

## Applications to finance

We will look at 2 application areas:

1) Portfolio construction

2) Risk management

## Machine Learning Asset Allocation

### Mean-Variance Optimization

Consider a market with  $n$  assets

Let  $r_i$  denote the simple returns of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  asset

↳ a random variable

We form a portfolio of these  $n$  assets using weights  $w_i$

↳ The return of the portfolio is  $R = w_1 r_1 + w_2 r_2 + \dots + w_n r_n$

If vector of returns  $r$  has mean  $\mu$  ( $E[r_i] = \mu_i$ )

and covariance  $C$  ( $\text{cov}(r_i, r_j) = C_{ij}$ )

then the portfolio has expected return  $E[R] = \mu^T w = w_1 \mu_1 + w_2 \mu_2 + \dots + w_n \mu_n$

and variance  $\text{Var}(R) = w^T C w = \sum_i \sum_j w_i w_j C_{ij}$

The Markowitz model: maximize returns + minimize risk

$$\hookrightarrow \min \frac{1}{2} w^T C w - \lambda \mu^T w \quad \text{subject to } \sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$$

where  $\lambda \geq 0$  encodes the level of risk aversion (parameterizes the optimal portfolio)

Sometimes add other constraints, ex: long-only:  $w_i \geq 0$  for all  $i$

This solution can be computed very efficiently (FE 630)

However, it relies on accurate estimates of  $\mu + C$

↪ even small errors in  $\mu + C$  can lead to very different "optimal" portfolios  
→ the computed portfolio is suboptimal

## Markowitz's Curse

1) In general, we need  $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$  i.i.d observations to estimate the covariance matrix of  $n$  assets (and even then we get the sample  $\hat{C} \neq C$ )

ex:  $n = 50$  assets will require at least 5 years of daily data

$n = 100$  assets will require at least 20 years of daily data

2) In computing the optimal portfolios, we need to invert the covariance matrix  $C^{-1}$

When assets are more correlated, this inverse can introduce numerical errors

$\Rightarrow$  The more correlated the assets, the greater the need for diversification

+ the more likely we will receive unstable solutions

## Viewing Markowitz as Machine Learning

Recall:  $\min \frac{1}{2} w^T C w - \lambda \mu^T w$  subject to  $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$

This optimal portfolio is a function of 3 main inputs:  $w = f(\mu, C, \lambda)$   
*(Assume we know  $\lambda$ , drop it from notation)*

In reality, we find:  $\hat{w} = f(\hat{\mu}, \hat{C})$

$\hookrightarrow \hat{w}$  typically performs very poorly on test data (out-of-sample)

$\hookrightarrow$  Due to imperfect estimation + large amount of data required

$\hookrightarrow$  Typically outperformed by the naive investment  $w_i = \frac{1}{n}$  for every asset

Using rolling window to estimate  $\hat{\mu} + \hat{C}$  then:

$\hat{w}_t = f_T(r_{t-T}, \dots, r_t)$  is a function of realized historical returns

This is a complex regression problem

↳ Training outputs are historical optimal portfolios

Still very difficult to implement reliably!

### Classification Approach

Take notion from naive portfolio ( $w_i = \frac{1}{n}$  or 60-40 split of equity-bond)

To choose to only invest in the entire market (SPY) or "risk-free" (IEF)

Consider additional predictors as well:

ex: • VIX index

• value of gold

• sector ETFs

• moving average of prior data

• trade volume

• ..

Want to predict the "direction" of SPY returns

$$\hookrightarrow y_t \sim \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r_t^{\text{SPY}} \geq \bar{r} \\ 0 & \text{if } r_t^{\text{SPY}} < \bar{r} \end{cases} \quad \text{for threshold returns } \bar{r}$$

### Approach 1

Directly run classification methods on this data set

If predicted "1" then invest in SPY for next period

If predicted "0" then invest in TLT for next period

### Approach 2

Use the "probability" of being in class 0/1

Idea: Invest in SPY for next period when predicted probability of class 1 exceeds threshold R

$\hookrightarrow$  allows you to select how confident you want to be in the market

ex:  $\tau = -1\%$ ,  $R = 90\%$ .

