

Module 2: Portfolio Theory

(BUSFIN 4221 - Investments)

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The Ohio State University

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Outline

Overview

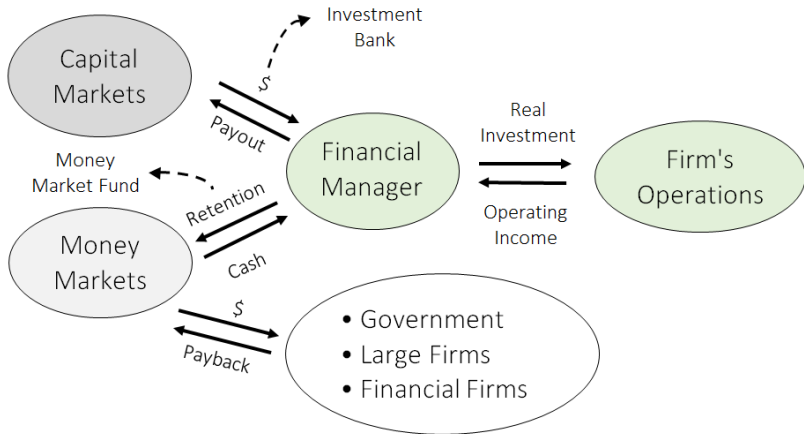
The Statistics of Security Returns

The Efficient Frontier

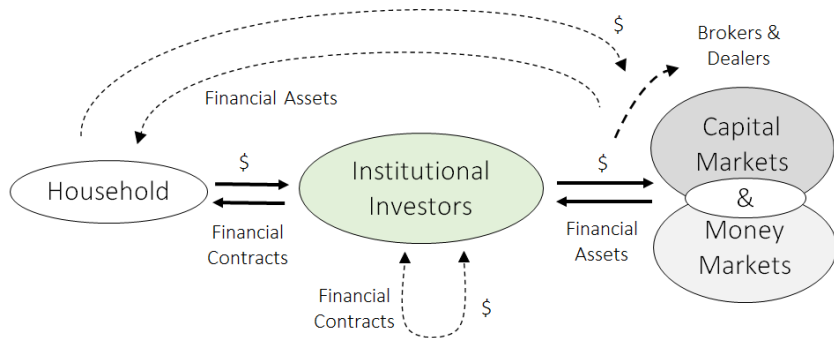
Capital Allocation Line

Index Models

Module 1 - The Demand for Capital



Module 1 - The Supply of Capital



Module 1 - Investment Principle

$$PV_t = \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}_t [CF_{t+h}]}{(1 + dr_{t,h})^h}$$

This Module: Creating a Portfolio



Outline

Overview

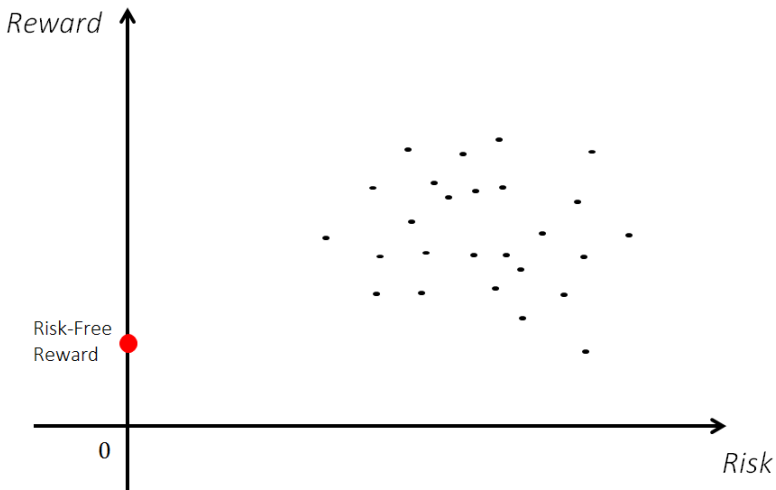
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This Section: Defining Risk and Reward



Measuring Performance: Returns

$$r_t = \frac{(P_t + CF_t) - P_{t-1}}{P_{t-1}}$$
$$= \underbrace{\frac{(P_t - P_{t-1})}{P_{t-1}}}_{\text{Capital Gain}} + \underbrace{\frac{CF_t}{P_{t-1}}}_{\text{Yield}}$$

- Arithmetic average return (or simple “average return”):

$$\frac{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_T}{T}$$

- Geometric average return:

$$\sqrt[T]{(1+r_1)(1+r_2)\dots(1+r_T)}$$

Measuring Performance: Returns

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Measuring Performance: Annual Returns

- A return of 1% in the previous month is not comparable with a return of 12% in the previous year. We need to fix the time period of different returns to make them comparable
- The effective annual rate, ear_t , does that for you:

$$ear_t = (1 + r_t/n)^n - 1$$

- n is the number of periods in a year. For instance, $n = 1$ for annual r_t and $n = 12$ for monthly r_t

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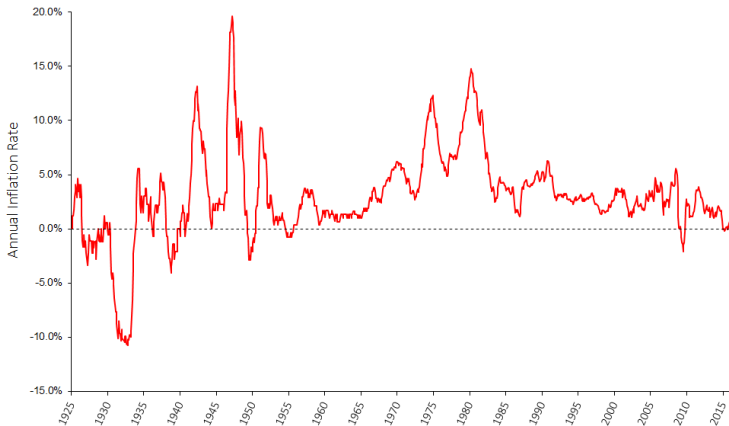
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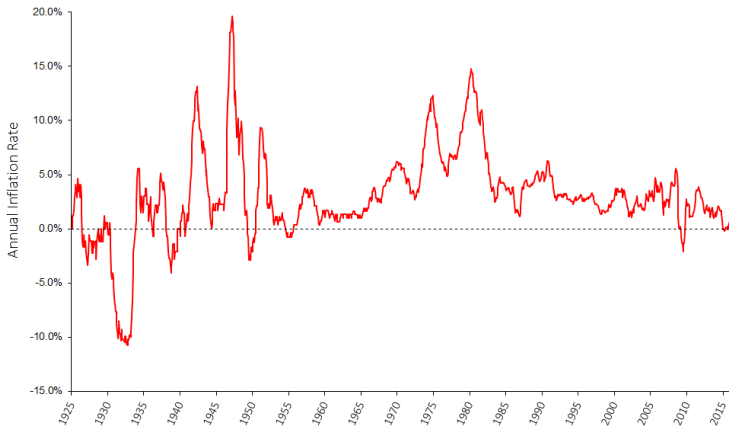
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Measuring Performance: Inflation Effect



$$1 + r_t^{real} = \frac{1 + r_t}{1 + i_t} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad r_t^{real} \cong r_t - i_t$$

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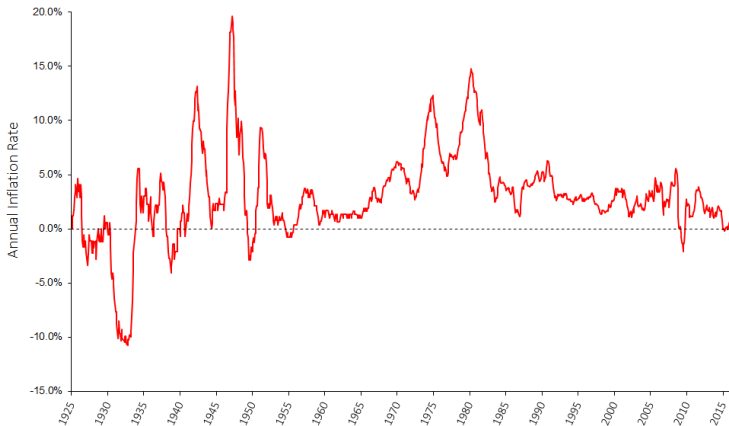


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$$1 + r_t^{real} = \frac{1 + r_t}{1 + i_t} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad r_t^{real} \approx r_t - i_t$$

Returns as a Random Variable: Indices

1\$ Invested in January of 1970



Returns as a Random Variable: $\mathbb{E}[r_t]$ and $\sigma[r_t]$

Economic Scenario Next Year (s)	$p(s)$	$r(s)$	$r(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_t]$
Very High Growth	0.15	30%	20%
Growth $> \mathbb{E}[\text{Growth}]$	0.25	20%	10%
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Growth $< \mathbb{E}[\text{Growth}]$	0.2	-5%	-15%
Recession	0.05	-40%	-50%

$$\mathbb{E}[r_t] = \sum_s p(s) \times r(s) = 10\%$$

$$\sigma[r_t] = \sqrt{\sum_s p(s) \times \{r(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_t]\}^2} = 16\%$$

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Recession	0.05	-60%	-70%

$$\mathbb{E}[r_t] = \sum_s p(s) \times r(s) = 10\%$$

$$\sigma[r_t] = \sqrt{\sum_s p(s) \times \{r(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_t]\}^2} = 26\%$$

Modeling Returns: $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$

- $\mu = \mathbb{E}[r_t]$ and $\sigma = \sigma[r_t]$
- Index simulation: I simulate r_t and use it to get future prices
- If r_t are truly normal, then only μ and σ matter (they describe entire distribution). In this case, the only measure of risk is σ
- If $r_{i,t}$ are normal, then so are portfolio returns:
$$r_{p,t} = w_1 \times r_{1,t} + w_2 \times r_{2,t} + \dots + w_N \times r_{N,t}$$
- If daily r_t are normal, annual r_t are not normal: horizon matters!

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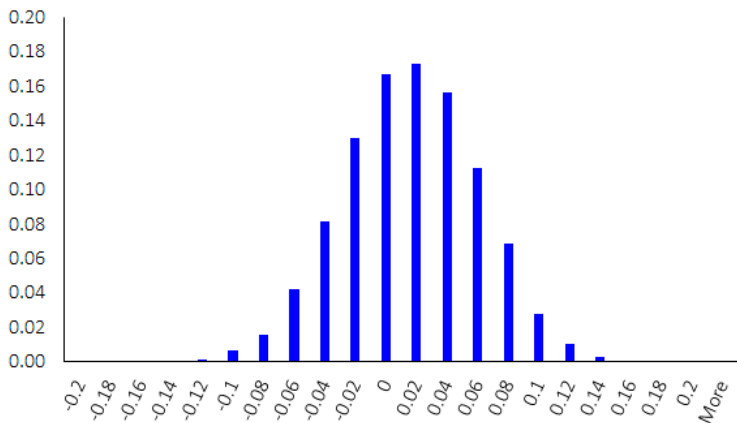
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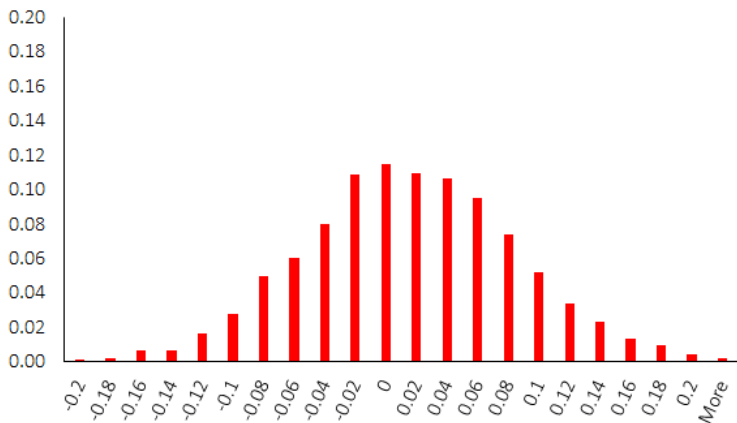
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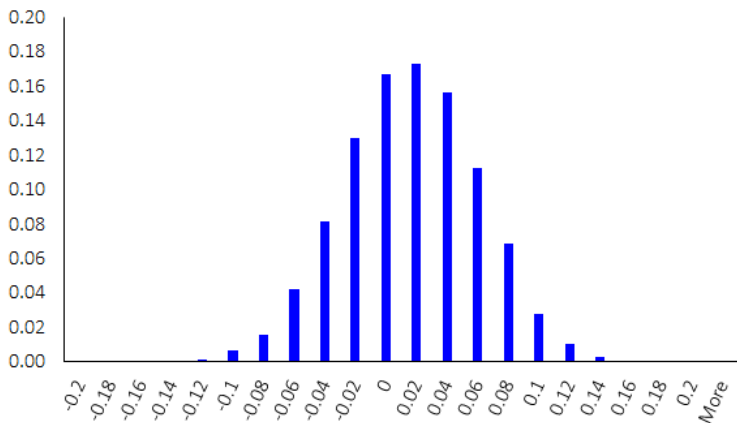
Modeling Returns: $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = 0.6\%, \sigma = 4.4\%)$



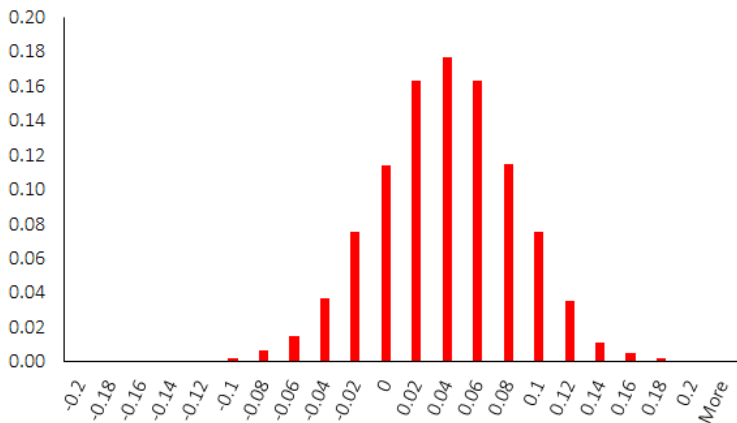
Modeling Returns: $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = 0.6\%, \sigma = 7.0\%)$



