

Analysing financial models and studying concepts using matrices
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1 Introduction

This report presents an investigation into the utilization of linear algebra to effectively represent and analyze numerous financial concepts and models. By employing fundamental matrix operations, such as multiplication, inversion, and eigenvalue analysis, the project aims to provide valuable insights into diverse financial models, including portfolio optimization, risk assessment, asset pricing, and financial forecasting. The study explores the practical application of linear algebraic tools to augment financial analysis and improve decision-making processes in the field.

2 State of The Art

2.1 B. Basuki, S. Sukono, D. Sofyan, S. S. Madio, and N. Puspitasari, "Linear Algebra on investment portfolio optimization model," Journal of Physics: Conference Series, vol. 1402, no. 7, p. 077089, Dec. 2019..

The paper discusses the issue of linear algebra on the investment portfolio optimization models. It was assumed that stock returns are analyzed have a certain distribution, so that the mean and variance and covariance between the separation can be determined. Return of some stock used to form a vector averaging, and the number of shares used as the basis to form a unit vector. While the variance of each stock as well as the covariance between stocks, is used to form a covariance matrix. The investment portfolio was formed consisting of several stocks, in order to maximize the expected return and minimize risk. The portfolio optimization was performed using linear algebra approach. The result is a formula used to determine the optimum composition of the portfolio weights. The resulting formula is very useful for the analysis of the investment portfolio optimization.

2.2 Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) Testability and its Validity in Stock Market: Evidence from Previous Literatures Frida Pacho (ADBA, MBA (Finance)) School of Business, Mzumbe University, P.O.Box 20266, Upanga Area, Olympio Street, Dar-es-salaam

This aim of this paper is to identify the validity of CAPM by thoroughly reviewing the literature and seeing whether its assumptions which used to guide its usage are holding true. The general idea behind CAPM is that investors need to be compensated in two ways: time value of money and risk. Risk of an asset is cleverly estimated based on history of given asset (by linearly regressing historical returns)

2.3 "An Empirical Examination of the Arbitrage Pricing Theory: Evidence from Jordan" Mohammad K. Elshqirat ,2019

The main purpose of this reasearch paper was to determine the validity of the APT model and determine its benefits over the other similar models .The main focus of the research questions was on examining the relationship between stocks' rate of return calculated using the price index of Amman stock exchange (ASE) and a set of macroeconomic variable.

The factors considered for this study were unemployment rate, gross domestic product (GDP), industrial producers' price index (IPPI), and exports for the period from 2000 to 2016.

3 Financial Models

3.1 Asset Pricing

Asset pricing is a field within finance that focuses on understanding how the prices of financial assets, such as stocks, bonds, and commodities, are determined in relation to their expected returns. It involves developing models and theories that help investors estimate the fair value of assets and make informed investment decisions. By considering factors like systematic risk, market efficiency, and various asset pricing models such as the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM), researchers aim to provide insights into the relationships between asset prices, risk, and potential returns. This research plays a crucial role in finance, helping investors assess the risk and return characteristics of different assets and construct well-informed investment portfolios.

3.1.1 Capital Asset Pricing Model

The Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) is a widely-used financial model that helps investors and analysts determine an investment's expected return based on its systematic risk relative to the overall market. Developed by William Sharpe, John Lintner, and Jan Mossin in the 1960s, CAPM provides a framework for understanding the relationship between risk and return.

The model takes into account the asset's sensitivity to non-diversifiable risk (also known as systematic risk or market risk), often represented by the quantity beta (β) in the financial industry, as well as the expected return of the market and the expected return of a theoretical risk-free asset.

It is built on the assumption that investors are rational, risk-averse, and seek to maximize their returns for a given level of risk. Therefore, this model does not consider unsystematic risk, as it assumes that investors hold well-diversified portfolios where such risks can be eliminated.

This model mainly focuses on systematic risk, also known as non-diversifiable risk, which cannot be eliminated through diversification. Systematic risk is captured by beta (β) and reflects the asset's sensitivity to market movements.

