

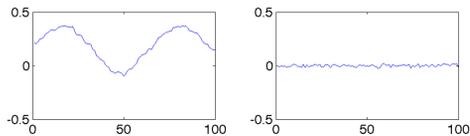
Mean Reversion with a Variance Threshold

Marco Cuturi¹, Alexandre d'Aspremont²

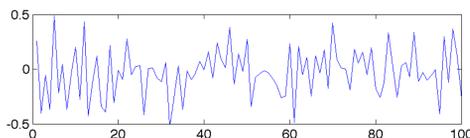
¹ Kyoto University (Japan), ² CNRS - Ecole Polytechnique (France)

This Poster in 1 Minute

Classic Cointegration Problem: Given a multivariate time series $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$, find α such that $y^T x_t$ is **stationary**.



Our formulation: Find cointegrated relationship such that $y^T x_t$ **also** has **fast mean-reversion** and **sufficient variance**.



Motivation: Makes a lot of sense in **financial applications**. We expect it can also be applied to other fields, such as anomaly detection.

Approach: Formulate natural criteria that take into account **both** mean-reversion and variance.

Optimization: These criteria are **not convex**. We approximate them (and solve them exactly in some cases) using semidefinite programming and the \mathcal{S} -lemma.

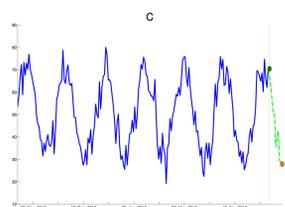
Experiments: We illustrate that, on stock volatility data, **Mean-reversion** \rightarrow **statistical arbitrage** opportunities. **Sufficient variance** \rightarrow **lower transaction costs**.

1. Mean-Reversion & Cointegration

Loose Definition of Mean Reversion: Tendency of a stochastic process to revert (pull back) to its mean.



Mean-reversion = Statistical Arbitrage Opportunity

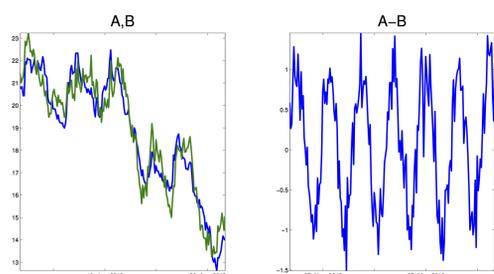


Which assets are mean-reverting?

- **Stationary** processes are mean-reverting,
- Arbitraging stationary assets is therefore desirable.

In practice, very few assets are stationary. Those who are tend to revert to their means very slowly.

However, **combining** assets can result in stationarity: "pair-trades" when $n = 2$, "baskets" when $n \geq 3$.



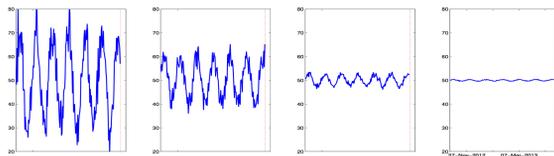
Finding weights y such that $y^T x_t$ is stationary
= **cointegration theory** (econometrics, VAR modeling)

2. Stationarity is not enough

Problem 1: slow mean-reversion is bad.

Slow mean-reversion \rightarrow smaller expected arbitrage.

Problem 2: small variance is bad.



Large variance \rightarrow larger arbitrage expected per trade.

Both problems lead to more leverage = higher risk.

Both issues are not addressed by classic cointegration methods, which focus exclusively on **stationarity**.

When $n \gg 1$, when estimating y from finite samples, small variance can also mean overfitting.

3. Criteria

- $A_k = \mathbf{E}[x_t x_{t+k}^T], k \geq 0$ when finite.
- When $x = (x_1, \dots, x_T)$ and each $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$A_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{T-k} \sum_{t=1}^{T-k} \tilde{x}_t \tilde{x}_{t+k}^T, \quad \tilde{x}_t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} x_t - \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T x_t$$

To quantify mean-reversion, three different proxies:

1. **Portmanteau** (Ljung and Box, 1978)

$$\phi_p(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{por}_p(y^T x_t) = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^p \left(\frac{y^T A_i y}{y^T A_0 y} \right)^2,$$

(norm of autocorrelogram)

2. **Crossing Stats** (Kedem and Yakowitz, 1994)

Number of times $y^T x_t$ crosses its mean is a decreasing function of $y^T A_1 y$ assuming $y^T A_k y \approx 0, k > 1$.