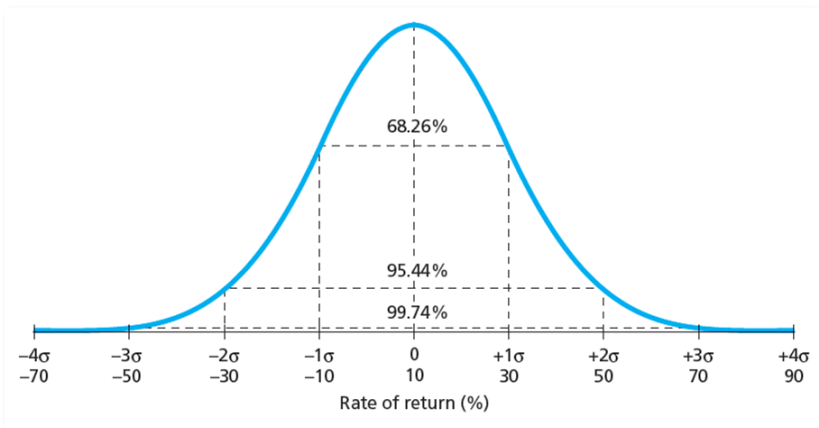
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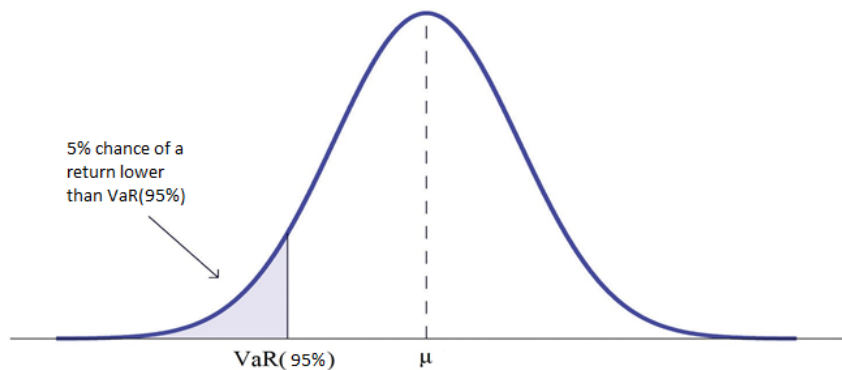
Modeling Returns: $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = 3.0\%, \sigma = 4.4\%)$



Modeling Returns: $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = 10\%, \sigma = 10\%)$

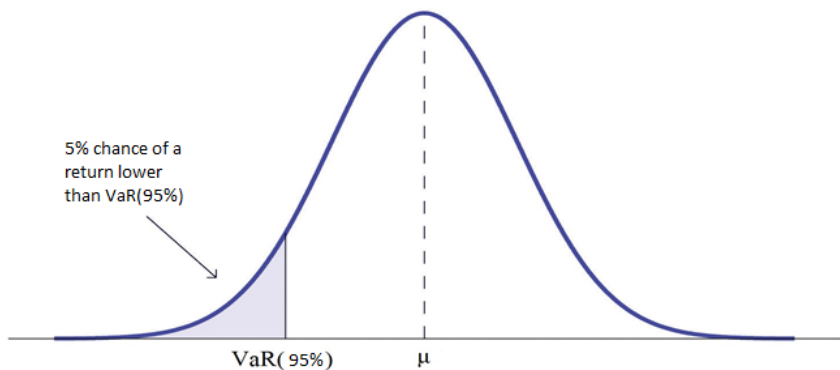


Modeling Returns: Tail Risk for Normal Returns?



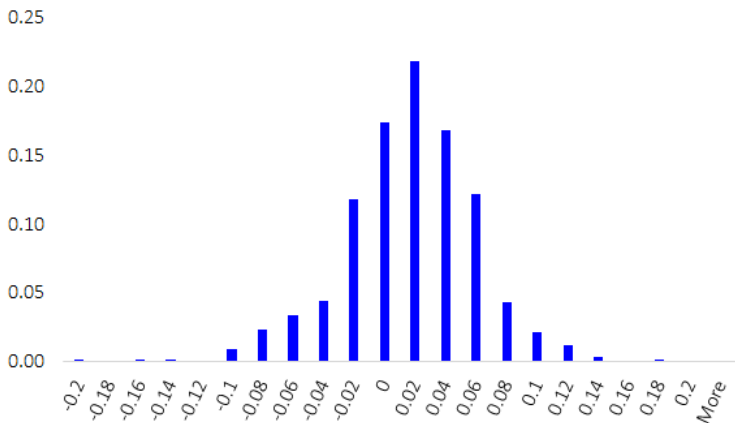
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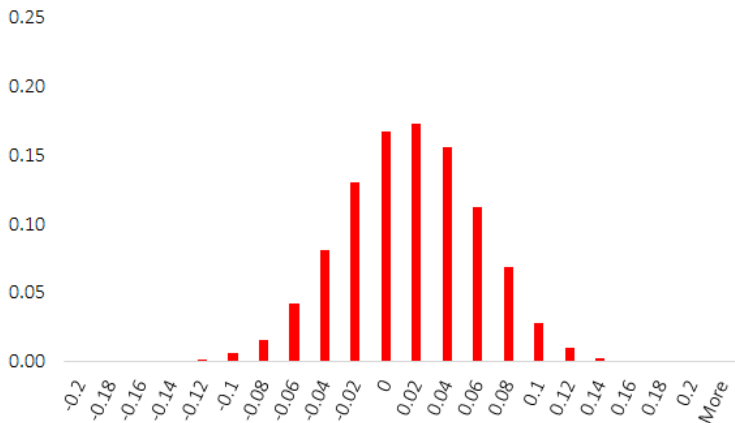


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Modeling Returns: S&P 500



Modeling Returns: $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{S\&P}, \sigma_{S\&P})$



Data: Estimating Model from Time Series of r_t

- If $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, how can we estimate μ and σ from data?

- Recall:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n r_t$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n (r_t - \mu)^2}$$

- Use each data observation as a “scenario” with equal probability:

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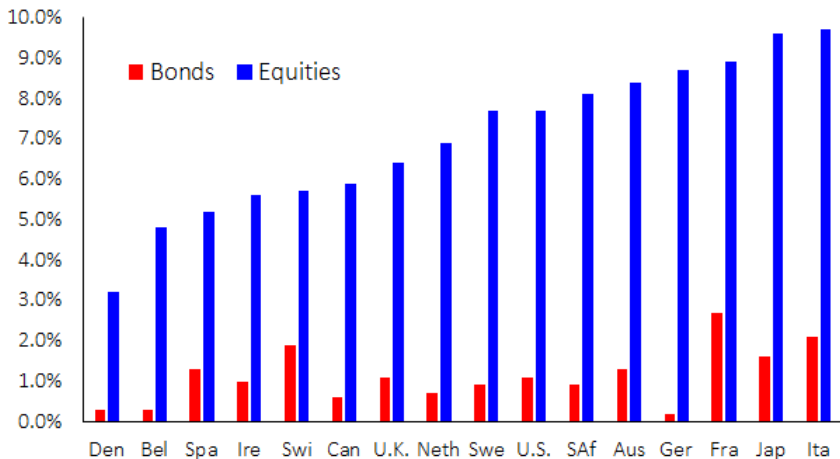
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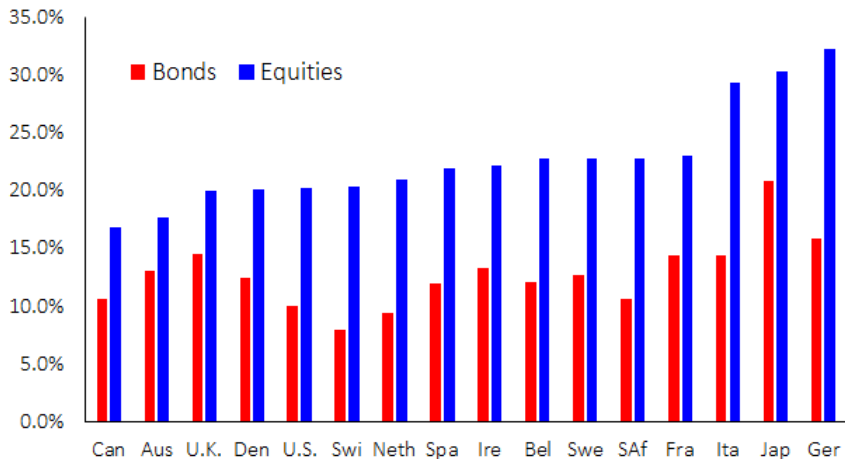
$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T-1} \times \sum_{t=1}^T \{r_t - \bar{r}\}^2}$$

Data: $(\bar{r} - \bar{r}_{TBill})$ around the World from 1900-2000



Source: Dimson et al (2002) - *Triumph of the optimists: 101 years of global investment returns*

Data: $\hat{\sigma} [r_t]$ around the World from 1900-2000



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If asset A daily r_t follow a normal distribution, then:

- a) Asset A monthly r_t also do
- b) An increase in $\sigma[r_t]$ implies an increase in the tail risk the asset
- c) Inflation does not matter for the real return on asset A
- d) The geometric average return and the average return are the same
- e) All we need to know about asset A in order to fully understand its daily returns distribution is $\sigma[r_t]$

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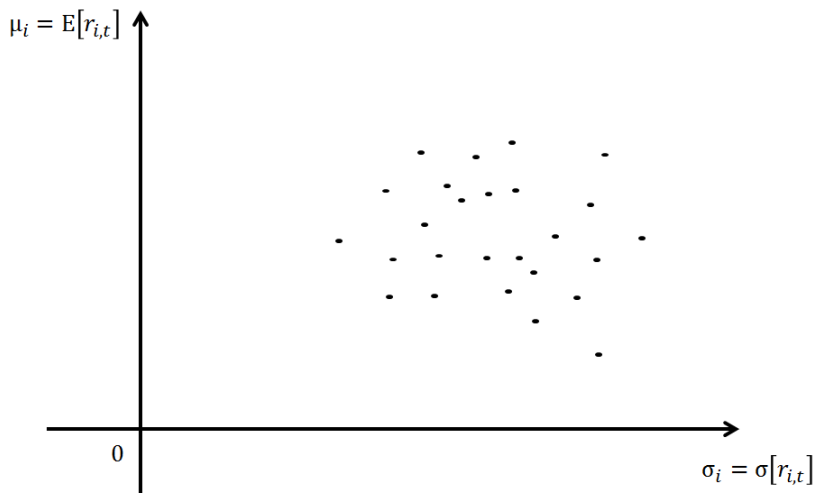
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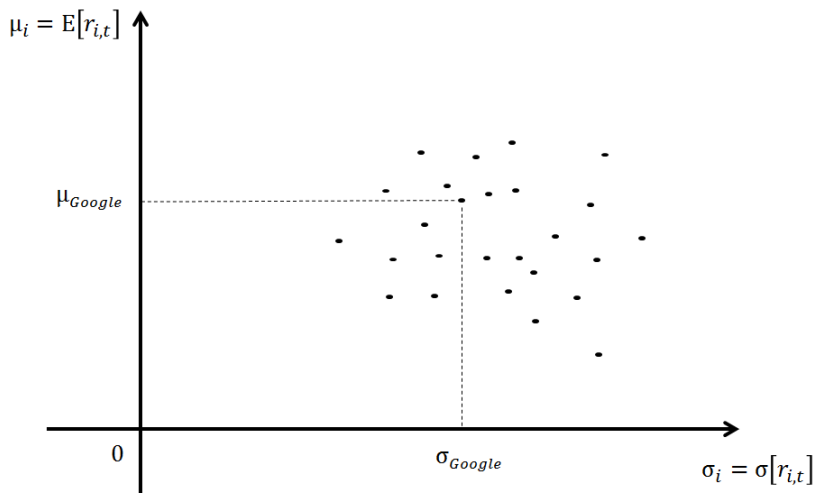
Capital Allocation Line

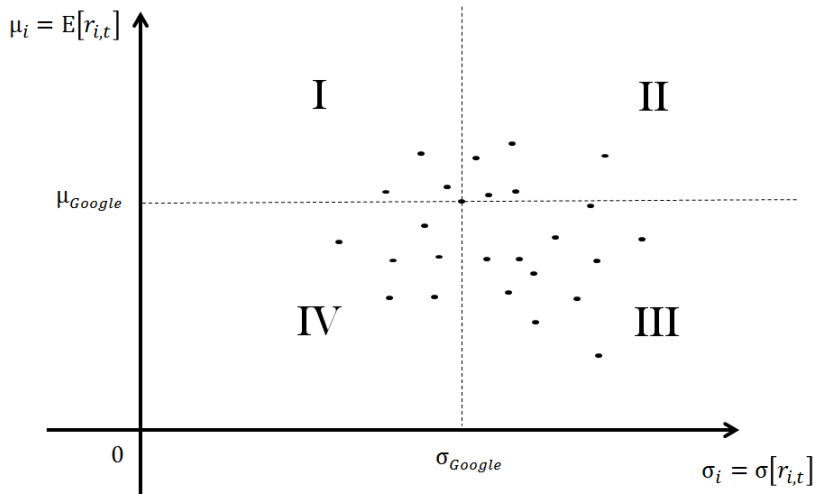
Index Models

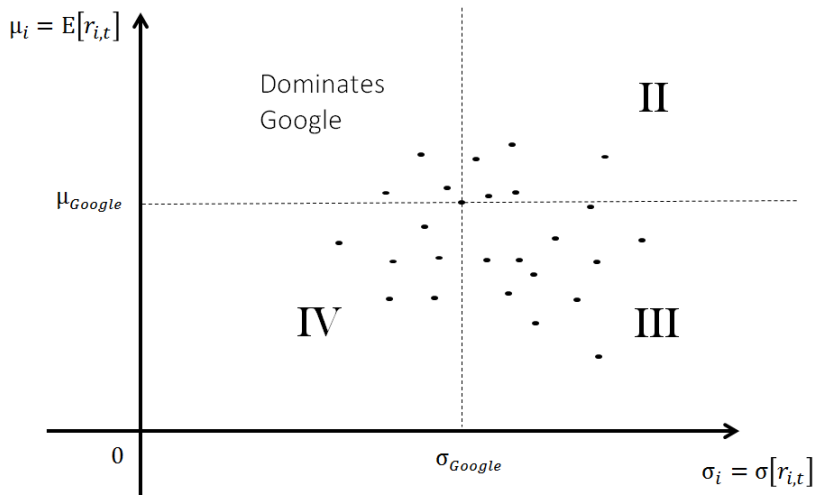
This Section: Find the “Best” Risky Portfolios

