	<ul> <li>Goals: <ul> <li>Review some linear algebra and matrix decomposition</li> <li>Use the results for portfolio construction</li> </ul> </li> <li>Relevant literature: <ul> <li>Numerical Recipes: The Art of Scientific Computing;</li> <li>Brian P. Flannery, Saul Teukolsky, William H. Press,</li> </ul> </li> </ul>			
	and William T. Vetterling  • Ledoit & Wolf: www.ledoit.net/honey.pdf  16: Computational methods  decomposition and portfolio construction			
	$ \begin{aligned} \textbf{Diagonalization} \\ \textbf{Recall that square } k \times k \text{ matrix } M \text{ is diagonalizable if there is a matrix } U \text{ and a diagonal matrix } D \text{ so that} \\ M &= UDU^{-1} \end{aligned}                                   $			
	and, similarly, $M^n = U D^n U^{-1} \tag{3}$ Recomputational methods decomposition and portfolio construction	3		
•	Diagonalization: some uses Using (3), we can even define and compute any functions of $M$ that has a Taylor series, which is a pretty large collection. For example, recall that $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{x^n}{n!} \qquad \qquad (4)$ and the series converges absolutely on the whole real line. (The whole complex plane, actually.) Now consider the sum $\sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{M^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{UD^nU^{-1}}{n!} = U \left(\sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{D^n}{n!}\right) U^{-1} = Ue^DU^{-1} \qquad (5)$			
	$\sum_{n=0}^{M} \frac{M}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{M} \frac{\partial D}{n!} = U \left(\sum_{n=0}^{M} \frac{D}{n!}\right) U^{-1} = U e^D U^{-1} $ (5) where in the last equality we defined $e^D$ in the natural way: $\underline{e^D = Diag\left(e^{d_1}, \dots, e^{d_k}\right)} $ (6) where $k$ is the dimension of $M$ .			
Matrix	Diagonalization: some uses It is reasonable, therefore, to take (5) as definition of $e^M$ . Be careful, though, $e^{M_1+M_2}=e^{M_1}e^{M_2}$ only if matrices $M_1$ and $M_2$ commute, i.e., if $M_1M_2=M_2M_1$ , which is more or less equivalent to the matrices having the same set of eigenvectors.	4		
	<ul> <li>Gecomposition and portfolio construction</li> <li>Unfortunately, M is not always diagonalizable and even when it is, in general, the diagonalization algorithm is not always stable. This makes it less than ideal method to use in practice, when you need software to "just run", without complaints or exceptions.</li> <li>For example, when you design automatic systems, you would then need to write code to deal with each possible complaint and exception, and that increases the software burden significantly.</li> <li>Also, we do not always need high powers of M: one power that we often have a very particular interest in is -1, i.e., the inverse, that appears in portfolio optimization as we will see a few slides later.</li> </ul>			
	**Singular Value Decomposition: definition  • Singular Value Decomposition of an $m$ by $n$ matrix $M$ is given by an orthogonal $m$ by $n$ matrix $U$ , a diagonal $n$ by $n$ matrix $D$ , and orthogonal $n$ by $n$ matrix $U$ such that $ M = UDV^T \\ MML MML $ The entries of $D$ , which are non-negative, are called singular values and play a role similar to eigenvalues. This decomposition is very stable: it works in pretty much all practical situations and gives us a lot of information about $M$ .  • For details and excellent discussion, see Ch.2 of Numerical Recipes.	6		
	Singular Value Decomposition  • If $M$ is symmetric, it has an orthonormal eigenbasis. If, in addition, $CM$ is a covariance matrix, its eigenvalues are non-negative? Since both SVD and diagonalization are unique (up to ordering), they must coincide. [Why?] Therefore, $ \sqrt{C} = UD^{1/2}V^T = UD^{1/2}V^{-1} = UD^{1/2}U^{-1}. \qquad (8) $ • Similarly, the inverse of $C$	7		
MF 79	when $C$ is indeed invertible, but, with SVD, we can go a step further: we leave the zero elements of $D$ at zero and only take reciprocals of the non-zero elements of $D$ .  • We can also choose to set the small $d_i$ s to zero. This, by the way, is Principal Component Analysis (PCA).			
