

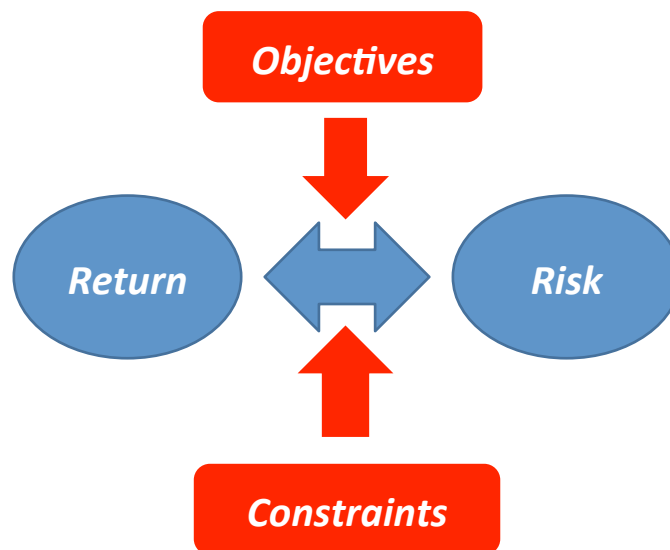
Lecture 2 Risk and Return

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FN 312 – INVESTMENTS Fall 2016

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Conceptual framework of investment



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How do we estimate risk and return in the presence of ...



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Real versus nominal returns

- The Fisher relation

$$\text{Real} = \text{Nominal} - \text{Expected inflation}$$

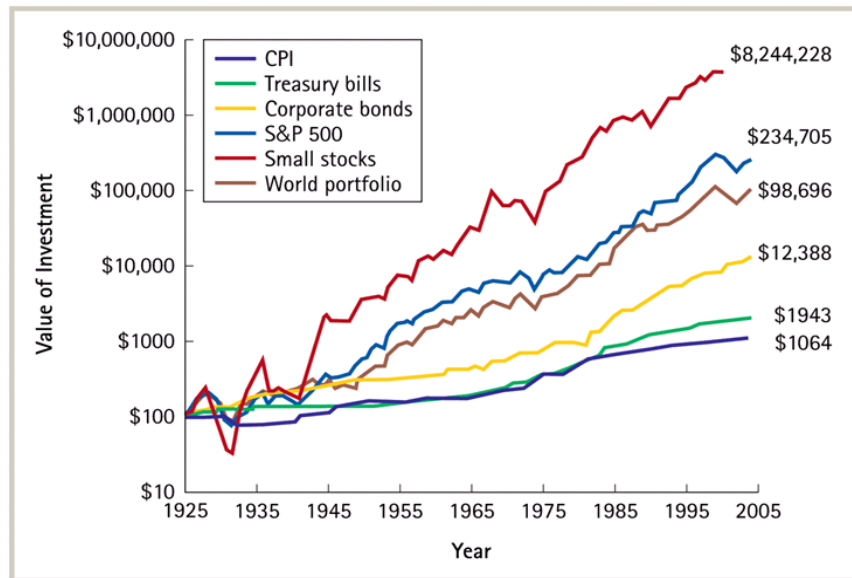
(The relationship is in fact a linear approximation, but usually treated as an equality – see BKM)

Nominal returns influenced by:

- The supply of funds from savers (eg. households)
- The demand for funds from businesses
- Government and Central Bank actions
- Expected inflation

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Value of \$100 invested at the end of 1925



Source: Berk & DeMarzo (2007)

Simple rate of return

$$ROR = \frac{EMV - BMV + I}{BMV}$$



- BMV = Beginning market value
- EMV = Ending market value
- I = Income received during evaluation period
- ROR reports profitability of financial assets in percentage figures (rather than in \$ amounts) which allows investors to compare the profitability across portfolios regardless of sizes or prices
- In this course, 'return' = ROR

Example: Simple return

- You hold 200 shares of ABC stock at the beginning of this year
- $P(0) = \$100$
- At year-end, you receive \$8 DPS
- $P(1) = \$110$
- Return = ?

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Annualized Return

- Generally, longer horizons provide greater returns, so we need to express each as ROR for a common period, usually over a 1-year horizon
- Effective annual rate (EAR)
Assumes compounded interest, i.e. you calculate interest on interest too, so your “effective principal” increases
- Annual percentage rate (APR)
Rates on short-term investments ($T < 1$) often are annualised using simple interest.

