# Statistical method for risk management and portfolio

# theory

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## Abstract

The portfolio theory is a risk management framework through the concept of diversification. When investing, the theory attempts to maximize portfolio expected return or minimize portfolio risk for a given level of expected return by choosing the proportions of various assets. The project focuses on the Dow 30 companies' activity in 2014 and generalizes the return of the 30 assets to find the one with the highest return. Based on the regression analysis, we found two assets with maximum return and minimum risks. We ran the model diagnostics on the regression model and removed the outliers to reduce the bias. To find the best portfolio, we combined these two assets into the tangency portfolio and added a risk-free asset (Treasury Yield Curve Rate) into the portfolio. To evaluate the performance of the combined portfolio, we applied risk measures including Value-at Risk, the Sharpe ratio and the Sortino ratio as well as formulated the most desirable portfolio in terms of reward-to-risk criteria for investment. This project was accomplished by combining the applications of multiple linear regression analysis, model diagnostics and portfolio theory. The implementation was achieved by statistical language R and EXCEL.

Key words: Regression analysis; Risk Management; Portfolio Theory; Expected Return

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## **Chapter 1**

## **Introduction and Background**

## **1.1 Introduction**

Statistics is widely defined as the study of the collection, classification, analysis and interpretation of data (Dodge, 2003). People can apply statistics as a tool to find trends in large amounts of data to predict the performance of such data. Furthermore, Statistics plays an important role in a number of different fields including math, economics, business, financing, investing, industry, engineering, accounting, biology and social science. Business managers apply statistics to perform the market research, find the customer preferences, estimate costs and profits in order to make decisions. Economists use statistics to find the relationship between supply and demand, the imports and exports, the inflation rate and estimate the trend of the market. Accountants carry out statistics to evaluate the performance, discover the profit trends, build the financial statement and setup the revenue goal for next season. Investors apply statistics to combine various assets and find the proportion of the assets to ensure more return with lower risk. The examples show how people are using statistical methods to analyze data to reasonably invest and manage assets and the broader social and economical impacts of statistics. The project will focus on the application of statistics in financing and investing with an emphasis on the risk management.

Risk Management is a rich subject which includes many aspects such as assets

allocation, security valuation, portfolio optimization and performance measurement. In this project, we focus on the statistical methods for controlling the risk and portfolio allocation. Risk is always uncertain and it is related to certainty quantification. It is the threat when an event could impede the companies' or the market's current development by affecting the firm's ability to achieve its business goal successfully. Risk accompanies all kinds of business activities, thus, it is an inherent components and sometimes unavoidable. The objective of risk management is not to completely prevent or eliminate all risks. It is about making decisions in order to efficiently manage and respond to the risks by maximizing the benefits and minimizing the adverse effects.

Regression is a statistical tool used to understand and estimate the relationship between two or more variables. The primary application of regression in business and finance is forecasting. For example, the investors rely on regression analysis to estimate the relationship between the asset activities and interest rate. The companies' advertising department applies regression analysis to estimate the relation between corporation's sales and advertising expenditures. Also, the regression can be used to forecast the future demand for a product in a company.

Performance measurement is the process of collecting, analyzing and reporting of the information to help us understand, manage, and improve our goal. It usually tells us how well we are doing, if there is space to improve, if we are meeting our goals, if our customers are satisfied, etc. There are multiple approaches of performance measurements such as return on investment, number of accidents per day, units of mile per gallon, etc. These units or numbers tell people about the efficiency, productivity, safety, quality, etc. Performance measure is widely used in many industries in real life and it is one of the most significant topics we will talk in our project since we need these measurements to reflect the profitability of our portfolio.

In the project, we downloaded 30 Dow Jones companies' activities in 2014 and generated the return & risk list to find the asset with the highest expected return. We used regression analysis to find two assets with maximum return and minimum risks. We used the portfolio theory to combine these two assets into the tangency portfolio and added a risk-free asset into the portfolio to find a better one. To evaluate the performance of the combined portfolio, we used Value-at Risk, the Sharpe ratio and the Sortino ratio. The ultimate goal of the project is to combine the tangency portfolio with the risk-free asset and to achieve the lowest overall risk with the highest expected return in terms of the reward-to-risk criteria. This project is mostly accomplished with the application of regression analysis and portfolio theory.

We will introduce the formulas and definitions in our application in the Methodology Chapter which have a great amount of studies and development behind them.

## **1.2 Literature Reviews**

The study of risk can be traced to Markowitz's work on Portfolio Theory which stated that investors should care about risks as well as return, since the future is not known as certainty but variations of this type of rule can be suggested (1952). After that, the science of risk management has developed and became its own study of field. Risk management is defined to be the identification, assessment, and prioritization of risks. Risk management is a two-step process: firstly determine the risks existing in the investment, and then deal with the risk to minimize it in the investment. Risk management a subject combining both the statistical analysis and financial skills to identify and effectively response to the emerging risks. The companies rely on risk managers to ensure that no unforeseeable events would negatively impact the company. Risk managers analyze data and learn lessons from risk events as well as obtain the unbiased and independent data from the source to evaluate and respond to the risks. According to Ruppert (2011):

There are many different types of risk. Market risk is due to changes in prices. Credit risk is the danger that counterparty does not meet contractual obligation, for example, that interest or principal on a bond is not paid. Liquidity risk is the potential extra cost of liquidating a position because buyers are difficult to locate. Operational risk is due to fraud, mismanagement, human errors, and similar problems.

Miller developed a framework for categorizing the uncertainties faced by firms operating internationally and proposed both financial and strategic corporate risk management responses (1992). Slovic brought up methods for assessing perceptions of risk and the implications for regulation and public policy in his book (2000). He examined the gap between expert views of risk and public perceptions. The risk management as an enterprise-wide approach is really important in an organization. If a company defines its objective without taking the risks into account, they will definitely lack the methods on how to respond once the risks emerge. That is why risk management is especially critical for people who work in the business area.

The regression model is the most important method in data analysis. Hundreds of

years ago, the original form of regression was the method of least squares published by Legendre in 1805 and Gauss in 1809. Gauss published a further theory of least squares in 1821. The term "regression" was firstly coined by Francis Galton in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and the original meaning described a biological phenomenon (return to a former stage). But it's meaning had been extended to a more general statistical context which shows relationship between the selected values of predictor x and observed values of response y (Yule, 1897 & Karl & Yule, 1903). Regression analysis has its unique application in the real life. Marketing department applies the regression to forecast the future demand and investors carry out it to optimize the benefits. In our project, regression models were performed to estimate the relationship between the assets activities and to optimize the expected return.

The Portfolio Theory is another significant topic we will introduce and apply in the project. It was first introduced in the book "*Portfolio Selection*" (Harry M. Markowitz, 1952). Markowitz proposed an "expected returns-variance of returns" rule and won the Nobel memorial prize for the theory in 1990. The theory is widely used in the financial industry. The modern portfolio theory explains how to select a portfolio with the highest possible expected return on a given level of risk, or for a given expected return, how to select a portfolio with the lowest possible risk (Edwin & Gruber, 1997). The Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) was introduced by several people, who referred to the earlier work of Markowitz on portfolio theory (Frencha, 2003). This model describes the relationship between risk and expected return. Arbitrage pricing theory (APT) proposed by Stephen Ross (1976) is another theory of asset pricing that states that the return of a financial asset can be predicted using the relationship between the asset and many common risk factors. APT is often viewed as an alternative to the CAPM. The difference is that APT has multiple factors whereas CAPM has a single factor. Moreover, APT considers various macro-economic factors and has more assumption requirements than CAPM. The Fama-French Three-factor model is another model introduced by Eugene Fama and Kenneth French (1993) to describe stock returns with three variables instead of one variable used by the capital pricing model. In our project, we apply portfolio theory to find the allocating distribution of our two risky assets and one risk-free asset in order to combine our desirable portfolio with maximized return and minimized risk.

