

A Robust Log-Optimal Strategy and its Application in NYSE

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摘要

在赌博与资产配置问题中，对数最优策略最大化的并不是整个资产，而是对数收益率的期望。相对于其他策略，这个策略在理论上具有长期的优越性。它另外一个显著的优点是能够实时反映市场的动态信息，从而使对数收益率得到增长。我们采用简单的方式证明了这些性质。此外，我们考虑如何把对数最优策略应用到资产配置的问题中。因为收益的分布函数在实际问题中一般是未知的，因此需要通过历史数据去估计。估计误差会影响到资产配置的效果，从而犹如“蝴蝶效应”一样对资产配置造成毁灭性的灾难。因此，如何在对数最优策略中克服“蝴蝶效应”是一个很重要的问题。我们根据收益效用得到了一个新的对数最优策略，这个策略是对数收益率期望的二阶近似。我们证明了收益效用的偏差上界能够被投资组合的 l_1 范数和协方差矩阵估计偏差的 l_∞ 范数所控制。这说明了我们提出的策略是稳健的。我们将新策略应用到 NYSE 数据中，模拟结果表明了新策略使收益有很大的提高。

关键词：资产配置效用值、资产增长对数速率、对数最优策略、稳健、资产配置

Abstract

The log-optimal strategy in gambling and asset allocation problem attempts to maximize the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return but not the gross wealth itself. This strategy has been shown to have long term superiority over other strategies in theory. Another remarkable virtue is it allows updating the real-time market information quickly which could increase of the logarithmic rate of return. We will prove these properties ourselves in a simple way. We further consider how to do asset allocation by applying the log-optimal strategy in practice. The distribution function of the returns is usually unknown and need to be estimated from the history in a real world. The estimation error will affect the asset allocation directly, but such effect may result in a "butterfly effect" which could bring an investment disaster. Therefore, it is an important issue to answer whether there is log-optimal strategy resisted "butterfly effect". We develop a new log-optimal strategy based on the allocation utility which is a quadratic approximation to the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return. We show that the upper bound of the allocation utility deviation can be controlled by the l_1 -norm of portfolio and l_∞ -norm of the bias of variance matrix estimator. This turns out that our proposed strategy is robust. We apply our strategy for NYSE data. The results showed that our strategy has high performance in return.

Keyword: allocation utility, logarithmic rate of return, log-optimal strategy, robustness, asset allocation.

1 Introduction

In investment portfolio, asset allocation is a primary strategy that aims to balance risk and reward by apportioning a portfolio's assets according to an individual's goals, risk tolerance and investment horizon [6]. The log-optimal strategy as one of well-known asset allocation methods attempts to maximize the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return but not the capital itself. This strategy has been shown to have long-term superiority over other strategies in theory and allows updating the real-time market information quickly which could increase the logarithmic rate of return. In practice, the distribution function of returns is usually unknown and need to be estimated from the history. The attendant estimation error will affect the asset allocation directly, but we expect that the reasonably small error could not affect the allocation tempestuously, in other words, we want to avoid "butterfly effect" which could bring an investment disaster. To take this concern into consideration, we will develop a proper robust log-optimal strategy which is not only gain reasonable return but also resist "butterfly effect".

Due to the common ground between investment and gamble: the randomness of return, we introduce fundamental concepts and properties of the log-optimal strategy by beginning with classic gambling capital allocation problem.

1.1 Classic gambling capital allocation problem

Suppose a gambler uses a part of his capital in each game. His return will double when he wins or vanishes when he loses. If the games are consecutive and the probability of winning keeps the same in each game, then denote this probability of winning by p , and let $p \in [0.5, 1)$. We are looking for a strategy to maximize the capital after several consecutive games. Throughout the paper, the return is defined as the ratio of the final capital (price) to the initial capital (price) over the overall period, which is different from the usual definition of the return.

Analysis: In an ideal condition, there is no floor limits on bets. The gambler cannot change the gambling rule but can distribute different bets in different games. Suppose the initial capital of the gambler is X_0 . We consider two extreme cases:

- 1) If the gambler uses up all of the capital in each game, then the capital will become $p^n X_0$ after n games. Note that the limit of the rate of return: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p^n = 0$ for $p \in [0.5, 1)$, the capital

goes to zero after infinite games.

- 2) If the gambler bets nothing in each game, the return is always 1, there will be no space to increase the capital.

Hence, in order to get the maximal logarithmic rate of return and avoid the bankrupt, the optimal bet proportion of the capital in each game must be in $[0,1)$ and the same if the probability of winning is the same in each game. We denote this proportion by b .

Suppose the gambler wins S times and loses $n - S$ times in an n -game gambling, then the capital after n games is $X_n = X_0(1 + b)^S(1 - b)^{n-S}$.

Let $r_n(b)$ to be the logarithmic rate of return, the average of the logarithmic returns,

$$\begin{aligned} r_n(b) &= \frac{1}{n} \left[\log \left(\frac{X_1}{X_0} \right) + \dots + \log \left(\frac{X_n}{X_{n-1}} \right) \right] \\ &= \log \left(\frac{X_n}{X_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{S}{n} \log(1 + b) + \frac{n - S}{n} \log(1 - b). \end{aligned}$$

It actually assesses the capital exponent growth rate and its expectation is

$$\begin{aligned} r(b) &= E \left[\log \left(\frac{X_n}{X_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \right] = E \left[\frac{S}{n} \log(1 + b) + \frac{n - S}{n} \log(1 - b) \right] \\ &= p \log(1 + b) + (1 - p) \log(1 - b), \end{aligned}$$

which does not depend on n , the game number. To maximize the expectation with respect to b ,

$$r'(b) = \frac{p}{1 + b} - \frac{1 - p}{1 - b} = \frac{2p - 1 - b}{(1 + b)(1 - b)} = 0.$$

We get the solution $b = 2p - 1 \in [0,1)$. Because $r''(b) = \frac{-p}{(1+b)^2} - \frac{1-p}{(1-b)^2} < 0$, $r(2p - 1) = \log 2 + p \log p + (1 - p) \log(1 - p)$ is the maximum of the expectation in $[0, 1)$. When $p = 1$, it corresponds to a bet which the gambler won't fail. Thus, betting all the money in each game is the best strategy.