3.1.2 Mathematical Aspect

1. Expected Return :

CAPM model is based on the assumption that investors need to be compensated for both the time value of money (TVM) and the corresponding level of risk associated with any investment, referred to as the risk premium.

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \beta_i(E(R_m) - R_f)$$

where :

- $E(R_i)$ is the expected return on the capital asset.
- R_f is the risk-free rate of interest such as interest arising from government bonds.
- β_i (the beta) is the sensitivity of the expected excess asset returns to the expected excess market returns, or also $\beta_i = \frac{\text{Cov}(R_i, R_m)}{\text{Var}(R_m)} = \rho_{i,m} \frac{\sigma_i}{\sigma_m}$.
- $E(R_m)$ is the expected return of the market.

- $E(R_m) - R_f$ is sometimes known as the market premium.
- $E(R_i) - R_f$ is also known as the risk premium.
- $\rho_{i,m}$ denotes the correlation coefficient between the investment i and the market m .
- σ_i is the standard deviation for the investment i .
- σ_m is the standard deviation for the market m .

The R_f account for time value of money (TVM), i.e the return an investor would expect from a completely risk-free investment, such as government bonds.

The quantity $(E(R_m) - R_f)$ represents the market premium, which reflects the excess return of the market above the risk-free rate of interest.

The term $\beta_i(E(R_m) - R_f)$ indicates that the expected return of an asset is proportional to its risk, as measured by its beta coefficient.

When an asset's beta is equal to 1, it suggests that the asset's risk is equivalent to the market risk.

3.1.3 Computing β_i using Linear Regression

1. **Collect Data:** Gather historical data on the asset's returns and the corresponding market returns over a specified period.
2. **Calculate Returns:** If the data is in price form, calculate the periodic returns for both the asset and the market. Returns can be computed by taking the difference between consecutive prices and dividing it by the initial price.
3. **Formulate the Regression Model:** In linear regression, we assume that the relationship between the dependent variable (asset returns) and the independent variable (market returns) can be represented by a linear equation of the form:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon$$

Where:

- Y is the dependent variable (asset returns).
- X is the independent variable (market returns).
- β_0 is the intercept, which represents the expected return when X is zero.
- β_1 is the slope or the beta coefficient, which measures the sensitivity of the asset returns to changes in the market returns.
- ε is the error term or residual, representing the unexplained variation in the dependent variable.

4. **Matrix Formulation:** To perform linear regression using matrix algebra, we can represent the regression model in matrix form as follows:

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$

Where:

- Y is a column vector of the dependent variable.
 - X is a matrix of independent variables, including a column of ones for the intercept.
 - β is a column vector of the regression coefficients, including the intercept and the beta coefficient.
 - ε is a column vector of the error terms.
5. **Estimating the Coefficients:** The goal is to estimate the regression coefficients (β) that minimize the sum of squared errors (SSE) between the actual dependent variable values (Y) and the predicted values ($X\beta$). This can be achieved through the method of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS), which minimizes the following expression:

$$SSE = (Y - X\beta)^T(Y - X\beta)$$

To find the optimal β , we differentiate SSE with respect to β , set it equal to zero, and solve for β :

$$X^T(Y - X\beta) = 0$$

This equation is known as the normal equation, and its solution provides the estimated coefficients for the regression model.

6. **Compute the Coefficients:** We can solve the normal equation to find the estimated coefficients (β) using matrix algebra:

$$\beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

Where:

- $(X^T X)^{-1}$ is the inverse of the matrix product of X^T and X .
- $X^T Y$ is the matrix product of X^T and Y .

The estimated β provides the values for the intercept (β_0) and the beta coefficient (β_1).