	Optimal Portfolio: no constraints  • Suppose we have a history of $N$ securities for the last $I$ days. Let $H$ be the $I \times N$ matrix of their histories.  • Then their covariance matrix $C = H^T H$ (10)  (We assumed for simplicity of notation and without loss of generality that these histories have zero mean.)  • Let $R$ be the vector of the securities' expected returns. It is natural to want to find the portfolio weights $w$ so that $\langle R, w \rangle - a \langle w, Cw \rangle \qquad \boxed{\qquad} \qquad \boxed{\qquad}$			
Matrix	Optimal Portfolio: no constraints  • If the maximum is attained in the interior, the gradient has to be zero at the maximum. If we take the gradient of (11) with respect to $w$ , we must have $R-2aCw=0. \tag{12}$ In optimization theory (12) is called the first order condition. Solving for $w$ , we get: $w=\frac{1}{2a}C^{-1}R \tag{13}$ if $C$ is invertible.  • Well, is it? Let's explore what happens in practice.	9		
	<ul> <li>Covariance matrix: individual histories</li> <li>Suppose we have a large number of securities to model, i.e., the number of columns N of the history matrix H in (10) is large, say, 1000. Does it matter what I is?</li> <li>To find out, first recall from linear algebra that rank of H (and of H<sup>T</sup>) is at most min(I, N). It follows that the rank of C = H<sup>T</sup>H cannot be greater than min(I, N).</li> <li>Therefore, if we want C to be invertible we must have I &gt; N In other words, we must have at least 1000 observations for each instrument if we are to have any hope of forming a portfolio of 1000 instruments: normally, I needs to be much larger than N.</li> <li>If you use any other method of maximizing (11), e.g., optimization, you are still trying to arrive at (13) and this non-invertability will still be an issue, although it might manifest itself in some other way.</li> </ul>			
Matrix	<ul> <li>Covariance matrix: factors</li> <li>Some people try to avoid the problem on the previous slide by using factors. Let's look at this approach more closely. First we need some notation: let \$F\$ be the matrix of histories of the chosen factors. The matrix \$F\$ has the same length as \$H\$, but is narrower. Let \$L\$ be the matrix of factor loadings. Every column of \$L\$ holds the regression coefficients of the corresponding column of \$H\$ on the factors. The matrix \$L\$, therefore, is as wide as \$H\$ and its height equals the width of \$F\$.</li> <li>Regression of \$H\$ onto \$F\$ will not be exact, of course: it will have residuals. We gather them in a matrix \$Z\$, which will have the same shape as \$H\$.</li> <li>In summary,</li> <li>In summary,</li> </ul>	— 11		
	<ul> <li>Covariance matrix: factors</li> <li>Note that on the previous slide we did not specify what the factors are or how many of them we are looking at: for now, the analysis is completely generic.</li> <li>We have</li> <li>C = H<sup>T</sup>H = (FL + Z)<sup>T</sup>(FL + Z)</li></ul>	=0 • F proj.(H)	7 residual e	
	**Covariance matrix: factors  • Let's look at (15) again: $C = Z^T Z + L^T F^T F L$ $H'H = Z^T Z + (FL)^T F L $ • Different choices of factors will lead to different decompositions. For example, if we choose no factors at all we will end up in the situation on slide 10 with $Z = H$ .  • We can use just one factor, e.g., the market factor. That will give us CAPM.  • People often use Fama-French factors: market, size, book.  • Another common choice is to use sector indices as factors.			
	<ul> <li>And let's not forget Principal Component Analysis (PCA).</li> <li>decomposition and portfolio construction</li> <li>Covariance matrix: factors and rank</li> <li>It would be natural to think that the need for long history that we saw on slide 10 is gone when we use just a few factors.</li> <li>Let us look again at (16), dispassionately: <ol> <li>The rank of F cannot exceed the number of factors. Therefore, the same must be true of FL.</li> <li>The rank of F cannot be larger that the rank of H, since normally it makes no sense to choose more factors than individual instruments.</li> <li>Recall that Z = H - FL. Therefore, the rank of Z cannot exceed the rank of H.</li> </ol> </li></ul>	14		
	number of instruments, regardless of how we pick the factors.  6: Computational methods  Covariance matrix: caution!  • What could possibly make C invertible?  • Suppose that we have the confidence (something the trading	observation  15	ns > securities	
	<ul> <li>Are we sure we want to use this method for our portfolio weights?</li> <li>6: Computational methods</li> <li>Covariance matrix: caution!</li> <li>There has to be a better way</li> <li>Indeed, there are several.</li> <li>Anything is better than inverting noise.</li> <li>One thing you can do that's crude but effective is to replace Z<sup>T</sup>Z with a diagonal matrix of variances of the individual instruments. This works in the sense of giving a reasonable and reasonably stable portfolio, but has no logical justification, since it completely disregards the fact that Z is a matrix of residuals and simply plops down another matrix in its place.</li> <li>Another, more sophisticated, and also effective method is to follow</li> </ul>			
	Ledoit, etal, who blend $C$ with a specially constructed diagonal matrix and do so with justification from statistics.  6: Computational methods  Covariance matrix: PCA  In the methods mentioned above, the factors were picked "by hand", i.e., based on economic intuition, but with the side effect of running into mathematical difficulties.  We could ignore economics and instead focus on math. Then we can pick the factors based on the the fraction of total variance that they hold.  We do it by diagonalizing $C$ so that its eigenvalues are in decreasing order: $C = UDU^{-1} = UDU^T$ for some diagonal $D$ and orthonormal $U$ .			