In addition, if the condition that $p \in [0.5,1)$ doesn't hold, the optimal b is negative. It means that to sell short the b proportion of the capital can increase the capital if it allows. A gambler usually cannot oversell in a classic game, but an investor can do it in many financial markets. So we can only reach the optimal growth rate for $b = 0$ here.

Through this simple example, we can find that only one fixed optimal bet proportion maximize the expected value of the logarithmic rate of return in a classic gambling with

unchangeable probability of winning.

1.2 Extension to multivariate assets

We will consider the possible extension of the concepts to multivariate assets from a single capital in last subsection. We meet many multivariate assets in real life. For instance, one may hold several stocks in a stock market, the values of those stocks are a kind of multivariate assets. Asset allocation is one of common investment managements for multivariate assets by creating an asset mix that will optimize a certain object function. The object function is often the trade-off between expected risk and return for a long-term investment horizon, but ours is different in that this function is the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return as we illustrated in the classic gambling capital allocation problem. Specially, suppose the d -dim vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_d)^T$ represents the asset returns in a single period, its distribution function is F , and denote the asset allocation vector or portfolio by $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_d)^T$. The expectation of the logarithmic rate of return is defined as

$$r_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{b}) = E \log(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}) = \int \log(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x}) dF(\mathbf{x}).$$

The optimal portfolio $\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{X}}^*$ in some feasible region B which constrains \mathbf{b} is

$$\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{X}}^* = \underset{\mathbf{b} \in B}{\operatorname{argmax}} r_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{b}).$$

If the distribution of returns is i.i.d. (independent identically distributed) over periods, then optimal portfolio which maximizes the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return is fixed in each period. We thus called this approach to asset allocation the log-optimal strategy for convenience.

2 Information's benefit

Some market information may help to predict the future profits and also affect the asset allocation directly. We will investigate the effect of information on the log-optimal strategy in this section. When new information comes in each period, the i.i.d. assumption of the distribution will be broken up, but it also brings benefit: it will increase the expectation of the optimal logarithmic rate of return in general.

Denote the information by Y and the conditional distribution of X given $Y = y$ by $F(X|Y = y)$ at certain time point. Let $\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T}$ to be the optimal portfolio such that

$$\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} = \underset{\mathbf{b} \in B}{\operatorname{argmax}} r_{X|Y}(\mathbf{b}) = \underset{\mathbf{b} \in B}{\operatorname{argmax}} \int \log(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x}) dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y).$$

The increment of the expectation of the growth rate is defined as

$$\Delta V_Y = r_{X|Y}(\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}) - r_{X|Y}(\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}).$$

According to the definition of $\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T}$, we know $\Delta V_Y \geq 0$, which explains that theoretically the information Y will not decrease the expectation of the optimal logarithmic rate of return. The result is summarized in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1 ΔV_Y has an upper bound.

We prove two lemmas first.

Lemma 2.1.1 $E(\log(\varphi(X))) \leq \log(E(\varphi(X))), \forall \text{ r. v. } X \geq 0, \varphi(X) > 0.$

Proof: Since the logarithm function satisfies

$$\log(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) \geq \lambda \log(x_1) + (1 - \lambda) \log(x_2), \lambda \in [0, 1],$$

it is a concave function.

$$\text{Let } \lambda = \frac{x_2 - x}{x_2 - x_1}, \text{ when } x \in [x_1, x_2]$$

$$\text{We have } \log(x) \geq \frac{x_2 - x}{x_2 - x_1} \log(x_1) + \frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} \log(x_2)$$

The inequality equivalences

$$\frac{1}{x - x_1} [\log(x) - \log(x_1)] \geq \frac{1}{x_2 - x_1} [\log(x_2) - \log(x_1)].$$

Let $x \rightarrow x_1$, we have

$$(x_2 - x_1) \log'(x_1) \geq [\log(x_2) - \log(x_1)].$$

Let

$$x_0 = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i, \text{ when } \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1, \lambda_i > 0.$$

For each i , we have

$$\lambda_i (x_i - x_0) \log'(x_0) \geq \lambda_i [\log(x_i) - \log(x_0)].$$

Thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i (x_i - x_0) \log'(x_0) \geq \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i [\log(x_i) - \log(x_0)],$$

that is

$$\log \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i \right) \geq \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \log(x_i).$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} E(\log(\varphi(X))) &= \int \log(\varphi(x)) dF(x) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \log(\varphi(x_k)) \left(F\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) - F\left(\frac{k-1}{n}\right) \right), \\ \log(E(\varphi(X))) &= \log \left(\int \varphi(x) dF(x) \right) \\ &= \log \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varphi(x_k) \left(F\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) - F\left(\frac{k-1}{n}\right) \right) \right), \end{aligned}$$

and the logarithm function is continuous. Thus, let

$$\lambda_k = F\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) - F\left(\frac{k-1}{n}\right), \quad m \rightarrow \infty,$$

we get

$$\int \log(\varphi(x)) dF(x) \leq \log \left(\int \varphi(x) dF(x) \right),$$

that is

$$E(\log(\varphi(X))) \leq \log(E(\varphi(X))).$$

Lemma 2.1.2 If b^* is the optimal portfolio and $E \frac{b^T X}{b^{*T} X}$ exists, we have $E \frac{b^T X}{b^{*T} X} \leq 1$, for any other portfolio b .

