Financial Econometrics

Chapter 7: Capital Asset Pricing Model

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References

- Chapter 5 of Campbell, Lo and MacKinlay (1997)
- Chapters 5 and 20 of Cochrane (2001)
- Chapters 5 and 8 of Cuthbertson and Nitzsche (2004)
- Fama E.F. and K.R. French (2004): The Capital Asset Pricing Model: Theory and Evidence, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 18, pp. 25–46.

What does CAPM imply?

- The expected return of an asset must be linearly related to the covariance of its return with the return of the market portfolio.
- CAPM quantifies risk and the reward for bearing it.

- CAPM was developed by Markowitz (1959), Sharpe (1964; Journal of Finance) and Lintner (1965; Review of Economics and Statistics).
- CAPM is a single-period model.
- The Sharpe-Linter CAPM

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \beta_{im}(E(R_m) - R_f)$$

$$\beta_{im} = \frac{Cov(R_i, R_m)}{Var(R_m)}$$
(1)

 R_i : return on asset i

 R_m : return on the market portfolio

 R_f : return on risk-free asset

• Let $Z_i = R_i - R_f$ and $Z_m = R_m - R_f$. Then, if the risk-free rate is nonstochastic, (1) becomes

$$E(Z_i) = \beta_{im}E(Z_m)$$

$$\beta_{im} = \frac{Cov(Z_i, Z_m)}{Var(Z_m)}.$$

In order to test for CAPM, regress Z_i on Z_m and see if

- (i) the intercept is zero
- (ii) β completely captures the cross-sectional variation of expected excess returns
- (iii) the market risk premium is positive.

 Betas for individual stocks are calculated by using the time series regression model

$$Z_{it} = \alpha_{im} + \beta_{im} Z_{mt} + \epsilon_{it}$$
.

 Z_{it} : realized excess return for stock i at time t.

 Z_{mt} : realized return for the market portfolio at time t (e.g., S&P 500 index, KOSPI index, Hangseng Index, etc.)

- Betas for individual stocks are typically reported in Web pages for stocks. Higher betas implies higher level of sensitivivity of stocks to market movements.
- The CAPM can be used to compute expected stock returns. This works only when the CAPM provides a good description of the data.

- There are N risky asset returns denoted by an $N \times 1$ vector R.
- $E(R) = \mu_R$ and $Var(R) = E(R \mu)(R \mu)' = \Omega_R$ (Ω_R is called the variance-covariance of the random vector R).

Notation

- ω_a : $N \times 1$ vector of portfolio weights for an arbitrary portfolio a with weights summing to one
- Mean of the portfolio with weights ω_a : $\mu_a = \omega_a' E(R) = \omega_a' \mu_R$
- Variance of the portfolio with weights ω_a : $\sigma_a^2 = \omega_a' \Omega_R \omega_a$
- Covariance between any two portfolios a and b : $\omega_a'\Omega_R\omega_b$

No risk-free asset

• Portfolio p is the minimum-variance portfolio of all portfolios with mean return μ_p if its portfolio weight vector (ω_p) is the solution to the following constrained optimization:

$$\min_{\omega} \omega' \Omega_R \omega$$

subject to

$$\omega' \mu_R = \mu_p;$$
 $\omega' i = 1 (i = [1, ..., 1]').$

No risk-free asset

• The solution of this problem¹ is

$$\omega_p = g + h\mu_p$$

where g and h are $N \times 1$ vectors

$$g = \frac{1}{D} \left[B(\Omega_R^{-1} i) - A(\Omega_R^{-1} \mu_R) \right]$$

$$h = \frac{1}{D} \left[C(\Omega_R^{-1} i) - A(\Omega_R^{-1} \mu_R) \right]$$

and
$$A=i'\Omega_R^{-1}\mu_R$$
, $B=\mu_R'\Omega_R^{-1}i$, $C=\mu_R'\Omega_R^{-1}\mu_R$ and $D=BC-A^2$.



¹This can be solved by the Lagrangian approach.

ullet For a given μ_{p} , letting $R_{p}=\omega_{p}^{\prime}R$ and $\sigma_{p}^{2}=\mathit{Var}(R_{p})$,

$$\sigma_{p}^{2} = E(\omega_{p}'R - \omega_{p}'\mu_{R})(\omega_{p}'R - \omega_{p}'\mu_{R})'$$

$$= \omega_{p}'\Omega_{R}\omega_{p}$$

$$= \frac{C\mu_{p}^{2} - 2A\mu_{p} + B}{BC - A^{2}}.$$
(2)

Plotting this in the space of (σ, μ) , we obtain mean-variance frontier. The MV frontier is the locus of the minimum variance for a given expected return.

No risk-free asset

• Minimizing (2) with respect to μ_p gives $\mu_p = A/C$. This means that the global minimum variance is attained when

$$\mu = A/C = \frac{i'\Omega_R^{-1}\mu_R}{C} = \left(\frac{1}{C}\Omega_R^{-1}i\right)'\mu_R.$$

This implies the weights of the global minimum variance portfolio is

$$\omega_{g} = \frac{1}{C}\Omega_{R}^{-1}i$$

and its variance is

$$\sigma_g^2 = \omega_g' \Omega_R \omega_g = \frac{1}{C^2} i' \Omega_R^{-1} i = \frac{1}{C},$$

because $i'\Omega_R^{-1}i'=C$ that is derivable from $i'\omega_g=1$.

