

FINS2624

Portfolio Management

Comprehensive Course Notes

UNSW Business School

Course Structure

Part 1 (Weeks 1-3): Returns, Risk, and Portfolio Theory

Week 1: Returns, expected returns, variance, covariance, correlation, portfolio risk

Week 2: Mean-variance frontier, efficient frontier, two-fund separation, CAL, Sharpe ratio

Part 2 (Weeks 3-5): Asset Pricing Models

Week 3/4: Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM), SML, beta, risk decomposition

Week 4/5: Single Index Model (SIM), alpha, active portfolio construction, SIM vs CAPM

Week 5: Fama-French-Carhart 4-factor model, SMB, HML, MOM

Part 3 (Weeks 6-7): Market Efficiency and Behavioural Finance

Week 6/7: EMH (weak, semi-strong, strong), anomalies, overconfidence, under-diversification

Part 4 (Weeks 8-9): Fixed Income Securities

Week 8: Bond pricing, YTM, coupon bonds, no-arbitrage pricing, holding period return

Week 9: Term structure of interest rates, forward rates, duration, immunisation

Part 5 (Week 10): Derivatives and Options

Week 10: Options payoffs, binomial model, risk-neutral pricing, Black-Scholes, put-call parity

WEEKS 1-2: RETURNS, RISK, AND PORTFOLIO THEORY

1.1 Returns

The return on an asset over a holding period is the total gain expressed as a proportion of the initial investment, including both price appreciation and any income (dividends). Returns are the fundamental unit of measurement in portfolio management.

Core Return Formulas

Holding Period Return: $r = (P_T - P_0 + D) / P_0$
where P_T = ending price; P_0 = beginning price; D = dividends received

Annualising (from monthly data):

Annualised mean return = monthly mean x 12

Annualised std dev = monthly std dev x $\sqrt{12}$

Annualised variance = monthly variance x 12

Annualised covariance = monthly covariance x 12

Arithmetic average: $r_{\text{bar}} = (1/T) \times \text{Sum}(r_t)$ [best estimate of next period's expected return]

Geometric average: $r_{\text{geo}} = [(1+r_1)(1+r_2)\dots(1+r_T)]^{(1/T)} - 1$ [compound historical rate]

1.2 Expected Return (Forward-Looking)

Expected return uses probability-weighted outcomes for forward-looking analysis. Each scenario has a probability, and the expected return is the probability-weighted sum of scenario returns.

Expected Return

$E[r] = \text{Sum}_s [\pi_s \times r_s]$ where $\text{Sum}(\pi_s) = 1$

Example: 3 states; $\pi_1=0.25, r_1=6\%$; $\pi_2=0.50, r_2=14\%$; $\pi_3=0.25, r_3=18\%$

$E[r] = 0.25 \times 0.06 + 0.50 \times 0.14 + 0.25 \times 0.18 = 0.1300 = 13.00\%$

Portfolio expected return = weighted average of component expected returns:

$E[r_p] = \text{Sum}_i [\omega_i \times E[r_i]]$ where $\text{Sum}(\omega_i) = 1$

Portfolio return is always linear in the portfolio weights.

1.3 Variance, Standard Deviation, and Covariance

Risk Measures: Variance, Std Dev, Covariance, Correlation

Variance (probability-weighted): $\sigma^2 = \text{Sum}_s [\pi_s \times (r_s - E[r])^2]$

Variance (sample): $s^2 = (1/(T-1)) \times \text{Sum}_t [(r_{t,i} - r_{\text{bar}_i})^2]$ [use T-1 for unbiasedness]

Std deviation (volatility): $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$

Excel: =VAR.S() for variance; =STDEV.S() for std dev

Covariance: $\text{Cov}(r_i, r_j) = \text{Sum}_s [\pi_s \times (r_{i,s} - E[r_i]) \times (r_{j,s} - E[r_j])]$

Sample covariance: $(1/(T-1)) \times \text{Sum}_t [(r_{i,t} - r_{\text{bar}_i}) \times (r_{j,t} - r_{\text{bar}_j})]$

$\text{Cov}(r_i, r_i) = \text{Var}(r_i) = \sigma_i^2$ [special case: covariance with itself]

Correlation: $\rho_{\{ij\}} = \text{Cov}(r_i, r_j) / (\sigma_i * \sigma_j)$ $[-1 \leq \rho \leq +1]$
 Restating: $\text{Cov}(r_i, r_j) = \rho_{\{ij\}} * \sigma_i * \sigma_j$
 $\rho=+1$: perfect positive; $\rho=0$: uncorrelated; $\rho=-1$: perfect negative

1.4 The Covariance Matrix and Portfolio Variance

The N x N covariance matrix completely describes the risk relationships among N assets. Diagonal elements are variances; off-diagonal elements are pairwise covariances. Portfolio variance is computed using the cell-by-cell multiplication of weights and the covariance matrix.

