Portfolio backtesting in practice



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1 Returns: theory and facts

2 Portfolio backtesting

3 Portfolio performance metrics





Returns

Two ways to proceed

Arithmetic returns

 $r_{t-\Delta t,t} = \frac{P_t}{P_{t-\Delta t}} - 1$ $P_t = P_0 \prod_{c=1}^t (1 + r_{s-1,s})$

$$r_{t-\Delta t,t} = \log\left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t-\Delta t}}\right)$$
$$P_t = P_0 \exp\left(\sum_{s=1}^t r_{s-1,s}\right)$$

Good for cross-section aggregation

Often used in discrete time

ex: portfolio allocation

Good for time aggregation

Often used in continuous time

ex: option pricing

When Δt is sufficiently small so that returns are small too, both definitions are close because $\log(1 + x) = x + o(x)$.

supervised learning factor investing Example of difference: aggregating AR in time: $(1 + r)(1 - r) \neq 1!$ Note: despite their practical importance, we do not include dividends in this lecture.

CS aggregation with arithm. returns

A simple proof

Consider 2 assets, A and B and a portfolio consisting of n^A and n^B units of each. The corresponding weights at time *t* are $w^A = \frac{n^A P_t^A}{n^A P_t^A + n^B P_t^B}$ and $w^B = \frac{n^B P_t^B}{n^A P_t^A + n^B P_t^B}$. The total wealth is equal to $W_t = n^A P_t^A + n^B P_t^B$. Its return is

$$\frac{W_{t+1}}{W_t} - 1 = \frac{n^A P_{t+1}^A + n^B P_{t+1}^B}{n^A P_t^A + n^B P_t^B} - 1$$
$$= w^A \frac{P_{t+1}^A}{P_t^A} + w^B \frac{P_{t+1}^B}{P_t^B} - 1$$
$$= w^A \frac{P_{t+1}^A}{P_t^A} + w^B \frac{P_{t+1}^B}{P_t^B} - w^A - w^B$$
$$= w^A r_{t,t+1}^A + w^B r_{t,t+1}^B$$

TS aggregation with log-returns

A simple proof

Take any three dates s < t < u,

$$r_{s,u} = \log\left(\frac{P_u}{P_s}\right) = \log\left(\frac{P_u}{P_t}\frac{P_t}{P_s}\right) = \log\left(\frac{P_u}{P_t}\right) + \log\left(\frac{P_t}{P_s}\right)$$
$$= r_{s,t} + r_{t,u}$$

This is why, in continuous time, prices are often exponentials of processes with independent increments (e.g., Brownian motion, Lévy processes)



TS aggregation: link with CLT

Squeezing the tails

If log-returns are iid, then for a uniform sequence $0 = t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_n = t$, $r_t = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{t_i}$ and

$$\frac{r_t - n\bar{r}}{\sigma_r \sqrt{n}} \to N(0, 1),$$

so that when *n* is large,

$$r_t \stackrel{d}{\approx} \sigma_r \sqrt{n} \times N(0,1) + n\overline{r},$$

i.e., Gaussian models become good approximations.

This is why long term returns (e.g., annual returns) are *close* to normally distributed. **NOTE**: the CLT holds under quite general assumptions! (iid not necessarily required!).



Returns in theory

Very often, iid Gaussian

IN THEORY, non-overlapping returns are often assumed independent and their distribution depends only on Δt , μ , σ .

$$r_{t-\Delta t,t} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathcal{N}\left(\mu \Delta t, \sigma^2 \Delta t\right),$$

which (e.g.) matches the **Black-Scholes** model when $\mu = r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$.

 \rightarrow very tractable in computations!

 \rightarrow can be extended to Lévy processes to account for extreme events.

BUT!

Stylized Facts

Returns in practice! See Cont 2001¹

Empirically, the following properties have been identified

- distribution: returns are heavy-tailed when Δt is small but converge to Gaussian laws when the horizon increases
- lack of auto-correlation: at daily frequencies (and above), returns are only mildly serially correlated
- **stochastic volatility**: returns exhibit clusters during which their dispersion increases
- persisting absolute returns: relatedly, the autocorrelogram of absolute returns is slowly decaying

 \rightarrow complex stochastic processes reflect these empirical properties (e.g., combining stochastic volatility to jump processes).

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¹ Empirical properties of asset returns: stylized facts and statistical issues - Quant. Finance

S&P 500 returns (1/3)

Distribution of daily returns Jan 1993 - May 2022 (SPY ETF):



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The red curve is the fitted Gaussian density.

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S&P 500 returns (2/3) - Tails!

The devil is in the 'de-tails'.



supervised learning factor investing The tails of empirical returns are much heavier than those of the corresponding Gaussian distribution. Extreme events are not that rare!

S&P 500 returns (3/3) - Volatility

Standard deviation over 21 daily returns (\sim monthly).



supervised learning factor investing \rightarrow Empirically, returns do not seem stationary over the long term.

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Protocol

User specified rules

- Investment universe (asset class, geography, sector)
- Portfolio strategy/strategies:
 - **strategy type**: agnostic, price-based (ex: chartist), characteristics-based, macro, etc.
 - ▶ implementation constraints: leverage, liquidity, factor/region/industry exposure, etc.
 - possibly, a benchmark for comparison purposes (EW-CW)
- Backtesting period (usually driven by data and investment universe) & rebalancing frequency (usually driven by policy and transaction costs)
- Performance metrics (covered below)

In-sample vs Out-of-sample



Big difference

between the two! Nobody uses IS anymore...