Proof: Let

$$W(b_\lambda, F) = \int \log(b_\lambda^T \mathbf{x}) dF(\mathbf{x}), \quad b_\lambda = \lambda b + (1 - \lambda)b^*$$

where b is other portfolio. When $\lambda=0$, we have $b_0 = b^*$. According to the definition we have the greatest value

$$W(b_0, F) = W(b^*, F) = \max_{b \in A} \int \log(b^T \mathbf{x}) dF(\mathbf{x}).$$

That is $W(b_0, F) \geq W(b_k, F), k \in [0,1]$. By the definition of derivative, we know when $\lambda \rightarrow 0_+$, there is $\frac{dW(b_\lambda, F)}{d\lambda} \leq 0$

That is to say,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0_+} \frac{dW(b_\lambda, F)}{d\lambda} &= \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0_+} \frac{1}{\lambda} [W(b_\lambda, F) - W(b_0, F)] \\ &= \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0_+} \frac{1}{\lambda} [E(\log(\lambda b^T \mathbf{X} + (1 - \lambda)b^{*T} \mathbf{X})) - E(\log(b^{*T} \mathbf{X}))] \\ &= E \left(\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0_+} \frac{1}{\lambda} \log \left(\lambda \frac{b^T \mathbf{X}}{b^{*T} \mathbf{X}} + 1 - \lambda \right) \right) \quad (*) \\ &= E \left(\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0_+} \frac{1}{\lambda} \log \left(1 + \lambda \left(\frac{b^T \mathbf{X}}{b^{*T} \mathbf{X}} - 1 \right) \right) \right) \\ &= E \left(\frac{b^T \mathbf{X}}{b^{*T} \mathbf{X}} - 1 \right) (**) \\ &\leq 0. \end{aligned}$$

The equality(*) can be referred to dominated convergence theorem in [5] and the equality(**) is due to the L'Hospital's rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \log(1 + c * x) / x = c,$$

where $c = \left(\frac{b^T \mathbf{X}}{b^{*T} \mathbf{X}} - 1 \right)$.

Thus $E \frac{b^T \mathbf{X}}{b^{*T} \mathbf{X}} \leq 1$.

The proof of Theorem 2.1:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V_Y &= r_{X|Y}(\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}) - r_{X|Y}(\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \int \log(\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}) dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) - \int \log(\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}) dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int \log \frac{\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}} dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) \\
&= \int \log \left(\frac{\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})} \right) dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) + \int \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) \\
&= \int \log \left(\frac{\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})} \right) dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) + \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx \\
&\leq \log \int \frac{\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})} dF(\mathbf{x}|Y = y) + \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx \\
&\hspace{20em} (\text{lemma 2.1.1}) \\
&= \log \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})} dx + \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx \\
&= \log \int \frac{\mathbf{b}_{X|Y}^{*T} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{b}_X^{*T} \mathbf{x}} dF(\mathbf{x}) + \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx \\
&\leq \log 1 + \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx (\text{lemma 2.1.2}) \\
&= \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx.
\end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, we define $\Delta V = E(\Delta V_Y)$, the expectation of the increment ΔV_Y with respect to Y , then ΔV also has an upper bound. Denote by $G(H)$ the cumulative distribution function of Y ((X, Y)), and $g(h)$ the density function of Y ((X, Y)), we verify that

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta V &= \int \Delta V_{Y=y} dG(y) \\
&\leq \int \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})} dx dG(y) \\
&= \int \int f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot g(y) \cdot \log \frac{f_{X|Y=y}(\mathbf{x}) g(y)}{f(\mathbf{x}) g(y)} dx dy \\
&= \int \int h(\mathbf{x}, y) \log \frac{h(\mathbf{x}, y)}{f(\mathbf{x}) g(y)} dx dy.
\end{aligned}$$

ΔV has an upper bound $\int \int h(\mathbf{x}, y) \log \frac{h(\mathbf{x}, y)}{f(\mathbf{x}) g(y)} dx dy$, that is the mutual information of \mathbf{X} and Y [1]. When \mathbf{X} and Y are independent, $\Delta V = 0$ means no increment because the information Y does not affect \mathbf{X} in any way; When \mathbf{X} is completely determined by Y , this upper bound is exactly the entropy of the information Y . Further exploration may be interesting but is out of the scope of this paper.

3 Greed characteristic and optimal property

When thesequence of the returns X_1, X_2, \dots are i.i.d., the best strategy maintains a certain fixed portfolio. Owing to the information of investment which we discussed in section 2, the i.i.d. assumption becomes unrealistic. Fortunately, this assumption is not necessary, the log-optimal could vary the optimal portfolios over the periods but the strategy is still superior to other strategies asymptotically in view of gross wealth. Recall that the logarithmic return can be presented as $\log(\prod_i \mathbf{b}_i^T \mathbf{X}_i) = \sum_i \log(\mathbf{b}_i^T \mathbf{X}_i)$. To optimize $\log(\prod_i \mathbf{b}_i^T \mathbf{X}_i)$ is therefore equivalent to optimize $\log(\mathbf{b}_i^T \mathbf{X}_i)$ in the i^{th} period. This means that the local optimal dynamic portfolios together can make a global optimal strategy, in other words, the log-optimal strategy has the greed characteristic.

Denote the gross wealth at the end of the n^{th} period with an sequence of portfolios $\{\mathbf{b}_i\}$ by $S_n = S_0 \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{b}_i^T \mathbf{X}_i$ and the gross wealth using the log-optimal strategy $S_n^* = S_0 \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{b}_i^{*T} \mathbf{X}_i$. Next theorem indicates the optimal property of the log-optimal strategy.

Theorem 3: S_n^* is asymptotically superior to S_n .

Proof: According to lemma 2.1.2, we have $E \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} \leq 1$, and

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(S_n > n^2 \cdot S_n^*) &= Pr\left(\frac{S_n}{S_n^*} > n^2\right) \\ &= \int_{n^2}^{+\infty} dF\left(\frac{S_n}{S_n^*}\right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n^2} \int_{n^2}^{+\infty} \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} dF\left(\frac{S_n}{S_n^*}\right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n^2} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} dF\left(\frac{S_n}{S_n^*}\right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n^2} E \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} \leq \frac{1}{n^2}, \end{aligned}$$

that is

$$Pr\left(\frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} > \frac{1}{n} \log n^2\right) \leq \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Pr\left(\frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} > \frac{2 \log n}{n}\right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} < \infty,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr\left(\overline{\lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} > \frac{2 \log n}{n} \right\}\right) &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Pr\left(\bigcup_{n=k}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} > \frac{2 \log n}{n} \right\}\right) \\
&\leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \Pr\left(\left\{ \frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} > \frac{2 \log n}{n} \right\}\right) \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

This implies, $\exists N > 0$, for $\forall n > N$, we have

$$\frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} \leq \frac{2 \log n}{n}.$$

Thus

$$\overline{\lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \frac{S_n}{S_n^*} \leq 0, \text{ with probability } 1.$$

Hence, we have the conclusion that S_n^* is asymptotically superior to S_n ^[1].