	Covariance matrix: PCA			
	• Now consider the matrix $HU$ . We can think of columns of $\underline{U}$ as loadings on the instruments which are columns of $H$ . In other		ילנטטעד) ע	
	<ul> <li>Covariance matrix: a legitimate inverse</li> <li>How does this help us with C<sup>-1</sup>?</li> <li>We use the magic of SVD. First we decide how many of the factors we trust. Normally, this is done by picking enough top eigenvalues to account for, say, 90% of the variance and setting the rest to zero.</li> <li>Then the pseudo-inverse is computed by replacing the remaining non-zero eigenvalues with their reciprocals.</li> <li>In effect, this method takes the inverse on the subspace spanned by the top few principal components.</li> </ul>			
	<ul> <li>Covariance matrix: stability of the portfolio</li> <li>The top eigenvalues of C are fairly stable under small changes to history, but the bottom ones are essentially noise.</li> <li>Therefore, the smallest eigenvalues can change dramatically when we recalculate C the next day. But it is these smallest eigenvalues that control the portfolio w. Therefore, the portfolio will jerk around day to day, which is not a desirable property at all.</li> <li>The SVD pseudo-inverse described on the previous slide helps with stability as well.</li> <li>So, finally, we have a means of putting together a portfolio that will be reasonably well-behaved.</li> </ul>			
	• But all this was under the unrealistic assumption that there were no portfolio constraints.  6: Computational methods  • Computational methods  • Now let's consider (11), but with constraints $ \max_{w} \left\{ \langle R, w \rangle - a \langle w, Cw \rangle \mid \langle \vec{g}_k, w \rangle = c_k,  k = 1, \dots, K \right\}  (18) $ • The corresponding Lagrangian is $ L(w, \lambda) = \langle R, w \rangle - a \langle w, Cw \rangle - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \lambda_k \left( \langle \vec{g}_k, w \rangle - c_k \right)  (19) $ • Notice that maximizing $L(w, \lambda)$ is an unconstrained optimization problem (albeit with more variables) and will have the same solution as (18).	mslent		
max. L cw D = 0 =	There are many optimizers that handle such problems: I usually use IpOpt.  Computational methods  One was a second control of the s			
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Matrix	$L(w,\lambda) = \langle R,w\rangle - a  \langle w,Cw\rangle - \langle \lambda,(Gw-c)\rangle \qquad (19)$ $= \langle R,w\rangle - a  \langle w,Cw\rangle - \langle \lambda,Gw\rangle + \langle \lambda,c\rangle \qquad (20)$ $= \langle R,w\rangle - a  \langle w,Cw\rangle - \langle G^T\lambda,w\rangle + \langle \lambda,c\rangle \qquad (21)$ $Computational methods$ $Computational m$			
Matrix	Gecomposition and portfolio: with constraints  With that in mind we have three cases: $K = N$ : Same number of constraints and variables. $K > N$ : More constraints than variables. $K < N$ : Fewer constraints than variables. In the first case, $K = N$ , we have the same number of restrictions as instruments: a very unusual situation, but easily handled: since $G$ is invertible in this case (why?), we can solve for $W$ directly: $W = G^{-1}c. \tag{24}$			
	Note that $\lambda$ is not involved in the solution, which makes sense, since there is nothing to optimize.  6: Computational methods  Computational methods  Optimal Portfolio: with constraints  In the second case, $K > N$ , we have more restrictions than instruments: an over-determined problem. Again, a strange situation in the context of portfolio construction. This occurs more naturally in the context of regression.  In this case the matrix $G^TG$ is $N \times N$ and of maximal rank, and, therefore, invertible. We take advantage of that by multiplying (23) on the left by $G^T$ : $G^TGw = G^Tc \qquad (25)$ and solving for $w$ : $w = (G^TG)^{-1}G^Tc, \qquad (X^1X)^{-1}X^2Y \qquad (26)$			
	which is linear regression in matrix form. Again, $\lambda$ does not appear since there was, again, no optimization. 6: Computational methods  Computational method	mertible.		
	learned to do that, we will need to be able to invert $C$ . But we had learned to do that earlier in the lecture: if necessary, we can make it a pseudo-inverse.			
	Optimal Portfolio: with constraints  Thus equipped, from (27), we get $w = \frac{1}{2a}C^{-1}\left(R - G^T\lambda\right) \tag{29}$ where $C^{-1}$ might be a pseudo-inverse.  Putting this into (28), we get $C = GC^{-1}\left(R - G^T\lambda\right) = GC^{-1}R - GC^{-1}G^T\lambda \tag{30}$	— 27 — 27	C-GW=0  C-GC $\frac{1}{2a}$ C <sup>-1</sup> $\frac{1}{2a}$ C <sup>-1</sup> GC  ac=GC <sup>-1</sup> R-	(R~G <sup>T</sup> ሊ)) R~G <sup>T</sup> ሊ) ራ c <sup>-1</sup>