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Pseudo code form

initialize portfolio weights initialize portfolio return

for t in (rebalancing_dates){

- 1. filter data appropriately (retain PAST data)
- 2. determine portfolio weights
- 3. compute FUTURE portfolio returns (with present values)

Then, given portfolio weights and portfolio returns, compute performance metrics



It's as simple as that. To keep things clear: compartmentalise!

In practice (2/4)

Four crucial steps

We must:

- 1. prepare data (session 4)
- 2. build ML engine (sessions 3, 5, 6, 7, 8)
- 3. convert signal (ML output) into investment decision
- 4. be attentive to perf metrics for both signal (ML) and portfolios (session 7)

The **meta-framing task** is even more important: does what you do make sense economically and technically/statistically? It does require a bit of expertise (knowledge + experience) to figure this out.



In practice (3/4)

This stage is incredibly important.

A word on signal processing

Usually, the ML engine will yield forecasts/signals: future returns, profitability probability, confidence score, etc. This must be translated into **portfolio weights**. Several choices are possible:

- 1. immediate optimisation (Markowitz-like, the output can, e.g., serve as expected return vector)
- 2. heuristic two-stage construction:
 - start by choosing the assets to invest in (those with positive score, those with score above a threshold (median), etc.)
 - then weight: EW, CW, Inverse vol, Min variance, etc.
- + constraints (see next slide)

In practice (4/4)

Classical constraints

- ▶ (hard): $b_{-} < w_i < b^+$;
- ► turnover, liquidity: $(\boldsymbol{w}_t \boldsymbol{w}_{t-1})' \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{w}_t \boldsymbol{w}_{t-1}) < \delta$ with $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ diag;
- diversification, $\boldsymbol{w}_t' \boldsymbol{w}_t < \kappa$ (Herfindhal index);
- factor exposure (proxy), v[−]_k < [Fw_t]_k < v⁺_k → works for industry and geographical exposures as well;

etc.



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Notations

Weights and returns

- ▶ asset (stock) returns: r_t^n , t for time, n for asset index
- portfolio weights: w_t^n , proportion invested at time t in asset n
- **• portfolio returns**: $r_t^P = \sum_{n=1}^N w_{t-1}^n r_t^n$ (to state the obvious): cross-sectional aggregation!

Raw performance

Realised returns

We start from the uniform time grid: t = 1, ..., T with 1 being the first date of the backtest and T the last one.

We assume that ν periods make one year (e.g. $\nu = 12$ for monthly rebalancing and $\nu = 4$ for quarterly rebalancing)

The full portfolio trajectory is given by $P_t = \prod_{s=1}^t (1 + r_t^P)$. Initial value equals one (usually).

- Annualized arithmetic returns: $\bar{r}^P = \frac{\nu}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} r_t^P$
- Annualized geometric returns: $\left(\prod_{s=1}^{T} (1+r_s^{P})\right)^{\nu/T} 1$

Risk measures & relative perf.

A large palette of metrics

- Annualised volatility: $\sigma^P = \sqrt{\frac{\nu}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (r_t^P \bar{r}^P / \nu)^2}$
- VaR at q (often, q = 0.05): q quantile of r_t^P : $P[r_t^P \le \text{VaR}_q^P] = q$
- Maximum Drawdown: maximum decline from a historical peak:

$$MDD^{P} = \max_{t \in [0,T]} \left(\left(\max_{\tau \in [0,t]} P_{\tau} \right) - P_{t} \right)$$

See also: downwards vol, expected shortfall (CVaR).

Risk adjusted performance:

- Sharpe ratio: SR^P = \bar{r}^{P}/σ^{P} (originally in excess of riskfree rate version)
- ▶ MAR ratio: $MAR^{P} = \overline{r}^{P} / MDD^{P}$ (originally used with geometric returns)

Relative performance: Information ratio: $IR = (\bar{r}^P - \bar{r}^B) / TE(P, B)$, where *P*=portfolio, *B*=benchmark and *TE* is the tracking error: $TE(P, B) = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}[r^P - r^B]}$.

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Turnover

Asset rotation is costly

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Turnover
$$\approx \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |w_t^n - w_{t-1}^n|,$$

as it requires the portfolio weights only. The true turnover is

Turnover =
$$\frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |w_t^n - w_{t-}^n|,$$

where t – denotes the time **just before** rebalancing: the trajectory of the weight must be computed using the asset returns.

Cap-weighted strategies have very low turnover.

TC-adjusted performance: $SR_{TC} = \frac{\bar{r} - \delta \text{Turnover}}{\sigma}$, where δ (30-50 bps) is a TC constant. **NOTE**: TC could also be evaluated at the asset level: liquid assets have lower TC (that's preferable, but that's harder to do).

Turnover and drifting weights

Illustration:

Let's consider a 1/N strategy with 2 assets:

time t:time t+1:upon rebanlancing50% in stock A
say 10\$stock A increased by 10%
its weight is 55% (11/20)we need to reduce
the weight of stock A50% in stock B
say 10\$stock B decreased by 10%
its weight is 45% (9/20)and increase that of
stock B



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Portfolios in practice

It's all about returns

- empirically: heavy-tailed, volatility clusters, etc. (properties are time-varying, processes are only 'locally' stationary).
- backtesting requires many choices, i.e., many degrees of freedom, though some are dictated by data or policy contingencies.
- Each step counts and being careful at each stage can make a difference.



Thank you for your attention Any questions?



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