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Annualized Variance

- Variance is proportional to time

Annualized Variance =

- Standard deviation is proportional to the square root of time

Annualized Standard Deviation =

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Example: Historical Returns

Date	Price (\$)	Dividend (\$)	Return	Date	Price (\$)	Dividend (\$)	Return
12/31/1998	58.69			12/31/2007	6.73	0	
1/31/1999	61.44	0.26	5.13%	3/31/2008	5.72	0	-15.01%
4/30/1999	63.94	0.26	4.49%	6/30/2008	4.81	0	-15.91%
7/31/1999	48.5	0.26	-23.74%	9/30/2008	5.2	0	8.11%
10/31/1999	54.88	0.29	13.75%	12/21/2008	2.29	0	-55.96%
12/31/1999	53.31		-2.86%				

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Returns and Risk are Uncertain

- Under uncertainty, we measure “reward” by using the expected (or average) return

$$\mu_X = E(X) = p_1X_1 + p_2X_2 + \cdots + p_NX_N = \sum_{i=1}^N p_iX_i$$

$$E(r) = \sum_s p(s)r(s)$$

$p(s)$ = probability of a state

$r(s)$ = return if a state occurs

s = state

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- We measure “risk” by using the variance of returns
- A measure of dispersion (around the mean), i.e. how observations can possibly deviate from the central tendency

$$Var(X) = \sigma_X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N p_i[X_i - E(X)]^2$$

- Volatility or risk is measured by standard deviation

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$$

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Other measures

- Risk premium
- Average absolute deviation
- Average of the squared deviations below the mean (semi variance)
- Value at risk measure

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Example: Expected return

$$E(r) = \sum_s p(s)r(s)$$

$p(s)$ = probability
 $r(s)$ = return in s
 s = state

<u>State</u>	<u>Prob. of State</u>	<u>r in State</u>
<i>Excellent</i>	<i>.25</i>	<i>0.3100</i>
<i>Good</i>	<i>.45</i>	<i>0.1400</i>
<i>Poor</i>	<i>.25</i>	<i>-0.0675</i>
<i>Crash</i>	<i>.05</i>	<i>-0.5200</i>

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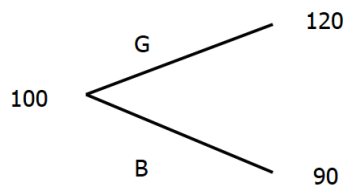
Example - Calculating Risk

<u>State</u>	<u>Prob. of State</u>	<u>r in State</u>
<i>Excellent</i>	<i>.25</i>	<i>0.3100</i>
<i>Good</i>	<i>.45</i>	<i>0.1400</i>
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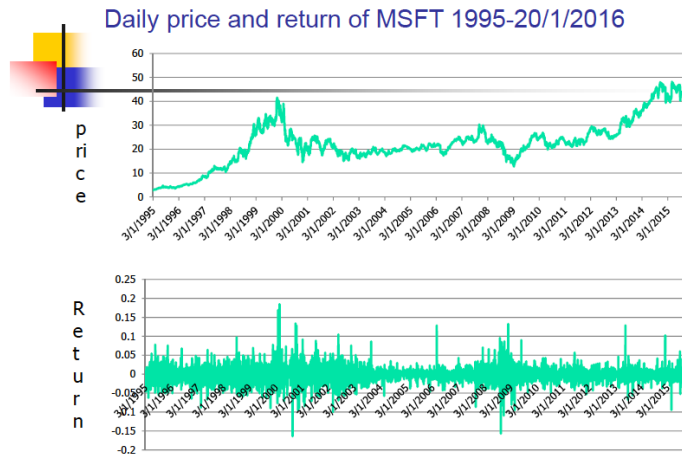
Another Example: Risky prospects

The stock price of ABC is currently \$100. Assume the stock price is either going to increase to \$120 or decrease to \$90 over the next year. In both cases the firm will pay a dividend of \$5.