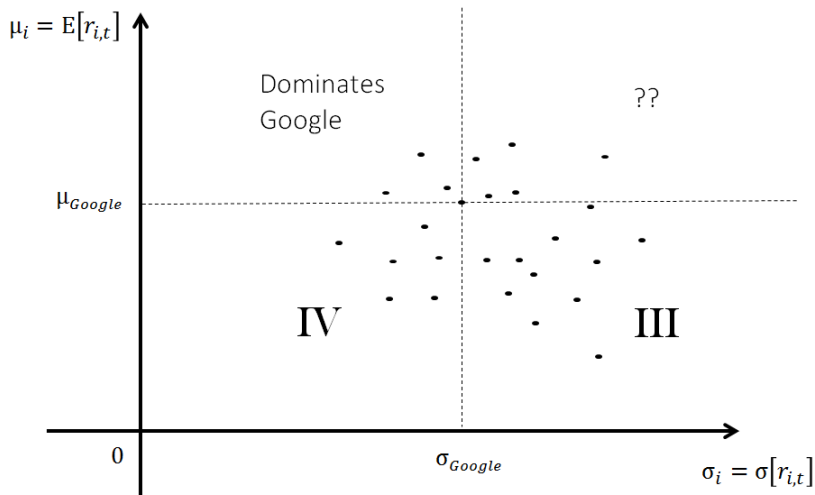


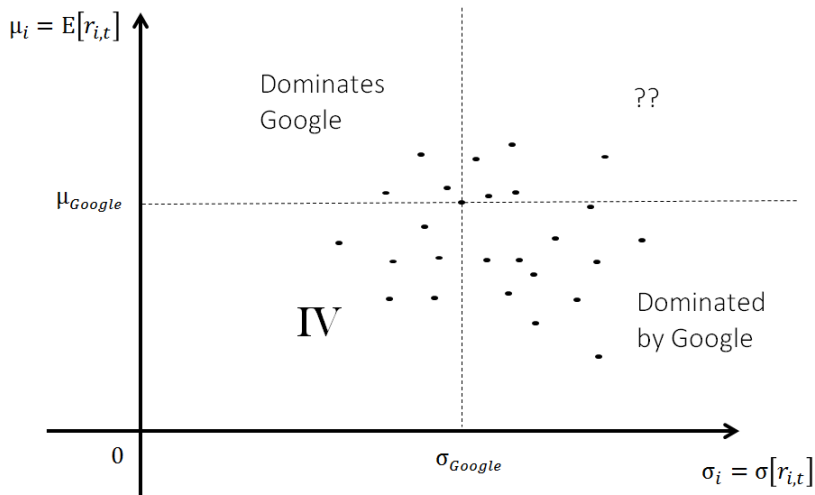
$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Principle

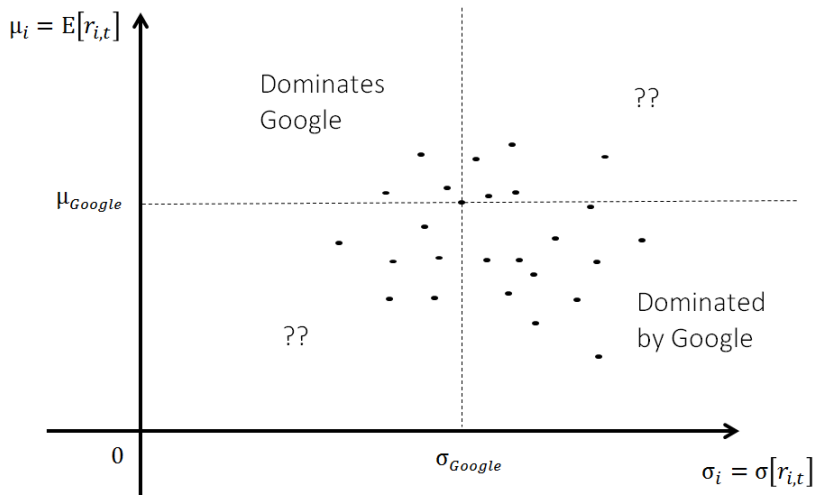
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Diversification: Basic Principle

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Diversification: Simple Example

Economic Scenario Next Year (s)	$p(s)$	r_{Equity}	r_{Gold}	$\frac{50\% - 50\%}{r_{Portfolio}}$
Very High Growth	0.15	30%	-12%	9%
Growth $> \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.25	20%	5%	13%
Growth $= \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.35	10%	15%	13%
Growth $< \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.2	-5%	20%	8%
Recession	0.05	-40%	25%	-8%
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$\mathbb{E}[r_t] =$		10%	10%	
$\sigma[r_t] =$		16%	11%	

Diversification: Simple Example

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Very High Growth	0.15	30%	-12%	9%
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$\mathbb{E}[r_t] =$		10%	10%	10%
$\sigma[r_t] =$		16%	11%	5%

Diversification: Simple Example

Economic Scenario Next Year (s)	$p(s)$	r_{Equity}	r_{Gold}	$\frac{40\% - 60\%}{r_{Portfolio}}$
Very High Growth	0.15	30%	-12%	5%
Growth $> \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.25	20%	5%	11%
Growth $= \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.35	10%	15%	13%
Growth $< \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.2	-5%	20%	10%
Recession	0.05	-40%	25%	-1%
$\mathbb{E}[r_t] =$		10%	10%	10%
$\sigma[r_t] =$		16%	11%	4%

Diversification: Simple Example

Economic Scenario Next Year (s)	$p(s)$	r_{Equity}	r_{Gold}	$\frac{50\% - 50\%}{r_{Portfolio}}$
Very High Growth	0.15	30%	-12%	9%
Growth $> \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.25	20%	5%	13%
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Diversification: Simple Example

Economic Scenario Next Year (s)	$p(s)$	r_{Equity}	r_{Gold}	$\frac{50\% - 50\%}{r_{Portfolio}}$
Very High Growth	0.15	30%	-7%	12%
Growth $> \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.25	20%	5%	13%
Growth $= \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.35	10%	15%	13%
Growth $< \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.2	-5%	26%	11%
Recession	0.05	-40%	-10%	-25%
$\mathbb{E}[r_t] =$		10%	10%	10%
$\sigma[r_t] =$		16%	11%	8%

Diversification: Covariance & Correlation

Economic Scenario Next Year (s)	$p(s)$	r_{Equity}	r_{Gold}	$(r_E - \mathbb{E}[r_E]) \times (r_G - \mathbb{E}[r_G])$
Very High Growth	0.15	30%	-7%	-0.034
Growth $> \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.25	20%	5%	-0.005
Growth $= \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.35	10%	15%	0.000
Growth $< \mathbb{E}[Growth]$	0.2	-5%	26%	-0.024
Recession	0.05	-40%	-10%	0.100
$\mathbb{E}[r_t] =$		10%	10%	
$\sigma[r_t] =$		16%	11%	

$$Cov[r_E, r_G] = \sum_s p(s) \times \{r_E(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_E]\} \times \{r_G(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_G]\}$$

$$\rho[r_E, r_G] = \frac{Cov[r_E, r_G]}{\sigma[r_E] \times \sigma[r_G]} = -0.34$$

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Diversification: Two Risky Assets

- Consider the portfolio $r_p = w_A \cdot r_A + w_B \cdot r_B$

- Portfolio expected return, $\mathbb{E}[r_p]$, is given by:

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Diversification: Two Risky Assets

- When do we have diversification: $\sigma_p < w_A \cdot \sigma_A + w_B \cdot \sigma_B$?

- Suppose $\rho[r_A, r_B] = 1$, then:

$$\sigma_p = w_A \sigma_A + w_B \sigma_B$$

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↓

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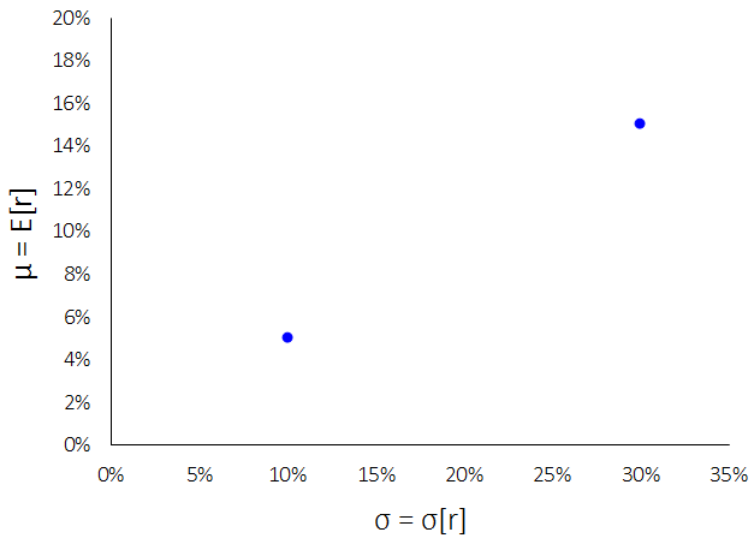
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↓

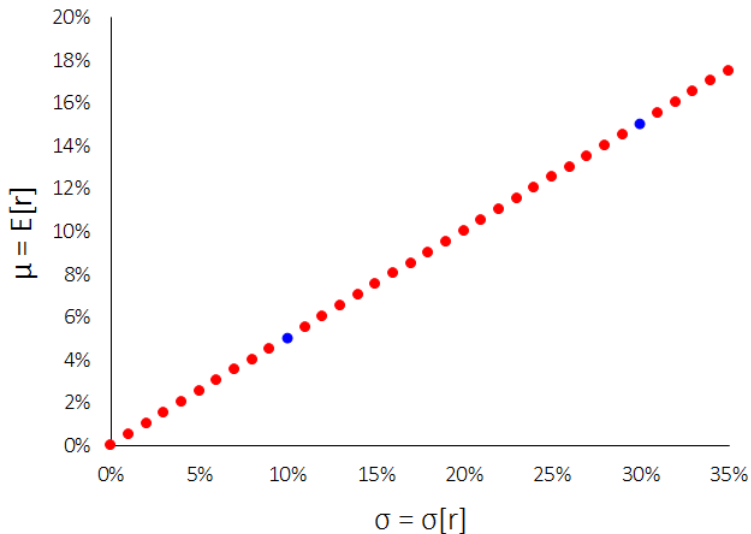
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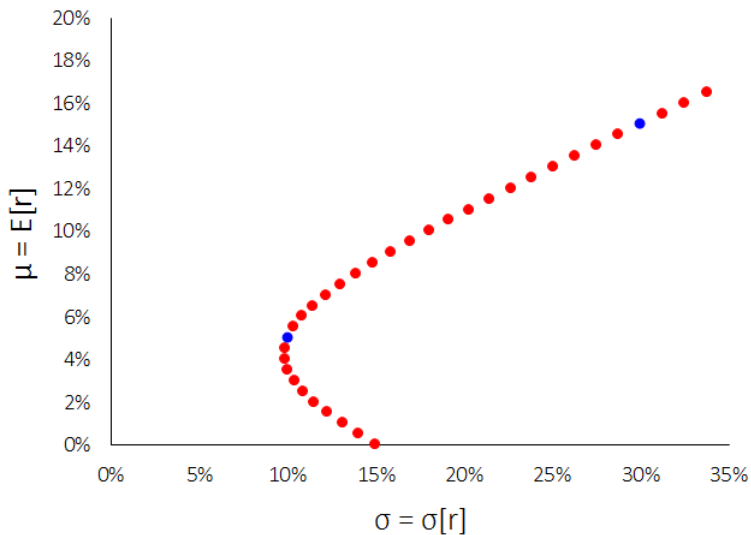
Diversification: Two Risky Assets



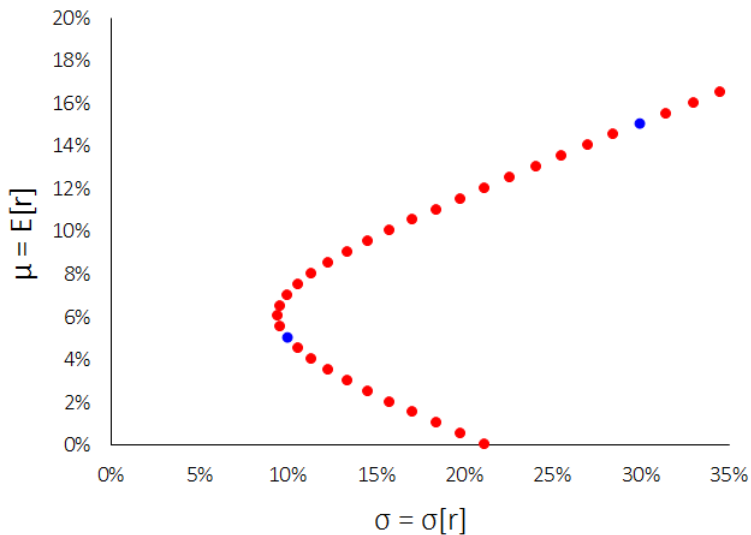
Diversification: Two Risky Assets ($\rho = 1.0$)



