

Multivariate Models

MFM Practitioner Module: Quantitative Risk Management

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We are going to pick up where we left off last term. The reading for this week (ch. 6) is long, but some of it should be review. In particular we have already seen most of the material in §6.1 on multivariate basics and §6.2 on variance mixtures of normals

- ▶ multivariate distribution and density concepts
- ▶ Maronna's M-estimator
- ▶ GIG-variance mixtures of normals (symmetric GH r.v.)
- ▶ affinity of conditional expectation with respect to condition event for multi-normals

The most important parametric random variable with half-line support is the **Generalized Inverse Gaussian**

Generalized Inverse Gaussian (GIG)

$$f(x) = \frac{\chi^{-\lambda} (\sqrt{\chi\psi})^\lambda}{2K_\lambda(\sqrt{\chi\psi})} x^{\lambda-1} e^{-\frac{\chi}{2x} - \frac{\psi x}{2}}$$

for $x > 0$, where $K_\lambda(\cdot)$ is modified Bessel function of the second kind.

- ▶ This generalizes the **Gamma** and **reciprocal Gamma**
- ▶ There are several versions of parameterization in use
- ▶ Other members of this family include the **inverse Gaussian** and the **reciprocal inverse Gaussian**
- ▶ The name relates to the first passage time of a Brownian motion through a boundary

We saw last semester that conditioning generally reduces entropy. Mixing has the opposite effect. This is useful if you want to moderate **statistical hubris**.

Say X is the parametric r.v. we are interested in.

1. Concatenate it with some function of the parameters to make a multivariate r.v. $X \# \Theta$.
2. Specify the marginal density of Θ and the conditional density of $X|\Theta$.
3. Integrate over the support of Θ to get the marginal density of X , the new mixture.

$$f_{X \# \Theta}(x \# \theta) = f_{X|\Theta}(x; \theta) f_{\Theta}(\theta)$$
$$\implies f_X(x) = \int_{\Omega(\Theta)} f_{X|\Theta}(x; \theta) f_{\Theta}(\theta) d\theta$$

Student's- t is a symmetric r.v. which exhibits leptokurtosis.

(Gosset's) Student's- t

Consider a normal r.v. with an unknown variance close to one. If the variance is a draw from an reciprocal Gamma,

$$\begin{aligned}X|\sigma^2 &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \\ \sigma^2 &\sim \text{Gamma}^{-1}\left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

the resulting unconditioned density is

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\nu}} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}}$$

- ▶ The version with $\nu = 1$ is the Cauchy
- ▶ The limit $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ is a normal

The version of the Student's- t above has a variance for $\nu > 2$, but it is not unity.

Standardized Student's- t

The standardized version can be useful for fitting residuals*. It has the density

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\nu-2}} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{\nu-2}\right)^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}}$$

- ▶ *Note that $E e^X \rightarrow \infty$ for any finite ν so Student's- t cannot be used with log-returns of asset prices.
- ▶ For historical reasons, if the parameter ν is an integer, it is termed the **degrees of freedom**.

The **generalized hyperbolic** family is a normal mean / GIG variance mixture. The Student's- t is a special case (with $\lambda = -\nu/2$).

Normal / reciprocal inverse Gaussian (NRIG)

Another useful GH is the symmetric Normal / reciprocal inverse Gaussian mixture (with $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$). The standardized version has the density

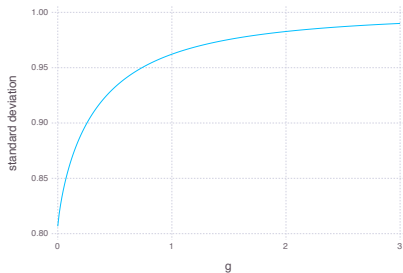
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} e^{gx} \sqrt{1+g} K_0 \left(\sqrt{g^2 + (1+g)x^2} \right)$$

for shape parameter $g \geq 0$. It is not obvious, but the limit $g \rightarrow \infty$ corresponds to the normal.

- ▶ As a model for the residuals of the log-returns of asset prices, this is superior to the Student's- t example from the text because $E e^X$ is finite.

We can use the NRIg to illustrate the effects of scaling and mixing on entropy.

$$H_X = \overset{\text{(mixing)}}{E H_{X|\Theta}(\Theta)} + \overset{\text{(scaling)}}{H_\Theta} = H_{aX} - \log |a|$$



NRIg relative to a Gaussian for fixed entropy

- ▶ The leptokurtosis of the NRIg allows the standard deviation to be up to almost 20% lower

Spherical Random Variables

It is helpful to build up a theory of multivariate random variables from geometric principles. By definition, a spherical random variable is distributionally invariant to rotations,

$$U\mathbf{X} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathbf{X}$$

where U is a square matrix representation of a rotation, which means that $U'U = I$.

Spherical random variables have two equivalent defining properties,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{X} &\stackrel{d}{=} \|\mathbf{a}\|X_1 \\ E e^{i\mathbf{t}'\mathbf{X}} &= \psi(\mathbf{t}'\mathbf{t}) \end{aligned}$$

for vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{t} . We term $\psi(\cdot)$ the **characteristic generator** of \mathbf{X} . We therefore write $\mathbf{X} \sim S_d(\psi)$ to denote a spherical random variable in d dimensions with characteristic generator $\psi(\cdot)$.