The Sharpe ratio, arguably the most common way to measure the financial performance of an investment, was developed in 1966 by William F. Sharpe, and used to be called the "reward-to-variability" ratio by Sharpe. In 1983, the Sortino ratio, a further development of Sharpe ratio, was created by Brian M. Rom but it was named after Frank A. Sortino who popularized downside risk optimization. Different from the Sharpe ratio, the Sortino ratio only penalizes the standard deviation of negative return asset. Thus the Sortino ratio is better at analyzing portfolios with high volatility than the Sharpe ratio (Sortino, 2010). The Sharpe ratio and the Sortino ratio are the most significant two measurements in our project and reflect the efficiency of our portfolios. Another measure of performance analysis, value-at-risk (VaR), did not emerge as a distinct concept until the late 1980s because of the stock market crash in 1987. The market crash prompted the risk managers to think about the new measure model to predict the actual risk emergement. The approach to model selection for predicting VaR, consisting of alternative risk models and comparing strategies for choosing VaR models, was proposed in 2009 (McAleer, Jimenez-Martin, Perez-Amaral). VaR measures the predictable

financial risk on an investment portfolio over a specific time and it is used to estimate the actual risk and compare the portfolios with the initial assets.

## **Chapter 2**

# Methodology

## **Overview**

First of all, we chose the Dow Jones 30 companies as our targeted assets. We downloaded the daily historical price of the Dow 30 companies and the daily one-year Treasury Yield Curve Rate. We got the daily returns for each asset using the log return and copied them into a new sheet. Then, we calculate the expected return (the average log return) and the volatility (the standard deviation of the log returns), for each asset and sort expected return from largest to smallest. We picked up the asset with the largest return as our Asset1 and used the multiple regressions model to find the least correlated asset to Asset1 as our Asset2. We used R language to apply the multiple regressions model. During the procedure, we also used residual diagnostics for regression to determine the validation of the model assumption and remove the outliers. After finding our two targeted assets, we began to allocate the assets and optimize the portfolio. We firstly found the weight for the two assets in the tangency portfolio and then combined the tangency portfolio with the risk-free asset. To find out the final proportion of the tangency portfolio and risk-free asset, we set up our targeted return and volatility first. After we found the combined portfolios, we also evaluated the portfolio performance by some reward-to-risk measures. To better understand the procedure of this project, the following subsections introduce the formulations and definitions we used in the project. The interested readers can find the following formulation from e.g., Ruppert, 2011.

## 2.1 Returns

Return is defined as the gain or loss of a security or investment in a particular period. The revenue or the loss, negative revenue, depends on the changes in price and the amounts of the assets being held. Returns measure the changes in price expressed as a fraction of the initial price.

### 2.1.1 Net Returns

Let  $P_t$  be the price of an asset at time t. Assume no dividends the net return over the hold period from time t - 1 to time t is

$$R_t = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}} - 1 = \frac{P_t - P_{t-1}}{P_{t-1}}$$
(2.1)

 $P_t - P_{t-1}$  is the revenue or profit during the holding period, with a negative profit meaning a loss.  $P_{t-1}$  was the initial investment at the start of the holding period. The revenue from holding an asset is

Revenue = initial investment  $\times$  net return

For example, an initial investment of \$1000 and a net return of 8% will earn revenue of \$80.

### 2.1.2 Log returns

Log returns, also known as continuously compounded returns, are denoted as  $r_t$  and defined as

$$r_t = \log(1 + R_t) = \log\left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}\right) = p_t - p_{t-1}$$
 (2.2)

where  $p_t$  is defined as  $log(P_t)$  and is called the "log price".

For example, a 10% return equals a 9.53% log return as log(1 + 0.1) = 0.0953. A -10%

return equals a -10.54% log return since  $\log(1 - 0.1) = -0.1054$ . Also,  $\log(1 + 0.05) = 0.0488$  and  $\log(1 - 0.05) = -0.0513$ .

Log return is significant here in the project, we use (2.2) to get the log return of each 2 days prices and calculate the mean of these continuous log returns, which is the expected return.

## 2.2 Regression

Let Y be the response variable and  $X_1, ..., X_p$  be the predictor variables.  $Y_i$  and  $X_{i,1}, ..., X_{i,p}$  are the values of these variables for the *i*th observation. The regression modeling investigates how Y is related to  $X_1, ..., X_p$ , estimates the conditional expectation of Y given  $X_1, ..., X_p$ , and prediction of future Y values when the corresponding values of  $X_1, ..., X_p$  are already available.

The multiple linear regression model rating Y to the predictor variables is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_p X_{i,p} + \epsilon_i$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  is the random noise.  $\beta_0$  is the intercept, it is the expected value of  $Y_i$  when all the  $X_{i,j}$  are zero. The coefficients of  $\beta_1, ..., \beta_p$  are the corresponding slopes of  $X_{i,1}, ..., X_{i,p}$ .  $\beta_j$  Indicates every unit change in the expected value of  $Y_i$  when  $X_{i,j}$  changes on unit.

### 2.2.1 Straight-Line Regression

*Straight-line regression* is linear regression with only one predictor variable. The model is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i \tag{2.3}$$

where  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are the intercept and slope of the line.

### 2.2.2 Multiple Linear Regression

The multiple linear regression model is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_p X_{i,p} + \epsilon_i \tag{2.4}$$

We use the multiple linear regression model in R to find out the pair of assets with the smallest correlation. We firstly test the asset with the largest return with the other 29 assets and take into account the most correlated one, and test this new asset with the rest 28 assets and so forth. In the end, the last asset left is the least correlated to the first asset.

## 2.3 Portfolio Theory

Portfolio theory, also known as modern portfolio theory (MPT) or portfolio management theory, is a theory based on how the investors construct the portfolios to optimize the expected return on a given level of risk.

There are four steps:

- Security valuation
- Asset allocation
- Portfolio optimization
- Performance measurement

We will see the details of the four steps in the Results Chapter when we carry out the real data analysis.

#### 2.3.1 One Risky Asset and One Risk-Free Asset

Assume the expected return and standard deviation of a risky asset is  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , and there is also on risk-free asset with return of  $\mu_f$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_f = o$ . Suppose that a fraction w of our wealth is invested in the risky asset and the remaining fraction 1 - w is invested in the risk-free asset. Then the expected return is

$$E(R) = w\mu + (1 - w)\mu_f$$
(2.5)

The variance of the return is

$$\sigma_R^2 = w^2 \sigma^2 + (1 - w)^2 (0)^2 = w^2 \sigma^2$$

and the standard deviation of the return is

$$\sigma_R = \sigma w \tag{2.6}$$

### 2.3.2 Two Risky Assets

Suppose two risky assets have returns  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  and we mix them in proportion w and 1 - w. The return is  $R = wR_1 + (1 - w)R_2$ . The expected return on the portfolio is  $E(R) = w\mu_1 + (1 - w)\mu_2$ . Let  $\rho_{12}$  be the correlation between the returns on the two risky assets. The variance of the return on the portfolio is

$$\sigma_R^2 = w^2 \sigma_1^2 + (1 - w)^2 \sigma_2^2 + 2w(1 - w)\rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$$
(2.7)

Note that  $\sigma_{R_1,R_2} = \rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$ .