3. **Predictability** (Box and Tiao, 1977) Suppose

$$x_t = \hat{x}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where \hat{x}_{t-1} is a predictor of $x_t; \varepsilon_t$ i.i.d. Gaussian $(0, \Sigma)$.

n=1: $\mathbf{E}[x_t^2] = \mathbf{E}[\hat{x}_{t-1}^2] + \mathbf{E}[\varepsilon_t^2]$, thus $1 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{\Sigma}{\sigma^2}$, Box and Tiao measure the **predictability** of x_t by the ratio

$$\lambda \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2}.$$

n>1: Consider the process $(y^T x_t)_t$ with $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We can measure the predictability of $y^T x_t$ as

$$\lambda(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{y^T \hat{A}_0 y}{y^T A_0 y},$$

where \hat{A}_0 and A_0 are covariance matrices of x_t and \hat{x}_{t-1} .

To Quantify variance

$$\text{var}(y^T x_t) = y^T A_0 y > \nu.$$

Mean Reversion with Variance Threshold

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \sum_{i=1}^p (y^T A_i y)^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && y^T A_0 y \geq \nu \\ & && \|y\|_2 = 1, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{P1})$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && y^T A_1 y + \mu \sum_{k=2}^p (y^T A_k y)^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && y^T A_0 y \geq \nu \\ & && \|y\|_2 = 1, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{P2})$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && y^T M y \\ & \text{subject to} && y^T A_0 y \geq \nu \\ & && \|y\|_2 = 1, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{P3})$$

4. SDP Relaxations

SDP Formulation Writing $Y = yy^T$,

Brickman (1961): when $n \geq 3$,

$$\{(y^T A y, y^T B y) : y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|y\|_2 = 1\} = \{(\text{Tr}(AY), \text{Tr}(BY)) : Y \in \mathbf{S}_n, \text{Tr} Y = 1, Y \succeq 0\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \sum_{i=1}^p \text{Tr}(A_i Y)^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && \text{Tr}(BY) \geq \nu \\ & && \text{Tr}(Y) = 1, Y \succeq 0, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{SDP1})$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \text{Tr}(A_1 Y) + \mu \sum_{i=2}^p \text{Tr}(A_i Y)^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && \text{Tr}(BY) \geq \nu \\ & && \text{Tr}(Y) = 1, Y \succeq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{SDP2})$$

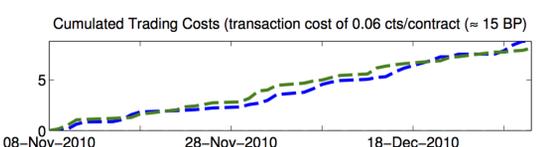
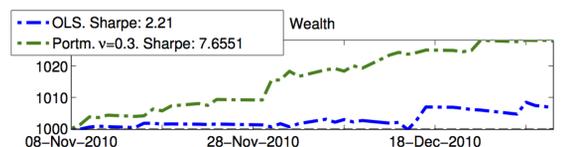
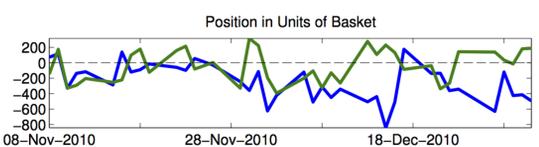
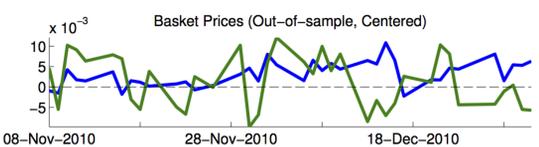
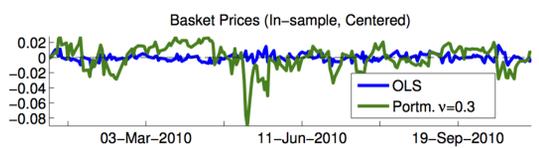
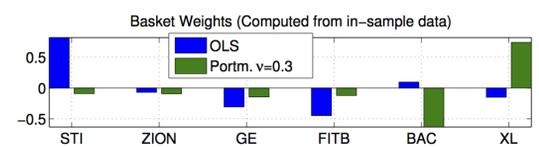
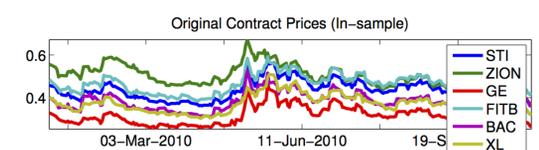
$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \text{Tr}(MY) \\ & \text{subject to} && \text{Tr}(BY) \geq \nu \\ & && \text{Tr}(Y) = 1, Y \succeq 0, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{SDP3})$$

Exact solutions when $p = 1$, **approximation** (randomization, leading eigenvector) when $p > 1$.

5. Experiments

Data: implied volatility data for 217 stocks.

Sample Trade Episode: using our approach and OLS



Results: 20 time windows, results on most

