

§13. RISK, RETURN, THE SECURITY MARKET LINE, AND COST OF CAPITAL

FIN 360: PRINCIPLES OF FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT
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RETURNS AND VARIANCES

DIVIDEND AND CAPITAL GAIN YIELDS

An investor's return on an investment is their total gain or loss from holding the financial asset. It is the sum of a security's:

1. **Income component** – the dividends and/or interest received over the holding period.
2. **Capital gain (or capital loss) component** – the change in value of the investment over the holding period.

For stocks, we can determine total returns by adding up the **dividend yield** and **capital gains yield**, which represent the income and capital gain components, respectively:

$$\text{Total \% Return} = \text{Dividend Yield} + \text{Capital Gain Yield}$$

$$\text{Total \% Return} = \frac{D_{t+1}}{P_t} + \frac{P_{t+1} - P_t}{P_t}$$



EXAMPLE: You acquire stock for \$56.65 at the beginning of the year, and sell for \$51.24 at the end of the year. It paid a total of \$1.60 in dividends, which we can assume occurred at the end of the year. Its dividend yield, capital gains yield, and total return is:

$$\text{Total \% Return} = \frac{1.60}{56.65} + \frac{51.24 - 56.65}{56.65} = 2.824\% + -9.55\% = -6.726\%$$

The above example represents a **realized return**, a return that *actually* occurred. **Expected returns** are what we *believe* a security will yield. We estimate expected returns by considering what a security historically returned in various states of the world, and by estimating the probability a similar state of the world will occur in the future, as we'll see in the next section.

EXPECTED RETURN AND RISK

Expected returns are only one part of the story. Securities, and **portfolios** or collections of securities, are also characterized by their risk as well.



PRACTICE: Find the expected return of this portfolio of stocks given their historical returns and the probability of various states occurring:

State of Economy	Probability of State Occurring	Stock Returns		
		A	B	C
Boom	40%	10%	15%	20%
Bust	60%	8%	4%	0%
	100%			

SOLUTION: We can find the expected return for a security by summing the products of the security's return in each state $r(s)$ and the probability of that state $p(s)$ occurring:

$$E(r) = \sum_{s=1}^s p(s)r(s) = p(s_1)r(s_1) + p(s_2)r(s_2) \cdots + p(s_s)r(s_s)$$

Or,

$$E(R_A) = \sum p(s)_A r(s)_A = (0.40 \times 0.10) + (0.60 \times 0.08) = 8.8\%$$

$$E(R_B) =$$

$$E(R_C) =$$

If we want to determine the expected return of a portfolio $E(R_p)$, given we put an equal 1/3 of our money in each stock:

$$E(R_p) = \frac{1}{3}(8.8\%) + \frac{1}{3}(\quad) + \frac{1}{3}(\quad) = \mathbf{8.392\%}$$

INTERPRETATION: We expect this portfolio will return 8.392% assuming we invest 1/3 of our money in each stock.



PRACTICE: Characterize the risk of this portfolio by finding the **variance** and **standard deviation** of the returns.

SOLUTION: The variance and standard deviation give us an idea of the “spread” or “range” of possible returns. The wider this spread, the greater the risk. To quantify our level of risk, we compute the standard deviation of the portfolio by taking the square root of the variance.

To find the variance:

$$Var(r) = \sigma^2 = \sum_{s=1}^S p(s)[r(s) - E(r)]^2$$

Then, take the square root of this value to find the standard deviation.

$$SD(r) = \sigma = \sqrt{Var(r)}$$

Assuming we have 1/3 of our portfolio in each stock, we find the $r(s)$, or the return in each state:

$$Return_{Boom} = \frac{1}{3}(10\%) + \frac{1}{3}(\quad) + \frac{1}{3}(\quad) = 14.99\%$$

$$Return_{Bust} = \frac{1}{3}(8\%) + \frac{1}{3}(\quad) + \frac{1}{3}(\quad) = 4.00\%$$

I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
State of Economy	Probability of State Occurring	Stock Returns			Return of Portfolio in Each State
		A	B	C	
Boom	40%	10%	15%	20%	
Bust	60%	8%	4%	0%	

Given we already calculated the expected return of the portfolio $E(R_p)$, we find the difference between the return in each state and the expected return. We then square that difference and sum to obtain the variance.