7. Code

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import pandas as pd
3 import statsmodels.api as sm
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
5
6 # Step 1: Collect Data
7 data = pd.read_csv('data.csv')
8
9 returns_asset = data['Asset Returns']
10 returns_market = data['Market Index Returns']
11
12 # Step 2: Calculate Returns (if not already available)
13
14 # Step 3: Set up the Regression Model
15 X = sm.add_constant(returns_market)
16 model = sm.OLS(returns_asset, X)
17
18 # Step 4: Estimate Parameters
19 results = model.fit()
20 alpha, beta = results.params[0], results.params[1]
21
22 # Step 5: Interpret Beta Coefficient
23 print("Beta:", beta)
24
25 # Plotting
26
27 fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(8, 6))
28 ax.scatter(returns_market, returns_asset, label='Data Points', s=90)
29 ax.plot(returns_market, alpha + beta * returns_market, color='red',
30         label='Regression Line')
31 ax.set_xlabel('Market Index Returns')
32 ax.set_ylabel('Asset Returns')
33 ax.set_title('Linear Regression: Asset Returns vs. Market Index Returns')
34 ax.legend()
35 plt.show()
```

8. **Interpretation of Coefficients:** Once the coefficients are computed, you can interpret the results. The intercept (β_0) represents the expected return when the market returns (X) are zero. The beta coefficient (β_1) indicates the sensitivity of the asset returns to changes in the market returns. A beta of 1 suggests that the asset moves in line with the market, while a beta greater than 1 indicates higher volatility than the market, and a beta less than 1 suggests lower volatility.

9. Linear Regression:

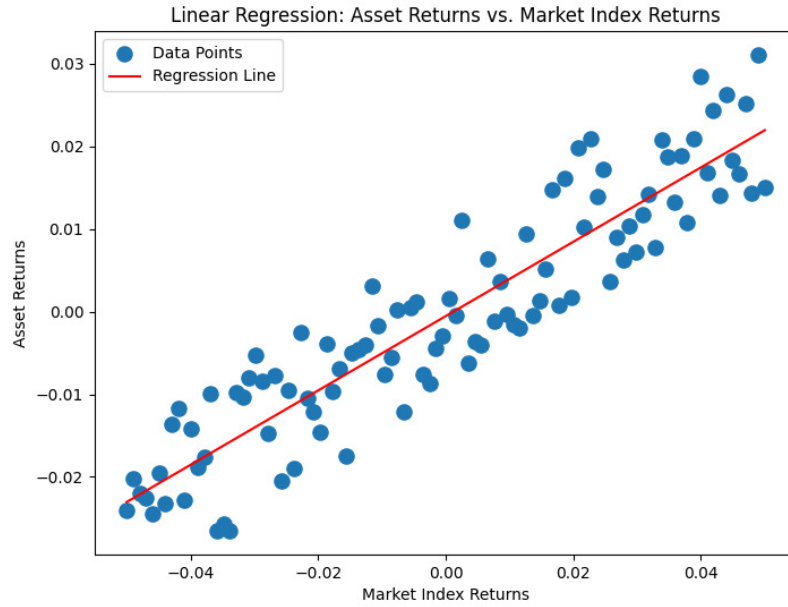


Figure 1: Computing β

3.1.4 Whether to Buy/Sell Asset”

After estimating the beta coefficient (β) using linear regression, we can utilize the Security Market Line (SML) to determine if a stock is overvalued or undervalued. Security market line (SML) is the representation of the capital asset pricing model.

The equation for the SML is given by:

$$R_i = R_f + \beta \times (R_m - R_f)$$

R_i is the required return which the investor expects as compensation for TVM(Time Value of Money) and Risk associated.

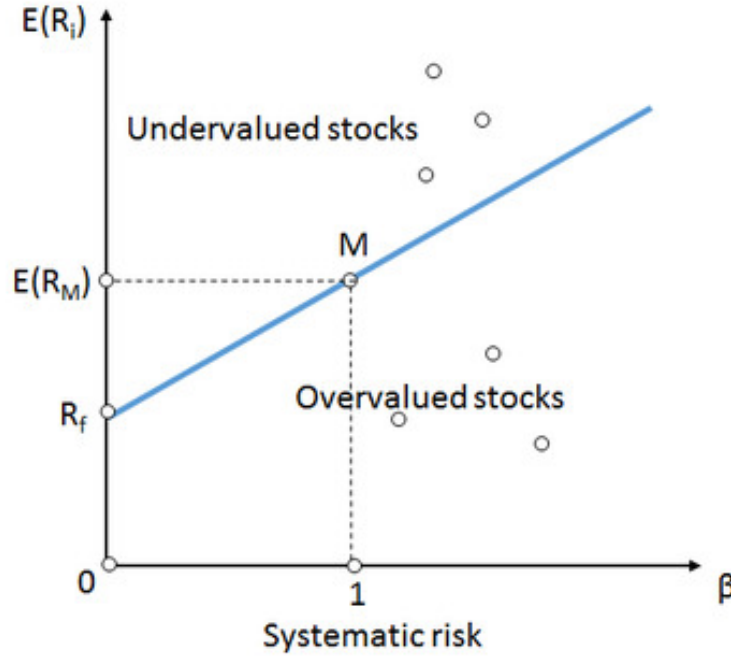


Figure 2: SML

If the expected return is greater than the required return, the stock is considered undervalued and may be a good investment (good to buy). Conversely, if the expected return is lower than the required return, the stock is considered overvalued and may not be an attractive investment (good to sell).

Graphically, if the asset offers a return that is higher than the market's for a given level of systematic risk, it will be plotted above the security market line. However, if the asset offers a return that is lower than the market's for a given level of systematic risk, it will be plotted below the security market line. I.e. all the assets plotted above SML are undervalued, where as assets plotted below are overvalued.

3.2 Financial Forecasting

Financial forecasting is the process of estimating future financial outcomes or performance based on historical data, current trends, and various assumptions. It involves analyzing and predicting key financial metrics such as revenues, expenses, profits, cash flows, and financial ratios.

For the purposes of this project we have used the GBM method (Geometric Brownian Motion). This method was chosen for its ability to account for fluctuations in stock prices .

The rest of the topic is explained in the attached python notebook , where GBM was implemented using python to give actual predictions over a period of two weeks of an actual stock.

3.3 Portfolio Optimization