4 From theory to practice: the true probability distribution is unknown

We assume $F(\mathbf{X})$ is known in section 2. But in practice, $F(\mathbf{X})$ is unknown and need to be estimated from the history with certain assumptions. We shall be alert for the deviation of the estimation and these assumptions, especially for possible “butterfly effects”. In this section, we don't estimate $F(\mathbf{X})$ directly, but introduce a new object function called the allocation utility first. This function is a quadratic approximation to the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return, and it is simple enough to involving only the expectation and covariance of \mathbf{X} . Indeed, it can be considered as the balance between the logarithmic return and its squared coefficient of variation. We optimize the allocation utility with the estimations of the expectation and covariance and find the optimal portfolio, but not the expectation of the logarithmic rate of return with the empirical cumulative distribution function of \mathbf{X} . The latter is usually so complicate specially for the high dimension of \mathbf{X} . Our strategy is computationally effective, and what's more, it is robust in the sense that the upper bound of the allocation utility deviation can be controlled by the l_1 -norm of portfolio and l_∞ -norm of the bias of variance matrix estimator. We will concern the constraint on portfolio because of limited knowledge on the estimation of variance matrix.

Allocation utility

Suppose \mathbf{X} has its expectation $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and the covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. Then $E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}$, $Var(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}$.

The accurate logarithm optimal strategy has $\mathbf{b} = \underset{\mathbf{b} \in B}{\operatorname{argmax}} E(\log(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}))$. However, the optimization problem depends on the distribution function of \mathbf{X} and the accurate optimization needs complicate calculation. So we adopt Taylor expansion to approximate $E(\log(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}))$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & E(\log(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X})) \\
 & \approx E \left(\log E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}) + \frac{\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X} - E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X})}{E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X})} - \frac{(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X} - E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}))^2}{2(E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}))^2} \right) \\
 & = E(\log(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})) + \frac{E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})}{E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X})} - \frac{E((\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2)}{2(E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}))^2} \\
 & = \log(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}) + 0 - \frac{1}{2(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \mathbf{b}^T E[(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T] \mathbf{b} \\
 & = \log(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}) - \frac{1}{2(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Define the Allocation utilityfunction as

$$M(\mathbf{b}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \log(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}) - \frac{1}{2(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}.$$

So the log-optimal strategy can be approximately by the optimization of the Allocation utility:

$$\max M(\mathbf{b}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \text{ s. t. } \mathbf{b} \in B$$

Optimal portfolio \mathbf{b}^{opt}

If the region B is simple, we can solve \mathbf{b} directly. For example, we take $B = \{\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{e} = 1, \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} \geq c\}$ and analyze the optimal requirements. We can easily see that the first constraint is natural and the second constraint accounts for the requirements of minimum rate of return. Because there are both equality constraint and inequality constraint, we apply Karush-Kuhn-Tucker condition to solve this optimization problem.

Let

$$F(\mathbf{b}, \alpha, \beta) = -\log(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}) + \frac{1}{2(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b} + \alpha(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{e} - 1) + \beta(c - \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}),$$

where $\beta \geq 0$.

Take $\partial F(\mathbf{b}, \alpha, \beta) / \partial \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$, and substitute $\beta(c - \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}) = 0$, $\beta \geq 0$, $\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{e} - 1 = 0$ into simultaneous equalities and inequalities, we have

$$\begin{cases} -\frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}} - \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^3} + \frac{\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \alpha \mathbf{e} - \beta \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0} & (4.1) \\ \beta(c - \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}) = 0 & (4.2) \\ \beta \geq 0 & (4.3) \\ \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{e} - 1 = 0 & (4.4) \end{cases}$$

Next we shall consider how to solve the above equation systems.

Multiply \mathbf{b}^T in both sides of equality (4.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= \mathbf{b}^T \left[-\frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}} - \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^3} + \frac{\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \alpha \mathbf{e} - \beta \boldsymbol{\mu} \right] \\ &= -\frac{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}}{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}} - \frac{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^3} + \frac{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \alpha \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{e} - \beta \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} \\ &= -1 - \frac{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \frac{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \alpha \cdot 1 - \beta \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} \end{aligned}$$

$$= -\mathbf{1} + \alpha - \beta \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

(1) If $\beta = 0$, we are able to find $0 = -1 + \alpha - 0$, which refers to $\alpha = 1$.

Then we substitute $\alpha = 1, \beta = 0$ into equality (4.1), we have

$$-\frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}} - \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^3} + \frac{\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0} \quad (4.5)$$

We can get the value of optimal portfolio $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}$ by solving equality(4.5).

(2) If $\beta > 0$, According to equality (4.2), we can see $\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} = c$.

So we have $0 = -1 + \alpha - \beta c$, that is $\alpha = 1 + \beta c$.

Thus we can get following equation system:

$$\begin{cases} -\frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}} - \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^3} + \frac{\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{b}}{(\mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} + \alpha \mathbf{e} - \beta \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{b}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} = c \\ \alpha = \mathbf{1} + \beta c \end{cases} \quad (4.6)$$

After solving equation system(4.6), we can get the value of optimal portfolio $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}$.

From equality(4.5)and equation system(4.6), we can find that the solution of $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}$ depends on the value of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. If the estimation of $\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ deviates from the true value, it may lead to deviation of estimation of optimal return. So we need to control our estimation process in order to reduce deviation. Next, we will find whether the deviation of estimation could affect the utility function seriously.

Analysis of Robustness

Suppose that $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}$ is the optimal portfolio estimator by replacing $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ with their estimators: $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$ in the optimization. The estimation error of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ may have a serious influence on estimated utility value of $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}$ accuracy. we need to know the optimal allocation vector $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}$ utility function accurately. Thus we need to investigate whether the bias of the optimal utility function following the estimation of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ can be controlled and how.

We first need to make an assumption for the model.

(A1) Suppose $\mathbf{E}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}$, which refers to $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ is $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ unbiased estimation.