I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
State of Economy	Probability of State Occurring	Stock Returns			Return of Portfolio in Each State	Squared Difference	Squared Difference \times Prob.
		A	B	C			
Boom	40%	10%	15%	20%			
Bust	60%	8%	4%	0%			
						VAR =	
						SD =	



Some of these numbers will be very small. Store them in your calculator rather than rounding intermediate steps. **Variance** is usually shown as a decimal. **Standard Deviation** is usually converted to a percent.

INTERPRETATION: The **standard deviation** is an important measure because it tells us how widely dispersed our returns are expected to be. We usually use it in conjunction with the expected return. Our interpretations are as follows:

- There is about a 99% chance our portfolio will return within ± 3 standard deviations of the expected return.
- There is about a 96% chance our portfolio will return within ± 2 standard deviations of the expected return.
- There is about a 68% chance our portfolio will return within ± 1 standard deviations of the expected return.

Thus, the bigger our standard deviation, the greater likelihood our portfolio can produce returns outside of what we expect, and the riskier the portfolio is. Anything above or below 3 standard deviations from the expected return by this methodology would be unusual.



For additional practice and an expected return and standard deviation calculator, see the Excel file [Expected Return and Risk](http://www.josephfarizo.com/fin360.html) at www.josephfarizo.com/fin360.html.

RISK, DIVERSIFICATION, AND PORTFOLIO RISK

Risk is uncertainty, or dispersion, around our expectations. This could be in either the positive or negative direction. Risk is classified into two broad categories: **systematic risk** and **unsystematic risk**.

1. **Systematic risk** affects many assets – surprises that affect the market overall. This includes unemployment rates, interest rates, inflation, geopolitical risks, and energy prices.
2. **Unsystematic risk** is unique to an individual firm. This includes the financial risks (possibility of default), managerial risks (fraud), labor-related (strikes), and other firm-specific uncertainties, good or bad.

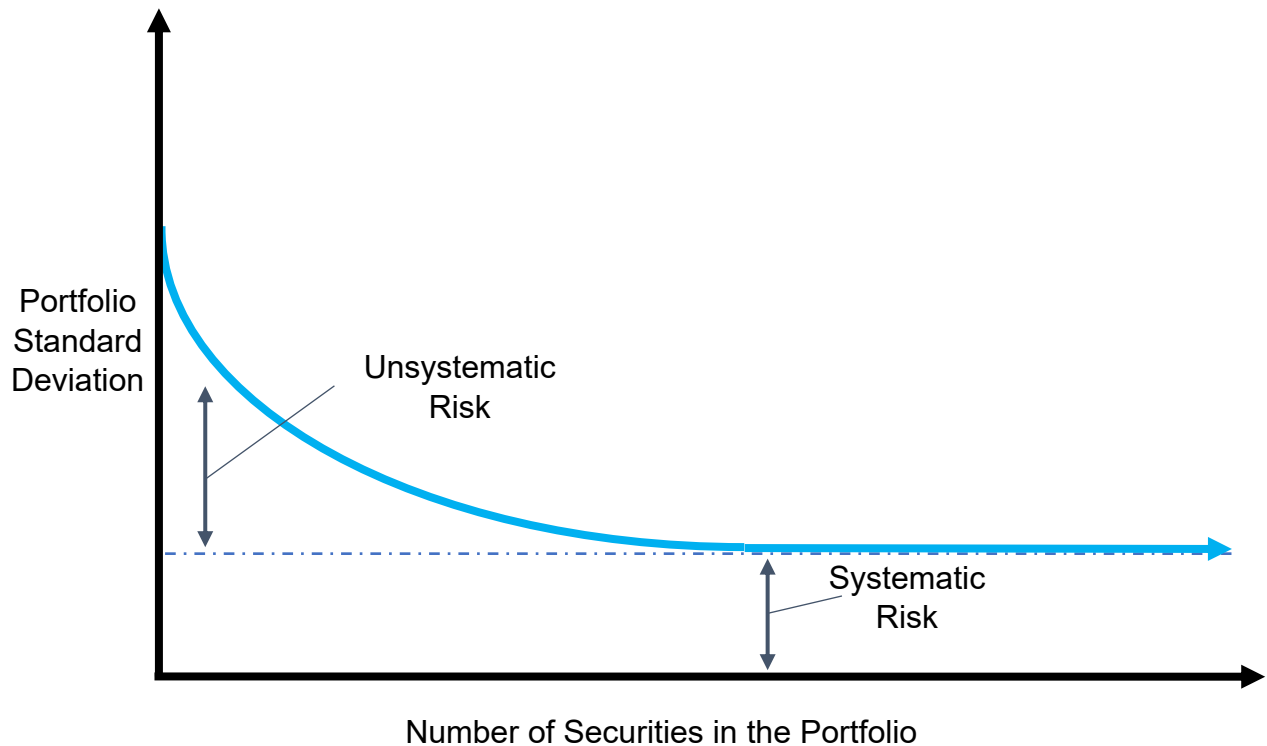
Diversification is the process of developing a portfolio or collection of assets such that you reduce your risk. But not all risk can be eliminated.