Portfolio optimization is a crucial process in investment management that aims to select an optimal asset distribution from a set of portfolios. It involves maximizing expected return while minimizing costs, including financial risk. This section focuses on Modern Portfolio Theory (MPT) proposed by Harry Markowitz in the 1950s. It serves as the foundation for portfolio optimization and provides insights into risk-averse investors' decision-making process. The process of dividing investment capital among different asset classes such as stocks, bonds, commodities, is referred as Asset Allocation. It plays a critical role in determining the risk and return characteristics of a portfolio. MPT further helps to identify the optimal asset allocation by considering the expected returns, risks, and correlations between assets.

The Portfolio optimization process is a sequential process involves selecting available assets, collecting historical data on asset returns, estimating expected returns and risks, analyzing correlations between assets, applying optimization algorithms to find the optimal asset allocation.

There exists several optimization algorithms but our main focus will be **Mean-Variance Optimization**.

3.3.1 Modern Portfolio Theory

Modern Portfolio Theory (MPT) applies statistical and mathematical principles to assess risk, return, and optimization in investment portfolios. By utilizing matrix and linear algebra, MPT simplifies computations for large portfolios or substantial wealth.

MPT asserts that investors exhibit risk aversion. This principle suggests that when presented with two portfolios that yield the same expected return, investors will express a preference for the portfolio with lower risk. Furthermore, investors will only consider taking on additional risk if they anticipate receiving higher expected returns as a form of compensation.

3.3.2 Some Important Definitions

1. Expected Return ::

To predict the future returns or expected return of a security or portfolio, it is common practice to analyze the historical performance of returns. Expected return can simply be viewed as the historic average of a stock's return over a given period of time.

$$\text{Expected Return} = \sum x_i w_i$$

$$x_i = \text{Expected return of } i^{\text{th}} \text{ asset}$$

$$w_i = \text{Weight/portion of } i^{\text{th}} \text{ asset in the portfolio}$$

2. Portfolio Return Variance:

Variance is a statistical metric that quantifies the dispersion of a stock's returns from its expected return. When considering a portfolio, variance assesses the degree of instability exhibited by an individual asset or a collection of assets.

$$S^2 = \sum \frac{(x_i - x_m)^2}{n - 1}$$

$$S^2 = \text{sample variance}$$

$$x_m = \text{the mean of all observations}$$

x_i = the value of one observation

n = the number of observations

3. Standard Deviation:

The standard deviation of a security is a common measure used to assess volatility (risk). The portfolio selection model developed by Markowitz assumes that investors base their investment decisions on both returns and the spread of risk. Typically, investors perceive the risk associated with acquiring a security as the possibility of receiving lower returns than anticipated, which can be considered a deviation from the expected (average) return. In other words, each security exhibits its own standard deviation from the average return (McClure, 2010). A higher standard deviation indicates increased risk and necessitates a higher potential return.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{N}}$$

σ = population standard deviation

N = the size of the population

x_i = each value from the population

μ = the population mean

4. Covariance of Return:

Covariance, specifically, is a statistical measure that examines the interdependency between the returns of two securities.

$$Cov(x, y) = \frac{\sum (x_i - x_m)(y_i - y_m)}{N}$$

x_i = data value of x

y_i = data value of y

x_m = mean of x

y_m = mean of y

N = number of data values

If the returns are positively related to each other, their covariance will be positive and vice-versa and if they are unrelated, the covariance should be zero

5. Correlation Coefficient of Returns:

The correlation coefficient, also known as correlation, is a measure of risk/volatility. It quantifies the extent of the relationship between two variables.

$$Correlation = \frac{Cov(x, y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

σ_x = standard deviations of x

σ_y = standard deviations of y

Positive correlations indicate a positive relationship, negative correlations imply a negative relationship, and zero correlation suggests no relationship. Portfolio risk depends on asset variance and correlation with investment weight. More uncorrelated assets reduce risk. Correlations between +1.00 and -1.00 reduce portfolio risk, while smaller coefficients imply lower risk.

6. Efficient Frontier:

The Efficient Frontier in Modern Portfolio Theory (MPT) determines the optimal mix of assets based on expected returns and volatility. It's a graphical curve comparing risk and return, with portfolios along this curve offering the highest potential returns. Markowitz's theory emphasizes diversification to enhance returns and minimize risk. Rational investors select portfolios on the Efficient Frontier to maximize returns while minimizing risk. Portfolios situated on the efficient frontier are deemed efficient as they provide the maximum return achievable for a specific level of risk, or the minimum risk achievable for a specific level of return.

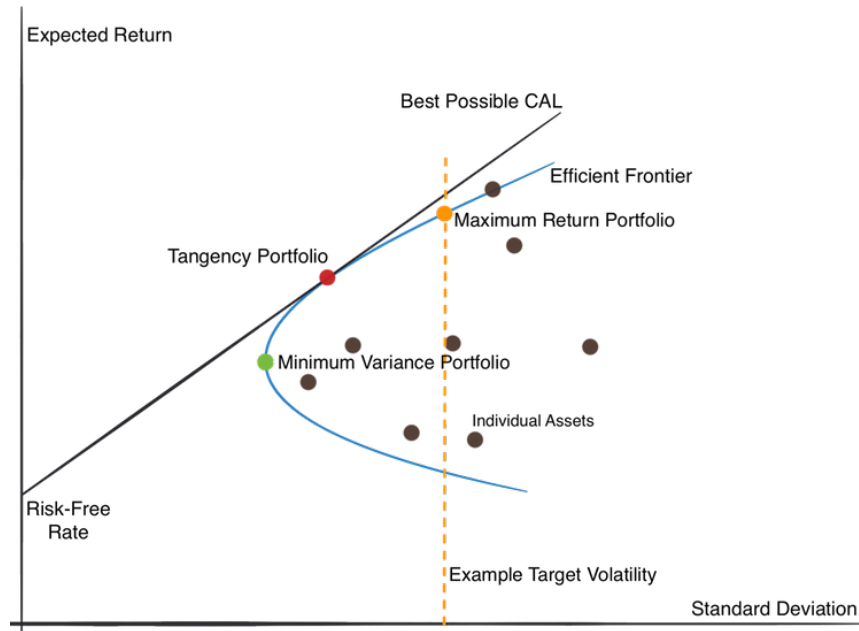


Figure 3: Efficient Frontier

3.3.3 Methodology

Consider a three asset portfolio problem with assets denoted A, B and C. Let R_i ($i = A, B, C$) denote the return on asset i and assume that the constant expected return (CER) model holds:

$$R_i \sim iidN(\mu_i \sigma_i^2)$$

$$\text{cov}(R_i, R_j) = \sigma_{ij}$$

(Let x_i denote portion of wealth invested in asset i ($i = A, B, C$ where $x_A + x_B + x_C = 1$). We see that the return $R_{p,x}$, is a random variable calculated as:

$$R_{p,x} = x_A R_A + x_B R_B + x_C R_C$$

Now calculating this return value when the number of assets is large becomes a tedious task. If we can convert this linear calculation into matrix form, computation will be much easier.

PORTFOLIO CHARACTERISTICS USING MATRIX NOTATION:

Define the following $n \times 1$ column vectors containing the asset returns and portfolio weights

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} R_A \\ R_B \\ R_C \\ \vdots \\ R_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} x_A \\ x_B \\ x_C \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

To find the portfolio return, we can simply multiply first matrix with the transpose of the other.

$$R_{p,x} = x^T \cdot R$$

Now if we define $E[R]$ to be the mean of all the historic data about the returns on R , We can define another 3×1 column matrix in the following manner:

$$E[R] = E \left[\begin{pmatrix} R_A \\ R_B \\ \vdots \\ R_n \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} E[R_A] \\ E[R_B] \\ \vdots \\ R_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_A \\ \mu_B \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{pmatrix} = \mu$$

Therefore, the expected return on the portfolio is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{p,x} &= E[x^T R] = x^T E[R] = x^T \mu \\ &= (x_A \quad x_B \quad \dots \quad x_n) \begin{pmatrix} \mu_A \\ \mu_B \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

