

Financial Markets I

Lecture 6: The CAPM

Master Finance & Strategy

Spring 2018

General Overview

- In Lecture 5 (*Portfolio Theory*), we studied how to choose a stock portfolio.
- In this lecture, we seek to obtain some insight on stocks' expected returns.
 - ▶ How are expected returns determined?
 - ▶ How are they related to risk?
 - ▶ What is the relevant measure of risk?
- When put in a demand/supply equilibrium context, portfolio theory delivers neat insights on expected returns and their relation to risk.

Overview of Lecture 6

1. Linear Regressions: Basic Notions.
2. Regression and Asset Returns.
3. The CAPM.
4. The CAPM's Basic Insight.
5. CML vs. SML.
6. Uses of the CAPM.

1. Linear Regressions

- Suppose we have observations for two variables X and Y , e.g.,
 - ▶ annual returns $R_{1,t}$ and $R_{2,t}$ on two stocks over time $t = 1, \dots, T$
 - ▶ firm characteristic X_i and average return \bar{R}_i over stocks $i = 1, \dots, N$.
- We can always describe the relationship between X and Y via a linear regression model of the form

$$Y = a + bX + \epsilon,$$

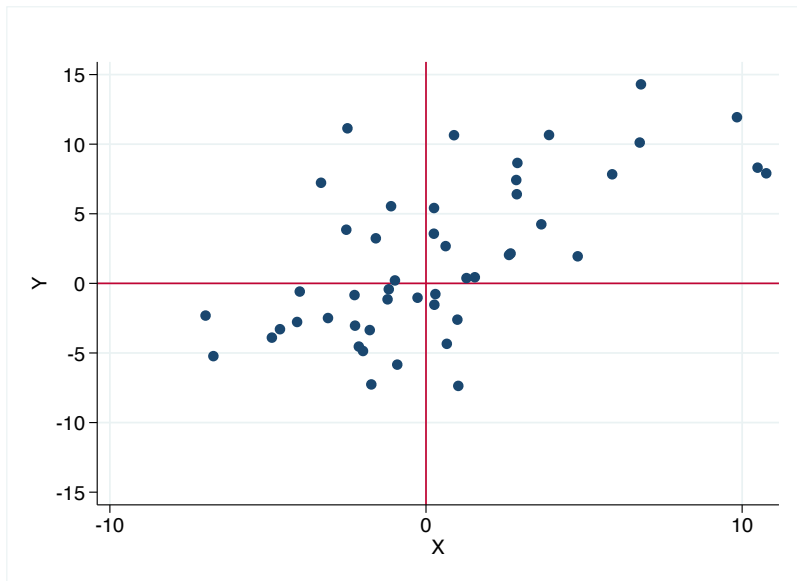
where the residual ϵ is such that $\bar{\epsilon} = 0$ and $Cov(X, \epsilon) = 0$.

- Interpretation: the variation in Y is decomposed into
 - ▶ bX : variation in Y that is “explained” by X ;
 - ▶ ϵ : variation in Y that is not “explained” by X .

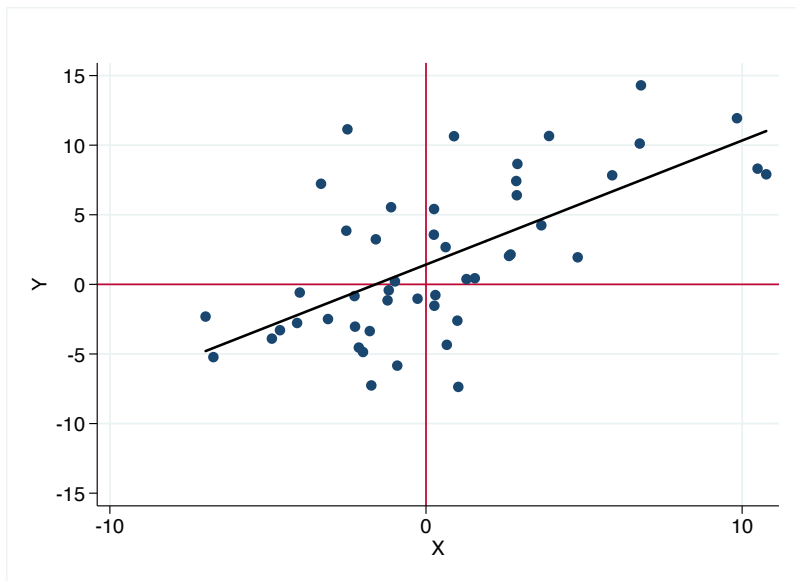
Regression Estimation

- For a given sample of observations for X and Y , the coefficients a and b can be estimated by regression analysis.
- Regression analysis:
 - ▶ We consider the scatterplot of Y vs. X (as shown next slide).
 - ▶ We fit the “best” line to the scatterplot.
 - ▶ Say that line is
$$y = a + bx.$$
 - ▶ Then a is the estimate for the ‘intercept’ coefficient, and b is the estimate for the ‘slope’ coefficient.
- This gives us a *statistical* description of the dependence of Y on X .
 - ▶ Caveat: in general, it should not be interpreted in terms of ‘causality’.