Diversification can essentially eliminate unsystematic risk. Diversification cannot eliminate systematic risk.

If you hold a portfolio of 500 stocks (with the same dollar amount invested in each stock), you are *still* exposed to the strength of the economy, interest rates, inflation, and other market-wide issues. However, if you hold a portfolio of 500 stocks, any one stock's own risk matters very little to you overall, and one stock's (or stocks') losses can be offset by another stock's (or stocks') gains.

Figure 1: Portfolio Diversification and Risk



THE SECURITY MARKET LINE AND BETA

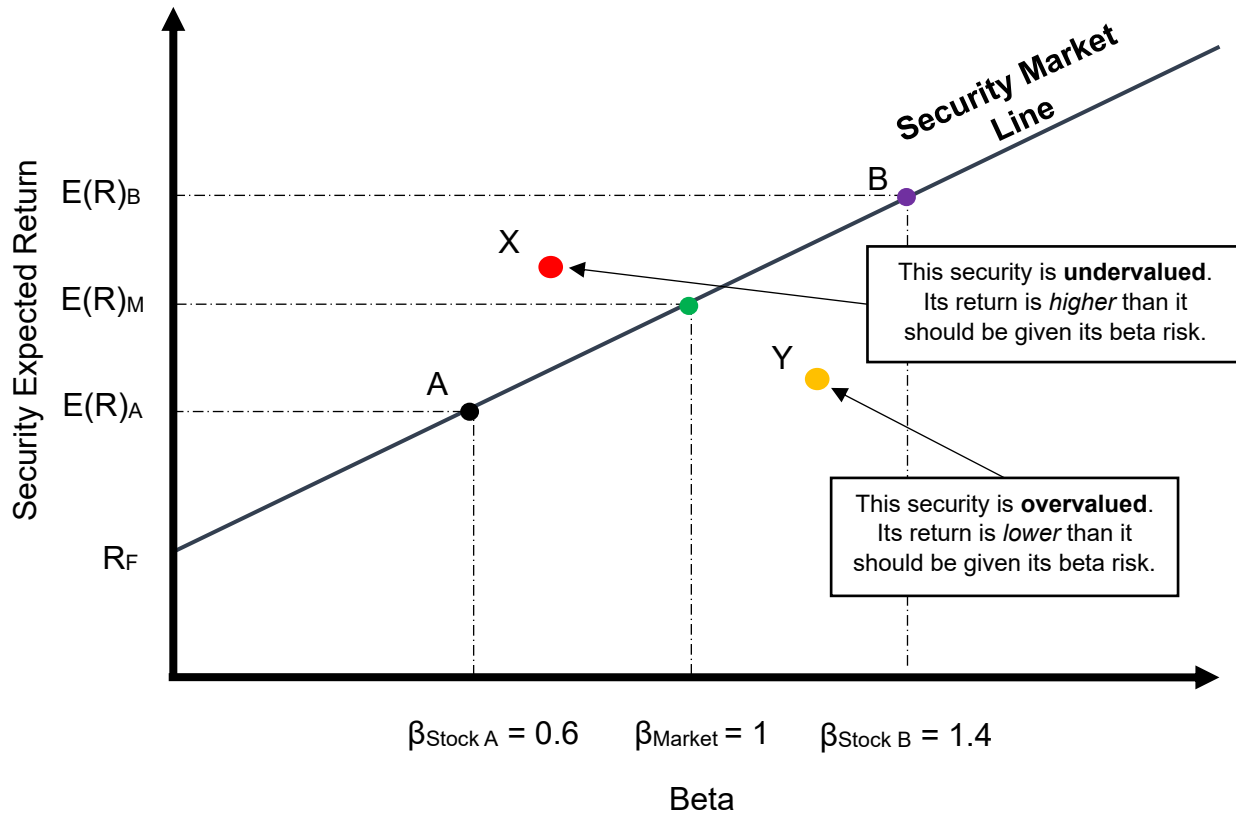
Beta is a measure of **systematic** risk. As we've seen before, it tells us how a stock moves relative to the market overall. Recall the **Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)** tells us that the expected rate of return (and therefore the rate of return required on an investment) is defined as:

$$E(R) = r_f + \beta(E(R_M) - r_f)$$

We can depict the CAPM relationship on what is known as the **Security Market Line (SML)** – a line connecting the expected return of a security to the expected return of the market.

It shows a linear relationship between a security's **expected or required rate of return** and the security's beta.

Figure 2: The Security Market Line



Notice the following features of the SML:

- The line begins at the risk-free rate of return and is drawn through the **market portfolio** that consists of all assets. It has a beta = 1.
- Stock A has a lower expected return than B because it has a lower beta.

- Stock X is undervalued because it has a return greater than that predicted by the CAPM. Investors would buy this stock (bidding up the price, paying more and more for it, reducing its return) such that it falls on the SML.
- Stock Y is overvalued because it has a return lower than predicted by the CAPM. Investors would sell out of this stock (reducing its price and increasing its expected return to new investors who pay less for it) such that it falls on the SML.

Given an understanding of this relationship between return and systematic risk, we can consider next the appropriate required rate of return (and therefore *cost*) of capital.

COST OF CAPITAL

We have now discussed the required and expected returns on both equity and debt that a firm issues. The rates of return the providers of capital expect (that is, the *investors* in the firm's securities) is therefore a *cost* to the firm – and the firm will be expected to undertake actions such that it can achieve and deliver on these required rates of return.

- **Cost of Equity** is the return that equity investors require on their investment in the firm (determined by the **CAPM**)
- **Cost of Debt** is the return that bond investors – the lenders – require on the firm's debt (determined by the firm's bonds' **YTM**s)

WEIGHTED AVERAGE COST OF CAPITAL (WACC)

A firm's **weighted average cost of capital** is the weighted average of the cost of equity and *after-tax* cost of debt. It is the overall return the firm must earn on its existing assets to maintain the firm's value, taking into account the firm's **capital structure**, or the percentage of the firm financed with equity and the percentage of the firm financed with debt.

A firm's overall value can be represented as:

$$V = E + D$$

where E is the market value of the firm's equity and D is the market value of the firm's debt. This implies that the percentage of the firm that is comprised of equity and the percentage of the firm that is comprised of debt is, respectively:

$$\frac{E}{V} = \frac{\text{Shares Outstanding} \times \text{Price Per Share}}{V} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{D}{V} = \frac{\text{Market Value of Debt}}{V}$$

E/V and D/V are **capital structure weights**. Using these weights, we can determine that the Weighted Average Cost of Capital must be:

$$WACC = \frac{E}{V}R_E + \frac{D}{V}(1 - T_C)R_D$$

where R_E is the cost of equity by the CAPM, R_D is the cost of debt by the firm's bonds' YTM, and T_C is the corporate tax rate, given the tax advantage of debt (interest is paid *before* taxes are paid).



PRACTICE: Lafitte Inc. has 1.4 million shares outstanding, and its stock sells for \$20 per share. The firm's debt has a total face value of \$5 million, was issued 22 years ago but has 8 years to maturity. This debt is paying 12% coupons (paid semiannually) and its current price is 104.82% of par. The rate on T-Bills is 8%, the expected return of the market is 15%, and the beta is 0.74. Assuming a corporate tax rate of 21%, what is the firm's WACC?

SOLUTION: We begin with the formula for WACC, and compute each of its component parts:

$$WACC = \frac{E}{V}R_E + \frac{D}{V}(1 - T_C)R_D$$

E is the market value of the stock, which we know as the firm's **market capitalization**:

$$E = \text{Shares Outstanding} \times \text{Price Per Share} =$$

D is the market value of the debt. According to the problem, the bonds are trading at 104.82% of par:

$$D = \text{Par Value} \times \text{Percentage of Par} =$$

Given we have E and D, we know that V is the sum of the two, and E/V and D/V are the percentages of the firm comprised of equity and debt, respectively:

$$V = E + D$$

$$\frac{E}{V} =$$

$$\frac{D}{V} =$$

R_E is obtained using the CAPM formula:

$$R_E = r_f + \beta(E(R_M) - r_f) =$$

R_D is obtained by computing the YTM on the debt:

$$\boxed{N} =$$

$$\boxed{PV} =$$

$$\boxed{PMT} =$$

$$\boxed{FV} =$$

$$\langle \boxed{CPT} \rangle \boxed{I/Y} = \quad \times 2 = \quad = R_D$$

Given the tax rate provided in the problem, we can put it all together and arrive at:

$$WACC = \frac{E}{V}R_E + \frac{D}{V}(1 - T_C)R_D =$$

INTERPRETATION: WACC represents the minimum return a firm must earn on its investments to satisfy both equity and debt investors, making it a critical benchmark for evaluating investment decisions and corporate valuation.



The cost of capital primarily depends on the *use* of the funds, not the source. It is inappropriate to use a firm's historical risk as a capital budgeting tool if the investment it is making has risks substantially different than the firm has historically been exposed to.

For example, if Firm A is considering acquiring Firm B, use Firm B's WACC as the appropriate discount rate for the incremental cash flows that Firm B generates in an NPV analysis.

IN SUMMARY

Finance involves managing the trade-off between risk and return, aiming for higher returns while minimizing exposure to unnecessary risks. Diversification spreads investments across assets to reduce unsystematic risk, enhancing portfolio stability. The WACC serves as a benchmark to evaluate investment opportunities by reflecting the firm's overall cost of financing, considering both bond yields and the CAPM as the costs of debt and equity, respectively.

CRITICAL THINKING & CONCEPTUAL QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between a “realized” and “expected” return? How do past realized returns influence expected returns?
2. How might we determine appropriate probabilities of booms and busts?
3. Explain the interpretation of standard deviation and how we should think about the standard deviation relative to the expected return. Is a higher or lower standard deviation riskier? What causes a portfolio to have higher or lower standard deviation?
4. Equity markets have a “3 standard deviation day”. Explain what this means and whether it is good or bad (or either).
5. Explain how unsystematic risk can be eliminated through diversification but systematic risk cannot be.
6. A friend tells you “Markets overall fell 3% yesterday, but my personal portfolio didn’t fall at all. I have eliminated systematic risk!” Critique this claim.
7. Explain why the CAPM represents both an *expected* return and a *required* return.
8. Explain how the CAPM tells us about a stock’s *systematic* risk, but not its *unsystematic* risk.
9. What are the axes of the SML? What does it show? What does it imply about a stock’s return given its beta?
10. Why does the market have a beta of 1?
11. What does it mean if a stock is above or below the SML?
12. What do we expect traders and investors would do if they observed a stock that had a price such that it was above the SML? What would traders and investors do if they observed a stock that had a price such that it was below the SML?
13. Explain why a required return (or expected return) to an investor is a cost to the firm.
14. How do we obtain the cost of equity and the cost of debt?
15. How do we find a firm’s capital structure weights?
16. Explain what the WACC is and how firms use the WACC once it is computed.
17. If a firm’s tax rate increases, what does that mean for its after-tax cost of debt?
18. Why doesn’t tax matter for the cost of equity in the WACC equation?
19. Explain why the weighted average cost of capital as an appropriate discount rate depends on the “use of the funds, not the source”.

ANALYTICAL QUESTIONS

Below is data for Edwards Lifesciences (ticker: EW – on the left) and Biogen (ticker: BIIB – on the right) from Pitchbook. Compute the WACC for each firm. Using only the information below, which stock a higher beta? What conclusions can you draw regarding their credit ratings and the yields on their bonds? Why? Should an investor expect greater returns from EW or BIIB?

Cost of Capital		Cost of Capital	
Cost of Common Equity	6.94%	Cost of Common Equity	5.01%
<i>Common Equity % of Capital</i>	98.73%	<i>Common Equity % of Capital</i>	83.17%
Cost of Preferred	—	Cost of Preferred	—
<i>Preferred % of Capital</i>	0.00%	<i>Preferred % of Capital</i>	0.00%
Cost of Debt (After Tax)	3.19%	Cost of Debt (After Tax)	3.14%
<i>Debt % of Capital</i>	1.27%	<i>Debt % of Capital</i>	16.83%
WACC ⓘ		WACC ⓘ	