No risk-free asset

• For each minimum-variance portfolio p, except the global minimum-variance portfolio g, there exists a unique minimum-variance portfolio that has zero covariance with p (called zero-beta portfolio with respect to p). This can be proven using the fact p and op correspond to the two solutions of equation (2).

With a risk-free asset

Now introduce a risk-free asset.

• Given a risk-free asset with return R_f , consider the problem of choosing the minimum-variance portfolio with expected return μ_p . That is, we consider the contrained optimization problem

$$\min_{\omega} \omega' \Omega_R \omega$$

subject to

$$\omega' \mu_R + (1 - \omega' i) R_f = \mu_p; \ (i = [1, ..., 1]').$$

 The resulting solution is the optimal portfolio for risky assets. The weight for the risk-free asset is obtained from this.

With a risk-free asset

The solution is

$$\omega_p = \frac{\mu_p - R_f}{(\mu_R - R_f i)' \Omega_R^{-1} (\mu_R - R_f i)} \times \Omega_R^{-1} (\mu_R - R_f i)$$
$$= c_p \times \bar{\omega}.$$

- ullet This shows that weights for the risky assets are proportional to $\bar{\omega}$.
- ullet If only risky assets are owned, we should have $i'\omega_q=1.$ Thus, the portfolio should be

$$\omega_q = \frac{\Omega_R^{-1}(\mu_R - R_f i)}{i' \Omega_R^{-1}(\mu_R - R_f i)}.$$

This is called the tangency portfolio.



With a risk-free asset

• An investor can allocate his fund between risk-free and risky portfolio ω_q . Given the optimal portfolio ω_q for risky assets and the risk-free asset with return R_f , the asset return of the combined portfolio is

$$R_p = (1 - x)R_f + xR_q$$

which gives

$$\mu_p = (1 - x)R_f + x\mu_q \tag{3}$$

and

$$Var(R_p) = x^2 Var(R_q). (4)$$

Equation (4) gives

$$x = \frac{\sigma_p}{\sigma_a}$$
.

Plugging this into equation (3), we obtain

$$\mu_p = R_f + \left(\frac{\mu_q - R_f}{\sigma_q}\right) \sigma_p.$$

With a risk-free asset

- All efficient portfolios lie along the line from the risk-free asset through portfolio q.
- Portfolio q is a fixed bundle of risky assets held by all investors regardless of their preferences. Hence, it is called the market portfolio.
- Straight line connecting R_f and q and going beyond is called the capital market line (CML).

With a risk-free asset

- Investor preferences determine where they will reside along the CML. Risk-averse investors will locate themselves in between R_f and q. Risk-loving investors will go beyond q.
- An extreme investor who does not want any risk will reside at point R_f .
- For any portfolio a, $\frac{\mu_a R_f}{\sigma_a}$ is called the Sharpe ratio. It measures the expected excess return per unit risk or it is the price of risk.

With a risk-free asset

- $\frac{\mu_q R_f}{\sigma_q}$ is called the market price of risk.
- Portfolio q has the maximum Sharpe ratio of all portfolios of risky assets. This mean that no one will stay along the line $R_f \rightarrow a$.

Derivation of CAPM

- CAPM can be derived using the efficient set mathematics.
- Suppose that an investor decides to allocate x_i to a security i with mean return μ_i and variance σ_i^2 and $1-x_i$ to the market portfolio q. This portfolio's expected return is

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mu_p & = & x_i \mu_i + (1-x_i) \mu_q; \\ \sigma_p & = & \sqrt{x_i^2 \sigma_i^2 + (1-x_i)^2 \sigma_q^2 + 2 x_i (1-x_i) \sigma_{iq}}. \end{array}$$

Derivation of CAPM

• But moving off the market portfolio is not an optimal investment strategy and thus it should be $x_i = 0$. At $x_i = 0$,

$$\frac{\partial \mu_p}{\partial \sigma_p} \mid_{x_{i=0}} = \frac{\left(\mu_i - \mu_q\right) \sigma_q}{\sigma_{iq} - \sigma_q^2}.^2$$

But this should be equal to the slope of the CML

$$\frac{\mu_q - R_f}{\sigma_q}.$$

Thus, we obtain

$$\mu_i = R_f + \frac{\sigma_{iq}}{\sigma_q^2} (\mu_q - R_f).$$

²Consider $\frac{\partial \mu_p}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial \sigma_-}$ evaluated at $x_i = 0$. Note also that $\sigma_{\vec{p}} = \sigma_{\vec{q}}$ at $x_{\vec{k}} = 0$.