From (A1), we can know $\mathbf{E}(\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt T} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = \hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt T} \boldsymbol{\mu}$. According to law of large number, we can know $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ when sample size $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have $P(|\hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt T} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt T} \boldsymbol{\mu}| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$. For $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in$

N_+ such that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ satisfies $|\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu}| \leq \varepsilon$ when sample size is more than n_0 .

In addition, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 4.1: $\forall p, q, q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, satisfy $q_1 \leq q \leq q_2$, We have

$$|p - q| \leq \max\{p - q_1, q_2 - p\}$$

Proof: If $p \geq q$, $p - q_1 \geq p - q \geq 0$, which refers to $p - q_1 > |p - q|$.

If $p < q$, $q_2 - p \geq q - p > 0$, which refers to $q_2 - p > |p - q|$.

So we have $|p - q| \leq \max\{|p - q_1|, |q_2 - p|\}$

Next we will study the deviation between $M(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}})$ and $M(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

$$\begin{aligned} & |M(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) - M(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})| \\ = & \left| \log(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) - \frac{1}{2(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} - \log(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu}) + \frac{1}{2(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} \right| \\ = & \left| \left(\log(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) - \log(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{2(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} \right) \right| \\ \leq & \left| \log(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) - \log(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right| + \left| \frac{1}{2(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{2(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} \right| \\ = & \left| \log\left(\frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu}}{\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}\right) \right| + \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{1}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} \right| \\ \leq & \left| \log\left(\frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon}{\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}\right) \right| + \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{1}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} \right| \\ = & \left| \log\left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}\right) \right| + \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{1}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{opt} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

For the first element of inequality left side, due to $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \geq c$, we have

$$\left| \log\left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{optT} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}\right) \right| \leq \log\left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{c}\right).$$

For the second element of inequality right side, according to lemma 4.1,

Since

$$\frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon)^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} < \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} < \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \varepsilon)^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt},$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \\ & \leq \max \left\{ \begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon)^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}, \\ & \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \varepsilon)^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \end{aligned} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $-\varepsilon \leq \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu} \leq \varepsilon$,

on one hand,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon)^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \\ & = \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \left[\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} - \left(\frac{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon} \right)^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \right] \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \\ & \leq \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} - \left(\frac{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon} \right)^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \right) \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right), \end{aligned}$$

on the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \varepsilon)^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \\ & \leq \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \left[\left(\frac{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \varepsilon} \right)^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \right] \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \\ & \leq \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \left(\left(\frac{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \varepsilon} \right)^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \right) \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left| \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right| \\
& \leq \max \left\{ \begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} - \left(\frac{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \varepsilon} \right)^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \right) \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right), \\ & \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \left(\left(\frac{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \varepsilon} \right)^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \right) \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right) \end{aligned} \right\} \\
& \approx \frac{1}{c^2} \left| \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} (\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right|.
\end{aligned}$$

Let $\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} = (\widehat{b}_1, \dots, \widehat{b}_n)^T$, the i^{th} row and j^{th} column element is σ_{ij} of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$.

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
\left| \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} (\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right| &= \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{b}_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \widehat{b}_j \sigma_{ij} \right) \right| \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\widehat{b}_i| \left| \sum_{j=1}^n \widehat{b}_j \sigma_{ij} \right| \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\widehat{b}_i| \sum_{j=1}^n |\widehat{b}_j| |\sigma_{ij}| \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\widehat{b}_i| \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |\widehat{b}_j| \sum_{i=1}^n |\sigma_{ij}| \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\widehat{b}_i| \max_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |\widehat{b}_j| \sum_{j=1}^n |\sigma_{ij}| \right) \\
&= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |\widehat{b}_i| \right)^2 \max_i \sum_{j=1}^n |\sigma_{ij}|.
\end{aligned}$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left| M(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) - M(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \right| \\
& \leq \left| \log \left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}} \right) \right| + \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} - \frac{1}{(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\mu})^2} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{optT} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{opt} \right|
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq \log\left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{c}\right) + \frac{1}{2c^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{b}_i|\right)^2 \max_i \sum_{j=1}^n |\sigma_{ij}| \\ &\approx \frac{1}{2c^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{b}_i|\right)^2 \max_i \sum_{j=1}^n |\sigma_{ij}|. \end{aligned}$$

Thus if we choose a suitable constant $c_0 > 0$, and control $\sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{b}_i| \leq c_0$, we can sure that the estimation error is under control ($\max_i \sum_{j=1}^n |\sigma_{ij}|$ is supposed to be small enough).

Therefore, to achieve a robust optimization effect and make the error of optimal utility controlled by an upper bound, we add an extra $\sum_{i=1}^n |b_i| \leq c_0$ constraint in the optimization procedure.

5 Simulation studies in financial market

5.1 Simulation purpose, assumption and statistics introduction

Simulation purpose

In this section, we use NYSEdata to illustrate our strategy. We are going to develop a set of strategies which can search for the mode of stock price, select asset continuously, and achieve the growth of capital from historical stock prices.

Simulation assumption

We will simplify the influence of transaction cost. The simulation involves the portfolio balance and reselect on a daily basis whose operation corresponds to unknown transaction cost. So we adopt the linear transaction cost model ^[2] to simplify the unknown transaction cost involved in the simulation.

We also assume a market with a strong fluidity, which means transactions happen according to our needs.

Data introduction

The data comes from 36 stocks in NYSE(New York Stock Exchange), from 3rd June 1962 to 31st December 1984 and from 1st January 1985 to 31st December 2007.

5.2 Model

Extracting information from markets with similar backgrounds

We use the data of stock prices in this simulation, and we predict future stock price referencing similar price mode in the historical data. We denote $x(i, k)$ as the price ratio of the i^{th} stock on the k^{th} day. $X(k)$ is the price ratios on the k^{th} day.

$X(k: l) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1k} & \cdots & x_{1l} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{pk} & \cdots & x_{pl} \end{bmatrix}$ is the statistics of the price ratio of all stocks from day k to day l , which

can be regarded as $l - k + 1$ day's market background environment before the $(k + 1)^{th}$ day.

