



# Details of the Black-Litterman Approach

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*Based on papers on Black-Litterman*

# Overview

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## Motivation

- Limits of Mean-Variance (Markowitz) Portfolio Optimization

## Black-Litterman

- Obtaining CAPM Prior using Reverse Optimization
- Views on Assets or Portfolios with Uncertainty
- Updating Estimates using Bayes Rule

## Comments

- Personal Take on Black-Litterman

# Motivation



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# Mean-Variance Optimization

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- Framework for actually constructing a portfolio of assets (Harry Markowitz, 1952)
- Key assumption is that investors are risk averse
  - They will take on increased risk only if they are compensated by higher expected returns
- We focus on single-period analysis for now:
  - Assume  $m$  risky assets ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ )
  - Assume single-period returns for the  $m$  risky assets ( $\mathbf{R} = [R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m]'$ )
  - Assume that we have *expected* returns  $E[R] = \boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m]$  and the covariance matrix of returns  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$
  - The portfolio is essentially a vector of weights corresponding to each risky asset, which can be expressed as  $\mathbf{w} = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m]'$
  - The realized return of the portfolio:  $\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{R}$
  - The expected return of the portfolio:  $\mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
  - The expected variance of the portfolio:  $\mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w}$

# Example 1: Risk Minimization

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Minimize } \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}' \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w} \\ & \text{s.t.} \\ & \mathbf{w}' \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \alpha_0, \quad \mathbf{w}' \mathbf{1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Lagrangian:  $L(\mathbf{w}, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}' \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w} + \lambda_1 (\alpha_0 - \mathbf{w}' \boldsymbol{\alpha}) + \lambda_2 (1 - \mathbf{w}' \mathbf{1})$
- Taking the first order conditions, we have
  - $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w} - \lambda_1 \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \lambda_2 \mathbf{1} = 0$
  - $\alpha_0 - \mathbf{w}' \boldsymbol{\alpha} = 0$
  - $1 - \mathbf{w}' \mathbf{1} = 0$
- We can derive the optimal weights:
  - $\mathbf{w}_0 = \lambda_1 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \lambda_2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}$

# Example 2: Expected Return Maximization

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize } \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\alpha} \\ & \text{s.t.} \\ & \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} = \sigma_0^2 \quad \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Lagrangian:  $L(\mathbf{w}, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \lambda_1(\sigma_0^2 - \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w}) + \lambda_2(1 - \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1})$
- Taking the first order conditions, we have
  - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} - 2\lambda_1\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} + \lambda_2\mathbf{1} = 0$
  - $\sigma_0^2 - \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} = 0$
  - $1 - \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1} = 0$
- We can derive the optimal weights:
  - $2\lambda_1\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w}_0 = \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \lambda_2\mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{w}_0 = \frac{1}{2\lambda_1}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \lambda_2\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{1})$

# Example 3: Risk Aversion Optimization

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize } \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \frac{1}{2}\lambda\mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} \\ & \text{s.t.} \\ & \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Lagrangian:  $L(\mathbf{w}, \lambda_1) = \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \frac{1}{2}\lambda\mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} - \lambda_1(1 - \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1})$
- Taking the first order conditions, we have
  - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \lambda\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} = 0$
  - $1 - \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1} = 0$
- We can derive the optimal weights:
  - $\mathbf{w}_0 = \frac{1}{\lambda}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\alpha}$

# Drawbacks of Mean-Variance

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- Biased optimal portfolios
  - Parameters (mean expected returns, covariance matrix) are estimated with uncertainty, and the optimizer will end up maximizing this error
  - This often leads to unintuitive results and unbalanced portfolios with high turnover
- Confidence in expected returns
  - The mean-variance setting implicitly assumes 100% confidence in the expected returns views
- Requires expected returns to be specified for the entire universe
- Traditional solutions circumvent the problem by:
  - More constraints: minimum / maximum allocation limits, trading costs
  - Linear objective functions: solve problem to maximize expected returns without taking variance into account
  - Black-Litterman is simply another way to circumvent this problem with a Bayesian approach



# Black-Litterman Approach



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# Bayesian Method

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- Actually quite useful for portfolio construction setting
  - Allows us to impose a prior view and alter our view upon arrival of new data

- Recall the Bayes Formula:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- Bayesian in Black-Litterman