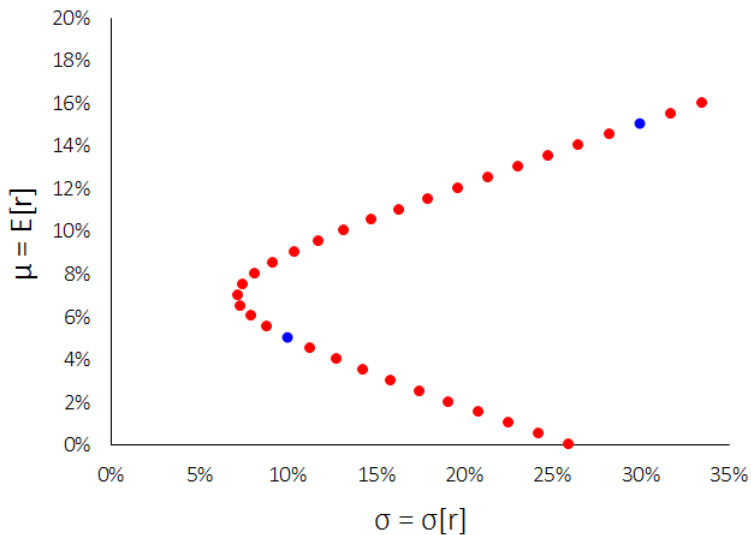
Diversification: Two Risky Assets ($\rho = 0.5$)



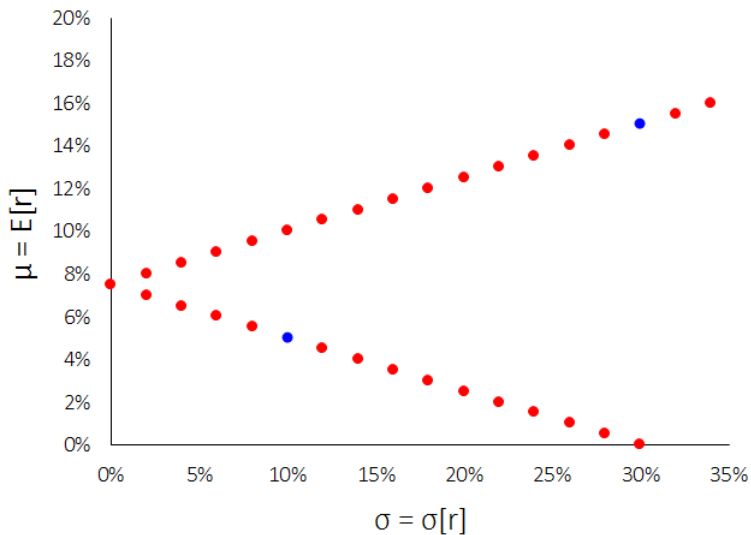
Diversification: Two Risky Assets ($\rho = 0.0$)



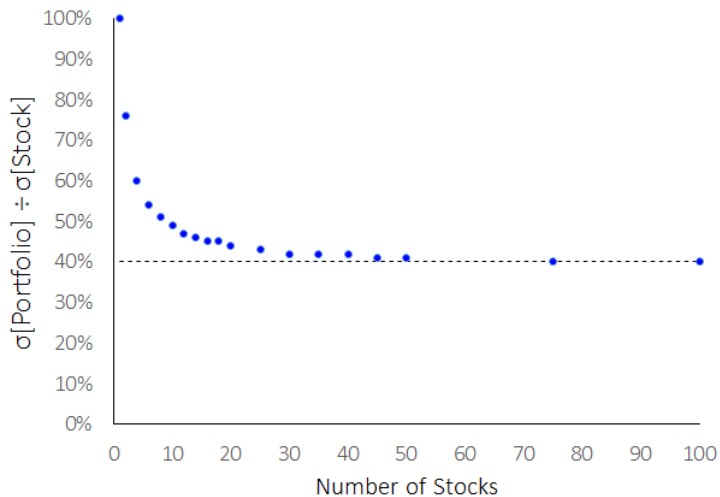
Diversification: Two Risky Assets ($\rho = -0.5$)



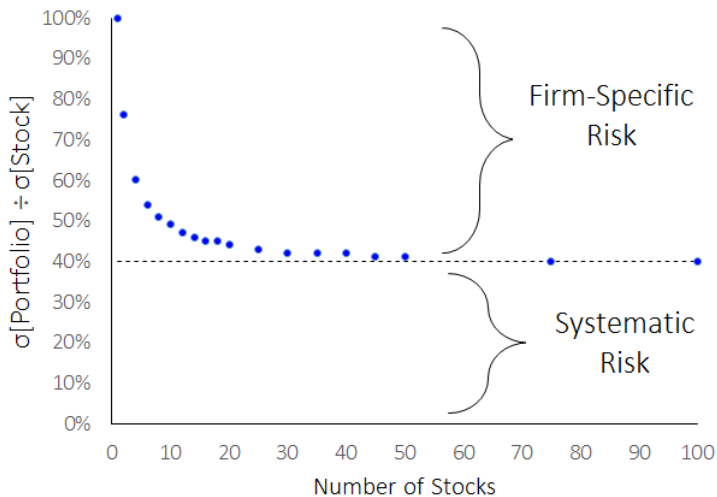
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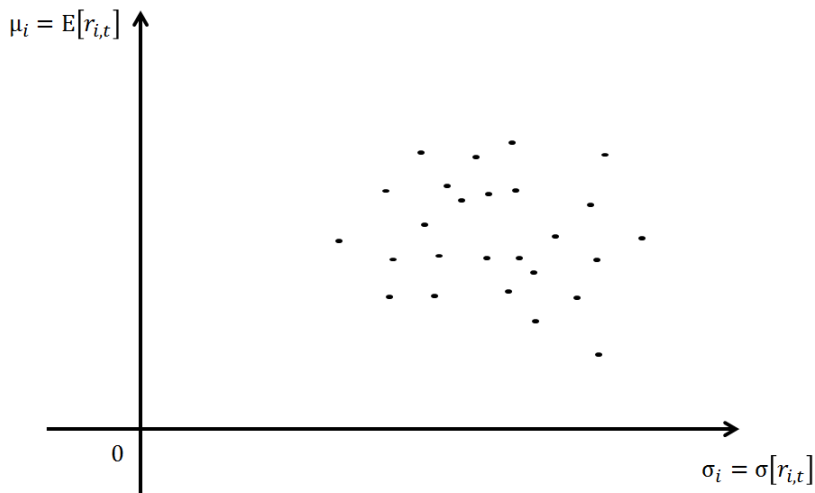


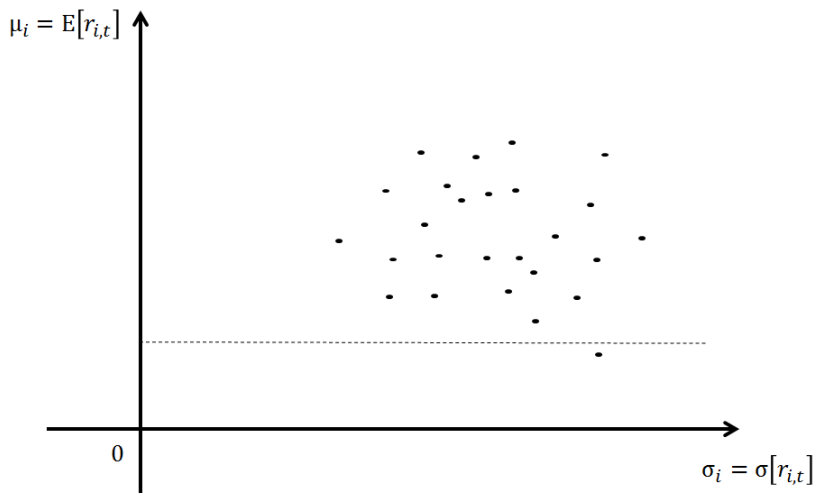
Diversification: Systematic \times Firm-Specific Risk

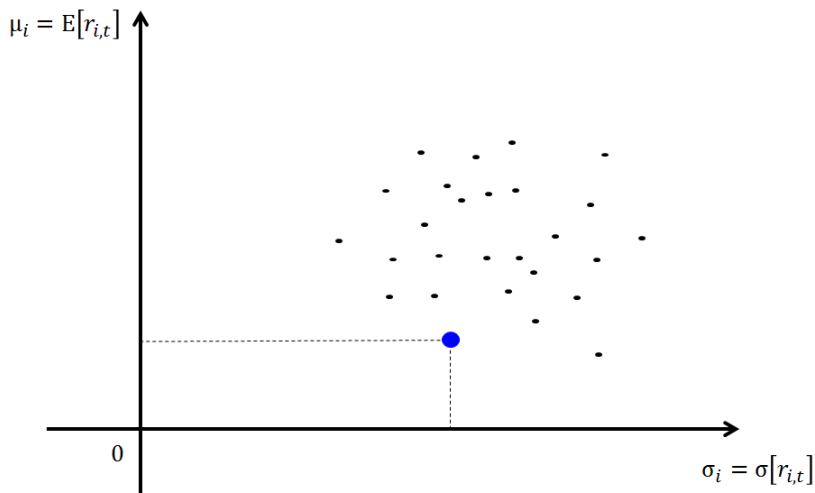


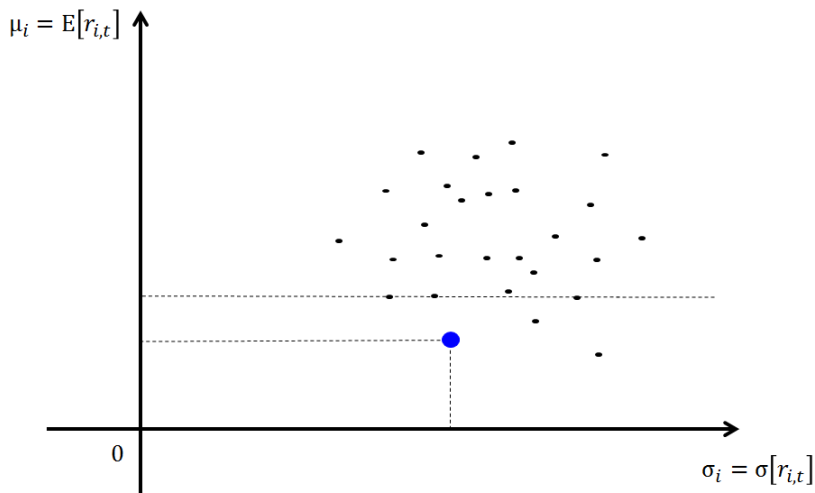
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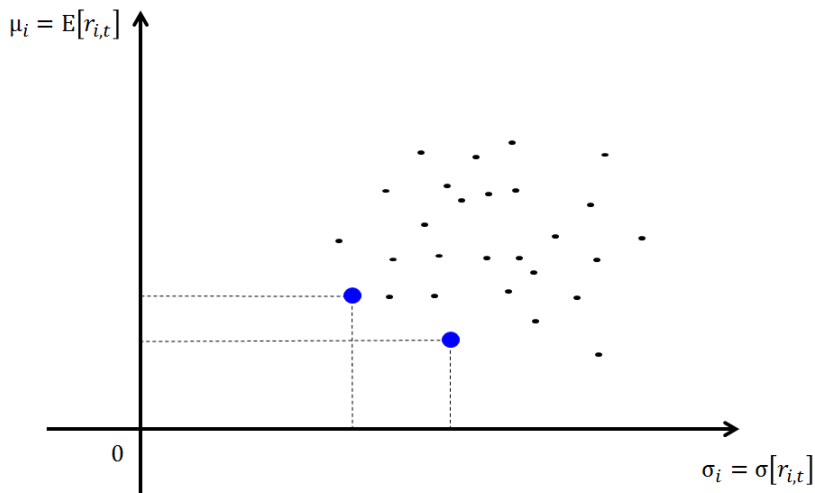


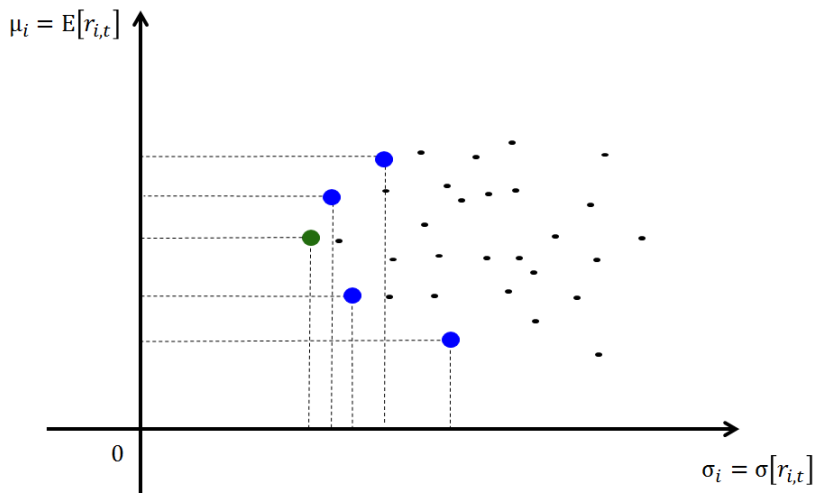
$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Efficient Frontier