Scatterplot



Scatterplot & Regression Line



Regression Estimates

- Fact 1: the slope coefficient estimate is given by

$$b = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{V(X)}.$$

- Fact 2: The intercept coefficient is given by

$$a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X}.$$

- The residual is simply $\epsilon = Y - (a + bX)$.
- The estimation results depend on the sample statistics \bar{X} , \bar{Y} , $V(X)$, and $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$, and therefore are sensitive to the particular data sample we are using for estimation.

Regression Output

Any regression package gives a number of outputs:

- Estimate for intercept coefficient, a .
 - ▶ Standard error of estimate, s_a (measure of estimation uncertainty).
- Estimate for slope coefficient, b .
 - ▶ Standard error of estimate, s_b (measure of estimation uncertainty).
- Standard deviation of residual ϵ , $s(\epsilon)$.
- R-Square gives fraction of the variation in Y “explained” by X .

$$\text{R-Square} = \frac{V(bX)}{V(Y)} = \frac{V(bX)}{V(bX) + s(\epsilon)^2}.$$

Note: $V(Y) = V(a + bX + \epsilon) = V(bX) + V(\epsilon)$, since $\text{Cov}(X, \epsilon) = 0$.

2. Regression and Asset Returns

- Suppose we have historical return data for asset n (e.g., a stock) and the market (e.g., S&P500 index).
 - ▶ i.e., we observe $R_{n,t}$ and $R_{M,t}$ for $t = 1, \dots, T$.
- Given the riskfree rate R_f , we can compute **excess returns**:
 - ▶ excess return on asset n , $R_n - R_f$,
 - ▶ excess return on the market, $R_M - R_f$.
- We can regress the excess returns of asset n on the market excess returns. In this case,
 - ▶ Y is excess return of asset n ,
 - ▶ X is excess return on the market.

Regression and Asset Returns

- Regression equation for asset n is

$$R_n - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n(R_M - R_f) + \epsilon_n.$$

- This provides a decomposition of the ‘variation’ in asset n returns into two components:
 - ▶ $\beta_n(R_M - R_f)$ captures **systematic risk**, i.e., risk that is perfectly correlated with the ‘aggregate’ market.
 - ▶ ϵ_n captures **idiosyncratic risk**, i.e., risk that is uncorrelated with the market. By construction, $Cov(R_M - R_f, \epsilon_n) = 0$.
- Any asset is then characterized by its alpha, beta, and ‘sigma’.
 - ▶ ‘sigma’ is the standard deviation of the idiosyncratic component, $s(\epsilon)$.

Regression Example: Output

- Estimate for alpha (monthly): $\alpha = 0.29\%$.
 - ▶ Standard error of estimate $s_{\alpha} = 0.31\%$.
- Estimate for beta: $\beta = 0.94$.
 - ▶ Standard error of estimate $s_{\beta} = 0.07$.
- Idiosyncratic volatility (sigma): $s(\epsilon) = 6.17\%$.
- R-Square: 29.8%.

Beta

- Beta:

$$R_n - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n (R_M - R_f) + \epsilon_n.$$

Measures the sensitivity of asset n to market movements.

- If the return on the market portfolio is higher by 1%, then the return on asset n is higher by $\beta_n\%$ (holding all else equal).
 - ▶ The beta of a stock is typically between 0.5 and 2.
- Beta is given by

$$\beta_n = \frac{\text{Cov}(R_n, R_M)}{V(R_M)} \simeq \frac{\text{Cov}(R_n - R_f, R_M - R_f)}{V(R_M - R_f)}.$$

Alpha and Sigma

- Alpha:

$$R_n - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n(R_M - R_f) + \epsilon_n.$$

Measures the asset's attractiveness.

- Sigma:

$$R_n - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n(R_M - R_f) + \epsilon_n.$$

Sigma is the standard deviation of ϵ_n , the asset's idiosyncratic risk.