Testing for a zero intercept term

• Let Z_t be an $N \times 1$ vector of excess returns for N assets at time t. According to the Sharpe-Lintner CAPM,

$$Z_t = \alpha + \beta Z_{mt} + \varepsilon_t$$

where $\alpha=0$, Z_{mt} is the time period t market portfolio excess return and ε_t is an idiosyncratic error $(\sim iid(0,\Sigma))$.

Testing for a zero intercept term

Testing for CAPM amounts to testing the null hypothesis

$$H_0: \alpha = 0.$$

Of course, this is only an aspect of CAPM.

ullet In addition, we need to know whether eta>0 and whether there are other factors that affect the expected return.

Testing for a zero intercept term

Let

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{Z} - \hat{\beta}\bar{Z}_{m};
\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} (Z_{t} - \bar{Z})(Z_{mt} - \bar{Z}_{m})}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} (Z_{mt} - \bar{Z}_{m})^{2}};
\bar{Z} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} Z_{t}; \ \bar{Z}_{m} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} Z_{mt};
\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (Z_{t} - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}Z_{mt})(Z_{t} - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}Z_{mt})'.$$

Testing for a zero intercept term

• Wald statistic for H_0 : $\alpha = 0$ is defined by

$$\begin{split} J &=& \hat{\alpha}'[\mathit{Var}(\hat{\alpha})]^{-1}\hat{\alpha} \\ &=& T\left[1+\frac{\bar{Z}_m^2}{\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^T(Z_{mt}-\bar{Z}_m)^2}\right]^{-1}\hat{\alpha}'\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}\hat{\alpha}. \end{split}$$

• When T is large, $J \sim \chi^2(N)$.

Testing for a zero intercept term

- There are other types of tests available (cf. Campbell, Lo and MacKinlay).
- Time series empirical evidence is not favorable to CAPM as shown in Table 5.3 of Campbell, Lo and MacKinlay.

Evidence based on the cross-sectional regression

 Figure 20.8 of Cochrane (2001, p.436) plots returns and betas of 10 portfolios of NYSE stocks sorted by size, and those of portfolios made up of corporate bonds and long-term government bonds.

Evidence based on the cross-sectional regression

- We find:
 - (i) Portfolios with higher average returns have higher betas as CAPM predicts.
 - (ii) The smallest firms seem to earn an average return a few percentage points too high given their betas (small-firm effect).
 - (iii) The long-term and corporate bonds have mean returns in line with their low betas, despite their standard deviations nearly as high as those of stocks.

Fama and MacBeth's cross-sectional regression

 Fama and MacBeth (1973; Journal of Political Economy) consider using cross-sectional regressions. Assume that the betas are known.
 Then, at time t,

$$Z_{t} = \gamma_{ot}i + \gamma_{1t}\beta_{m} + \eta_{t}, (t = 1, ..., T),$$

where Z_t is the $N \times 1$ vector of excess asset returns for time period t, i is an $N \times 1$ vector of ones and β_m is the the $N \times 1$ vector of CAPM betas.

Fama and MacBeth's cross-sectional regression

- First, run cross-section regressions T times and get $\{\hat{\gamma}_{ot}, \hat{\gamma}_{1t}\}_{t=1}^T$.
- Second, defining $\gamma_0 = E[\gamma_{0t}]$ and $\gamma_1 = E[\gamma_{1t}]$, test the null hypotheses $H_0: \gamma_0 = 0$ and $H_0: \gamma_1 > 0$ by using the t-ratios based on $\{\hat{\gamma}_{ot}, \hat{\gamma}_{1t}\}_{t=1}^T$.
 - Fama and MacBeth report results supporting CAPM.
- Problems cited for the Fama-MacBeth approach are
 - (i) unknown betas
 - (ii) unobservability of market portfolio.

Capital budgeting and CAPM

Capital budgeting

- Suppose that a company is considering new projects that will provide cash streams. The projects will be financed by equities only.
- The question is which projects should be pursued and which should not be.
- If a project provides a cash stream which has positive present value, it should be pursued.
- When calculating the present value, many companies in the real world use the discount rate that is implied by CAPM.
- Why? The expected return implied by CAPM is the opportunity cost of equity.

Capital budgeting and CAPM

Capital budgeting

Example

A company's expected return calculated by CAPM is 16.495%. A new project will provide cash \$14 million next year, while its cost is \$10 million. The present value of the project is

$$\frac{14}{1 + 0.16495} - 10 = 2.0177.$$

The calculation shows that this project is worth pursuing.

Capital budgeting and CAPM

Capital budgeting

If a company's projects are financed by debts and preferred stocks,
 the cost of capital is easier to calculate: it is the cost of borrowing.

Example

(Weighted average cost of capital) A company's expected return calculated by CAPM is 16.495%, and the cost of borrowing for the company is 8% per annum. A new project will provide cash \$14 million next year, while its cost is \$10 million out of which \$4 million will be financed by equities and \$6 million by debt. The average cost of capital is

$$\frac{4}{6+4} \times 0.16495 + \frac{6}{6+4} \times 0.08 = 0.11398.$$

The present value of the project is

$$\frac{14}{1+0.11398} - 10 = 2.5676.$$