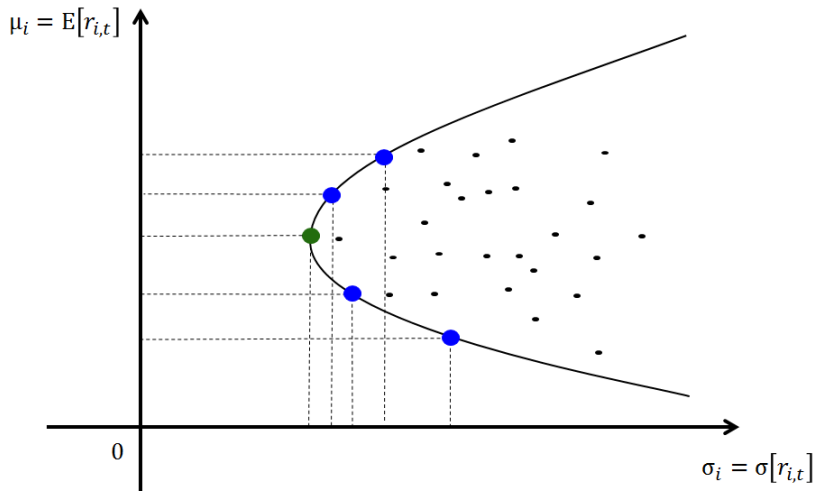
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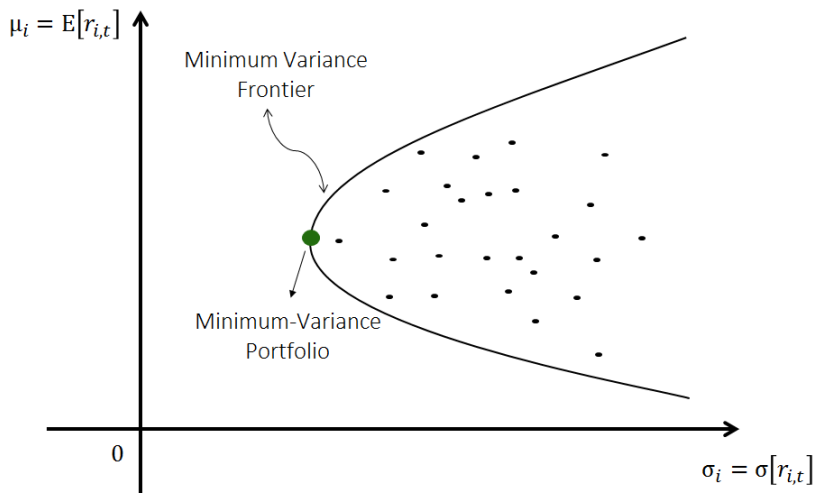
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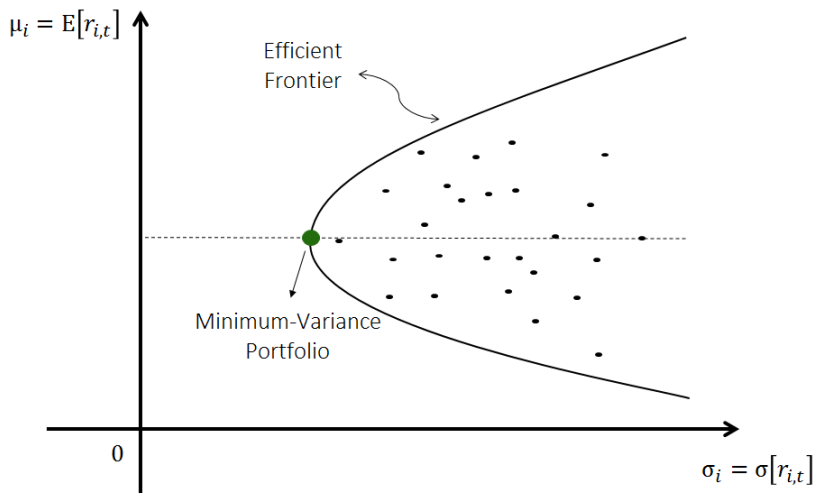
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Which of the following is false regarding the Efficient Frontier?

- a) It relies on estimates of risk, $\sigma[r_t]$, reward, $\mathbb{E}[r_t]$, and covariances for multiple assets
- b) Any portfolio formed by first selecting a target $\mathbb{E}[r_t]$ and then choosing the portfolio with minimum risk among the ones with such target $\mathbb{E}[r_t]$ is an efficient portfolio
- c) It restricts the set of potential portfolios an investor should choose from if he measures risk by $\sigma[r_t]$ and reward by $\mathbb{E}[r_t]$
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- e) With only two assets, the more negatively correlated they are the better is the efficient frontier investors can form using them

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Outline

Overview

The Statistics of Security Returns

The Efficient Frontier

Capital Allocation Line

Index Models

This Section: Adding Risk Free Asset



Combining Risky Asset with Risk-Free Asset

- Recall that for $r_p = w_A \cdot r_A + w_B \cdot r_B$ we have:

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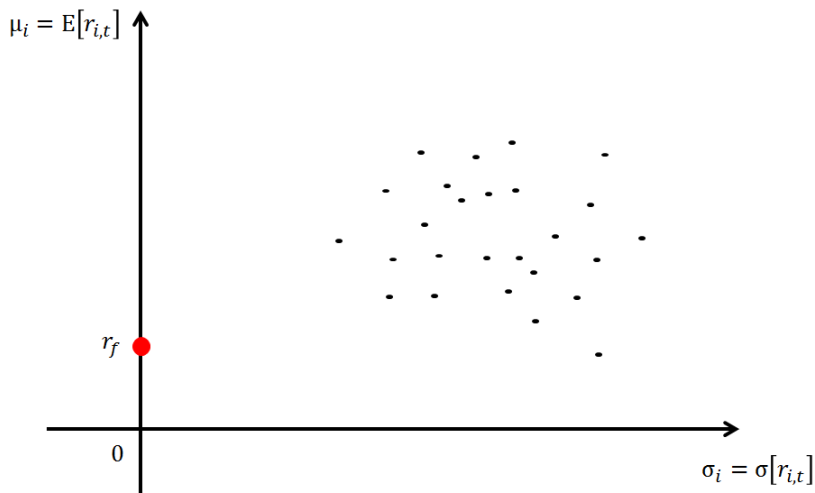
$$\sigma_p^2 = w_A^2 \cdot \sigma_A^2 + w_B^2 \cdot \sigma_B^2 + 2 \cdot w_A \cdot w_B \cdot \sigma_A \cdot \sigma_B \cdot \rho[r_A, r_B]$$

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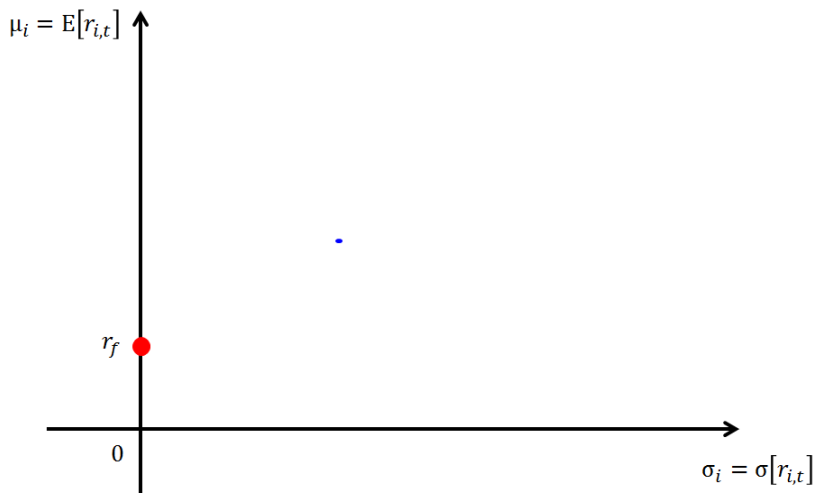
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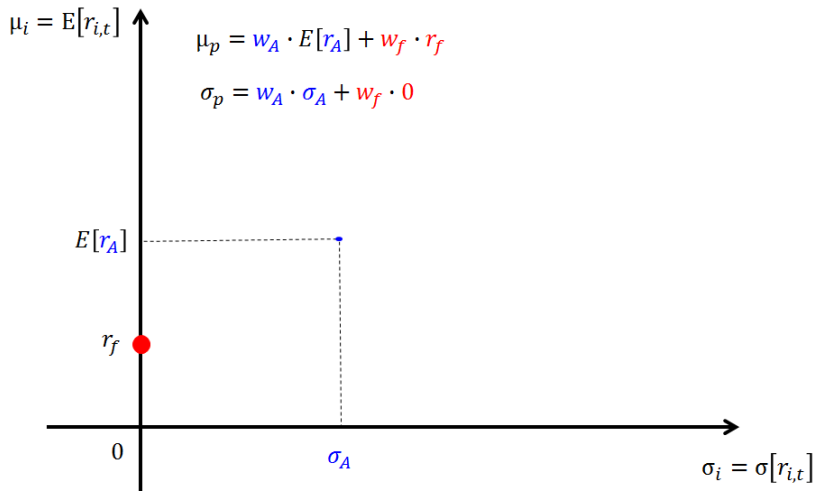
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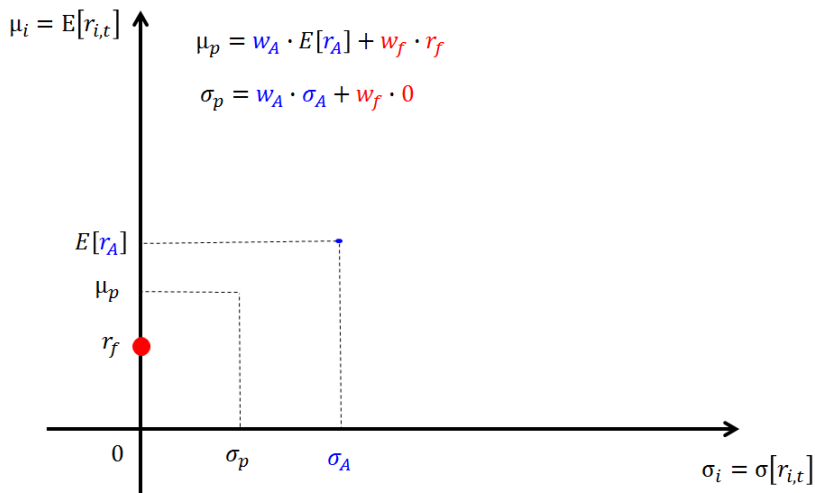
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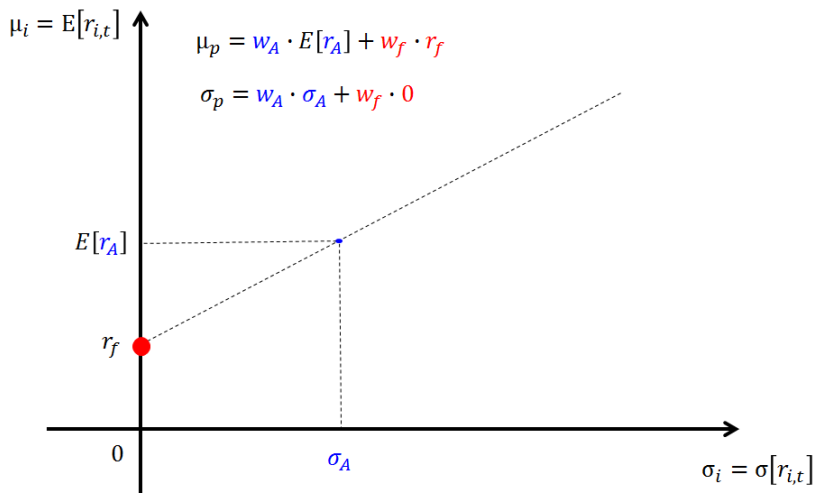
Combining Risky Asset with Risk-Free Asset

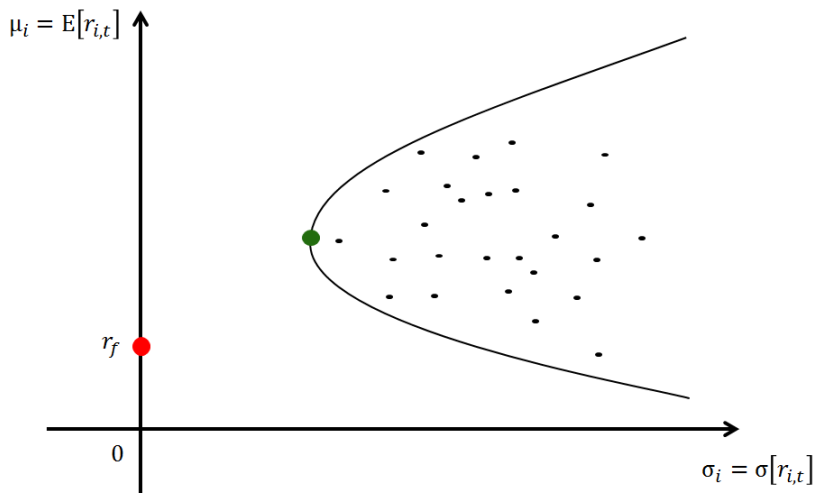


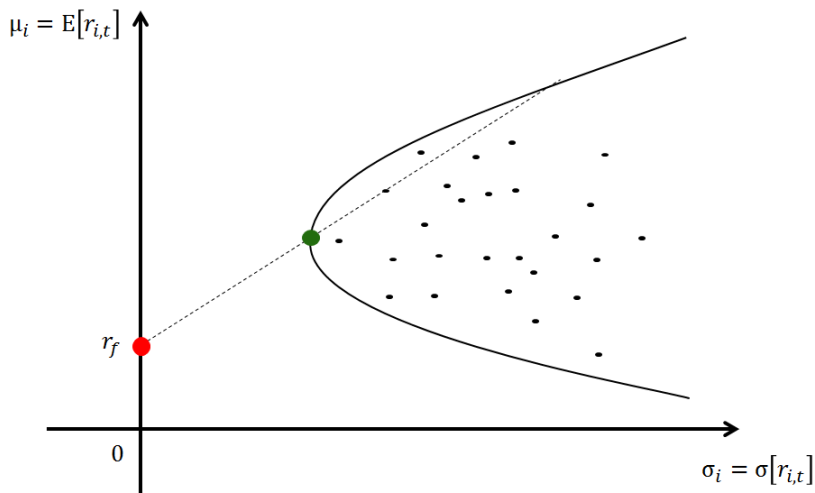
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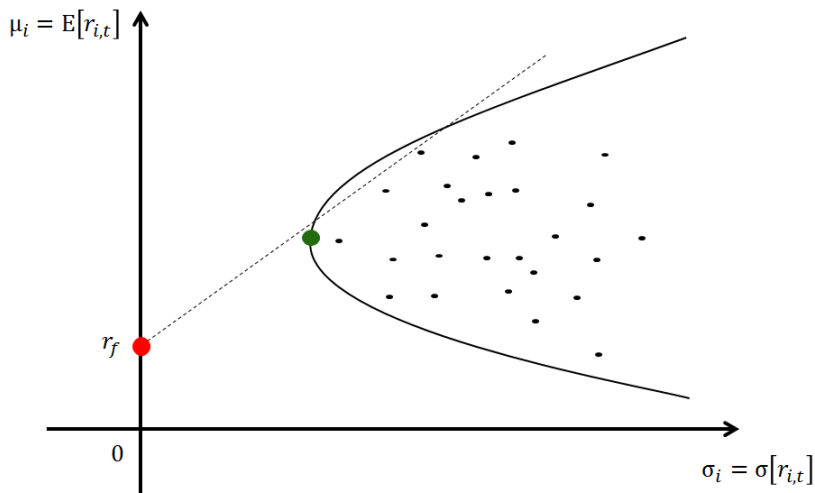


