

## WHAT PRACTITIONERS NEED TO KNOW . . .

### . . . About Higher Moments

Mark P. Kritzman

In financial analysis, a return distribution is commonly described by its expected return and standard deviation. For example, the S&P 500 Index might have an expected return of 10 percent and a standard deviation of 15 percent. By assuming that the returns of the S&P 500 Index conform to a particular distribution, such as a normal distribution, we can infer the entire distribution of returns from the expected return and standard deviation.<sup>1</sup>

The expected value of a distribution is referred to as the first moment of the distribution and is measured by the arithmetic mean of the returns. The variance, which equals the standard deviation squared, is called the second central moment or the second moment about the mean. It measures the dispersion of the observations around the mean. The first central moment is not the mean itself, but rather zero, because central moments are measured relative to the mean.

The normal distribution is symmetric around the mean; hence, the median (the middle value of the distribution) and the mode (the most common value of the distribution) are both equal to the mean. Moreover, the normal distribution has a standard degree of peakedness. These properties of the normal distribution explain why just the mean and standard deviation are sufficient to estimate the entire distribution.

Although investment returns usually are assumed to be approximately normally distributed, this assumption is less likely to hold for very short horizons, such as one day, and for long horizons, such as several years. Moreover, certain assets and investment strategies have properties that produce nonnormal distributions over any horizon. Thus, in some cases, to estimate a return distribution, one must go beyond the first moment and the second central moment to the third central moment, which is called skewness, or the fourth central moment, which is called kurtosis.

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#### Skewness

Skewness, which is illustrated in Figure 1, refers to the asymmetry of a distribution. A distribution that is positively skewed has a long tail on the right side of the distribution and its mean is typically greater than its median, which in turn, is greater than its mode. Because the mean exceeds the median, most of the returns are below the mean, but they are of smaller magnitude than the few returns that are above the mean.

In contrast, a distribution that is negatively skewed, which is shown in Figure 2, has a long tail on the left side of the distribution, indicating that the few outcomes that are below the mean are of greater magnitude than the larger number of outcomes above the mean. Hence, the mean is typically lower than the median, which is lower than the mode.

Skewness is computed as the average of the cubed deviations from the mean and is usually measured by the ratio of this value to the standard deviation cubed; that is,

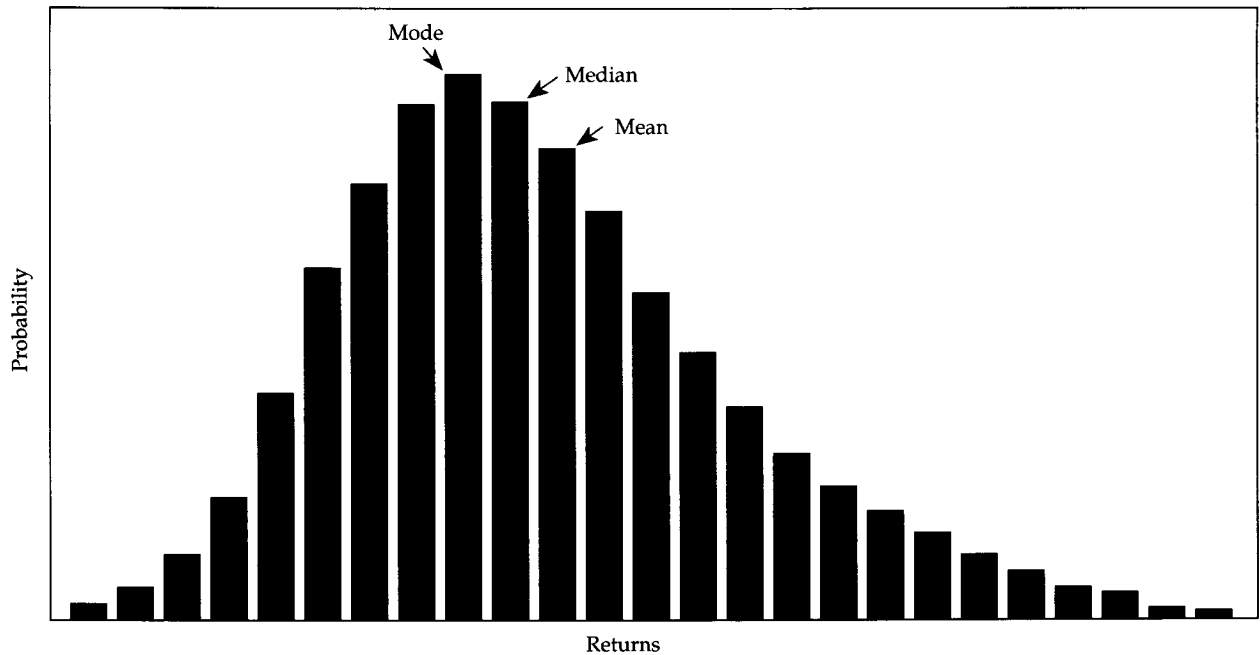
$$S = \frac{(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (R_i - \mu)^3}{\sigma^3}, \quad (1)$$

where

- $S$  = measure of skewness
- $n$  = number of returns
- $R_i$  =  $i$ th return
- $\mu$  = arithmetic mean of returns
- $\sigma$  = standard deviation of returns