↳ avoid SPY if greater than 10% chance of 1% (or more) drop in the market

(can be generalized to multiple assets, but more complex)

# Quantile Regression + Risk Analysis

## 3 Typical Measures of Risk

- 1) Variance
- 2) Value-at-Risk (VaR) ←
- 3) Expected Shortfall (ES)

Value-at-Risk is a measure of the risk of loss for investments

Estimates how much an investment might lose with a given probability (in a set period of time)

If  $X$  is the profit & loss distribution of a portfolio, then VaR at level  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

is the  $(1-\alpha)$ -quantile of  $-X$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{VaR}_\alpha(X) = - \inf \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid F_X(x) > \alpha\}$$

↳ The 95%-VaR provides the losses in the worst 5% of situations

# Estimating VaR

## Historical Perspective

Ideas: Use changing or rolling window to get the empirical quantile

↳ find the value so that  $\alpha$  fraction of profits/losses are better

Collect data on market variables for T days in the past

This provides T alternative scenarios for what can happen between today + tomorrow

Use these returns to compute the dollar change in the value of the portfolio

between today + tomorrow

↳ Value under the  $t^{\text{th}}$  scenario =  $V_T^{t+} / V_{t-1}$

## Quantile Regression

Rather than purely use historical data to find the quantile of  $v_t/v_{t-1}$   
we can try to regress this value

Goal: Find a loss function so that we estimate the quantile of the signal

Recall: The  $\alpha$ -quantile of  $X$  is:  $q_\alpha(X) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid F_X(x) > \alpha\}$   
and  $VaR_\alpha(X) = -q_\alpha(X)$

Assume  $X$  has a continuous distribution

Intuition for MSE:  $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$  minimizes  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - t)^2$   
↳ t. test: take the derivative of the loss function:  $-\frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - t) = 0$   
↳ This is why the MSE leads to a regression of the mean ]

Let's start the intuition to find a potential loss function

↪ Define the loss function  $\rho_\alpha(x) = x(\alpha - \mathbb{1}_{\{x < 0\}})$

↪  $\ell_\alpha(X)$  minimizes  $E[\rho_\alpha(X-t)] = (\alpha-1) \int_{-\infty}^t (x-t) dF_X(x) + \alpha \int_t^\infty (x-t) dF_X(x)$

↪ test by taking the derivative:  $-\alpha + F_X(x) = 0$

For  $\alpha$ -quantile regression we use the  $\ell_\alpha$  loss function:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_\alpha &= \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \rho_\alpha(y_i - f(x_i, \beta)) \\ &= \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \left[ (\alpha-1) \sum_{y_i < f(x_i, \beta)} (y_i - f(x_i, \beta)) + \alpha \sum_{y_i > f(x_i, \beta)} (y_i - f(x_i, \beta)) \right]\end{aligned}$$

for parametric model  $f(\cdot; \beta)$

↪ commonly used for linear models:  $f(x, \beta) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p$

but works for more complex models as well (ex: neural nets)

ex:  $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$  the  $l_\alpha(x) = \frac{1}{2}|x|$

↳ median regression minimizes the mean absolute error

## Evaluating Model Performance

Throughout this course, we have generally compared loss functions directly to determine the best fit

It is better to statistically test this comparison instead

↳ Only use a more complex model if it has a statistically significant improvement in performance

Elicitability (terminology primarily used in risk measurement)

There exists some scoring function that can be used for comparative tests on models

↳  $S$  is such that  $E[S(\rho(\gamma), \gamma)] < E[S(t, \gamma)]$  for  $t \neq \rho(\gamma)$

*risk evaluation of  $\gamma$*

Let  $f + g$  be 2 models of risk

$f$  is better than  $g$  w.r.t  $S$  if  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N S(f(x_i), y_i) < \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N S(g(x_i), y_i)$

Note: the relation between scoring functions + loss functions

Value-at-Risk is elicitable

(Expected Shortfall "not", though it is if jointly evaluated with VaR)

One-Sided Test

The "standard" or baseline model

$$H_0: E[S(f(X), Y)] = E[S(g(X), Y)]$$

$$H_a: E[S(f(X), Y)] < E[S(g(X), Y)]$$

Define  $\bar{J} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N d_i$  for  $d_i = S(f(x_i), y_i) - S(g(x_i), y_i)$

Under the null hypothesis:  $\bar{J}$  is asymptotically normal with mean 0 and standard deviation  $\hat{\sigma}_n / \sqrt{n}$