Covariance Matrix (3-Asset Portfolio)

Label rows and columns with portfolio weights ($\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3$):

	ω_1 col	ω_2 col	ω_3 col
ω_1	σ_1^2	$\rho_{12} * \sigma_1 * \sigma_2$	$\rho_{13} * \sigma_1 * \sigma_3$
ω_2	$\rho_{12} * \sigma_1 * \sigma_2$	σ_2^2	$\rho_{23} * \sigma_2 * \sigma_3$
ω_3	$\rho_{13} * \sigma_1 * \sigma_3$	$\rho_{23} * \sigma_2 * \sigma_3$	σ_3^2

Portfolio variance = multiply each cell by its row-weight AND column-weight, then sum:
 $\text{Var}(r_p) = \omega_1^2 * \sigma_1^2 + \omega_2^2 * \sigma_2^2 + \omega_3^2 * \sigma_3^2$
 $+ 2 * \omega_1 * \omega_2 * \rho_{12} * \sigma_1 * \sigma_2$
 $+ 2 * \omega_1 * \omega_3 * \rho_{13} * \sigma_1 * \sigma_3$
 $+ 2 * \omega_2 * \omega_3 * \rho_{23} * \sigma_2 * \sigma_3$

This generalises to any N assets. The key insight: off-diagonal terms reduce portfolio variance when correlations are less than 1 -- this is the diversification benefit.

1.5 Covariance Between Two Portfolios

The covariance between two different portfolios P and Q with weights ω and ψ is computed the same way: label rows with portfolio P weights and columns with portfolio Q weights, then multiply each cell by its row weight and column weight and sum.

Covariance Between Two Portfolios

$\text{Cov}(r_P, r_Q) = \sum_i \sum_j [\omega_i * \psi_j * \text{Cov}(r_i, r_j)]$

Example: Portfolio P is equally-weighted in all 3 assets ($\omega=1/3$ each);
 Portfolio Q is equally-weighted in assets 1 and 3 only ($\psi_1=\psi_3=1/2, \psi_2=0$).

$\text{Cov}(P, Q) = (1/3)(1/2) * \sigma_1^2 + (1/3)(0) * \text{Cov}(1, 2) + (1/3)(1/2) * \text{Cov}(1, 3)$
 $+ (1/3)(1/2) * \text{Cov}(2, 1) + 0 + (1/3)(1/2) * \text{Cov}(2, 3)$
 $+ (1/3)(1/2) * \text{Cov}(3, 1) + 0 + (1/3)(1/2) * \sigma_3^2$

Three-Asset Portfolio Worked Example

$E[r_1]=6\%, E[r_2]=14\%, E[r_3]=18\%$; $\sigma_1=22\%, \sigma_2=15\%, \sigma_3=20\%$

$\rho_{12}=0.50, \rho_{13}=0.35, \rho_{23}=0.25$; equal weights $\omega=1/3$

$$E[r_p] = (1/3)*6\% + (1/3)*14\% + (1/3)*18\% = 12.67\%$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(r_p) &= (1/3)^2*(0.22)^2 + (1/3)^2*(0.15)^2 + (1/3)^2*(0.20)^2 \\ &\quad + 2*(1/9)*0.50*0.22*0.15 + 2*(1/9)*0.35*0.22*0.20 + 2*(1/9)*0.25*0.15*0.20 \\ &= (1/9)[0.0484 + 0.0225 + 0.0400 + 0.0330 + 0.0308 + 0.0150] \\ &= (1/9)[0.1897] = 0.02108 \end{aligned}$$

$\sigma_p = \sqrt{0.02108} = 14.52\%$ (note: problem solutions use 14.41% depending on rounding)

Diversification benefit vs all in Asset 1: $22.00\% - 14.52\% = 7.48\%$

WEEKS 2-3: MEAN-VARIANCE FRONTIER AND CAPITAL ALLOCATION

2.1 Mean-Variance Utility and Risk Aversion

Investors are assumed to maximise mean-variance utility, caring only about expected return and variance. The risk aversion coefficient A determines how much an investor penalises variance.

Mean-Variance Utility

$$U(r) = E[r] - (1/2) * A * \sigma^2$$

$A > 0$: risk averse (standard investor)

$A = 0$: risk neutral (maximises return only)

$A < 0$: risk loving

Higher A = steeper indifference curves = more return needed per unit of risk

Dominance: Portfolio B dominates A if B has BOTH higher return AND lower risk.
All investors (any $A > 0$) prefer B over A in that case.

Finding A for indifference between portfolios P and Q:

$$\text{Set } U(P) = U(Q): E[r_P] - (1/2) * A * \sigma_P^2 = E[r_Q] - (1/2) * A * \sigma_Q^2$$

$$\text{Solve: } A = 2 * (E[r_Q] - E[r_P]) / (\sigma_Q^2 - \sigma_P^2)$$

2.2 The Minimum Variance Frontier and Efficient Frontier

The minimum variance frontier (MVF) is the boundary of the set of feasible risk-return combinations. For each expected return level, the MVF portfolio minimises variance. The efficient frontier is the upper portion of the MVF: portfolios that cannot be improved upon (no portfolio with the same risk but higher return exists).

MVF and Efficient Frontier Key Concepts

Global Minimum Variance Portfolio (GMVP): the single portfolio with the lowest variance across all possible portfolios. The starting point of the efficient frontier.

Efficient Frontier: the set of MVF portfolios at or above the GMVP. Every rational risk-averse investor selects from the efficient frontier.

Inefficient region: MVF portfolios below the GMVP. For each, there is an efficient portfolio with the same risk but higher return.

Long-short portfolios: allowing short positions extends the frontier further, generally achieving better Sharpe ratios but requiring the ability to short-sell.

iLab context: Markowitz optimisation uses Excel Solver to minimise σ^2 subject to target return and weight constraints, tracing out the MVF at each target return level.

2.3 Capital Allocation Line and Sharpe Ratio

Combining a risky portfolio P with the risk-free asset produces the Capital Allocation Line (CAL). The slope of the CAL is the Sharpe ratio, which measures reward per unit of total risk. All mean-variance investors prefer the risky asset with the highest Sharpe ratio, as it provides the best CAL.