The distribution of long-horizon returns that arise from compounding independent shorter horizon returns is typically skewed to the right. Suppose, for example, that we select 100 annual returns from an underlying normal distribution of returns that has a mean of 10 percent and a standard deviation of 15 percent, and suppose that we repeat this selection ten times. Hence, we generate ten samples, each consisting of 100 returns. Now, suppose we compound the returns

**Figure 1. Positively Skewed Distribution**

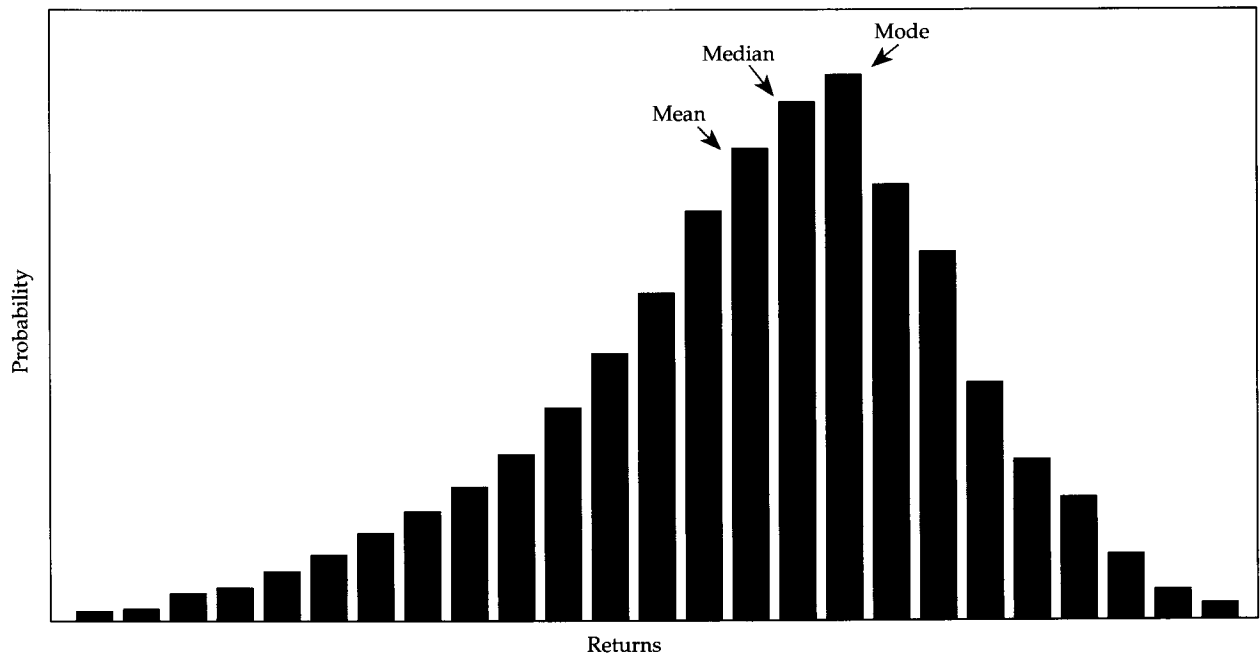


from the ten samples so that we end up with a distribution of 100 cumulative ten-year returns. Table 1 shows the results of such an experiment. The first column shows the average values of the

ten samples of annual returns, and the second column shows the values associated with the cumulative ten-year returns.

Given that the annual returns were drawn

**Figure 2. Negatively Skewed Distribution**

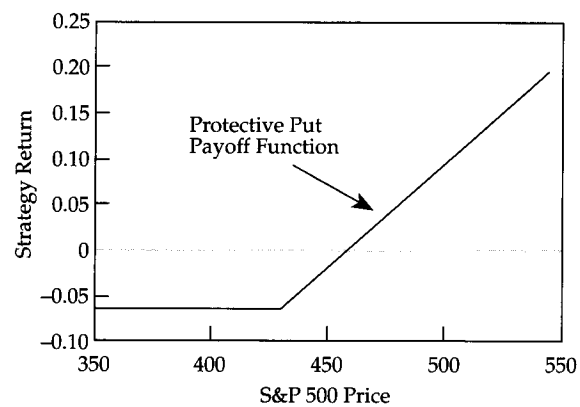


**Table 1. The Effect of Compounding on Skewness**

	Average of Ten Samples of Normally Distributed Annual Returns	Cumulative Ten-Year Returns
Mean	0.1066	1.7580
Median	0.1105	1.3211
Standard deviation	0.1496	1.3073
Skewness	-0.1163	1.3634

from a normal distribution, the average mean and the average median are not very far apart and the average skewness of the distribution is close to zero, although slightly negative. The distribution of the cumulative ten-year returns is significantly positively skewed, however. Moreover, the mean of the cumulative ten-year returns is significantly greater than the median, despite the fact that the average median of the annual samples exceeds their average mean.

