# Basic Mathematics for Portfolio Management

"If you stop at general math, you're only going to make general math money."

- Snoop Dogg



## **Statistics**

- Variables x, y, z
- Constants a, b
- Observations  $\{x_n, y_n, z_n \mid n=1,...N\}$
- Mean

$$\overline{x} = E\{x\}$$
 = mean or expected value of  $x$ 

$$E\{a \cdot x + b \cdot y\} = a \cdot \overline{x} + b \cdot \overline{y}$$

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$

## Variance

$$\sigma_x^2 = Var\{x\} = E\{(x - \overline{x})^2\}$$

$$Var\{a \cdot x\} = a^2 \cdot \sigma_x^2$$

$$\sigma_x^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( x_n - \overline{x} \right)^2$$

## Covariance

$$\sigma_{xy} = Cov\{x, y\} = E\{(x - \overline{x}) \cdot (y - \overline{y})\}$$

$$\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}$$

$$Cov\{x,x\} = \sigma_x^2$$

$$Cov\{a \cdot x + b \cdot y, z\} = a \cdot \sigma_{xz} + b \cdot \sigma_{yz}$$

$$Var\{a \cdot x + b \cdot y\} = Cov\{a \cdot x + b \cdot y, a \cdot x + b \cdot y\}$$

$$= a^2 \cdot \sigma_x^2 + b^2 \cdot \sigma_y^2 + 2ab \cdot \sigma_{xy}$$

$$\sigma_{xy} = \frac{1}{N-1} \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \overline{x}) \cdot (y_n - \overline{y})$$

## Correlation

OK = Ux · Ox

Closely related to covariance:

Ox = Standard
Deviator

$$\rho_{xy} \equiv \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x \cdot \sigma_y}$$

 Note that correlation is dimensionless, and that:

$$-1 \le \rho_{xy} \le 1$$

 This facilitates our intuition for the magnitude of a correlation.

## A bit more on Correlation

• What is  $Corr\{a \cdot x, y\}$ ?

$$Corr\left\{a\cdot x,y\right\} = \frac{Cov\left\{a\cdot x,y\right\}}{\sqrt{Var\left\{a\cdot x\right\},Var\left\{y\right\}}} = \frac{a\cdot\sigma_{xy}}{a\cdot\sigma_{x}\cdot\sigma_{y}}$$

$$= \rho_{xy}$$

## Regression

$$y_n = a + b \cdot x_n + \varepsilon_n = \hat{y}_n + \varepsilon_n$$

- This is an example of a linear model.
- The model is unbiased if:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \varepsilon_n = 0$$

How do we choose the best {a,b}?

## Regression

 The best estimates for {a,b} should minimize the sum of squared errors:

$$ESS = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \varepsilon_n^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \hat{y}_n)^2$$

This corresponds to minimizing:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \hat{y}_n^2 - 2 \cdot y_n \cdot \hat{y}_n$$

Which leads to two equations:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ \hat{y}_{n} - y_{n} \right] \cdot \left( \frac{\partial \hat{y}_{n}}{\partial a} \right) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ \hat{y}_{n} - y_{n} \right] \cdot \left( \frac{\partial \hat{y}_{n}}{\partial b} \right) = 0$$

## Regression

The first equation leads to an unbiased model.

$$\left(\frac{\partial \hat{y}_n}{\partial a}\right) = 1 \Longrightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[\hat{y}_n - y_n\right] = 0$$

We can use this to solve for a:

$$y_n = a + b \cdot x_n + \varepsilon_n$$
$$\overline{y} = a + b \cdot \overline{x}$$
$$a = \overline{y} - b \cdot \overline{x}$$

## Regression $y_n = a + b x_n + \epsilon_n$

 The second equation relates the coefficient b to the sample covariance of x and y:

$$\left(\frac{\partial \hat{y}_n}{\partial b}\right) = x_n \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[\hat{y}_n - y_n\right] \cdot x_n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow b = \frac{Cov\{x, y\}}{Var\{x\}}$$

Putting this together:

$$y_n = \overline{y} + \left(\frac{Cov\{x, y\}}{Var\{x\}}\right) \cdot \left[x_n - \overline{x}\right] + \varepsilon_n$$

- The model  $\hat{y}$  is the best linear unbiased estimate (BLUE), given only the sample data.
- Before some examples, I need to introduce portfolio management notation.

#### Portfolio Management Definitions and Notation

$$t + \Delta t$$

Total rate of return:

new price dividend old price 
$$trr = \frac{p(t + \Delta t) + d(t + \Delta t) - p(t)}{p(t)}$$

price and dividend notation are standard but we almost never focus on total rate of return.