To simplify further we will define a 3×3 covariance matrix of returns:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(R) &= \begin{pmatrix} \text{var}(R_A) & \text{cov}(R_A R_B) & \text{cov}(R_A R_C) \\ \text{cov}(R_B R_A) & \text{var}(R_B) & \text{cov}(R_B R_C) \\ \text{cov}(R_C R_A) & \text{cov}(R_C R_B) & \text{var}(R_C) \end{pmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_A^2 & \sigma_{AB} & \sigma_{AC} \\ \sigma_{BA} & \sigma_B^2 & \sigma_{BC} \\ \sigma_{CA} & \sigma_{CB} & \sigma_C^2 \end{pmatrix} = \Sigma \end{aligned}$$

The variance of the portfolio can be computed by:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{p,x}^2 &= \text{var}(x^T R) = x^T \sum x \\ &= (x_A \quad x_B \quad x_C) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_A^2 & \sigma_{AB} & \sigma_{AC} \\ \sigma_{BA} & \sigma_B^2 & \sigma_{BC} \\ \sigma_{CA} & \sigma_{CB} & \sigma_C^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_A \\ x_B \\ x_C \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

In the beginning we had also specified that x_i sums up to 1, i.e. the total wealth available for investment. We can express the condition in the following manner:

$$x^T I_n = (x_A \quad x_B \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad x_n) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = x_A + x_B + \dots + x_C = 1$$

Here I_n is a 3x1 vector which each element equal to 1.

We will now consider another portfolio, with weights $y = (y_A, y_B, y_C)^T$. The return on the portfolio is $R_{p,y} = y^T R$

We can also compute the covariance between the return on portfolio x and return on portfolio y,

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{xy} &= \text{cov}(R_{p,x}, R_{p,y}) = \text{cov}(x^T R, y^T R) = x^T \sum y = \\ &= (x_A \quad x_B \quad x_C) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_A^2 & \sigma_{AB} & \sigma_{AC} \\ \sigma_{BA} & \sigma_B^2 & \sigma_{BC} \\ \sigma_{CA} & \sigma_{CB} & \sigma_C^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_A \\ y_B \\ y_C \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Thus matrix algebra assists us in computing expected portfolio return and portfolio return for a huge data as

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Return} &= x^T \cdot R \\ \text{Expected Return} &= x^T \mu\end{aligned}$$

3.3.4 Use Of Linear Algebra in Portfolio Optimization

When managing large portfolios, representing expected returns and variances becomes more complex. However, this can be simplified using matrix algebra, offering streamlined computational methods. Therefore, acquiring proficiency in matrix techniques for portfolio calculations is highly beneficial.

3.3.5 Real Life Usage of Portfolio Optimization

Suppose we want to combine a risky portfolio having only BestBuy and ATT stocks and a risk-free asset with a return of 1 percent. We will plot the Efficient Frontier based on the return data for these stocks and then take a line that starts at 1.5 on the Y-axis and is tangential to this Efficient Frontier.

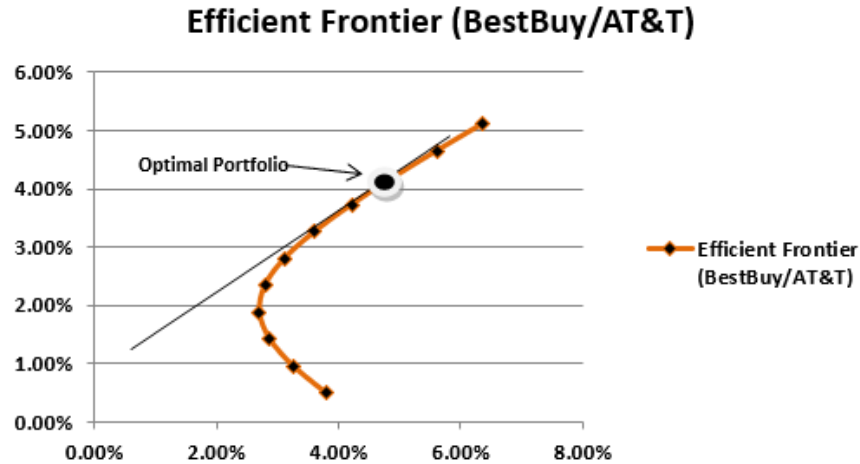


Figure 4: Efficient Frontier

The X-axis represents the Standard Deviation, and Y-axis represents the return of the portfolio. An investor who wishes to take on less risk can move to the left of this point, and high risk-taking investors can move to the right. An investor who does not wish to take any risk at all would invest all the money in the risk-free asset but, simultaneously, limit their portfolio return to 1 percent. An extra return will be earned by taking the risk.

3.4 Risk Management