### 2.3.3 Combining Two Risky Assets with a Risk-Free Asset

### **Tangency Portfolio with Two Risky Assets**

Again, let  $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$  and  $\mu_f$  be the expected returns on the two risky assets and the return on the risk-free asset. Let  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  be the standard deviations of the returns on the two risky assets and let  $\rho_{12}$  be the correlation between the returns on the

risky assets.

Define  $V_1 = \mu_1 - \mu_f$  and  $V_2 = \mu_2 - \mu_f$ , the excess expected returns. Then the tangency portfolio uses weight

$$w_T = \frac{V_1 \sigma_2^2 - V_2 \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2}{V_1 \sigma_2^2 + V_2 \sigma_1^2 - (V_1 + V_2) \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \quad (2.8)$$

and weight  $(1 - w_T)$  for asset For the first risky the second. Let  $R_T$ ,  $E(R_T)$ , and  $\sigma_T$  be the return, expected return, and standard deviation of the return on the tangency portfolio. Then  $E(R_T)$  and  $\sigma_T$  can be found by first finding  $w_T$ formulas using (2.8)and using the  $E(R_T) = w_T \mu_1 + (1 - w_T) \mu_2$ (2.9)

and

$$\sigma_T = \sqrt{w_T^2 \sigma_1^2 + (1 - w_T)^2 \sigma_2^2 + 2w_T (1 - w_T) \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2}$$
(2.10)

These formulas above are crucial to our project, since we use them to find the weight  $w_T$  for our tangency portfolio.

#### Combining the Tangency Portfolio with the Risk-free Asset

Let  $R_p$  be the return on the portfolio that allocates a fraction  $\omega$  of the investment to the tangency portfolio and  $1 - \omega$  to the risk-free asset. Then

$$R_p = \omega R_T + (1 - \omega)\mu_f = \mu_f + \omega (R_T - R_f)$$

so that

$$E(R_P) = \mu_f + \omega \{ E(R_T) - \mu_f \} \text{ and } \sigma_{R_P} = \omega \sigma_T.$$
(2.11)

After finding the tangency portfolio in our project, we use (2.11) find the combing weight  $\omega$ .

### 2.3.4 Risk measurement for Portfolio performance

#### VaR

In financial risk management, value-at-risk is a risk measure of the level of financial risk on a investment portfolio over a specific time. The risk managers always use it to estimate and control the level of risk which the firm could undertake.

Suppose a portfolio of investment has a one-month 5% VaR of \$1 million, this means that there is 5% chance that the portfolio will fall in value of more than \$1 million in any given month.

#### Sharpe ratio

Sharpe ratio is a way to measure the performance of investment by calculating riskadjusted return. The Sharpe ratio measures the excess return per unit of volatility or risk (standard deviation) in an investment asset.

Sharpe ratio = 
$$\frac{E(R_P) - \mu_f}{\sigma_{R_P}}$$

Sharpe ratio is last but significant part in our project since measurement of performance plays an important role in the risk management project. A larger Sharpe ratio means a higher expected return for a given level of risk, thus, the larger Sharpe ratio, the better the portfolio is performing.

#### Sortino ratio

Sortino ratio is a modification of Sharpe ratio that differentiates the harmful volatility by focusing on the standard deviation of the negative asset returns which is downside deviation, different from Sharpe ratio penalizes both upside and downside volatility. A large sortino ratio indicates the probability of a large loss is low.

sortino ratio = 
$$\frac{E(R_P) - \mu_f}{\sigma_d}$$
 (2.13)

where  $\sigma_d$  = Standard deviation of negative asset returns.

Sortino ratio is better than Sharpe ratio when analyzing a portfolio with high volatility.

### Effect of $\rho_{12}$

According to (2.10), the smaller  $\rho_{12}$ , the smaller the risk is. Thus, positive correlation between two risky assets is not good since it will increase the volatility. Conversely, negative correlation is good. When  $\rho_{12}$  is small, the efficient portfolio has less risk for a given level of return compare to a larger  $\rho_{12}$ . This is significant in our project, since our goal is to maximize the return and minimize the risk. Thus, we have to find a pair of two assets with the correlation between them as small as possible to minimize the risk based on the given level of return.

# Chapter 3

# Results

First of all, we chose the Dow Jones 30 companies as our targeted assets. We downloaded the daily historical price of the Dow 30 companies and the daily Treasury Yield Curve Rate from January 2015 to September 2015. We got the daily return for each asset using the Formula 2.2 and copied them into a new sheet. Then, we calculated the expected return (the average of the 166 data) and the volatility (the standard deviation of the return) for each asset and sorted the Expected Return column by largest to smallest. The list is shown in Table 1 below.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility
NKE	0.00036246	0.005427245
UNH	0.000308778	0.006704323
HD	0.000272074	0.005618419
DIS	0.000170144	0.006447469
V	0.000117591	0.0059978
MCD	7.36645E-05	0.005132488
PFE	6.70026E-05	0.00475848
BA	-1.53483E-06	0.005932228
AAPL	-5.7528E-06	0.007468806
JPM	-9.47463E-06	0.006003824
VZ	-5.68783E-05	0.004250472
GE	-7.96061E-05	0.006028705
GS	-0.000144628	0.005647444
TRV	-0.000174514	0.004829707
КО	-0.000175244	0.003783511
MRK	-0.000180369	0.005854845
CSCO	-0.000205998	0.006410425
MSFT	-0.000237981	0.007895184
IBM	-0.000271929	0.005707904

JNJ	-0.000272409	0.004535395
3M	-0.000389884	0.00471668
CAT	-0.000464768	0.006417421
AXP	-0.000568849	0.006167833
ХОМ	-0.000592784	0.005871294
UTX	-0.000601334	0.005339694
INTC	-0.00063737	0.00696479
PG	-0.00064696	0.004331788
WMT	-0.000723041	0.005000283
DD	-0.000822185	0.006342017
CVX	-0.000864191	0.007036405
Risk-free		
rate	0.002643976	0.000572549

Table 1: Sheet of Return and Risk of Dow 30 (2015.01-2015.09)

However, the largest return among the 30 companies of NKE (Nike, Inc.) is still smaller than the average daily Treasury Yield Rate. In this case, we cannot continue with the negative excess expected returns (the difference between return of risky asset and riskfree asset), since this means the risk-free asset leads to a higher return than the risky asset, which is a meaningless portfolio construction. The low expected return is caused by the bad performance of the stock happening in 2015, as the overall market is experiencing a sharp decline during 2015.

To avoid negative excess expected return, we selected a time period with a better market performance. Accordingly, we decided to analyze the assets performance in 2014 when the overall market performed better than 2015.