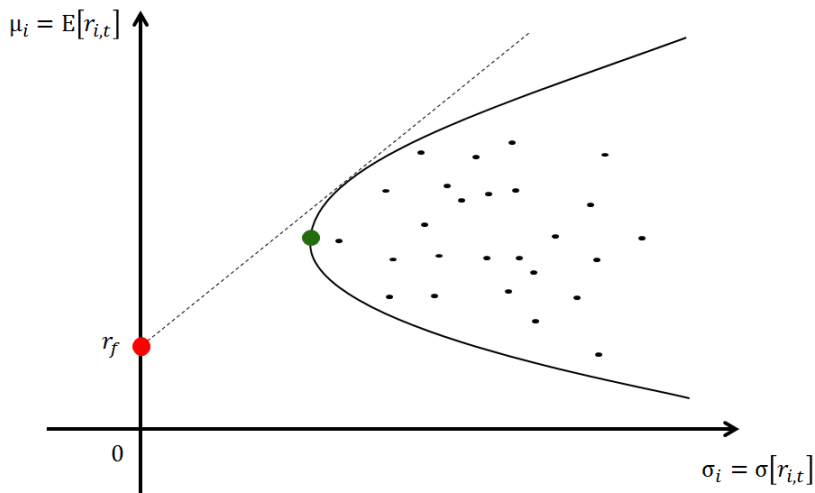
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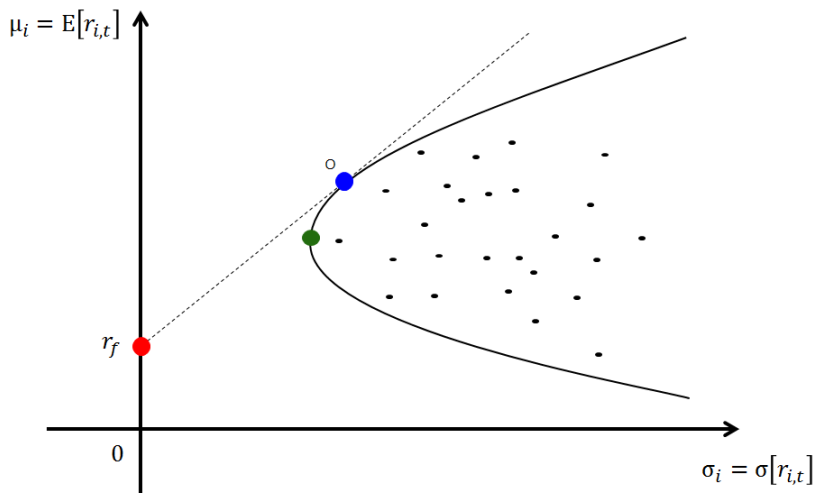


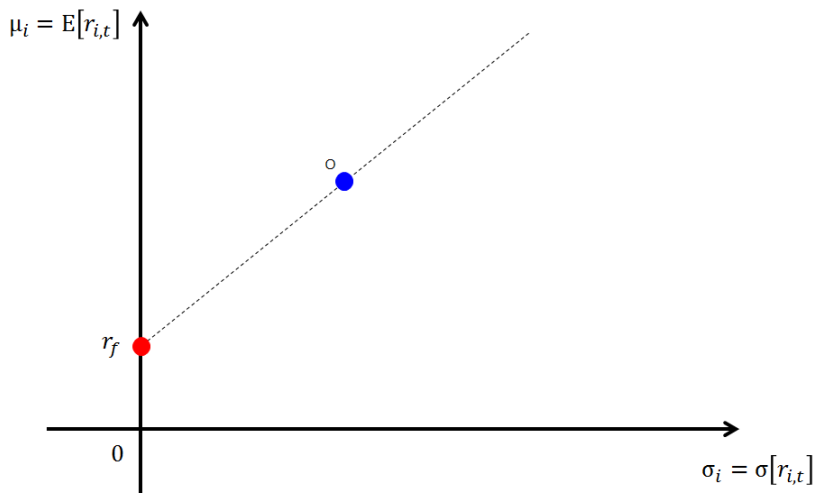
$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Capital Allocation Line

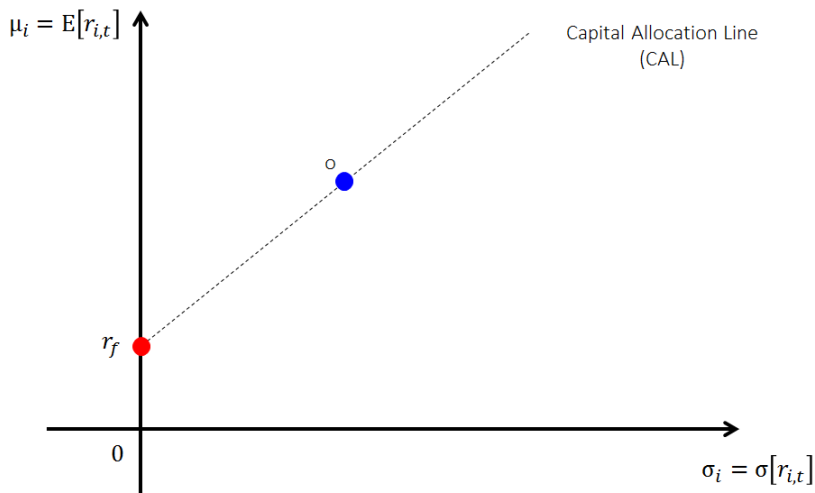
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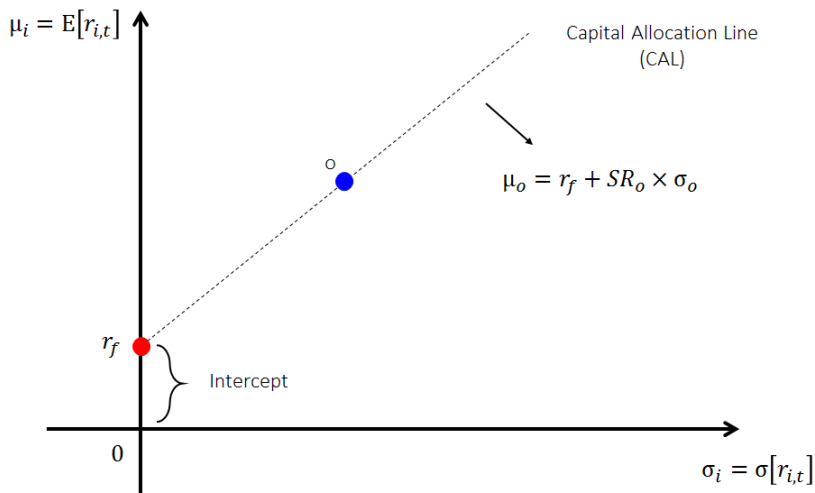
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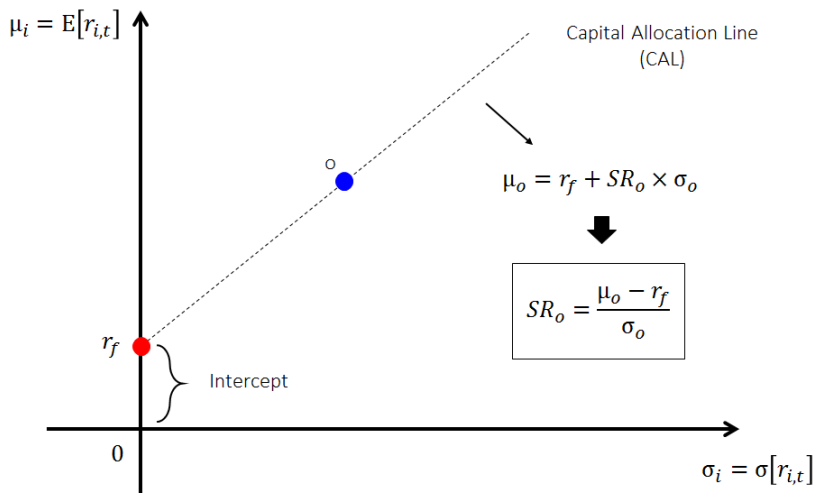
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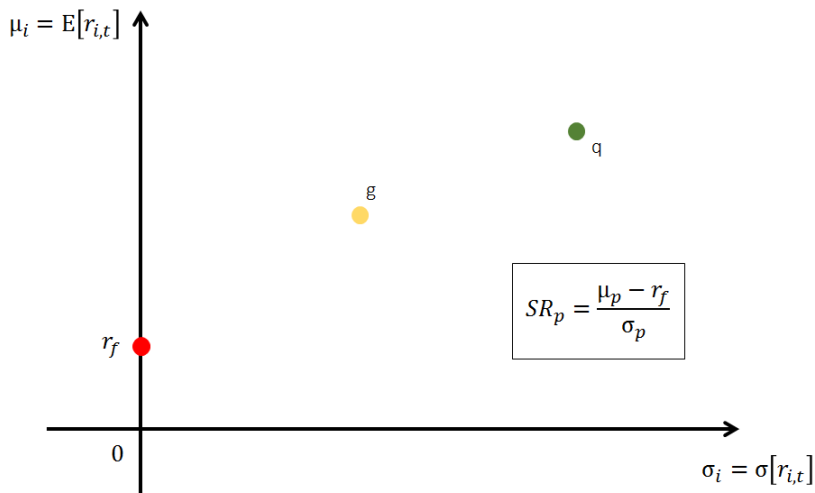
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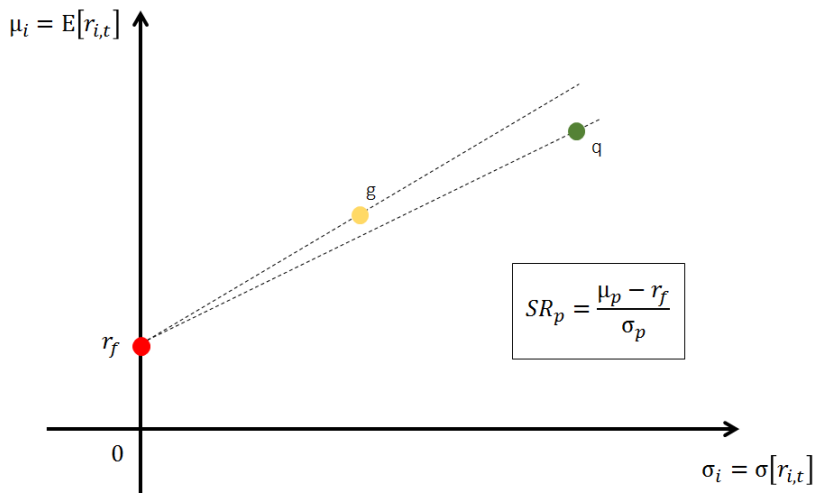
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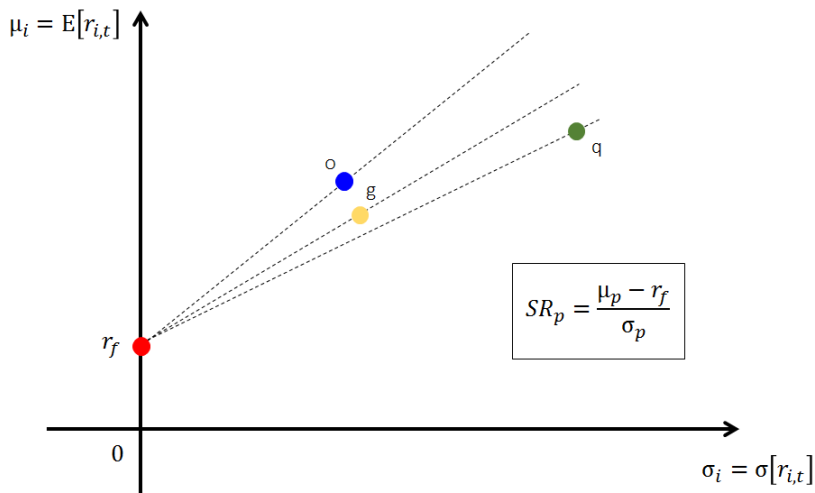
$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Capital Allocation Line

$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Sharpe Ratio

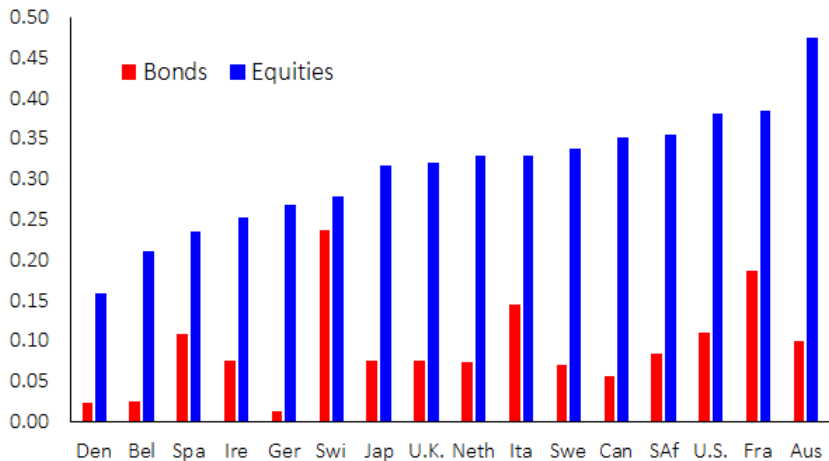
$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Sharpe Ratio