Risk management encompasses a comprehensive and structured approach to addressing potential risks in financial operations. By recognizing and evaluating various types of risks, such as market risk, credit risk, operational risk, and liquidity risk, organizations can develop strategies to mitigate or minimize their adverse effects. Through effective risk management practices, firms aim to protect their capital, avoid significant losses, and maintain a sustainable and resilient financial position.

The following section provides a detailed focus on Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT), a financial model that integrates multiple macroeconomic factors to assess the level of risk associated with asset returns.

3.4.1 Arbitrage Pricing Theory

Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) is a financial model that was formulated by economist Stephen Ross during the 1970s as a means to explore the intricate connection between the risk and return of financial assets. It was developed as an alternative to the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) and has since provided a reliable framework for comprehensively evaluating the risk associated with asset returns. The objective of APT is to capture the multifaceted nature of risk by considering a range of macroeconomic factors that influence asset returns. These factors may include interest rates, inflation rates, exchange rates, and other pertinent variables that reflect the broader economic environment. By incorporating such a diverse set of variables, APT enables a more holistic and nuanced understanding of the risk-return relationship.

Risk management is a central aspect of APT, allowing investors to understand and quantify the sources of risk in their portfolios. By monitoring the macroeconomic factors and their impact on asset returns, investors can adjust their portfolios to mitigate risks and optimize the risk-return tradeoff. By considering multiple macroeconomic factors, APT offers a deeper understanding of the risk-return relationship and enables investors to make informed investment decisions.

3.4.2 Factor Identification

Factor identification is a crucial step in the implementation of Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) as it involves the identification and selection of macroeconomic factors that are likely to impact the returns of the assets under consideration. To identify the macroeconomic factors, researchers and practitioners typically conduct a comprehensive analysis of various economic indicators and variables. The goal is to gain insights into the key drivers of the economy and financial markets. Economic indicators such as interest rates, inflation rates, GDP growth, exchange rates, unemployment rates, consumer sentiment, and industry-specific indicators are commonly considered. These factors have been shown to have a significant impact on asset returns in many empirical studies. Additionally, factors specific to the industry or sector in which the assets operate may also be considered.

In the next section we discuss how factor sensitivity is calculated.

3.4.3 Factor Sensitivity Estimation

In APT, the relationship between the expected return of an asset and its exposure to various macroeconomic factors can be mathematically represented as follows:

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \beta_{1i} \cdot F_1 + \beta_{2i} \cdot F_2 + \dots + \beta_{ki} \cdot F_k + \varepsilon_i$$

where:

- $E(R_i)$ represents the expected return of asset i .
- R_f denotes the risk-free rate of return.
- $\beta_{1i}, \beta_{2i}, \dots, \beta_{ki}$ are the factor sensitivities or coefficients, representing the asset's sensitivity to each of the k macroeconomic factors (F_1, F_2, \dots, F_k) .
- F_1, F_2, \dots, F_k are the macroeconomic factors that influence asset returns.