Risk-free return: i<sub>F</sub>

(Usually T-Bill return over period  $\Delta t$ )

Excess return:

excess returns are a standard focus of investment theory

$$r \equiv trr - i_F$$

$$r_n = \operatorname{stock} - n \text{ excess return}$$

## Portfolios and Holdings

- A portfolio is a set of holdings.
- Holdings are value-weighted fractions:
  - Example: portfolio consists of 100 shares each of A and B.
     The price of A is \$50 and the price of B is \$25.

$$h_A = \frac{100 \cdot 50}{100 \cdot 50 + 100 \cdot 25} = 0.67$$

$$h_B = \frac{100 \cdot 25}{100 \cdot 50 + 100 \cdot 25} = 0.33$$

- Fully invested portfolios have holdings that sum to 1.
- Long-only portfolios have all holdings greater than or equal to 0.
- A benchmark is a particular portfolio, one outside the control of the portfolio manager. Examples include the S&P 500, the Russell 2000, and the MSCI EAFE.

## Returns and Portfolios

- Portfolio returns:  $r_P = \mathbf{h}_P^T \cdot \mathbf{r} = \sum_{n=1}^N h_n(n) \cdot f_n$
- Residual returns (defined via regression)

$$r_P = \beta_P \cdot r_B + \theta_P = \alpha_P + \beta_P \cdot r_B + \varepsilon_P$$

Active returns (defined via subtraction)

$$r_P = r_B + \delta_P$$

Active portfolio holdings (defined via subtraction)

$$\mathbf{h}_{PA} \equiv \mathbf{h}_P - \mathbf{h}_B$$
  $\searrow$  overweights / unduweghts

#### Returns and Portfolios

Returns	Variable	Mean	Variance
Excess (above risk-free)	r	f	$\sigma^2$
Residual	heta	lpha	$\omega^2$
Active	$\delta$	$\alpha + (\beta - 1) \cdot f_B$	$\omega^2 + (\beta - 1)^2 \cdot \sigma_B^2$

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Portfolios: \mathbf{h}_P = \text{portfolio holdings}

\mathbf{h}_B = \text{benchmark holdings}

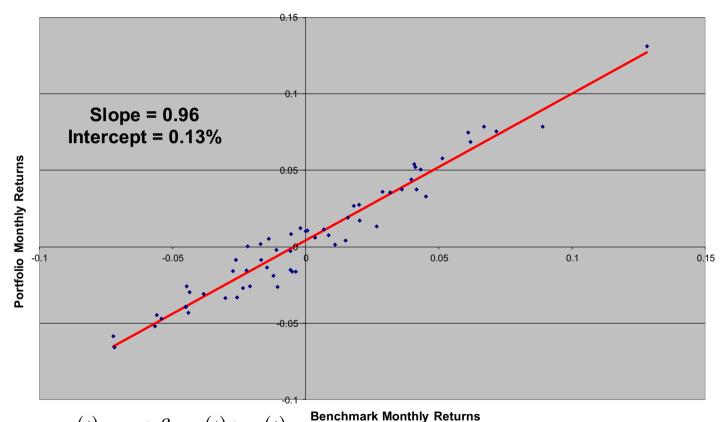
\mathbf{h}_{PA} = \text{active holdings}

Covariance Matrix: \mathbf{V} = \text{covariance matrix} (\text{Cov}\{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}\})
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Now to some portfolio management examples of regression.

#### Investment Example: Time-series Regression

**Linear Regression** 

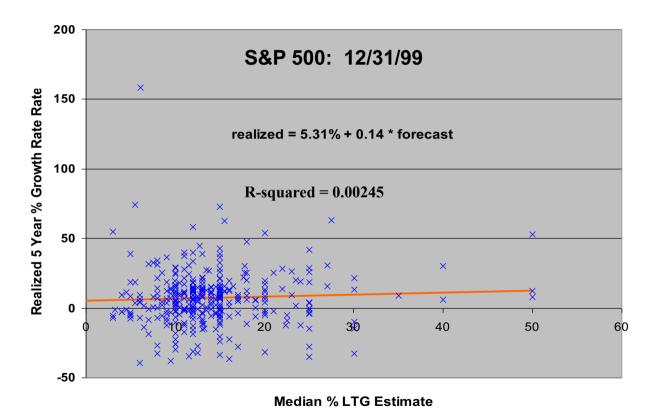


$$r_{P}(t) = \alpha_{P} + \beta_{P} \cdot r_{B}(t) + \varepsilon_{P}(t)$$

$$E\{r_{P}(t)\} = \alpha_{P} + \beta_{P} \cdot E\{r_{B}(t)\}$$

$$E\{r_{P}(t) | r_{B}(t)\} = \alpha_{P} + \beta_{P} \cdot r_{B}(t)$$

#### Investment Example: Cross-sectional Regression



## BLUE of y conditional on x

More generally, the BLUE has the form:

$$E\{y | x\} = E\{y\} + Cov\{x, y\} \cdot Var^{-1}\{x\} \cdot (x - E\{x\})$$

- You can see how this directly relates to our prior regression result.
- We will apply this result more generally than just in the regression context. For example, our estimates of variances and covariances may improve upon sample estimates.