## **3.1** Security Valuation

### **3.1.1 Generalizing Assets**

After making the final decision on the time period, we downloaded all Dow 30 companies' historical daily prices from January 2014 to December 2014 and measured the

log returns by the Formula 2.2 between each two-day prices. We had 251 expected returns for each asset, then we calculated the expected return and standard deviation of the 251 data and combined them into a new excel sheet. After sorting these data by expected return from largest to smallest, we got that INTC (Intel Corporation) is the security with the highest expected return. The result is shown in Table 2 below.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility
INTC	0.000644984	0.006016181
AAPL	0.000614366	0.005924446
UNH	0.000554677	0.005131256
HD	0.000463851	0.004542265
CSCO	0.000447134	0.004572712
MSFT	0.000432838	0.005201736
DIS	0.000386997	0.004849593
NKE	0.000377597	0.005720839
MMM	0.00034187	0.004118795
TRV	0.000333134	0.003234185
V	0.000308706	0.005774122
DD	0.000305251	0.004369133
MRK	0.000290118	0.005215922
JNJ	0.00028725	0.003990711
PG	0.00026678	0.003195245
WMT	0.000189261	0.003637665
GS	0.000180835	0.004747392
JPM	0.000159794	0.004896901
КО	0.00011624	0.004112382
PFE	9.8599E-05	0.004406175
AXP	8.68251E-05	0.004876352
CAT	7.71345E-05	0.004972695
UTX	7.50764E-05	0.004166835
MCD	9.33574E-06	0.003458593
VZ	-4.56371E-06	0.00405599
BA	-4.69131E-05	0.005286244
XOM	-8.31201E-05	0.004522835
GE	-8.62938E-05	0.004121864
CVX	-0.00011466	0.004972695
IBM	-0.000209891	0.004729747

Table 2: Sheet of Return and Risk of Dow 30 sort by return (2014.01-2014.12)

There is another way to evaluate these 30 assets by looking at the risk level. If we sort these data by volatility from smallest to largest, we can conclude that PG (The Procter & Gamble Company) is the least risky asset among 30 assets. We attach the list in Table 3 below.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility
PG	0.00026678	0.003195245
TRV	0.000333134	0.003234185
MCD	9.33574E-06	0.003458593
WMT	0.000189261	0.003637665
JNJ	0.00028725	0.003990711
VZ	-4.56371E-06	0.00405599
КО	0.00011624	0.004112382
MMM	0.00034187	0.004118795
GE	-8.62938E-05	0.004121864
UTX	7.50764E-05	0.004166835
DD	0.000305251	0.004369133
PFE	9.8599E-05	0.004406175
XOM	-8.31201E-05	0.004522835
HD	0.000463851	0.004542265
CSCO	0.000447134	0.004572712
IBM	-0.000209891	0.004729747
GS	0.000180835	0.004747392
DIS	0.000386997	0.004849593
AXP	8.68251E-05	0.004876352
JPM	0.000159794	0.004896901
CAT	7.71345E-05	0.004972695
CVX	-0.00011466	0.004972695
UNH	0.000554677	0.005131256
MSFT	0.000432838	0.005201736
MRK	0.000290118	0.005215922
BA	-4.69131E-05	0.005286244
NKE	0.000377597	0.005720839
V	0.000308706	0.005774122
AAPL	0.000614366	0.005924446
INTC	0.000644984	0.006016181

Table 3: Sheet of Return and Risk of Dow 30 sort by risk (2014.01-2014.12)

## 3.1.2 Finding two Risky Assets

In portfolio theory, researchers always choose the least risky asset or the most profitable one to be the first risky asset. In the project, we would like to ensure our return, thus, we picked up INTC as our first risky asset.

After finding our most profitable asset1, our goal in the following procedures was to minimize the risk. According to the previous studies, we learned that the smaller the correlation between the two assets, the smaller the risk. Therefore, we calculated the correlation between INTC and all other 29 assets and sorted from smallest to largest.

Company	Company	Correlation
INTC	КО	0.163379529
INTC	AAPL	0.216856382
INTC	V	0.217627613
INTC	NKE	0.220008633
INTC	HD	0.222552133
INTC	PG	0.228610937
INTC	MRK	0.265253872
INTC	MCD	0.27500614
INTC	WMT	0.280123692
INTC	TRV	0.280719747
INTC	UTX	0.293778755
INTC	UNH	0.295207306
INTC	VZ	0.306220831
INTC	PFE	0.307461828
INTC	DD	0.309532287
INTC	IBM	0.311483727
INTC	JNJ	0.3175937
INTC	CVX	0.32145425
INTC	BA	0.324174314
INTC	CAT	0.334473464
INTC	DIS	0.352877496
INTC	XOM	0.360204204
INTC	GS	0.393399476
INTC	AXP	0.403812028
INTC	JPM	0.427715217
INTC	CSCO	0.460201611

INTC	GE	0.460258877	
INTC	MMM	0.494109565	
INTC	MSFT	0.549088285	
Table 4: Sheet of Correlation			

From this simple correlation list, it showed that the correlation between INTC and KO (The Coca-Cola Company) is the smallest. However, the evidence was insufficient to indicate the dependence between each pair of assets by calculating correlations in this way because the correlation outputs were simply generated. A regression model was used to give more evidence here to adjust for more accurate result. R language was another software tool we use to deal with the information and do the data analysis.

After importing the 2014 regressions sheet into R and running the multiple regression analysis on INTC and the rest of the 29 assets, we had the output shown in Figure 1 below:

lm(formula XOM + G BA + KO WMT)	= INTC ~ MM E + IBM + J + GS + HD	M + AXP + AA NJ + JPM + N + PG + TRV +	APL + CAT MCD + MRK + DIS + U	+ CVX + + MSFT - TX + UNH	CSCO + DD + + NKE + PFE + + VZ + V +				
Residuals:									
Min	10	Median	3	Q	Мах				
-0.0131130	-0.0023363	-0.0002306	0.002098	5 0.0270	0204				
Coefficient	s:								
(T. ).	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>ltl)					
(Intercept)	0.0003514	0.0003167	1.110	0.26838					
MMM	0.2243939	0.1270795	1.766	0.07881	•				
AXP	0.0375444	0.1165708	0.322	0.74770					
AAPL	-0.0047881	0.0574822	-0.083	0.93369					
CAT	0.0684530	0.0821469	0.833	0.40558					
CVX	0.0170021	0.1089988	0.156	0.87619	**				
CSCO	0.2518304	0.0878405	2.867	0.00455	**				
DD	-0.0476394	0.0930120	-0.512	0.60903					
XUM	0.0446290	0.1268241	0.352	0.72525					
GE	0.1457864	0.1245979	1.170	0.24324					
TRW	-0.0103500	0.0783458	-0.209	0.83482					
LNC	-0.0203460	0.11/00/5	-0.174	0.86211					
JPM	0.1115081	0.1007429	1.045	0.29794					
MCD	-0.0239070	0.1109406	-0.216	0.82910					
MKK	0.0003519	0.0709909	0.650	0.39017					
MSFI	0.4090817	0.0749798	0 201	1.30-07					
DEE	-0.0200332	0.00000000	-0.391	0.09362					
PFC	0.1112786	0.0333200	1 449	0.03012					
KO	0.0108151	0.0883958	0 122	0.14070					
GS	0 0114927	0 1130427	0 102	0 91911					
HD	-0 1023931	0.0829257	-1 235	0 21823					
PG	0.0035522	0.1263647	0.028	0.97760					
TRV	0.0240035	0.1308022	0.184	0.85457					
DIS	0.0104394	0.0941277	0.111	0.91179					
UTX	-0.2700465	0.1202765	-2.245	0.02574					
UNH	0.0145256	0.0754418	0.193	0.84750					
VZ	-0.0132014	0.0914145	-0.144	0.88531					
V	-0.0980741	0.0733674	-1.337	0.18268					
WMT	0.0322371	0.1085141	0.297	0.76669					
Signif. cod	es: 0 '***	0.001 '**'	0.01 '*	' 0.05 '	.'0.1''1				
Residual st	andard erro	r: 0.004769	on 221 d	earees of	f freedom				
Malina D	anaura erro		diversed D	cgrees o					