$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Portfolio Comparison using Sharpe Ratio

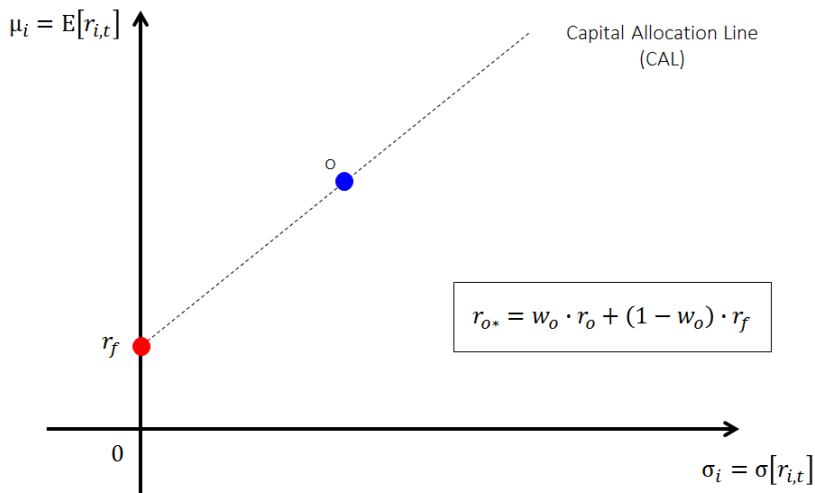
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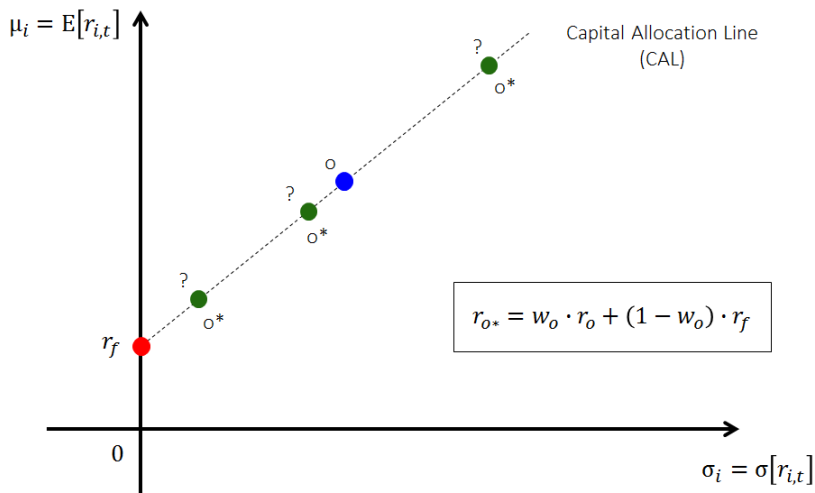
Sharpe Ratios around the World from 1900-2000



Source: Dimson et al (2002) - *Triumph of the optimists: 101 years of global investment returns*

$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Complete Portfolio o^* 

$\sigma[r_t] \times \mathbb{E}[r_t]$: Complete Portfolio o^*



Properties of $\mathbb{E}[r_{o^*}]$ and $\sigma[r_{o^*}]$

- Recall that for $r_p = w_A \cdot r_A + w_B \cdot r_B$ we have:

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Deciding on Complete Portfolio o^*

- Investors happiness depends on $\sigma_{o^*} = \sigma [r_{o^*}]$ and $\mu_{o^*} = \mathbb{E} [r_{o^*}]$
- We can model investors happiness (called utility function) as:

$$U(w) = \mu_{o^*} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{o^*}^2$$

- If investors select w_o to maximize their happiness we have:

$$w_o = \frac{\mu_{o^*} - r_f}{\sigma_{o^*}^2}$$

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$$U(\sigma_{o^*}, \mu_{o^*}) = \mu_{o^*} - 0.5 \cdot A \cdot \sigma_{o^*}^2$$

$$= \underbrace{w_o \cdot \mu_o + (1 - w_o) r_f}_{\mu_{o^*}} - 0.5 \cdot A \cdot \underbrace{w_o^2 \cdot \sigma_o^2}_{\sigma_{o^*}^2}$$

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The task of forming the “complete portfolio” (called o^*), is separated into two different tasks: (i) finding the “optimal” risky portfolio (called o) and (ii) getting o^* by combining portfolio o with r_f . Which of the following is true regarding this process:

- a) Two investors using the same inputs to step (i) always end up with the same risky portfolio, o
- b) Step (ii) is investor specific. However, if two investors have the same risk aversion, they always end up with the same o^*
- c) Portfolio o can only be found if we first find the entire efficient frontier
- d) The negative covariance between r_f and o is very important to decide on portfolio o^*
- e) Portfolio o is the portfolio with lowest risk among all possible portfolios that exclude the risk-free rate

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Outline

Overview

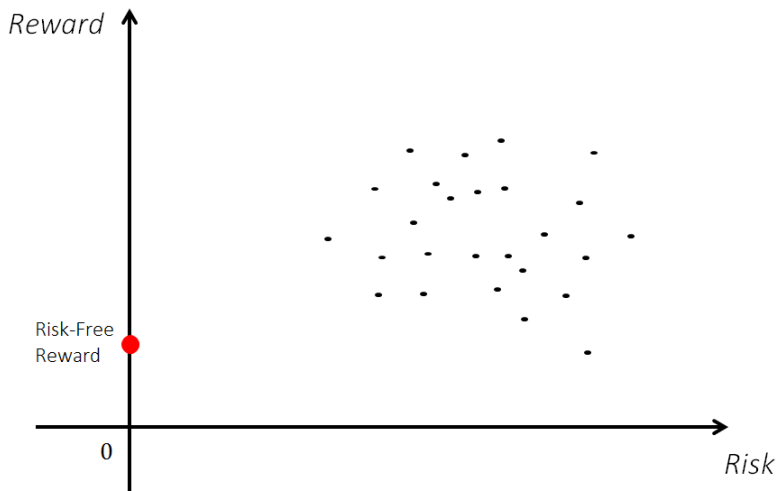
The Statistics of Security Returns

The Efficient Frontier

Capital Allocation Line

Index Models

This Section: Inputs to $\sigma [r_t] \times \mathbb{E} [r_t]$ Framework



Estimating Covariances

- Use each data observation as a “scenario” with equal probability:

$$\text{Cov}[r_A, r_B] = \sum_s p(s) \times \{r_A(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_A]\} \times \{r_B(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_B]\}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Cov}}[r_A, r_B] = \frac{1}{T-1} \times \sum_{t=1}^T \{r_{A,t} - \bar{r}_A\} \times \{r_{B,t} - \bar{r}_B\}$$

- The number of estimates “explodes” (results are unreliable):

• $N=2$ securities ⇒ 1 (1) covariance estimate
(only 1(0) 0 and 0 estimates)

• $N=3$ securities ⇒ 3 (3) covariance estimates

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- The number of estimates “explodes” (results are unreliable):

• $N=2$ assets → 1 covariance estimate

• $N=3$ assets → 3 covariance estimates

• $N=100$ assets → 4,950 covariance estimates

Estimating Covariances

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- The number of estimates “explodes” (results are unreliable):

• 2 assets → 1 covariance estimate

• 3 assets → 3 covariance estimates

• 10 assets → 45 covariance estimates

Estimating Covariances

- Use each data observation as a “scenario” with equal probability:

$$\text{Cov}[r_A, r_B] = \sum_s p(s) \times \{r_A(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_A]\} \times \{r_B(s) - \mathbb{E}[r_B]\}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Cov}}[r_A, r_B] = \frac{1}{T-1} \times \sum_{t=1}^T \{r_{A,t} - \bar{r}_A\} \times \{r_{B,t} - \bar{r}_B\}$$

- The number of estimates “explodes” (results are unreliable):
 - $N = 50$ securities \implies 1,225 covariance estimates (only 100 σ and μ estimates)
 - $N = 500$ securities \implies 124,750 covariance estimates

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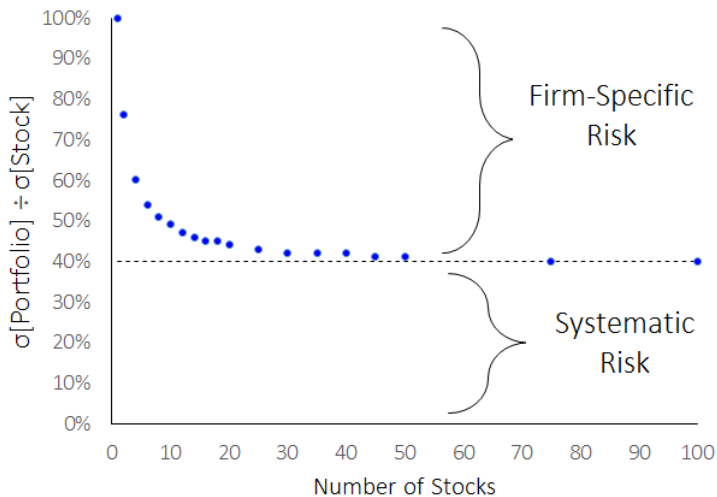
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Systematic \times Firm-Specific Risk



Index Model: Structure

- Decomposing returns into two components:

$$r_{i,t} - r_f = \beta_i \cdot \underbrace{(r_{M,t} - r_f)}_{\text{systematic}} + \underbrace{\alpha_i + e_{i,t}}_{\text{firm-specific}}$$

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$$\mathbb{E}[r_{i,t}] = r_f + \alpha_i + \beta_i \cdot (\mathbb{E}[r_{M,t}] - r_f)$$

$$\sigma^2[r_{i,t}] = \beta_i^2 \cdot \sigma^2[r_{M,t}] + \sigma^2[e_{i,t}]$$

$$\text{Cov}[r_A, r_B] = \text{Cov}[\beta_A \cdot (r_M - r_f) + e_A, \beta_B \cdot (r_M - r_f) + e_B]$$

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Index Model: Reduction in Number of Estimates

- With an index model with N assets, we need:
 - N estimates of α_i , β_i and $\sigma[e_{i,t}]$
 - 1 estimate $\mathbb{E}[r_{M,t}]$ and $\sigma^2[r_{M,t}]$
- The reduction in the number of estimates is substantial:
 - $N = 10$ securities $\Rightarrow 1, 10$ estimates
 - $N = 100$ securities $\Rightarrow 1, 100$ estimates (with index model)

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 - $N = 100$ securities $\Rightarrow 102$ estimates (with index model)

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• Example: $N = 100$ assets, $\sigma^2[r_{M,t}] = 10\%$ and $\sigma^2[e_{i,t}] = 1\%$

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 - $N = 50$ securities \implies 1,355 estimates
 - $N = 50$ securities \implies 152 estimates (with index model)

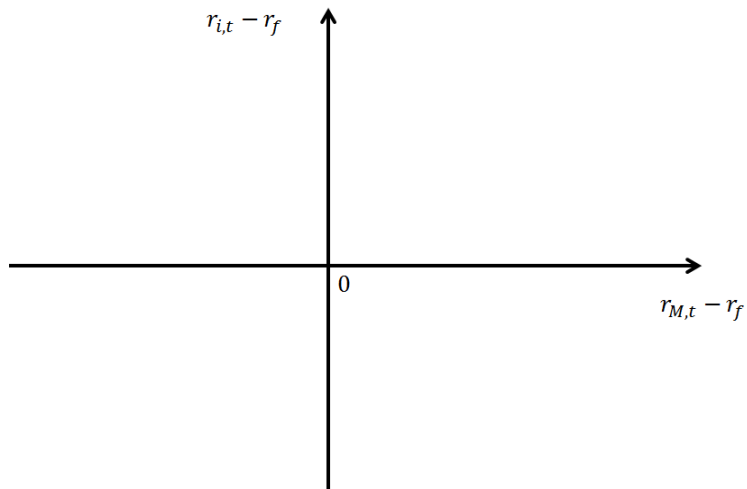
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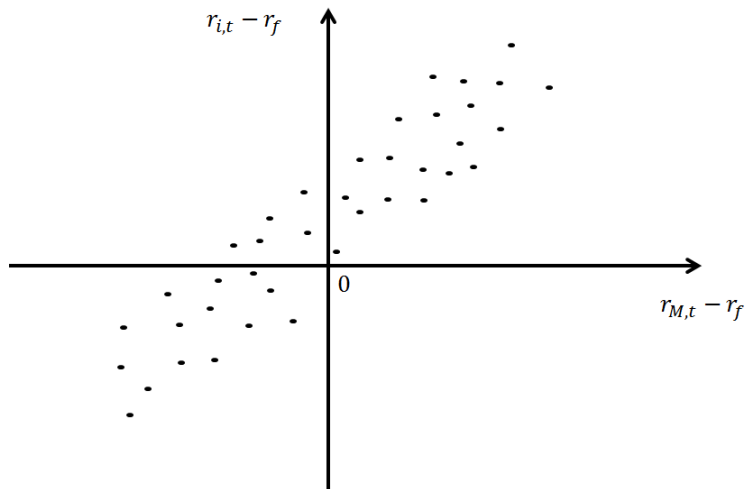
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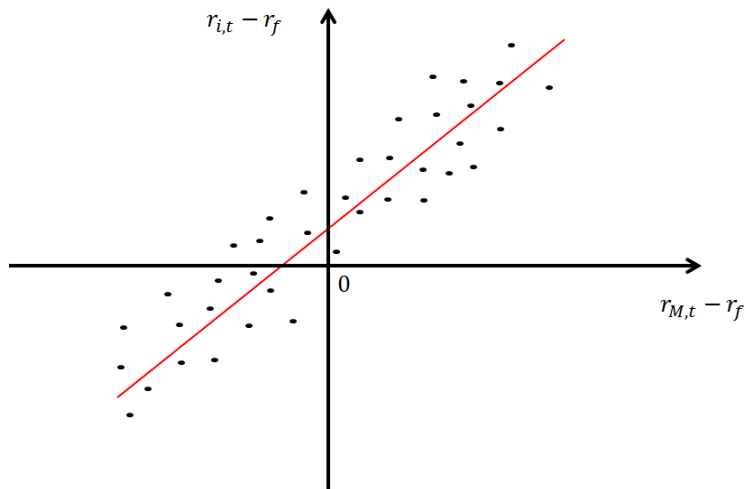
Index Model as a Regression