For trading day t , when we fix its the length of market background, it is possible to find trading day with similar market background in history, whose data is valuable for the prediction of the price of the $(t + 1)^{th}$ day.

Define the similarity of market background

$$\text{Similar}(X(k:l), X(k+m:l+m)) = \text{corr}^*(X(k:l), X(k+m:l+m)),$$

corr^* is the Pearson correlation between the vectorization of the matrixes $X(k:l)$ and $X(k+m:l+m)$.

Find the trading day with similar market background

If we set the value of the length of the market background n and the threshold value of market similarity ρ , we can define the index set of dates corresponding to the trading days with similar market background as:

$$C(k, n, \rho) = \{n < i < k \mid \text{Similar}(X(i-n:i-1), X(k-n:k-1)) > \rho\}$$

5.3 Allocate the optimization model

Before selecting asset on the $(k+1)^{th}$ trading day, we need to find the set of similar trading days. The empirical cumulative distribution function of the profit ratio on similar trading days serves as the estimation of the profit ratio on the $(k+1)^{th}$ trading day. The selection of the similar trading day is influenced by the length of the market background n and the threshold value of market similarity ρ . The most suitable (n, ρ) cannot be acquired in advance, and the cross validation is not suitable for this problem due to the nature of time series in stocks data. In the meantime, using the whole data set as the training set may cause the problem of over-fitting.

To solve the problems above, and to make asset selection more robust, we consider several (n, ρ) groups as several “experts”. We take all the experts’ advice into consideration in the final decision. The method to select “experts” in this passage follows as below: select a N as the upper bound of n , and consider all the integers between 2 and N as the values of n . Select a P as the upper bound of ρ , extract 10 values equidistantly as the values of ρ . The selecting N and P is more moderate than selecting (n, ρ) group when measuring the influence on the simulation result.

For a single expert (n, ρ) , the optimal allocation model of the $(k+1)^{th}$ day is:

$$\mathbf{b}_{k+1}(n, \rho) = \underset{\mathbf{b} \in A}{\text{argmax}} \prod_{i \in C(k, n, \rho)} (\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{X}_i)$$

A is the region of possible portfolios. According to the robust results in section 4, we add the

constraint of L_1 norm not great than 1 in order to control the estimation deviation's upper bound, which concords with the principle that forbids short sell. The self-adapted dynamic weight combines the experts' advice with each other through the formula below.

$$\mathbf{b}_{k+1} = \frac{\sum_{n,\rho} s(n,\rho) \mathbf{b}_{k+1}(n,\rho)}{\sum_{n,\rho} s(n,\rho)} (***)$$

where $s(n,\rho)$ is the total profit on the trading days in the set $C(k,n,\rho)$ with the allocation $\mathbf{b}_{k+1}(n,\rho)$. The formula(***) can be referred to [3].

5.4 Influence of the transaction cost

Transaction cost is an important factor of assessing the strategy. We can explore the influence of transaction cost by considering simple transaction cost model in the simulation of the transaction process, but only in the real market can we calculate the accurate transaction cost. This passage adopts the linear transaction costs model. The $(k + 1)^{\text{th}}$ day's transaction cost is:

$$\alpha \cdot \|\mathbf{b}_{k+1} - \mathbf{b}_k\|_1$$

When considering the profit, we need to minus the cost with the corresponding ratio. α is an adjustment coefficient. If valued 0, it means that there is no transaction cost; the larger α is, the more transaction cost will be. This passage explores the result of the strategy with different α .

5.5 Simulation results

Cumulative capital

We set $N = 10, \rho = 0, \alpha = 0$. After the implementation of the strategy for the NYSE data, the condition of the cumulative growth of capital is showed in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

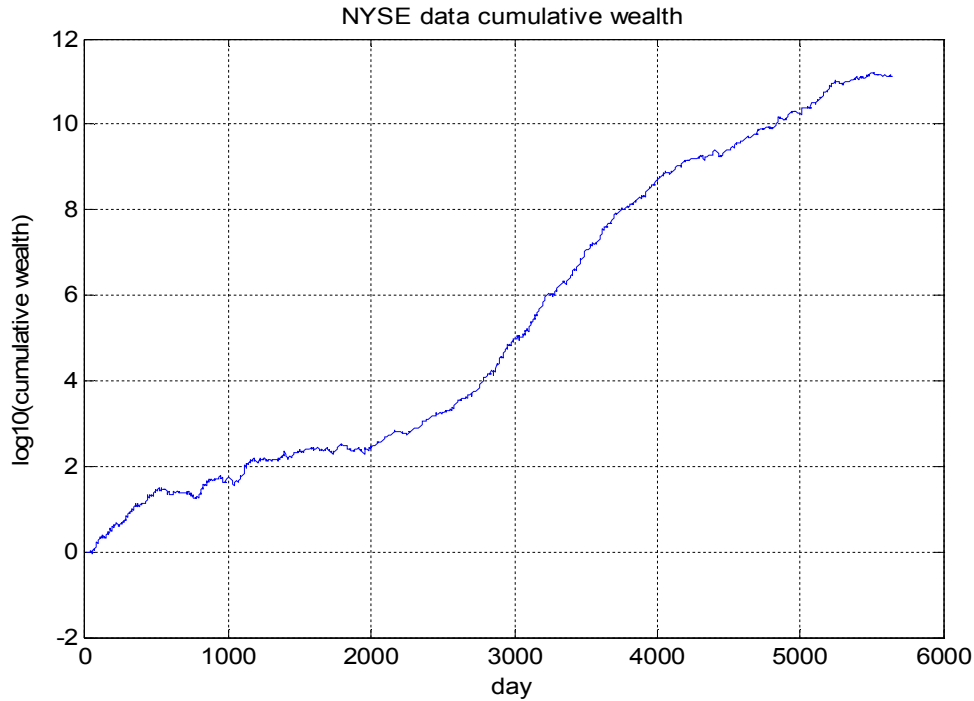


Fig. 1. NYSE data accumulated asset (3rd June 1962 to 31st December 1984)

