

The Tangency Portfolio (Market) has highest Sharpe Ratio:

$$SharpeRatio = \frac{E(R_{m}) - R_{f}}{\sigma(R_{m})}$$

 So, a good mutual fund is one that has a high Sharpe Ratio estimated with historical data.

$$MeasuredSharpeRatio = \frac{\overline{R_p} - \overline{R_f}}{s(R_p)}$$

where R_p is the return on a portfolio (e.g. a mutual fund).

CAPM, Arbitrage and the APT

 We have derived CAPM as an equilibrium model based on supply and demand.

(Key assumption: People are risk averse and want to hold lowest variance portfolio for a given amount of expected return...)

What if people care about things other than variance?

• We can get an approximate version of the CAPM for <u>any preferences</u> using an arbitrage argument.

Only approximate since we are making weaker assumptions about preferences.

Market model again:

$$R_{j} - R_{f} = \alpha_{j} + \beta_{j}(R_{m} - R_{f}) + \varepsilon_{j}$$

We can derive CAPM for any asset (or portfolio) that has no idiosyncratic risk (think mutual fund) using an arbitrage argument.

Imagine such a portfolio (P). Its return is given by

$$R_p - R_f = \alpha_p + \beta_p (R_m - R_f)$$

Now, build a second portfolio by combining a position in the market portfolio and the risk-free asset, with weight β_p on the market and $1-\beta_p$ on the risk-free asset.

This portfolio's return (R_{rep})is

$$R_{rep} = (1 - \beta_p)R_f + \beta_p R_m \Longrightarrow R_{rep} - R_f = \beta_p (R_m - R_f)$$

• To avoid an arbitrage opportunity, α_p must be zero! That's CAPM.

- The Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) is a generalization of this argument.
- Consider a <u>Multi-factor return model</u>

$$R_{j} = \alpha_{j} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} b_{j,k} f_{k} + \varepsilon_{j}$$

Now, all we say is that returns are generated by K aggregate factors (systematic factors) plus an idiosyncratic factor.

 $-f_k$ is the kth aggregate risk factor, these have 0 expected value.

Analogue to R_m - R_f in CAPM.

- $-b_{j,k}$ is the "factor loading" for asset j on factor k. Analogue to Beta in CAPM.
- $-\varepsilon_j$ is the idiosyncratic part of the return.

 Assume that there exist k factor portfolios, each of which depends on just one return factor (f_k):

$$R_{fk} = E(R_{fk}) + f_k$$

 Then, APT says that for any well-diversified portfolio P, the following is true

$$E(R_p) - R_f = \sum_{k=1}^{K} b_{p,k} (E(R_{fk}) - R_f)$$

• This generalizes CAPM. The expected excess return on factor portfolios...

$$E(R_{fk}) - R_f$$

...enters just like the expected excess return on the market does in the CAPM.

The proof is the same as with 1 factor.

Example: Imagine 2 factors.

$$R_p = \alpha_p + b_{p,1} f_1 + b_{p,2} f_2$$

What is the replicating portfolio?

What is the return on the replicating portfolio?

What is the difference between the return on the portfolio (R_p) and the return on the replicating portfolio?

What does α_p equal (to avoid arbitrage)?

What if there is some idiosyncratic risk?

For most assets:

$$E(R_j) - R_f \approx \sum_{k=1}^{K} b_{j,k} (E(R_{fk}) - R_f)$$

If this did not hold, you can create a portfolio from the individual stocks and use the same arguments as before...

What the heck are these factors?

Theory says nothing...

 To apply to real life, we include factors that seem sensible.

That is, systematic economic factors that generate variation in stock returns.

- Examples
- -Interest Rate Factor: Change in T-bill Rate
- -Term Structure Factor: Return on LT bond T-bill
- -Exchange Rate Risk: Change in exchange rate
- -Production Risk: Change in forecasted GDP.
- -Inflation Risk: Change in forecasted inflation.
- -Market Risk: Return on market portfolio.

CAPM vs. APT

Advantages of APT

- Requires weak set of assumptions.
- Don't need to measure the market portfolio.

Advantages of CAPM

- We know what the relevant risk factor is.
- Results are exact. In the APT, results are approximate.

In practice, for example in capital budgeting, may be prudent to use both CAPM and APT.