Asset volatility depends on beta and sigma. Indeed, return variance can be decomposed as follows:

$$V(R_n - R_f) = \beta_n^2 V(R_M - R_f) + V(\epsilon_n).$$

Expected (Excess) Return

- Regression equation

$$R_n - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n(R_M - R_f) + \epsilon_n.$$

- Taking expectations and using the fact that $E(\epsilon_n) = 0$, we get

$$E(R_n) - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n(E(R_M) - R_f).$$

- The expected excess return of asset n depends on
 - ▶ the asset's alpha, α_n
 - ▶ the asset's beta, β_n
 - ▶ the **market risk premium**, $E(R_M) - R_f$.
- The CAPM will yield some sharp prediction about alpha.

3. The CAPM

- The CAPM is a theoretical model which provides insight on assets' expected returns.
- Assumptions:
 - ▶ There are N risky assets and a riskless asset.
 - ▶ Short sales are allowed and costless.
 - ▶ Investors care only about mean and variance.
 - ▶ Investors have the same beliefs.
 - ▶ Investors have a one-period horizon.

Asset Demand

- We first consider the demand for assets.
- Recall Lecture 5: Any investor chooses a portfolio on the portfolio frontier (CML).
- That is, any investor holds a combination of the tangent portfolio and the riskless asset.
 - ▶ Very risk-averse: Portfolio closer to riskless asset.
 - ▶ Not very risk-averse: Portfolio closer to tangent portfolio, or even above tangent portfolio.
- Investors as a group:
 - ▶ Hold a combination of tangent portfolio and riskless asset.

Supply: The Market Portfolio

- The **market portfolio** is the value-weighted portfolio of the N risky assets.
- Let P_n denote the price per share and s_n the total number of shares. The market value (market capitalization) of asset n is $P_n s_n$.
 - ▶ Total market capitalization is $\sum_{i=1}^N P_i s_i$.
- The weight of asset n in the market portfolio is

$$w_n = \frac{P_n s_n}{\sum_{i=1}^N P_i s_i}.$$

- The return on the market portfolio is $R_M = \sum_{n=1}^N w_n R_n$.
- The 'market risk premium' is the expected excess return of the market portfolio:

$$E(R_M) - R_f = \left(\sum_{n=1}^N w_n E(R_n) \right) - R_f = \sum_{n=1}^N w_n (E(R_n) - R_f).$$

Market Equilibrium

- Equilibrium: demand equals supply.
- Therefore, in equilibrium,

The Tangent portfolio must coincide with the Market portfolio.

- Example:
 - ▶ Suppose that GE has a weight of 0.7% in the tangent portfolio, whereas it has a weight of 1% in the market portfolio.
 - ▶ Supply of GE exceeds demand \Rightarrow the price of GE has to fall.
 - ▶ As a result:
 - Weight of GE in market portfolio decreases.
 - Weight of GE in tangent portfolio increases (higher expected return).
 - ▶ The price falls until weights become equal.

Towards the CAPM Equation

- Recall from Lecture 5 that any portfolio P on the CML is such that the ratio

$$\frac{E(R_n) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_n, R_P)}$$

is independent of the particular asset n .

- In equilibrium, the market portfolio coincides with the tangent portfolio, which is on the CML.
- Therefore, the ratio

$$\frac{E(R_n) - R_f}{\text{Cov}(R_n, R_M)}$$

is equal across all assets n .

Towards the CAPM (cont'd)

- This observation implies there exists some value λ such that for all asset n

$$E(R_n) - R_f = \lambda \text{Cov}(R_n, R_M).$$

An asset's expected return is proportional to its covariance with the market.

- A simple argument shows that (see proof next slide)

$$\lambda = \frac{E(R_M) - R_f}{V(R_M)}.$$

- Therefore, for any asset n

$$\begin{aligned} E(R_n) - R_f &= \frac{E(R_M) - R_f}{V(R_M)} \text{Cov}(R_n, R_M) \\ &= (E(R_M) - R_f) \times \frac{\text{Cov}(R_n, R_M)}{V(R_M)}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof: The “Price of Covariance Risk”, λ

- We know that there exists a value λ such that for any asset n

$$E(R_n) - R_f = \lambda \text{Cov}(R_n, R_M).$$

- Premultiplying by w_n , the weight of asset n in the market portfolio, and summing over all assets, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^N w_n (E(R_n) - R_f) &= \lambda \sum_{n=1}^N w_n \text{Cov}(R_n, R_M) \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^N w_n E(R_n) - \left(\sum_{n=1}^N w_n \right) R_f &= \lambda \text{Cov} \left(\sum_{n=1}^N w_n R_n, R_M \right) \\ \Rightarrow E(R_M) - R_f &= \lambda \text{Cov}(R_M, R_M) = \lambda V(R_M). \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore

$$\lambda = \frac{E(R_M) - R_f}{V(R_M)}.$$

The CAPM Equation

- Using the definition of the beta of asset n

$$\beta_n = \frac{\text{Cov}(R_n, R_M)}{V(R_M)},$$

we obtain the main CAPM prediction:

$$\begin{aligned} E(R_n) - R_f &= (E(R_M) - R_f) \times \beta_n \\ \text{i.e., } E(R_n) &= R_f + \text{MRP} \times \beta_n. \end{aligned}$$

- Recall that the regression equation implies that

$$E(R_n) - R_f = \alpha_n + \beta_n(E(R_M) - R_f).$$

The CAPM predicts that $\alpha_n = 0$.