Multiple R-squared: 0.4445, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3717 F-statistic: 6.099 on 29 and 221 DF. p-value: 4.924e-16

Figure 1: R call output of model1

The *p*-value (Pr > |t| in the lm output) tests the null hypothesis that the coefficient is 0 versus the alternative hypothesis that it is not 0. If a *p*-value for a predictor variable is small, then it shows evidence that the predictor has a linear relationship with the response variable. (Ruppert, 2011)

From the output we saw that the *p*-value (Pr > |t| in the lm output) of MSFT was the smallest among all the other *p*-values, in this case, we concluded that this was evidence that the coefficient of MSFT was not 0 and MSFT had a linear relationship with the response INTC. Also, it was most correlated to INTC compared to the other assets.

Therefore, we ran the multiple regressions to model the relationship between

MSFT and the rest of the 28 assets to find the most correlated one to MSFT, exactly the same as what we did before when we ran the regression analysis. We repeated the procedure until there was only one asset left which was the least correlated to the INTC asset. Every time the predictor with the smallest *p*-value had to be eliminated, as it is the most correlated to the corresponding response variable, thus leaving the least correlated predictor in the rest of the predictors. The R codes are shown in Figure 2 below.



Figure 2: multiple linear regressions (R codes)

Model 1 through model 29 stand for all the 29 multiple regressions models on the corresponding assets. From the outputs we got, we concluded that AAPL (Apple Inc.) was the one we were looking for, which was the least correlated to INTC since it was the last asset left after we did all 29 attempts. Therefore, AAPL was the second risky asset we figured out how to combine with INTC to find the efficient portfolio.

#### **3.1.3 Model Diagnostics**

After we fitted the regression model, it was important to determine if the models were normal to ensure the assumptions were valid. Since AAPL was the least dependent to INTC among the rest of the 29 securities, we performed the model diagnostic on AAPL



and INTC. We assigned model=lm(INTC~AAPL) in R and plotted the model in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3: Diagnostics in R: Plot (model)

We saw from the plots, there were three outliers and all of them were significantly bigger than the majority, which definitely made the overall expected return bigger than normal. Thus, we removed the outliers to make it normal since the outliers may result in a faulty conclusion. After we removed the three outliers, we had the new plots Figure 4 below.



Figure 4: Diagnostics in R: plot (model.2)

After removing the outliers, to avoid violations in the current model, the 112<sup>th</sup>, 135<sup>th</sup> and 195<sup>th</sup> data from the excel sheet to refresh the expected return from INTC and AAPL before we began the next procedure asset allocation.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility
INTC	0.000473212	0.005041186
AAPL	0.000656052	0.005945869

Table 5: Update Return and Risk of 2 risky assets

After we updated the expected return and risk, it was clear that the expected return

of INTC decreases from 0.000644984 to 0.000473212 as some of the outliers had unrealistically large returns, which may have resulted in inaccurate estimates.

## 3.2 Asset Allocation

## 3.2.1 Transferring the Risk-free Rate

The following figure shows the raw data of the two risky assets and the risk-free asset we chose.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility
INTC	0.000473212	0.005041186
AAPL	0.000656052	0.005945869
Risk-free rate	0.001210843	0.000343727

Table 6: Return and Risk sheet of two Risky Assets and Risk-free Asset

The risk-free rate we choose is daily Treasury Yield Curve 1-year Rate, so the expected return is the annual rate. To unify the risk-free asset and risky assets, we need to transfer the risk-free rate into daily rate. Suppose the annual risk-free rate is  $\mu_{fa}$  then using the formula

$$\mu_{fd} = (1 + \mu_{fa})^{1/365} - 1$$

to obtain the daily rate.

Thus  $\mu_{fd} = (1 + 0.00121260163)^{1/365} - 1 = 3.31538\text{E-06}$  as shown in Table 7

below.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility (std of dif adj close)
INTC	0.000473212	0.005041186
AAPL	0.000656052	0.005945869
Risk-free rate	3.31538E-06	0.000343727

Table 7: Daily Return and Risk sheet

### 3.2.2 Tangency Portfolio

By using the Formula 2.8 in the previous chapter we developed to find the weight

for

tangency

portfolio.

$$w_T = \frac{V_1 \sigma_2^2 - V_2 \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2}{V_1 \sigma_2^2 + V_2 \sigma_1^2 - (V_1 + V_2) \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2}$$

where the excess expected returns  $V_1 = \mu_1 - \mu_f$  and  $V_2 = \mu_2 - \mu_f$ .

We obtain  $V_1 = 0.000469897$ ,  $V_2 = 0.000652736$  and weight  $w_T = 0.47752457$ 

by inputting the formulas into Excel shown in Table 8 below.

Cor	0.216856382	
V1	0.000469897	
V2	0.000652736	
	1.23696E-08	2.59036E-08
Wt	0.47752457	
1-Wt	0.52247543	
E(Rt)	0.000568741	
std	0.004323113	

Table 8: Tangency Portfolio weight

3.4163E-09 and 1.10813E-08 are numerator  $V_1\sigma_2^2 - V_2\rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$  and denominator  $V_1\sigma_2^2 +$ 

 $V_2\sigma_1^2 - (V_1 + V_2)\rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$  which help to obtain the weight.

By the Formulas 2.9

$$E(R_T) = w_T \mu_1 + (1 - w_T) \mu_2$$

and the Formulas 2.10

$$\sigma_T = \sqrt{w_T^2 \sigma_1^2 + (1 - w_T)^2 \sigma_2^2 + 2w_T (1 - w_T) \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2}$$

from Chapter 2, we calculated the return and standard deviation of the tangency portfolio which are 0.000568741 and 0.004323113 respectively. The standard deviation of tangency portfolio is smaller than both of INTC and AAPL, and the overall expected

return is between those of INTC and AAPL. Therefore, we reduced the risk level and maintained the expected return after combining these two assets into the tangency portfolio shown in Table 9 below.

Daily	INTC	AAPL	Risk free rate	Tangency portfolio
MEAN	0.047%	0.066%	0.00033%	0.057%
STD	0.504%	0.595%	0.034%	0.432%

Table 9: Daily Tangency Portfolio output

We had our tangency portfolio combined by 47.75% of INTC and 52.25% of AAPL.

## 3.3 Portfolio Optimization

After finding the tangency portfolio, which ensures the highest expected return between two risky assets with minimum risk by choosing the tangency weight  $w_T$ , the next step was to find the combing fraction  $\omega$  between the risk-free asset and tangency portfolio we got to obtain the ultimate portfolio. Before that, we wanted to annualize all the outputs in order to do the following procedures more conveniently. The annualized data are shown in Table 10 below.

Annual	INTC	AAPL	Risk free rate	Tangency Portfolio
MEAN	18.849%	27.046%	0.121%	23.064%
STD	7.955%	9.382%	0.542%	6.822%

Table 10: Annualized return and risk output

We needed to set up our goals first to combine our two risky assets with the riskfree asset. We could set our target in various ways: ensuring a high-expected return, or ensuring a low risk level.