- ε_i represents the idiosyncratic or asset-specific risk that is not explained by the macroeconomic factors.

3.4.4 Arbitrage Opportunities

Arbitrage opportunities can be identified by analyzing the relationship between asset returns and the identified macroeconomic factors. The APT suggests that asset prices are influenced by multiple factors, and deviations from the expected relationship present opportunities for arbitrage.

To take advantage of arbitrage opportunities, investors typically engage in a process known as arbitrage trading. This involves buying and selling assets or securities in different markets to exploit price differentials. For example, if an asset is underpriced in one market compared to another, an investor can buy the

asset in the undervalued market and sell it in the overvalued market, making a risk-free profit from the price discrepancy.

Arbitrage opportunities can be short-lived, as market participants quickly react to exploit any discrepancies, which tends to correct the prices. As a result, arbitrage opportunities are often highly competitive and may require sophisticated trading strategies, advanced technology, and quick execution to capitalize on the price differentials before they disappear.

4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this project has presented a comprehensive exploration of the applications of matrix algebra and linear algebra in the realm of financial models and concepts.

Capital Asset Pricing Model is one of the widely used asset pricing model used to calculate required return of an asset compensating for TVM, and risk associated with stock. Based on required return and expected return SML determines if the asset is overvalued/undervalued. By utilizing these models, investors can make informed decisions about asset allocation

In Portfolio Optimization, where the project delved into the principles of Modern Portfolio Theory (MPT). Through the analysis of variance, standard deviation, and covariance, valuable insights were gained from a diverse array of assets. Moreover, the project investigated the construction of the Efficient Frontier as a means to create an optimal portfolio that aligns with specific requirements and objectives. These findings highlight the significance of leveraging matrix algebra and linear algebra in the field of finance.

Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) is a valuable framework in Risk Management for comprehending the complex relationships that exist between macroeconomic factors, asset returns, and the potential identification of profitable investment opportunities. APT offers a flexible and adaptable framework that can accommodate changes in the macroeconomic environment. APT's ability to capture the intricate relationships between macroeconomic factors and asset returns makes it a valuable framework for investors seeking to navigate the complexities of the financial markets and identify potentially profitable investment opportunities.

Financial Forecasting is an ever changing and volatile field where external factors such as geopolitics and social factors play a major role in the predictions . It has been shown that using the factors of drift and volatility as defined in the GBM model, the future value of a given asset can be nearly accurately predicted. Even though there are limitations to the model , it is the mostly widely accepted due its ability to predict dips in asset values and account for sudden jumps as well

5 Contributions of Each Person

5.1 Alex Thuruthel

Risk Management , Financial Forecasting

5.2 Chirag Dhamija

Portfolio Optimization

5.3 Kotekal Methukula Santosh

Asset Pricing

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