4. Key Insights from the CAPM

- The CAPM says

$$E(R_n) - R_f = (E(R_M) - R_f) \times \beta_n.$$

- An asset's expected return depends on the asset's risk
 - ▶ through the asset's beta (systematic risk),
 - ▶ and not through the asset's sigma (idiosyncratic risk).
- Key insight:

Systematic risk is “priced” in the market.
Idiosyncratic risk is not.

In other words:

The relevant measure of asset risk
is beta and not the variance.

Intuition

- Suppose that an asset has **positive beta**. The CAPM implies that it has higher return than the riskless asset on average, $E(R_n) - R_f > 0$.
 - ▶ Intuition: The asset earns a higher expected return in compensation for the fact that it increases portfolio risk.
- Suppose that an asset has **zero beta**. The CAPM implies that its average return is equal to R_f , the rate of return on the riskless asset.
 - ▶ Intuition: The asset's risk is only idiosyncratic and can be diversified. The asset does not contribute to portfolio risk.
- Suppose that an asset has **negative beta**. The CAPM implies that it has lower return than the riskless asset on average.
 - ▶ Intuition: The asset reduces portfolio risk, i.e., provides insurance.

Linearity

- The CAPM says

$$E(R_n) = R_f + (E(R_M) - R_f) \times \beta_n,$$

and implies that an asset's expected return depends on risk only through beta.

- It also implies that the asset's expected excess return is linear in beta.
- For instance, if beta is 2, then the asset's expected excess return is twice the market risk premium.

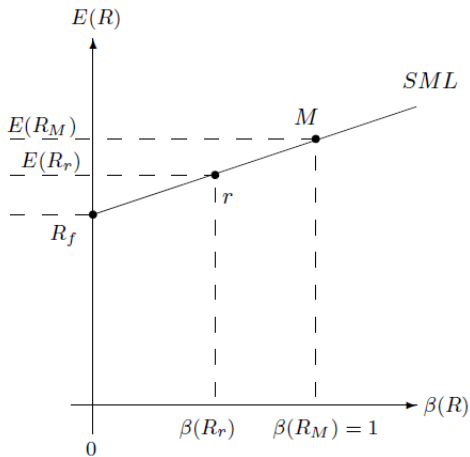
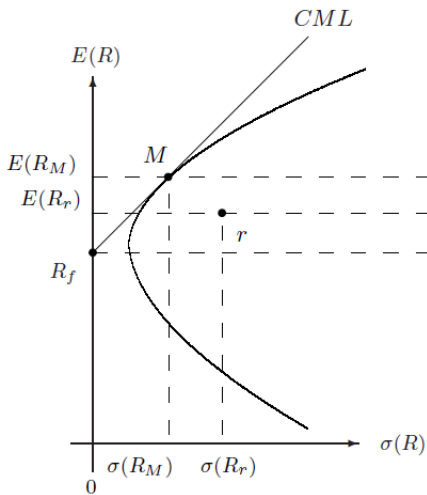
5. Summary: CML vs. SML

- The Capital Market Line (**CML**)
 - ▶ is in the standard deviation/expected return space.
 - ▶ contains all frontier portfolios (and only those).

According to CAPM, the tangent portfolio coincides with the market portfolio ($T = M$).

- The Security Market Line (**SML**)
 - ▶ is in the beta/expected return space.
 - ▶ represents expected return as function of beta (according to the CAPM) for all securities and portfolios.

CML vs. SML



6. Uses of the CAPM

- The CAPM provides a simple way to compute **risk-adjusted discount rate**.
- This is useful when we want to evaluate a stream of *risky* cashflows.
 - ▶ Valuation of stocks (Lecture 7).
 - ▶ Valuation of firms' investments (Corporate Finance).
- The CAPM also provides a useful **benchmark** to
 - ▶ Spot attractive investment opportunities.
 - ▶ Evaluate the performance of mutual fund managers.

Key insight: return performance needs to be adjusted for beta risk.