Elliptical Random Variables

An **affine** transformation of a spherical random variable is termed an **elliptical** random variable.

$$\mathbf{X} \stackrel{d}{=} \boldsymbol{\mu} + A\mathbf{Y}$$

where $\mathbf{Y} \sim S_k(\psi)$ and A is a $d \times k$ matrix.

The distributional invariance of \mathbf{Y} to rotations means that A is generally redundant. All we need to characterize \mathbf{X} is $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, $\psi(\cdot)$, and $\Sigma = AA'$. But note that

$$E_d(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma, \psi(\cdot)) \stackrel{d}{=} E_d(\boldsymbol{\mu}, c\Sigma, \psi(\cdot/c))$$

for $c > 0$, so Σ may not necessarily be the covariance of \mathbf{X} .

- Note that Σ need not be **full rank**. In this case, the rank of Σ is at most $d \wedge k$.

Some Properties

Say $\mathbf{X} \sim E_d(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma, \psi)$.

- ▶ **linear combinations** If B $k \times d$ and \mathbf{b} $k \times 1$ constants, then

$$B\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{b} \sim E_k(B\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, B\Sigma B', \psi)$$

- ▶ if Σ is full rank, then the non-negative scalar r.v.

$$R = \sqrt{(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

is independent of $S = \Sigma^{-1/2}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})/R$ and S is uniformly distributed on a unit sphere.

- ▶ **convolutions** If $\mathbf{Y} \sim E_d(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \Sigma, \tilde{\psi})$ independent of \mathbf{X} , then

$$\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y} \sim E_d(\boldsymbol{\mu} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \Sigma, \psi \cdot \tilde{\psi})$$

Linear Factor Models

If \mathbf{X} is a d -dim random variable, and we can write

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{a} + B\mathbf{F} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

where \mathbf{F} is a p -dim random vector with $p < d$ and $\text{cov } \mathbf{F} > 0$, B is a $d \times p$ matrix, the entries of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ are zero mean and uncorrelated, and $\text{cov}(\mathbf{F}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = 0$, we call \mathbf{F} the **common factors** and B the **factor loadings**.

We would consider this a model or approximation if $d \gg p$. Sometimes we have an idea about what the factors or loadings might be; they might even be observable.

- ▶ In **macroeconomic** factor models, we observe the factors.
- ▶ In **fundamental** factor models, we observe the loadings.
- ▶ In **statistical** or **latent** factor models, we observe neither the factors nor the loadings.

Capital Asset Pricing Model

CAPM for investments is an example of a macroeconomic factor model. It is typically applied to traded equity securities and a risk-free deposit as canonical “capital assets”. We will take \mathbf{X} to be the (simple) return on each risky capital asset over some investment period.

If \mathbf{X} is normal and investors allocate to maximize expected exponential utility, then we can express the equilibrium solution as a single-factor model where \mathbf{F} is the return on a broad index of risky capital assets.

The factor loadings B_i can be determined by regression, and are termed the asset “betas”.

The intercept components turn out to be $a_i = r_T (1 - B_i)$ where r is the return rate on the risk-free asset.

Fundamental Model

Sometimes it is useful to impose a classification scheme on the components of \mathbf{X} , for example an industry classification scheme or a geographic or demographic scheme. In this case, we generally know the non-zero loadings in B , but we do not observe the factors \mathbf{F} .

In this case, we can estimate timeseries for \mathbf{F} in terms of timeseries for \mathbf{X} according to ordinary least squares regression

$$\hat{\mathbf{F}}_t^{\text{OLS}} = (B' B)^{-1} B' \mathbf{X}_t$$

if the variance of the residuals is the same (homoscedastic) or **generalized** least squares regression

$$\hat{\mathbf{F}}_t^{\text{GLS}} = (B' \Upsilon^{-1} B)^{-1} B' \Upsilon^{-1} \mathbf{X}_t$$

if not.

Principal Components

Principal components analysis is inspired by the concept of a statistical factor model, but since it is entirely endogenous it is really a separate concept.

A covariance or correlation matrix Σ has the property of being **positive semi-definite**, which means that $\mathbf{x}'\Sigma\mathbf{x} \geq 0$ for all compatible vectors \mathbf{x} . Therefore, by the **spectral decomposition theorem**, we can write

$$\Sigma = \Gamma\Lambda\Gamma'$$

where Λ is a diagonal matrix with non-negative entries (the **eigenvalues**) and Γ is a square matrix whose columns (the **eigenvectors**) are **orthonormal**, which means $\Gamma\Gamma' = I$.

Principal Component Analysis

If Σ has full rank d , all of the eigenvalues will be positive. The potential for dimension reduction comes from partitioning the model into the largest $k < d$ eigenvalues and eigenvectors, and relegating the remaining $d - k$ to the residual.

Principal Components as Factors

Let $d \times 1$ $\mathbf{Y} = \Gamma'(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ where $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is the mean of \mathbf{X} . Partition \mathbf{Y} and Γ into $k \times 1$ \mathbf{Y}_1 and $(d - k) \times 1$ \mathbf{Y}_2 and $d \times k$ Γ_1 and $d \times (d - k)$ Γ_2 and let $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \Gamma_2 \mathbf{Y}_2$, then

$$\mathbf{X} = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \Gamma_1 \mathbf{Y}_1 + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ *almost* satisfies the assumptions for a linear factor model.