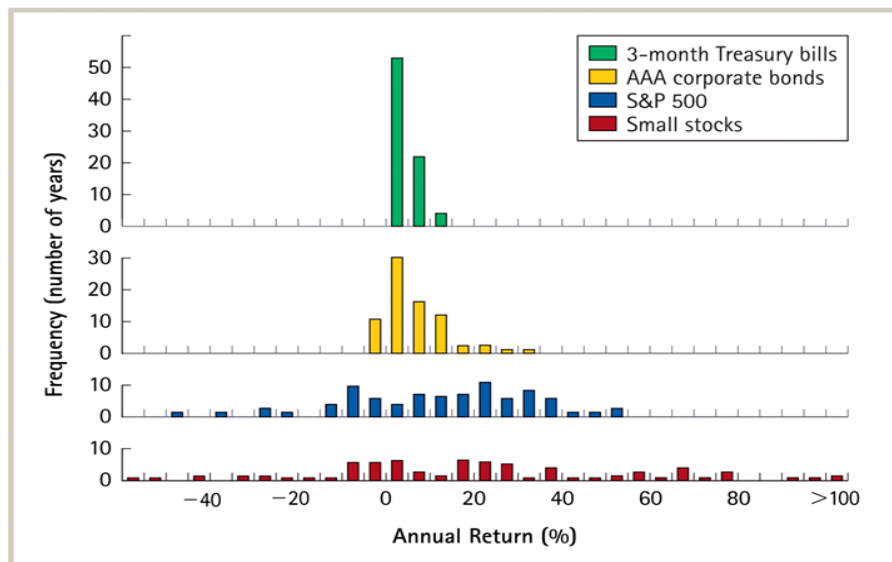
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Times series analysis of past rate of returns



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Historical distributions of US returns



Source: Berk & DeMarzo (2007)

Arithmetic Return

- When using historical data to estimate expected return we assume that each data point has equal probability
- Expected returns (arithmetic average)

$$E(r) = \sum_{s=1}^n p(s)r(s) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^n r(s)$$

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Geometric return

- Time-weighted average return

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Variance and standard deviations

- Variance = expected value of squared deviations

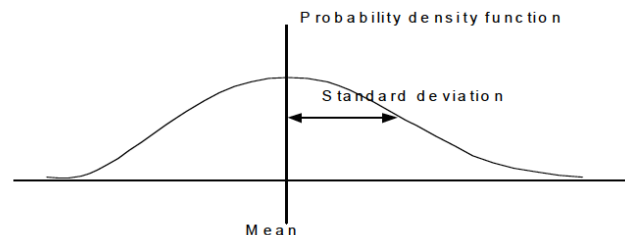
$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^n [r(s) - \bar{r}]^2$$

- For sample data (not population data) when eliminating the bias because we use estimated expected return, Standard Deviation becomes:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^n [r(s) - \bar{r}]^2}$$

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Distribution of returns



$$\text{Mean} = E[\tilde{r}_i] = 1/N \sum \tilde{r}_i$$

$$\text{Variance of returns} = \sigma^2[\tilde{r}_i] = 1/(N-1) \sum (\tilde{r}_i - E[\tilde{r}_i])^2$$

Standard deviation = square root of variance

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The Normal Distribution

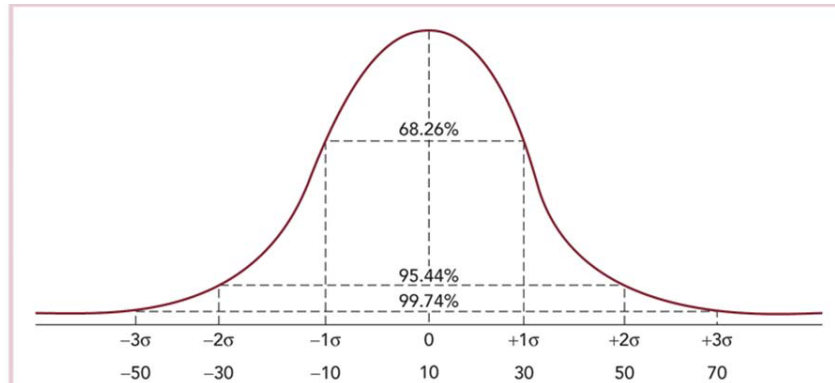


FIGURE 5.4 The normal distribution

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Non-normality and risk measures

- When returns are not normally distributed, volatility (standard deviation) is no longer a complete measure of risk
- We then need to consider 'higher moments'

$$skew = average \left[\frac{(R - \bar{R})^3}{\hat{\sigma}^3} \right] \quad kurtosis = average \left[\frac{(R - \bar{R})^4}{\hat{\sigma}^4} \right] - 3$$

- Skewness measures symmetry, and kurtosis 'peakedness'
- For normal distributions
- Stock returns are usually

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Normal and Skewed Distributions

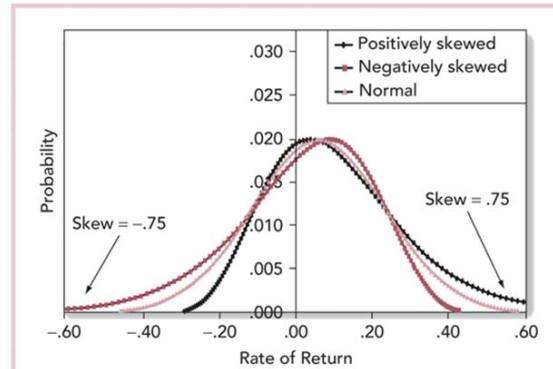


FIGURE 5.5A Normal and skewed distributions (mean = 6%, SD = 17%)