#### **3.3.1 Targeting a Certain Expected Return**

Suppose we wanted a 20% expected return, firstly, we needed to transfer 20% annual return into daily return which was  $(1.2)^{1/365} - 1 = 0.0004996359$ .

We assigned  $E(R_P) = 0.000568741$ , then, substituted the  $\mu_f$  and  $E(R_T)$  into the Formula 2.11 from Chapter 2, we obtained 0.877781468. According to  $\sigma_{R_P} = \omega \sigma_T$ , we could also get the standard deviation of the ultimate portfolio  $\sigma_{R_P} = 5.988\%$ .

Identically, if we wanted a lower expected return such as 15%, corresponding to a 0.0003829 daily return, and substituted the data into the formula, we got  $\omega = 0.671471307$  and  $\sigma_{R_P} = 4.581\%$ . Thus, if we lowered the expected return, the weight would decrease and standard deviation would decrease. Since  $\omega$  was the fraction of the ultimate investment to the tangency portfolio with an optimal expected return, the smaller the targeted return, the smaller the fraction  $\omega$  would be. Once the expected return decreased, the relative risk level would decrease.

#### 3.3.2 Targeting Certain Volatility

Another option was to reduce the risk level and maintain the return as much as possible. Suppose we were targeting the volatility to be 6% (our current tangency risk was 6.822%) then used the formula (2.11)

$$\sigma_{R_P} = \omega \sigma_T.$$

We neglected the risk of risk-free asset, as the standard deviation was really small. Therefore,

$$\omega = \frac{\sigma_{R_P}}{\sigma_T} = \frac{0.06}{0.06822} = 0.879538674.$$

 $\omega$  was relatively big, since our targeted volatility was close to the that of tangency

portfolio. We could obtain the expected return 20.044%

Next, we changed our target to 5% volatility annually. Then

$$\omega = \frac{\sigma_{R_P}}{\sigma_T} = \frac{0.05}{0.06822} = 0.732948895.$$

Since the weight was still beyond a half, there was space to lower the risk.  $E(R_P) = 16.468\%$ .

If we chose the volatility to be 2.5%,

$$\omega = \frac{\sigma_{R_P}}{\sigma_T} = \frac{0.025}{0.06822} = 0.366474447.$$

and

$$E(R_P) = 7.986\%$$

The weight was half of the previous weight corresponding to  $\sigma_{R_P} = 0.05$ , as the volatility was also half of the previous one.

We had five different outputs based on the corresponding targets shown in Table

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Combir	ng portfolio				
	Portfolio 1	Portfolio 2	Portfolio 3	Portfolio 4	Portfolio 5
MEAN	15.000%	20.000%	7.986%	16.468%	20.044%
STD	4.581%	5.988%	2.500%	5.000%	6.000%
w	0.671471307	0.877781468	0.366474447	0.732948895	0.879538674
		<b>T</b> 11 11 C	1.1 1.0 1.1. 0	N	

Table 11: Combined Portfolio Outputs

The first two columns of the form show the outputs when we assigned our target to be expected return and the last three show the results based on the certain volatility target. If we combined them together, and looked at the return and volatility, we could get the conclusion that small return was always followed by a relatively small risk level, and the corresponding proportion to the tangency portfolio was small. As the expected return increased, the volatility increased and combined weight increased at the same level.

To see the ultimate combined portfolio more clearly, we plot the portfolio into R in Figure 5 shown below.



Figure 5: Portfolio plots (R)

These four plots correspond to the combined portfolio1, 3, 4, 5. We can see from the graph that the portfolio with  $\omega = 0.8795$  earned higher return under a relatively high risk level. To better understand the portfolio and refine the best one, we used the next chapter-performance measurement.

## **3.4 Performance Measurement**

#### 3.4.1 Value-at-Risk

In financial risk management, VaR is always used to measure risk of loss on a given period. We used VaR to see the loss value based on the confidence level of 99% and 95%. The output is shown in Table 12 below.

VaR at 1000000	INTC	AAPL	Tangency portfolio		
0.99	-11254.33999	-13176.10766	-9488.324437		
0.95	-7818.800709	-9124.032255	-6542.147466		
Table 12: VaR of portfolio					

From the form, it shows that there is a one-day 1% chance that the tangency portfolio will fall in value by more than \$9488 and one-day 5% chance that the tangency portfolio will fall in value by more than \$6542 based on a \$1 million investment, which is good to see since it is much lower than both of VaR of INTC and AAPL.

### 3.4.2 Sharpe Ratio

As we talked in the previous chapter, the Sharpe Ratio calculates the average return earned in excess of the risk-free rate per unit of volatility. The greater the value of the Sharpe Ratio, the better the performance of the risk-adjusted return. Thus, Sharpe Ratio is another way to measure the performance of our investment.

Firstly, we calculated the Sharpe Ratio of the initial assets and the tangency portfolio to check whether our tangency portfolio was doing well by using the formula (2.12)

Sharpe ratio = 
$$\frac{E(R_P) - \mu_f}{\sigma_{R_P}}$$

We got that the Sharpe ratio of INTC was 2.354245593, of AAPL was 2.869736534, and tangency portfolio was 3.36314739. Hence, the tangency portfolio had a Sharpe ratio larger than both of AAPL and INTC, which indicates our tangency portfolio was performing well so far.

After that, we tested our five combined portfolios to see which one earned the most return in excess of the risk-free rate per unit of the total risk. We subsequently got the Sharpe ratio of these portfolios shown in Table 13 below.

Combing portfolio						
	Portfolio 1 Portfolio 2 Portfolio 3 Portfolio 4 Portf					
MEAN	15.000%	20.000%	7.986%	16.468%	20.044%	
STD	4.581%	5.988%	2.500%	5.000%	6.000%	
w	0.671471307	0.877781468	0.366474447	0.732948895	0.879538674	
Sharpe ratio	3.248235531	3.319785115	3.146130641	3.269342821	3.320403358	
		Fable 13: Sharpe	ratio outputs			

From the form, we saw that even all the five Sharpe ratios were close to each other, but the Sharpe ratio of the last column was the biggest with the value 3.3204. Therefore, we gave a preliminary conclusion that the portfolio 5 with mean of 20.044% and standard deviation of 6% was the best among all the others.

#### **3.4.3 Sortino Ratio**

From the log return of two assets, we saw nearly half of them were negative. In this case, we should also look at the Sortino ratio besides the Sharpe ratio.

The Sortino ratio always focuses on the standard deviation of negative asset returns, which is also called downside deviation. In this case, the Sortino ratio analyzes the portfolio with relatively high volatility better than the Sharpe ratio.

To calculate the Sortino ratio, we needed to measure the downside deviation of the portfolio. First of all, we filtered data by choosing "less than 0" command, and pasted all

the negative returns into the new column. After that, we calculated the standard deviation of these negative returns. The downside deviations of INTC and AAPL were

0.033389943 and 0.048243976. The pairwise covariance between INTC and AAPL was -

7.02887E-07, it means the dependence was very weak and they were almost independent.

Hence, we can use the formula

sortino ratio = 
$$\frac{E(R_P) - \mu_f}{\sigma_d}$$

to find the ultimate downside deviation 0.029825909. The results are shown in Table 14 below.