The process of compounding introduces skewness because compounded favorable returns have a greater impact than compounded unfavorable returns of equal magnitude. For example, two consecutive 10 percent returns increase an asset's value by 21 percent, whereas two consecutive -10 percent returns decrease an asset's value by only 19 percent.

**Figure 3. Contingent Returns of Protective Put Strategy**

annual returns are approximately normally distributed, we can assign probabilities that the Index will equal or fall below various values. Moreover, because we can map these values precisely onto returns for the protective put strategy, we can generate the Index's probability distribution. Table 2 demonstrates this transformation.

Column 1 of Table 2 shows possible prices for the S&P 500 Index at the end of the one-year horizon. Column 2 shows the corresponding prob-







**Table 3. Jump Process Introduced by Exchange Rate Management**

Period	Market Returns	Market Exchange Rates	Regulated Returns	Regulated Exchange Rates
1	0.49%	1.0049	0.49%	1.0049
2	2.04	1.0254	1.00	1.0149
3	2.26	1.0485	1.00	1.0251
4	4.23	1.0928	1.00	1.0353
5	-3.95	1.0497	-1.00	1.0250
6	1.76	1.0682	1.00	1.0352
7	-5.11	1.0135	-1.00	1.0249
8	-3.38	0.9793	-4.45	0.9793
9	-3.67	0.9434	-1.00	0.9695
10	-0.07	0.9427	-0.07	0.9687
11	1.25	0.9545	1.00	0.9784
12	-3.12	0.9246	-1.00	0.9246
13	2.79	0.9504	1.00	0.9504
14	-3.71	0.9151	-1.00	0.9409
15	4.88	0.9597	1.00	0.9503
16	-2.81	0.9327	-1.85	0.9327
17	-1.74	0.9165	-1.00	0.9234
18	3.37	0.9474	1.00	0.9327
19	5.80	1.0023	1.00	0.9420
20	0.17	1.0040	0.17	0.9436
21	-1.80	0.9859	-1.00	0.9342
22	6.58	1.0507	1.00	0.9435
23	-1.83	1.0315	-1.00	0.9341
24	8.28	1.1170	19.58	1.1170
25	1.92	1.1384	1.00	1.1282
26	-4.54	1.0868	-1.00	1.1169
27	-9.33	0.9854	-1.00	1.1057
28	1.13	0.9965	1.00	1.1168
29	0.87	1.0052	0.87	1.1265
30	12.46	1.1304	1.00	1.1378
31	-4.76	1.0766	-1.00	1.1264
32	-4.38	1.0294	-8.61	1.0294
33	-7.57	0.9515	-1.00	1.0191
34	-5.68	0.8974	-1.00	1.0089
35	-0.57	0.8923	-0.57	1.0031
36	-0.92	0.8841	-0.92	0.9939
37	3.80	0.9177	1.00	1.0039
38	-1.12	0.9074	-1.00	0.9938
39	5.72	0.9593	1.00	1.0038
40	-0.14	0.9580	-4.56	0.9580
Kurtosis	3.25		21.52	

Although monthly currency returns are only slightly leptokurtic, daily currency returns are significantly so. This empirical tendency shows up in

**Table 4. Kurtosis of Monthly and Daily Currency Returns, January 1, 1974–December 31, 1993**

Currency	Monthly	Daily
British pound	4.20	7.03
German mark	3.23	23.80
French franc	3.67	16.43
Swiss franc	3.40	31.82
Japanese yen	3.46	106.91

other returns as well, including stock returns. This result may arise from price jumps that occur in response to the accumulated information that is released during nontrading hours, especially over weekends. As the measurement interval increases, these price jumps cancel out, which explains why monthly returns typically are less leptokurtic than daily returns.

Although the assumption that asset returns are normally distributed is convenient, in many situations, it is inappropriate. I have shown that independent returns compounded over long horizons are lognormally distributed. Moreover, op-

tion strategies and dynamic trading strategies result in skewed distributions. Finally, conditions that produce price jumps typically lead to lep-

tokurtic return distributions. The benefit of convenience may not always outweigh the cost of imprecision.

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## FOOTNOTES

1. For a more detailed discussion of this notion, see M. Kritzman, "What Practitioners Need to Know About Uncertainty," *Financial Analysts Journal* (March/April 1991):17-21.
2. We should also expect annual returns or returns of any periodicity to be lognormally distributed. Because short horizon returns are relatively small, however, they do not differ significantly from the logarithms of their wealth relatives. Thus, their true lognormal distribution is well approximated by a normal distribution.
3. For a more in-depth review of this topic, see M. Kritzman, "What Practitioners Need to Know About Future Value," *Financial Analysts Journal* (May/June 1994):12-15.