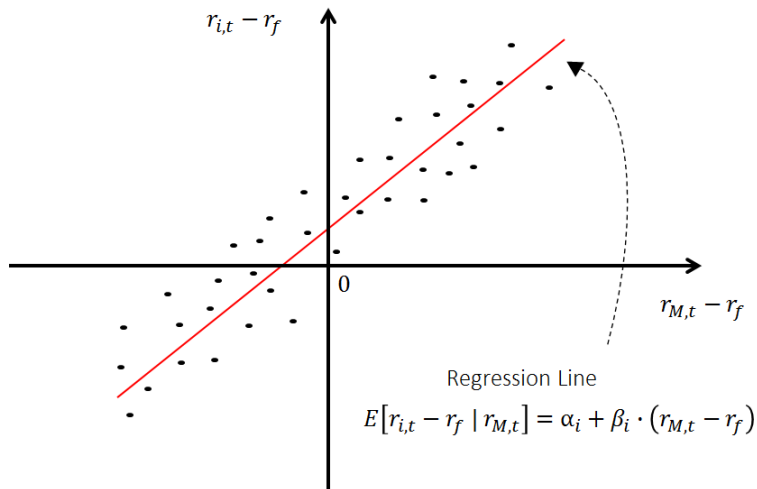
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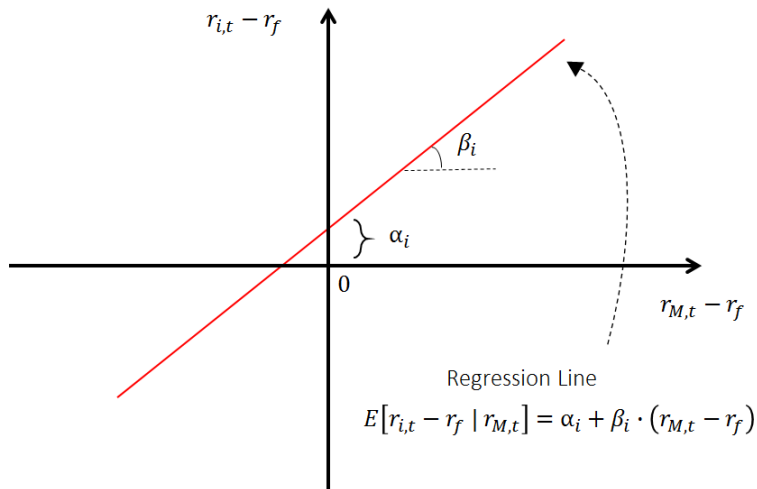
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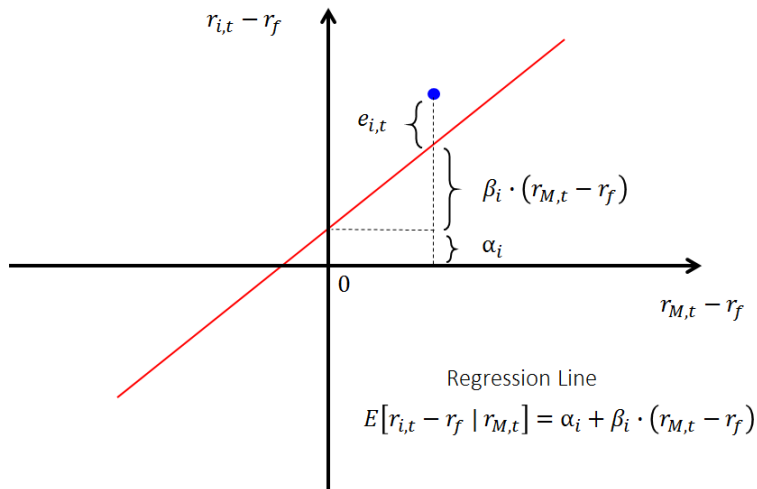
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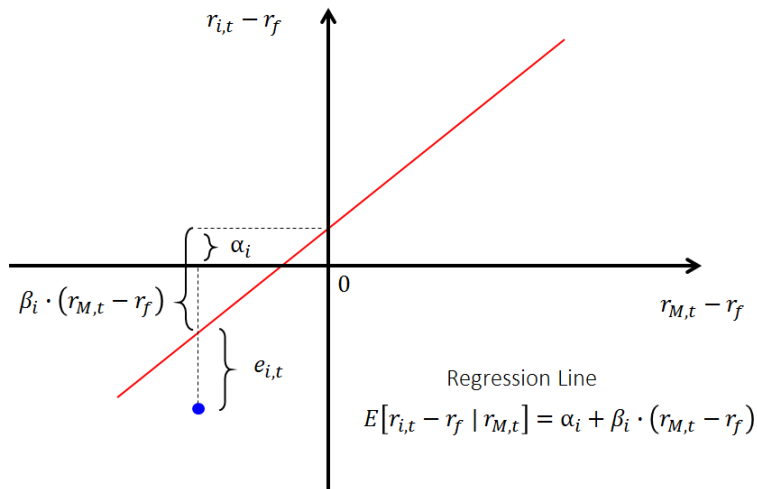
Index Model as a Regression: α_i and β_i



Index Model as a Regression: Decomposing $r_{i,t}$



Index Model as a Regression: Decomposing $r_{i,t}$



Index Model: Systematic \times Firm-Specific Risk

- Decomposing risk into two components:

$$\sigma^2 [r_{i,t}] = \underbrace{\beta_i^2 \cdot \sigma^2 [r_{M,t}]}_{\text{systematic risk}} + \underbrace{\sigma^2 [e_{i,t}]}_{\text{firm-specific risk}}$$

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$$R^2 = \frac{\beta_i^2 \cdot \sigma^2 [r_{M,t}]}{\sigma^2 [r_{i,t}]}$$

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$$= \alpha_p + \beta_p \cdot (r_M - r_f) + \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_i e_i \right)$$

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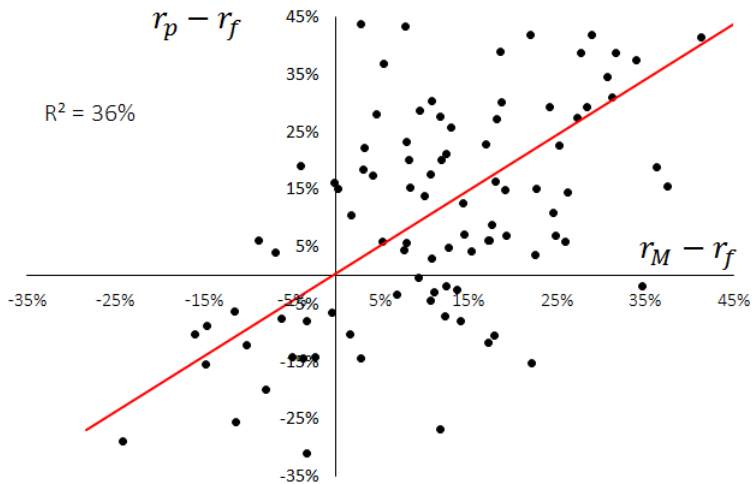
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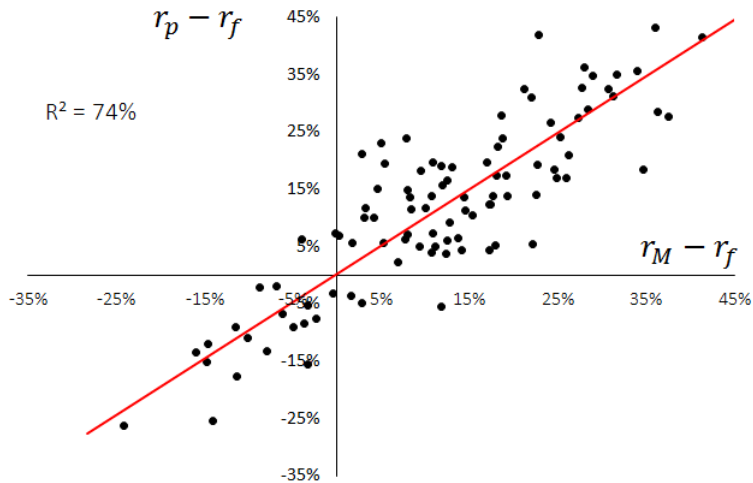
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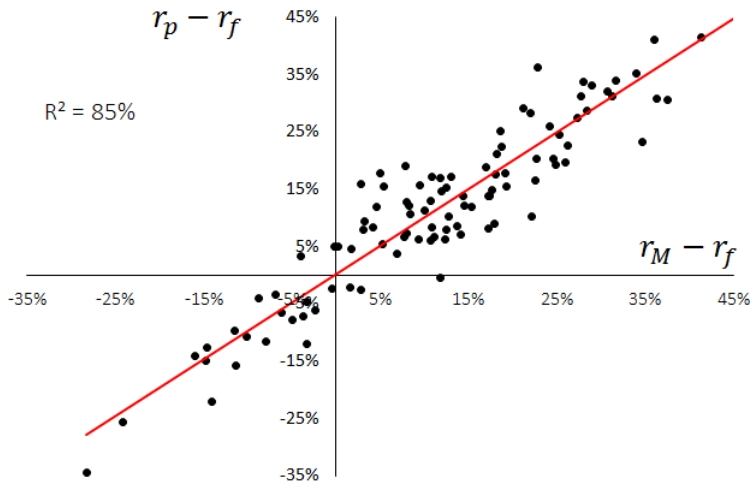
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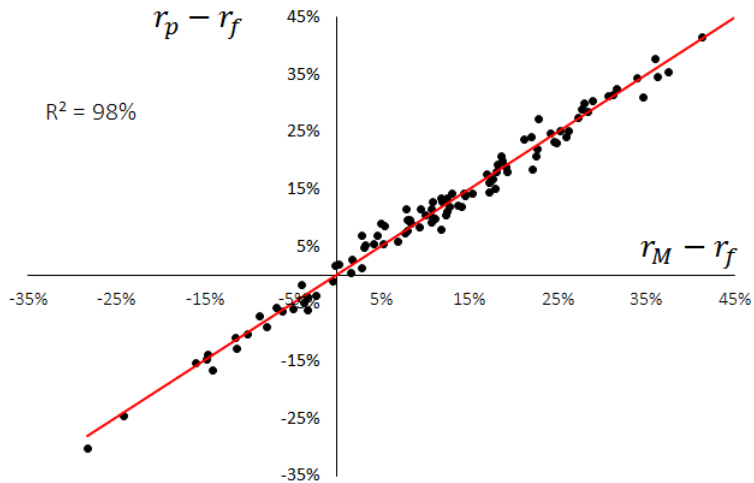
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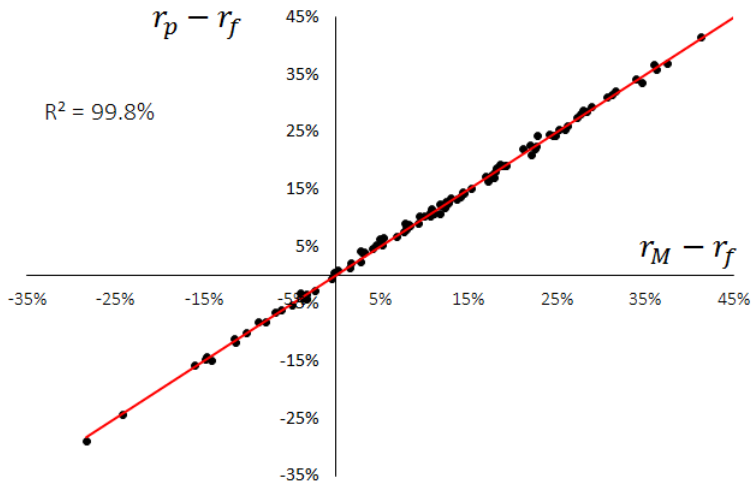
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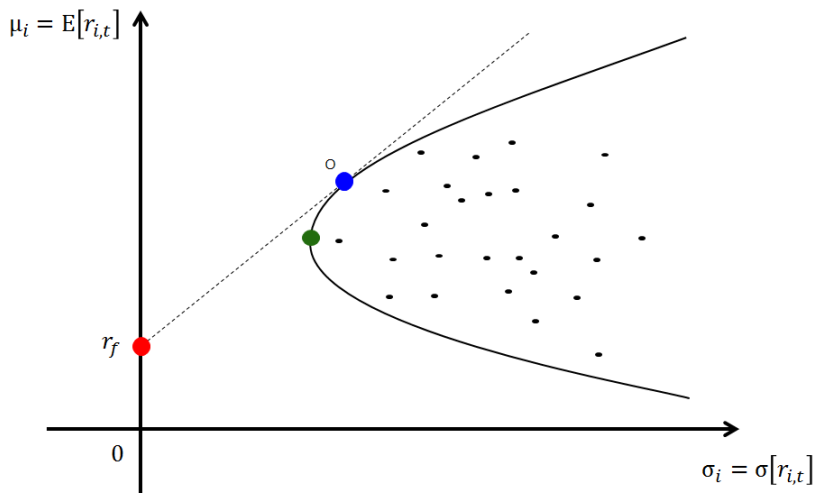
$$N = 100$$



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Index Model: Finding the Tangency Portfolio



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- It turns out that (using the index model):

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- a) It reduces substantially the number of parameters to be estimated
- b) It creates a clear decomposition between systematic and firm-specific risk
- c) It breaks the optimal risky portfolio into a passive portfolio and an active position, which allows you to understand how you are deviating from the given index
- d) It provides you with estimates that rely on a lower number of assumptions about returns
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- Portfolio theory provides you with an extremely useful tool for portfolio formation. However:
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 - Maximum Sharpe Ratio portfolio is very sensitive to model inputs (especially $\mathbb{E}[r_t]$)
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A Word of Caution Regarding Portfolio Theory

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