Combing portfolio							
	Portfolio 1	Portfolio 5					
MEAN	15.000%	20.000%	7.986%	16.468%	20.044%		
STD	4.581%	5.988%	2.500%	5.000%	6.000%		
w	0.671471307	0.877781468	0.366474447	0.732948895	0.879538674		
Sharpe ratio	3.248235531	3.319785115	3.146130641	3.269342821	3.320403358		
Sotino ratio	4.988587566	6.664982432	2.637078627	5.480709521	6.679568571		

Table 14: Sortino ratio outputs

The Sortino ratio manifested the same conclusion that the portfolio 5 was the best among the five portfolios and made it more evident.

In conclusion, we acquired our most desirable combined portfolio with annual return of 20.044% and risk of 6.00%. So 12.05% of the portfolio should be in the risk-free asset, and 87.95% should be in the tangency portfolio. Therefore, 42% should be in the first asset INTC and 45.95% should be in the second asset AAPL. The total was around 100%. The result is shown in Table 15 below.

Combing portfolio						Tangency Portfolio
	Portfolio 1	Portfolio 2	Portfolio 3	Portfolio 4	Portfolio 5	Tangency Portfolio
MEAN	15.000%	20.000%	7.986%	16.468%	20.044%	23.064%

STD	4.581%	5.988%	2.500%	5.000%	6.000%	6.822%
	0.6714713	0.8777814	0.3664744	0.7329488	0.8795386	
w	07	68	47	95	74	1
Sharpe	3.2482355	3.3197851	3.1461306	3.2693428	3.3204033	3.36314739
ratio	31	15	41	21	58	0
Sotino	4.9885875	6.6649824	2.6370786	5.4807095	6.6795685	7.69216388
ratio	66	32	27	21	71	5

Table 15: The overall performance measurement

If we put the combined portfolios and tangency portfolio together, we saw that the tangency portfolio had a better performance result analysis than any of the combined portfolio. As the Sharpe ratio and the sortino ratio were also used to compare the change in a portfolio's overall risk-return characteristics when a new asset was added into the portfolio, if the addition of the new investment lowers the ratio, it means it should not be added to the portfolio. In this case, the addition of the risk-free asset did lower both of the two ratios, and the two risky assets were doing well in 2014, combing INTC and AAPL with the risk-free asset was not a good option for investment comparing to the tangency portfolio. Our final solution was choosing the tangency portfolio instead of combing the tangency with risk-free asset for investment.

## 3.5 INTL and KO

From the correlation list in the previous section, we found that the correlation between INTC and KO (The Coca-Cola Company) is the even smaller than INTC and AAPL. In this case, to certify our conclusion that INTC and AAPL is the best tangency portfolio combination, we are going to combine INTL and KO and risk-free asset in this section.

Since we have done the procedures, it is familiar to us. We restarted everything performing the model diagnostic on KO and INTC. We assigned model0=lm(INTC~KO)





Figure 6: Diagnostics in R (INTC~ KO)

INTC~KO had same outliers with INTC~AAPL as we expect, as these outliers were extremely large return in INTC. Then, we removed the outliers as shown in Figure 7 below.



Figure 7: Plot INTC~KO without outliers

We updated the return and risk sheet in EXCEL shown in Table 16 below.

Company	Expected Return	Volatility		
INTC	0.000473212	0.005041186		
КО	9.51939E-05	0.004120615		
Risk-free rate	0.001210843	0.000343727		

Table 16: Return and Risk sheet (INTC&KO)

After preliminary analyzing this return and risk sheet, the expected return of KO was much lower than that of AAPL and really close to 0, we gave an assumption that the expected return of this tangency portfolio was lower than the tangency portfolio of INTC

and AAPL. In the following process, we will prove this assumption. The tangency portfolio output is shown in Table 17 below.

Cor	0.163379529	
V1	0.000469897	
V2	9.18785E-05	
	7.66678E-09	8.40698E-09
w	0.911954041	
1-w	0.088045959	
E(Rt)	0.000439929	
std	0.00467034	
Table 17: Tange	ency portfolio output	s (INTC&KO)

The weight for this tangency portfolio we got was really close to 1, which means that the proportion of INTC in the portfolio is really high since the return of the two asset are quite different. We attach the annual return and risk sheet for INTC&KO shown in Table 18 below.

Annual	INIC	КО	Risk free rate	Tangency Portfolio
MEAN	18.85%	3.54%	0.1211%	17.41%
STD	7.955%	6.502%	0.542%	7.370%

 Table 18: Annualized return and risk outputs (INTC&KO)

The expected return of the portfolio combined by INTC and KO (17.41%) was much lower than the expected return of the portfolio combined by INTC and AAPL (23.064%) and the volatility (7.37%) was higher than the volatility of INTC and AAPL (6.822%) which was not a good option to choose to combine. To make it clear, we calculated the Sharpe ratio of both of the tangency portfolio in Figure 25 below.

	Tangency Portfolio	Tangency	Portfolio
Annual	(INTC&AAPL)	(INTC&KO)	
MEAN	23.06%	17.41%	
STD	6.82%	7.37%	
Sharpe ratio	3.36314739	2.346544215	

Table 19: Performance measurement output

From the sheet, it is clear that the Sharpe ratio of the tangency portfolio consisted of INTC & AAPL is larger than the tangency portfolio consisted of INTC & KO.

In conclusion, INTC and AAPL is the best combination to be the tangency portfolio, and the combined portfolio we found in 3.4 is the best among all the combined portfolios. According to the performance analysis, the tangency portfolio of AAPL and INTC is the most desirable portfolio in terms of reward-to-risk criteria for investment.

## **Chapter 4**

# Conclusion

In this project, we focus on risk management, regression analysis and portfolio theory. We applied regression analysis to find a pair of two risky assets from Dow Jones 30 companies with highest return and lowest risk and found the proportion of the two assets to combine them into the tangency portfolio. We applied several reward-to-risk measures including Value-at-Riak, Sharpe ratio and Sortino ratio to evaluate the performance of our portfolios. Finally, we obtained our most desirable portfolio in terms of reward-to-risk criteria for investment.

## 4.1 **Results Summary**

At first, the data we chose in 2015 was not good for the asset portfolio combination since during the time, the stock market was experiencing a downturn trend and undertaking enormous risks. Therefore, we reorganized the assets into 2014 and generalized them again from Yahoo Finance.

After that, we found the pair of assets with maximum return and minimum risk by seeking out the asset INTC with the highest return and it least correlated asset AAPL after performing 30 attempts of regression models through R. In addition, we ran model diagnostics on the regression models to reduce the existing error. Then, we applied portfolio theory to find the weight for the tangency portfolio between INTC and AAPL and the combined portfolio based on the certain targets. Finally, we used several measures to estimate the performance of our combined portfolios and tangency portfolio to determine our best portfolio for investing.

After all the data analysis and the use of the Sharpe ratio and the Sortino ratio to measure the overall performance of all the portfolios we combined, we decided that the tangency portfolio of INTC and AAPL constitute the most desirable portfolio we were seeking with allocation distribution as 47.75% of INTC and 52.25% of AAPL. Since the status of stock market was strong in 2014. Adding the risk-free asset into the tangency portfolio lowers the Sharpe ratio and Sortino ratio, therefore, we recommend that the tangency portfolio without the risk-free asset is preferable if the maximum return is the ultimate goal.