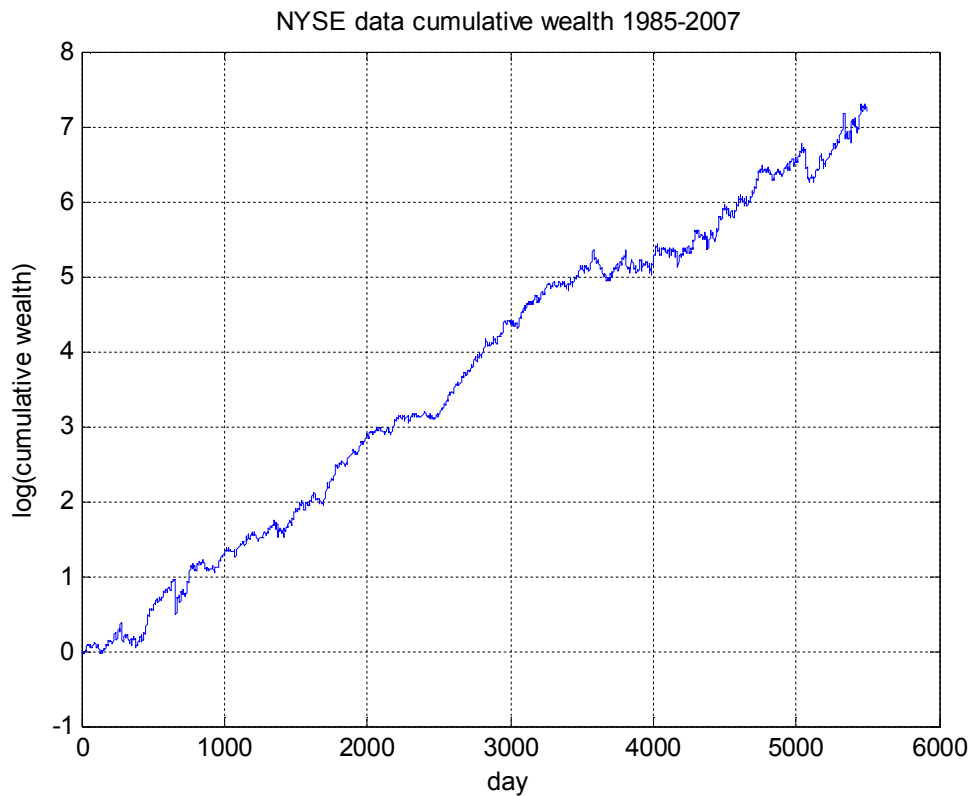


Fig. 2. NYSE data accumulated asset (1st January 1985 to 31st December 2007)

Figure 1 and Figure 2 indicate that if we don't consider transaction costs, our investment strategy

makes asset increase robustly at each stage in 2 period of more than 5000 trading days. What's more, its order of magnitude has never decreased sharply. It shows robustness of our strategy. The reason why it has such a satisfactory performance is that the law of large number ensures the stability of the logarithmic rate of return. According to similarity of market background, the prediction accords to market principle. That's why the expectation of the gross wealth can increase.

Transaction cost influence

In practice, we need to analyze how transaction costs have influence on our cumulative wealth. From linear cost model in section 5.2, we consider deducting ratio of different α position capital after adjusting asset portfolio. We take the data from 3rd June 1962 to 31st December 1984 as an example here. α takes the degree of deduction of capital from 0 to 0.01. It corresponds to cumulative wealth in Figure 3.

As Figure 3 shows, we can find that the logarithm of cumulative wealth and α subject a linear relationship under the linear costs model. It's easy to see that when $\alpha = 0.0045$, the logarithm of wealth is 0, which means our asset in balance. So when α is less than 0.0045, cumulative wealth is can increase exponentially as time flies. In American stock market, transaction costs are usually less than 0.001. Thus the robust log-optimal strategy is significance in practice.

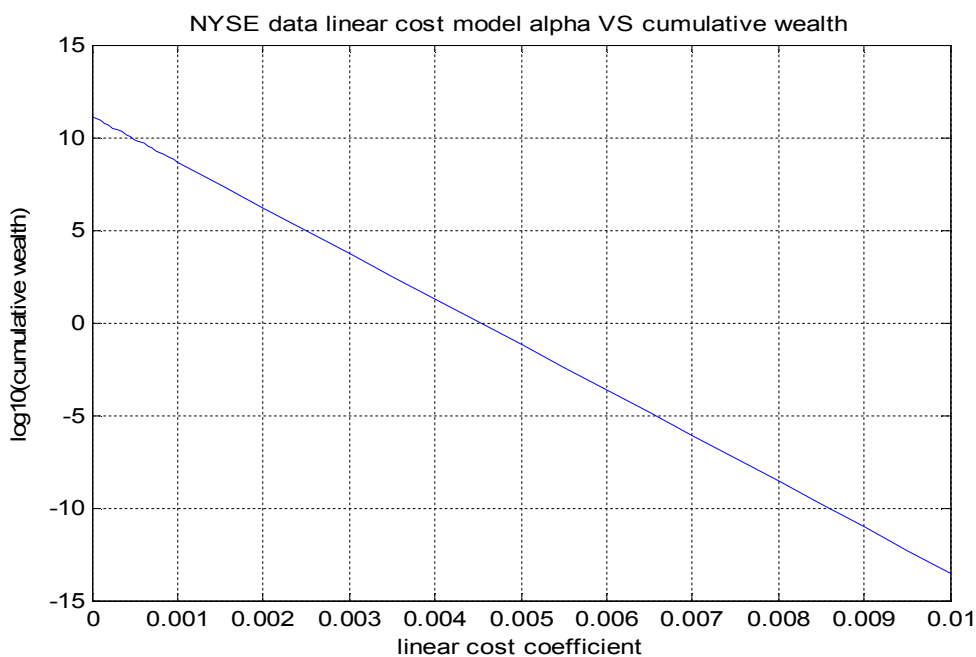


Fig. 3. Transaction cost effect analysis

Parameter sensitivity analysis (date from 3rd June 1962 to 31st December 1984)

We set largest length of market background as 10 in this paper. To analyze if parameter setting has a sensitive influence on result, we adopt integers range from 0 to 25 and get corresponding ultimately accumulated asset situation in figure 4.