1. Equilibrium point is introduced, which in this case is the market portfolio  
=  $P(A)$  or the **Prior**
2. Investor forms views about the asset returns with confidence assigned to each of them  
=  $P(B|A)$  or the **Likelihood**
3. Optimal allocation is found as a function of views, equilibrium, and confidence  
=  $P(A|B)$  or the **Posterior**

# 1. Priors

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- Suppose the returns of the  $m$  risky assets are

$$\mathbf{r} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

- Now we use CAPM: recall that CAPM states that all investors should hold the market portfolio as their risky asset.
- Thus, starting with the market portfolio, we can reverse optimize and derive the excess returns associated with the market portfolio (see example 3 from previous section):

$$\boldsymbol{\Pi} = \lambda \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_m$$

where  $\mathbf{w}_m$  is the vector of asset weights corresponding to the market portfolio.

- Investor is assumed to start with the Bayesian prior, characterized as the following:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\Pi} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1 \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \tau \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ . The idea here is that the *precision* of the estimates is proportional to the variance of the returns.

## 2. Views

- Recall that we define the combination of all views (ex. Asset A will outperform asset B by x%) as the conditional distribution,  $P(B|A)$
- Two more constraints before we proceed:
  - Each view is unique and uncorrelated with other views (sparse covariance matrix)
  - Sum of weights in a view is either zero or one
- Portfolio Views
  - $P$  is the  $K \times N$  matrix with portfolio weights. Each row represents a view of the portfolio ( $N$  assets)
  - $Q$  is the  $K \times 1$  vector of views regarding the expected returns of these portfolios.
  - $\Omega$  is the  $K \times K$  matrix of the covariance of these views.  $\Omega^{-1}$  is naturally the confidence in the views.
- Practical Example (shamelessly taken from Jay Walters)
  - Row 1: asset 1 will outperform asset 3 by 2% with confidence  $\omega_{11}$
  - Row 2: asset 2 will return 3% with confidence  $\omega_{22}$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} ; \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \Omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & \omega_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

## 2. Views

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- Once again, the views are assumed to have some errors:

$$Q = P\mu + \epsilon_2$$

where  $\epsilon_2 \sim N(0, \Omega)$ .

- Recall from previous section that  $\Pi = \mu + \epsilon_1$ . We can thus combine the two equations and express them as  $Y = X\mu + \epsilon$  where:

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} \Pi \\ Q \end{pmatrix}; X = \begin{pmatrix} I \\ P \end{pmatrix}; \epsilon \sim N(0, V); V = \begin{pmatrix} \tau\Sigma & 0 \\ 0 & \Omega \end{pmatrix}$$

- To get an estimate of  $\mu$ , we employ a GLS regression, by which the formula is given as:

$$\hat{\mu} = (X'V^{-1}X)^{-1}(X'V^{-1}Y)$$

### 3. Posterior

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- Another way to think about this is to observe the following property:

If  $X_1, X_2$  are normally distributed as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Then the conditional distribution is given as:

$$X_1|X_2 \sim N(\mu_1 + \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}(X_2 - \mu_2), \Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}\Sigma_{21})$$

- In both cases, we arrive at the Black-Litterman formula for the posterior distribution of expected returns:

$$E[\mathbf{R}|\mathbf{Q}] = [(\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{-1} + \mathbf{P}'\boldsymbol{\Omega}^{-1}\mathbf{P}]^{-1}[(\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Pi} + \mathbf{P}'\boldsymbol{\Omega}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}]$$

$$Var[\mathbf{R}|\mathbf{Q}] = [(\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{-1} + \mathbf{P}'\boldsymbol{\Omega}^{-1}\mathbf{P}]^{-1}$$

Usefulness



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# Personal Take on Black-Litterman

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- One intuitive way to understand the approach is through public vs. private information
  - The “Market” portfolio reflects all **public information** available to investors.
    - Therefore, by knowing the weights of the market portfolio, we can reverse-calculate the characteristics of individual assets.
  - The investor views reflect all private information that is not incorporated in the market.
- Bayesian updating is more intuitive.
  - It’s much more convenient to think about the relative performance of different assets.
  - It’s also convenient to have a “benchmark” to which we adjust our views.
- Black-Litterman is not strictly superior to mean-variance.
  - Many (quantitative) asset managers use Black-Litterman, but some hedge funds / asset managers still use a variant of mean-variance portfolio optimization.
  - Black-Litterman doesn’t work so well with global portfolios, because the asset weights are less a function of asset returns and variance than they are in the U.S. market.