## 4.2 Future Work

There is no doubt that people have a lot to be done in the field of risk management, especially the portfolio theory. By extending the method of finding the optimal compromise between expected return and risk, detailed in the Methodology Section, we can also find the efficient portfolios with an arbitrary number of assets instead of two risky assets and one risk-free asset. We can add more assets into the portfolio to see if there is more room to improve the investment. More details can be found in e.g., Ruppert, 2011, Chapter 11.

Risk management is rapidly developing into an essential strategic approach in the recent decades. Generally, riskier investments have a higher expected return, as investors always demand a reward for bearing higher risk. In this case, risk management is crucial to either short-term trends or long-term development.

# **Appendix A:**

## R code

```
mu1 = 0.26534287
mu2 = 0.251289796
sig1 = 0.09538
sig2 = 0.08665
rho = 0
rf = 0.001210843
corr = 0.216856382
w = seq(0, 1, len = 500)
means = 0.26534287 * w + 0.251289796 *(1-w)
var = sig1^2 * w^2 + sig2^2 * (1 - w)^2 + 2 * w * (1 - w) * corr * sig1 * sig2
risk = sqrt(var)
ind = !(risk > min(risk))
ind2 = (means > means[ind])
wt = 0.509182468
meant = 0.26534287 * wt + 0.251289796 * (1-wt)
riskt = sqrt(sig1^2 * wt^2 + sig2^2 * (1 - wt)^2 + 2 * wt * (1 - wt) * corr * sig1 * sig2)
wp = 0.411467822
meanp = wp * meant + (1 - wp) * rf
riskp = wp * riskt
#pdf("portfolioNew.pdf", width = 6, height = 5)
plot(risk, means, type = "l", lwd = 1, xlim = c(0, 0.1), ylim = c(0.0010, 0.27))
abline(v = 0)
lines(risk[ind2], means[ind2], type = "l", lwd = 5, col = "red")
lines( c(0, riskt), c(rf, meant), col = "blue", lwd =2)
lines(c(0,riskp), c(rf,meanp), col = "purple", lwd = 2, lty = 2)
text(riskt, meant, "T", cex = 1)
text(sig1, mu1, "R1", cex = 1)
text(sig2, mu2, "R2", cex = 1)
text(0, rf, "F", cex = 1)
text(riskp, meanp, "P", cex = 1)
text(min(risk), means[ind], "MV", cex = 1)
#graphics.off()
```

```
data=read.table(file.choose(),header=T,sep=",")
attach(data)
View(data)
model1=lm(INTC~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CAT+CVX+CSCO+DD+XOM+GE+IBM+JNJ+JPM+MCD
   +MRK+MSFT+NKE+PFE+BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UTX+UNH+VZ+V+WMT)
model2=lm(MSFT~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CAT+CVX+CSCO+DD+XOM+GE+IBM+JNJ+JPM+MCD
   +MRK+NKE+PFE+BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UTX+UNH+V+WMT+VZ)
model3=lm(VZ~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CAT+CVX+CSCO+DD+XOM+GE+IBM+JNJ+JPM+MCD
   +MRK+NKE+PFE+BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UTX+UNH+V+WMT)
model4=lm(XOM~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CAT+CVX+CSCO+DD+GE+IBM+JNJ+JPM+MCD+MRK
   +NKE+PFE+BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UTX+UNH+V+WMT)
model5=lm(CVX~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CAT+CSCO+DD+GE+JNJ+IBM+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE
   +PFE+BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UTX+UNH+V+WMT)
model6=lm(CAT~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CSCO+DD+GE+JNJ+IBM+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE
   +BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UTX+UNH+V+WMT)
model7=lm(UTX~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CSCO+DD+GE+JNJ+IBM+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+
    +BA+KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model8=lm(BA~MMM+AXP+AAPL+CSCO+DD+GE+INI+IBM+IPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE
   +KO+GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model9=lm(MMM~AXP+AAPL+CSCO+DD+GE+INJ+IBM+IPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE+KO
   +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model10=lm(GE~AXP+AAPL+CSCO+DD+JNJ+IBM+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model11=lm(CSCO~AXP+AAPL+DD+JNJ+IBM+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model12=lm(IBM~AXP+AAPL+DD+JNJ+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model13=lm(JNJ~AXP+AAPL+DD+JPM+MCD+MRK+NKE+PFE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model14=lm(MRK~AXP+AAPL+DD+JPM+MCD+NKE+PFE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model15=lm(PFE~AXP+AAPL+DD+JPM+MCD+NKE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+V+WMT)
model16=lm(V~AXP+AAPL+DD+IPM+MCD+NKE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+WMT)
model17=lm(AXP~AAPL+DD+JPM+MCD+NKE+KO
    +GS+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+WMT)
model18=lm(GS~AAPL+DD+JPM+MCD+NKE+KO+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+WMT)
model19=lm(JPM~AAPL+DD+MCD+NKE+KO+HD+PG+TRV+DIS+UNH+WMT)
model20=lm(TRV~AAPL+DD+MCD+NKE+KO+HD+PG+DIS+UNH+WMT)
model21=lm(DD~AAPL+MCD+NKE+KO+HD+PG+DIS+UNH+WMT)
model22=lm(DIS~AAPL+MCD+NKE+KO+HD+PG+UNH+WMT)
model23=lm(NKE~AAPL+MCD+KO+HD+PG+UNH+WMT)
model24=lm(HD~AAPL+MCD+KO+PG+UNH+WMT)
```

```
model25=lm(WMT~AAPL+MCD+KO+PG+UNH)
model26=lm(PG~AAPL+MCD+KO+UNH)
model27=lm(KO~AAPL+MCD+UNH)
model28=lm(MCD~AAPL+UNH)
model29=lm(UNH~AAPL)
model=lm(INTC~AAPL)
```

par(mfrow=c(2,2))

plot(model)

```
model.2=lm(UNH[-c(134,112,195)]~AAPL[-c(134,112,195)])
plot(model.2)
```

# **Appendix B:**

# **Excel Sheets**

## **Annualized Return and Risk**

Annual	INTC	AAPL	Tangency Portfolio
MEAN	18.849%	27.046%	23.064%
STD	7.955%	9.382%	6.822%
Sharpe's ratio	2.35424559	2.86973653	3.36314739

## Downside Deviation output

	INTC	AAPL	Portfolio
Downside			
Deviation	0.033389943	0.048243976	0.029825909

## **Performance Measurement of portfolios**

					Tangency	
Combing portfolio						Portfolio
	Portfolio					Tangency
	1	Portfolio 2	Portfolio 3	Portfolio 4	Portfolio 5	Portfolio
MEAN	15.000%	20.000%	7.986%	16.468%	20.044%	23.064%
STD	4.581%	5.988%	2.500%	5.000%	6.000%	6.822%
w	0.67147	0.8777814	0.3664744	0.7329488	0.8795386	1
Sharpe	3.24823	3.3197851	3.1461306	3.2693428	3.3204033	3.3631473
ratio	5531	15	41	21	58	90
Sotino	4.98858	6.6649824	2.6370786	5.4807095	6.6795685	7.6921638
ratio	7566	32	27	21	71	85
VaR at						
99%	-6370.04	-8328.27	-3475.13	-6953.57	-8344.95	-9488.32
VaR at						
95%	-4391.78	-5742.17	-2395.43	-4794.17	-5753.67	-6542.15

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