## Matrices: Transpose and Inverse

- Transpose
  - Switch rows and columns

$$A_{mn}^T \equiv A_{nm}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 7 \\ 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Inverse (Assume A, B are square (NxN) matrices)

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{x} \quad \text{identity matrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

## Example: 2x2

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\left(a_{11} \cdot a_{22} - a_{12} \cdot a_{21}\right)} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Verify that  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$ 

## Using Linear Algebra

#### Portfolio Variance

$$\mathbf{h} = \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ \vdots \\ h_N \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_P^2 = Var \left\{ h_1 \cdot r_1 + h_2 \cdot r_2 + \dots + h_N \cdot r_N \right\}$$

$$= h_1^2 \cdot \sigma_1^2 + \dots + h_N^2 \cdot \sigma_N^2 + 2h_1 h_2 \cdot \sigma_{12} + 2h_1 h_3 \cdot \sigma_{13} + \dots$$

$$= \mathbf{h}^T \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h}$$

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## Multivariate Regression

The multivariate linear model is:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{\varepsilon}$$
$$\mathbf{\Omega} = Cov\{\mathbf{\varepsilon}\}$$

- We can include an intercept as a column of X.
- To generalize, we minimize the weighted sum of squared errors:

$$\mathbf{\varepsilon}^T \cdot \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{\varepsilon}$$

Our resulting estimates are:

$$\mathbf{b} = \left[ \mathbf{X}^T \cdot \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{X} \right]^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{X}^T \cdot \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

## Example: Simple 2-factor model

Previously we saw a "beta regression" model:

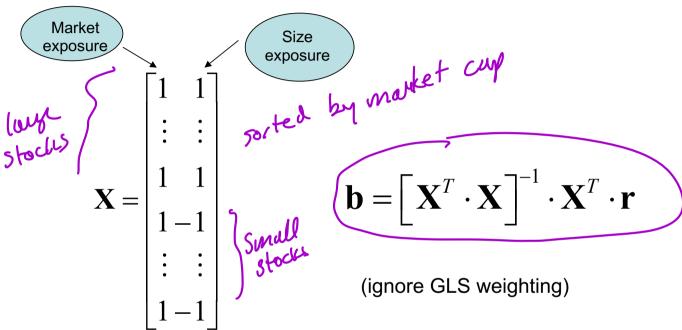
$$r_P(t) = \alpha_P + \beta_P \cdot r_B(t) + \varepsilon_P(t)$$

Now consider a different type of model:

$$r_n(t) = b_{Market}(t) + X_{Size,n} \cdot b_{Size}(t) + u_n(t)$$

where we have only two factors—a market factor and a measure of size—to model cross-sectional asset returns

## What is X? What is b?



All N stocks are in the market (all Market exposures = 1). N/2 stocks are large (size exposure = 1) and N/2 are small (size exposure = -1).

This is an odd definition of "the market."

## **Basic Utility Function**

Mean/Variance

$$U = f_P - \lambda \cdot \sigma_P^2$$

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

## Portfolio Optimization

- Choose portfolio h to maximize U.
- What does that mean? We must take the derivative of *U* with respect to each of the *N* elements of **h**. That leads to *N* equations in *N* unknowns.

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial h_n} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathbf{h}^T} = 0$$

## More Hints

- Hint 2: Try out 2x2 or 3x3 examples.
- Hint 3: To start, try working with individual elements. For example, I will use shorthand like: ∂

$$\overline{\partial}\mathbf{h}^T$$

- This says to take derivatives with respect to each element of h. This should lead to N separate equations.
- Example:  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{h}^T} (\mathbf{h}^T \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h}) = 2\mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h}$

#### Portfolio Construction with Constraints

- We usually need to include constraints in our portfolio optimization.
  - For example, the full investment constraint:

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mple, the full investment constraint:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} h_n = 1$$

$$h^{\mathsf{T}} \cdot e = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} h_n$$

- There is nothing in the mathematical optimization problem to guarantee the holdings sum to 1 unless we explicitly add it.
- We can add linear constraints using Lagrange multiplier:

$$U: \left[\mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{f} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h}\right] \Rightarrow \left[\mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{f} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{h} + c \cdot \left(\mathbf{h}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{e} - 1\right)\right]$$

 We have added a new variable, c. Now when we optimize U, we take derivatives with respect to **h** and c. Setting derivative with respect to c to zero leads to the constraint.