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Normal and Fat-tailed distributions

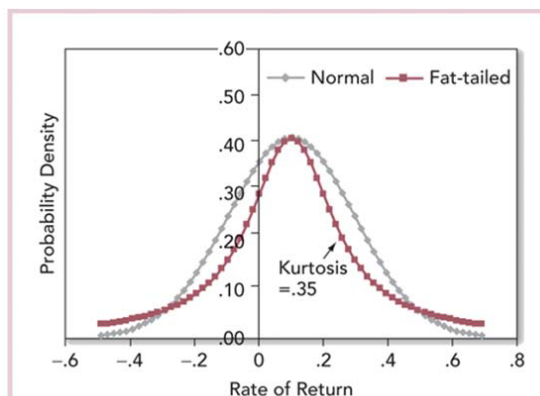
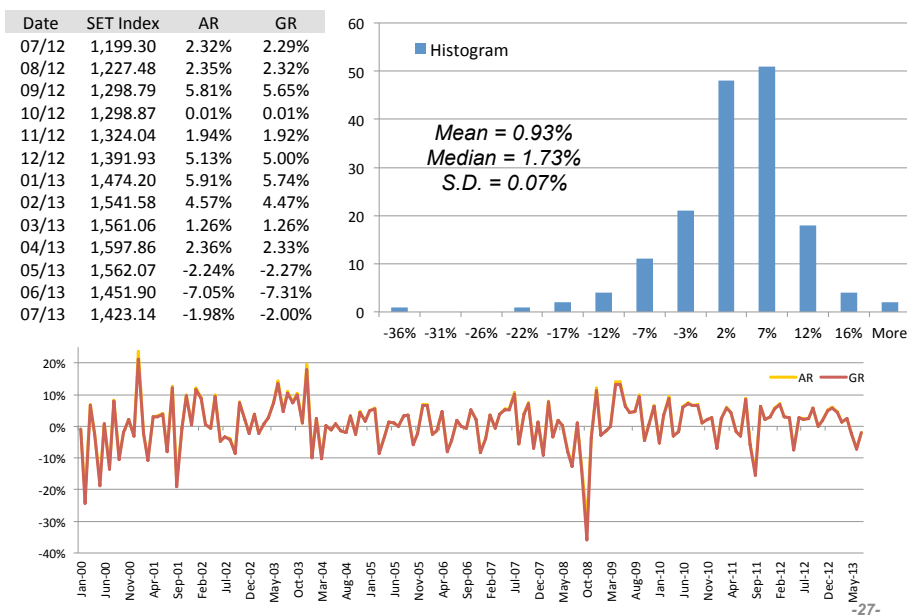


FIGURE 5.5B Normal and fat-tailed distributions (mean = .1, SD = .2)

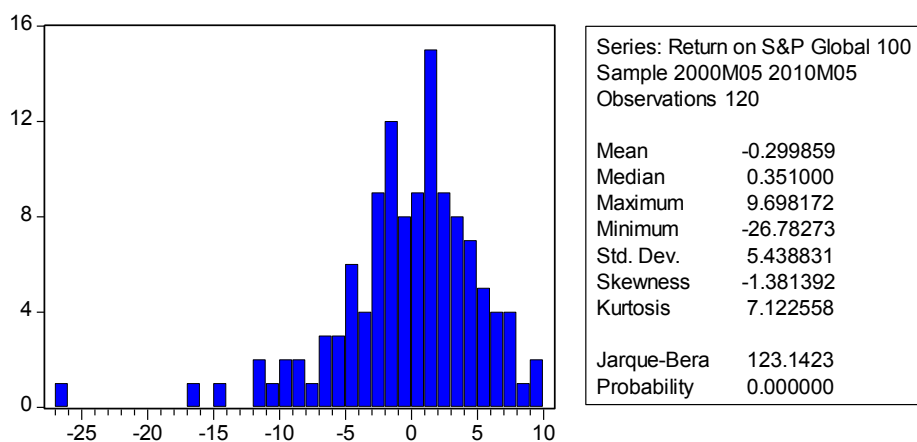
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Distribution of returns on SET



Data source: CEIC

Example: Returns on S&P Global 100



Downside risk
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Homework

- Problem Set
BKM Ch 5# 4, 7, 8, 9, 12, 15

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