Dynamic Portfolio Management



What dynamics?

- So far, we have considered portfolio management as a 1-period problem:
 - Given α , risk, and costs, what is the optimal portfolio?
- Our discussion of transaction cost amortization is symptomatic of a larger issue.

Dynamics

- Actual portfolio management is a dynamic problem.
- Alpha change over time:
 - New information arrives.
 - Old information becomes stale.
 - Trading occurs to close the gap between what we hold and what we would like to hold (a moving target).
- In this section, we will introduce a simple model* to illustrate dynamic portfolio management.
 - Simple enough to solve analytically, but with just enough complexity to exhibit interesting behavior.
- Advances in Active Portfolio Management (Grinold & Kahn, 2019) covers this topic in considerable depth.

- *Grinold, Richard. "A Dynamic Model of Portfolio Management," *Journal of Investment Management*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 5-22. (2006).
- Grinold, Richard. "Dynamic Portfolio Analysis." *Journal of Portfolio Management*, pp. 12-26. (Fall 2007).

Alpha Dynamics

$$\mathbf{\alpha}(t) = e^{-\gamma \cdot \Delta t} \cdot \mathbf{\alpha}(t - \Delta t) + \mathbf{\tilde{s}}(t) \cdot \sqrt{\Delta t}$$
New α
Proportion of old α
(old information)
relevant in current
period

New information

Note that:

$$E\{\tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t)\} = 0$$

$$Corr\{\tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t), \boldsymbol{\alpha}(t - \Delta t)\} = 0$$

This is what we mean by in when when information

Return and Risk

• Zero-cost utility (flow, i.e. utility/time):

$$u = \mathbf{h}^T \cdot \mathbf{\alpha} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{h}^T \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h}$$

Optimizing this leads to a familiar result:

$$\mathbf{h}_{\mathcal{Q}} = \frac{\mathbf{V}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{\alpha}}{2\lambda}$$

Assuming a long short portfolio / no constraints.

Transactions Costs

• We will use a *quadratic* model. (Hence we will sometimes call this the quadratic dynamic model for portfolio management.)

constant of proportionally

$$c(\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{h}_{old}) = \left(\frac{\hat{\eta}}{2}\right) \cdot (\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{h}_{old})^T \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot (\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{h}_{old})$$

- This model is similar to previously discussed market impact model, though this is based on trade portfolio risk.
- The model ignores linear costs, commissions, spreads, etc.
- This assumed model of transactions costs is critical for developing a simple, analytically solvable model, that exhibits interesting behavior.

Optimization

- We want to set up a dynamic programming problem.
 - Goal: maximize steady-state performance.
 - No constraints (i.e. long-short portfolios)
- Define g as the steady-state utility per unit of time, and $U(\mathbf{h},\alpha)$ as the utility impact (relative to g) of having particular portfolio \mathbf{h} and particular alpha α .
- We want to choose the optimal dynamic policy such that:

$$g \cdot \Delta t + U(\mathbf{h}_{old}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = Max_{\mathbf{h}} \{ u \cdot \Delta t - c + E\{U(\mathbf{h}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}) | \boldsymbol{\alpha} \} \}$$

Analytical solution is simple and intuitive:

$$\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = (1 - \delta) \cdot \psi \cdot \mathbf{h}_{Q}^{(t)} + \delta \cdot \mathbf{h}_{old} \qquad h(t-1)$$

- Optimal choice is a weighted combination of the old portfolio and a scaled back version of Portfolio Q.
 - Weight and scaling parameters and constants that depend on costs, risk aversion, and halflife.

Parameters

 For convenience, we define an effective risk aversion:

$$\hat{\lambda} \equiv \lambda \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left[1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{2\hat{\eta}}{\lambda \cdot \Delta t}} \right]$$

• Then we have simple formulas for δ and ψ .

$$\delta = \frac{\hat{\eta}}{\hat{\eta} + \hat{\lambda}} \qquad \psi = \frac{1 - \delta}{1 - e^{-\gamma \Delta t} \cdot \delta}$$

$$0 \le \delta \le 1$$
 $1 - \delta \le \psi \le 1$

Limiting Cases

$$\mathbf{h} = (1 - \delta) \cdot \psi \cdot \mathbf{h}_{O}^{(\star)} + \delta \cdot \mathbf{h}_{old}^{(+-1)}$$

- In the case of zero costs, $\hat{\eta} = 0$, $\delta \Rightarrow 0$, $\psi \Rightarrow 1$. Then $\mathbf{h} \Rightarrow \mathbf{h}_Q$. Without costs, we don't have to worry about the dynamic problem.
- When costs dominate risk aversion, $\delta \Rightarrow 1$, $\psi \Rightarrow 0$. Then $\mathbf{h} \Rightarrow \mathbf{h}_{old}$ $\overset{?}{\sim} > \overset{?}{\lambda}$
- When the halflife gets very long, $e^{-\gamma \Delta t} \Rightarrow 1, \ \psi \Rightarrow 1.$
 - With long halflife, there is no scaling back of \mathbf{h}_{Q} .

Equivalent Single Period Optimization $h = (1-\delta)\psi h_0 + \delta h_0 (+-1)$

 The optimal policy is the solution to an adjusted single period problem:

$$Max_{\mathbf{h}} \left\{ \mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \boldsymbol{\psi} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h} - \left(\frac{2\lambda}{\hat{\lambda}}\right) \cdot c \right\} \qquad \text{to standards}$$

$$accordings$$
to this pate

- The adjustments include scaling back the alpha and amortizing the transactions costs.
- In this simple model, we can still justify single period optimization.

Garleanu and Pedersen [2013]

- "Dynamic Trading with Predictable Returns and Transactions Costs," *Journal of Finance*, December 2013.
- Extends the Grinold framework to handle multiple expected return factors with different mean reversion parameters, i.e. a combination of fast and slow signals.

Grinold:
$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}(t) = e^{-\gamma \cdot \Delta t} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}(t - \Delta t) + \tilde{\mathbf{s}} \cdot \sqrt{\Delta t}$$

Garleanu, Pedersen: $\tilde{\mathbf{r}}(t) = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{f}(t - \Delta t) + \tilde{\mathbf{s}} \cdot \sqrt{\Delta t}$

$$\Delta \mathbf{f}(t) \equiv \mathbf{f}(t) - \mathbf{f}(t - \Delta t) = -\mathbf{\Phi} \cdot \mathbf{f}(t - \Delta t) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(t)$$

A set of K factors f predict returns for N stocks. These factors
mean-revert over time according to the KxK matrix Φ. The NxK
matrix B captures stock exposures to the factors.

Garleanu and Pedersen

 Assuming that transactions costs are proportional to risk, and solving a dynamic programming problem, they find that:

$$\mathbf{h} = \left(1 - \frac{a}{\lambda}\right) \cdot \mathbf{h}_{old} + \left(\frac{a}{\lambda}\right) \cdot \mathbf{h}_{aim}$$

• The "aim" portfolio accounts for the mean reversion speeds of the different factors. If Φ is diagonal, then this becomes:

$$\mathbf{h}_{aim} = \left(\frac{1}{2\lambda}\right) \cdot \mathbf{V}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \left(\frac{f_1}{1 + \frac{a \cdot \phi_1}{\lambda}}\right) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \left(\frac{f_K}{1 + \frac{a \cdot \phi_K}{\lambda}}\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

 If all factors decay at the same rate, we are back at the Grinold result. But if they decay at different rates, then the more persistent factors have a bigger impact on the aim portfolio.