Figure 4 shows that if the length of market window parameter is from 0 to 5, the larger the parameter, the better the result. If it is from 5 to 25, the result remains stable. In practice, we can choose optimal length of market background by the training set. Because of its stability, it can be utilized in the other fields of data mining apart from the stock market. We analyze the sensitivity of parameter ρ as well. Let $n=10$ and $\rho=\{-0.15, -0.05, 0, 0.05, 0.1, 0.15\}$, and get ultimately different accumulated asset as shown in Figure 5. if $\rho=0$, we can get the best effect. If $\rho<0$, similar trading days which we extract will have negative effect. So it's normal not to get an optimal result. If ρ is so large that there is not enough trading days which meet the requirements, we cannot get an optimal result.

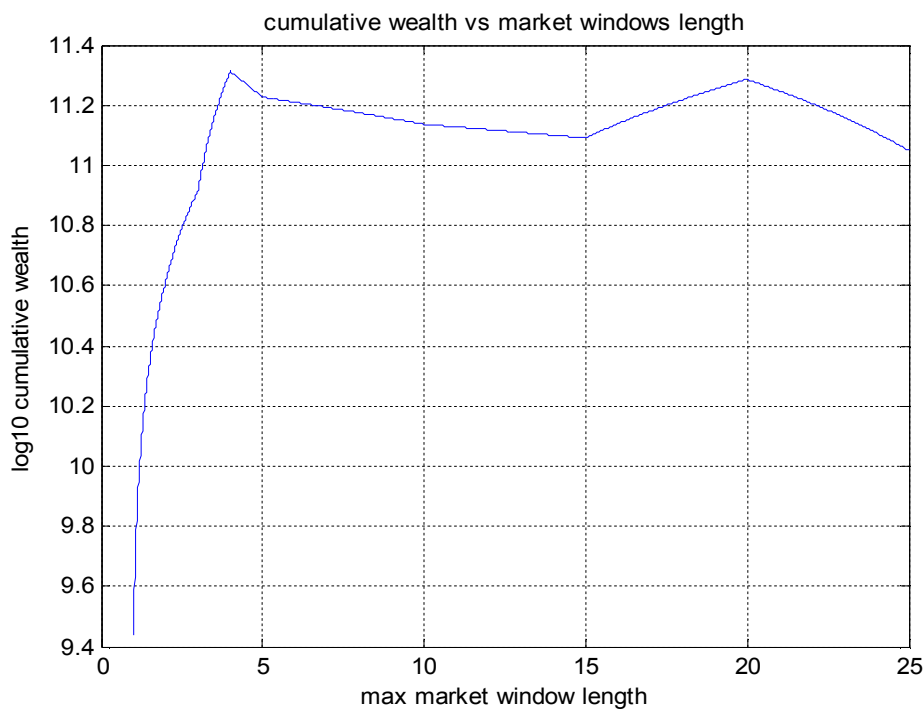


Fig.4. Largest market window length sensitivity analysis

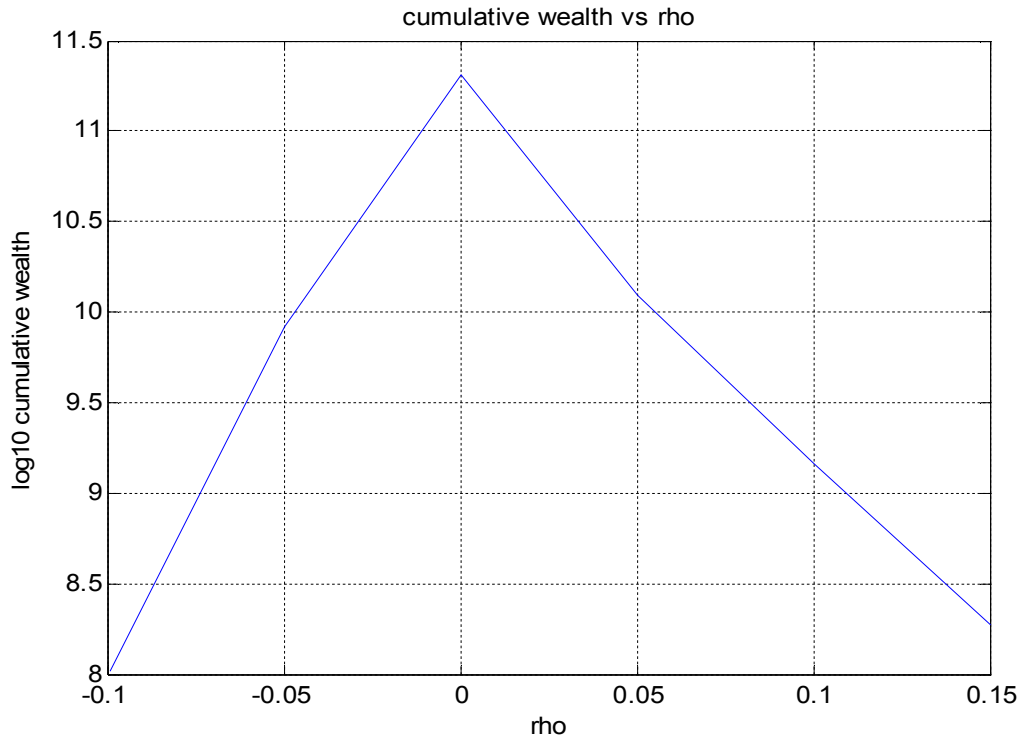


Fig. 5. Correlated threshold sensitivity analysis

6. Conclusion

We develop a new robust log-optimal strategy, many virtues meet in it:

- 1) an extremely explanation in theory: the balance between the logarithmic return and its squared coefficient of variation;
- 2) computational effectiveness;
- 3) resistance to "butterfly effect": the upper bound of the allocation utility deviation can be controlled by the l_1 -norm of asset allocation vector and l_∞ -norm of the bias of variance matrix estimator;
- 4) high performance in return: application on NYSE data.

This log-optimal strategy is for general cases, we still have many problems under consideration for further exploration. For instance, How to adjust our strategy to special asset class such as bonds, Insurance products, derivatives, foreign currency and etc.? How to select assets in our strategy? How to use information effectively? How to improve the accuracy of the estimations?

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