

# Fully flexible extreme views

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*We extend the entropy pooling generalization of the Black–Litterman approach to effectively handle extreme views on the tails of a distribution. First, we provide a recursive algorithm to process views on conditional value-at-risk, which cannot be handled directly by the original implementation of entropy pooling. Second, we represent both the prior and the posterior distribution on a grid, instead of using Monte Carlo scenarios. This way it becomes possible to parsimoniously cover even the far tails of the underlying distribution. Documented code is available to download (see <http://symmys.com/node/159>).*

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The combination of subjective views contained within a broadly accepted risk model is one of the main challenges in quantitative portfolio management. Indeed, any risk model, be it based on historical scenarios, parametric fits or Monte Carlo scenarios generated according to a given distribution, is subject to estimation risk and, thus, is inherently flawed. It is therefore important to provide a framework that allows practitioners to overlay their judgement to any risk model in a statistically sound way.

The mainstream approach to performing this task is to use the celebrated Black and Litterman (1990) model. In this case the distribution of the risk factors is assumed to be normal and the views are processed using a Bayesian formalism. For nonnormal markets, one can choose an ad hoc parametrization and modify the Black–Litterman

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approach accordingly. This is the route chosen, for example, by Giacometti *et al* (2007).

To allow for fully general market distributions and for views on the general features of such distributions, one can use the entropy pooling (EP) approach of Meucci (2008). The EP approach combines an arbitrary market model, which is henceforth referred to throughout the paper as the prior, and fully general views or stress tests on the underlying market. The output is a distribution, referred to as the posterior, which incorporates all the inputs and which can be used for risk management and portfolio optimization.

In EP, the posterior is obtained by warping the prior distribution so that the views are fulfilled in such a way that the least possible amount of spurious structure is imposed. Specifically, the posterior distribution minimizes the entropy relative to the prior, which is the natural measure of discrepancy between two distributions. As a final step, opinion pooling assigns different confidence levels to different views and users, leading to a mixture of distributions.

The EP approach is advantageous in that it allows for full flexibility in the specification of the views. Indeed, this applies not only to views on expectations, but also views on volatility or on value-at-risk (VaR), among others, are possible.

The EP approach can be implemented in three ways: analytical, nonparametric, and parametric. The analytical solution (which only applies to normally distributed markets) and the nonparametric approach are discussed in Meucci (2008). The parametric approach is studied in Meucci *et al* (2011).

In the nonparametric approach to EP, the prior distribution of the generic risk factor (for example, in the form of a return) is represented in terms of a set of scenarios and their associated probabilities. This representation presents two drawbacks when processing extreme views on the tails.

First, this representation allows for views of many sorts, including VaR, but cannot accommodate views on conditional value-at-risk (CVaR). Second, the scenarios in the original EP paper were generated by standard Monte Carlo simulation. Monte Carlo scenarios are inadequate when expressing extreme views on the tails of the distribution, unless the number of scenarios is unrealistically large.

This paper addresses these two issues of the nonparametric approach. In Section 2 we review EP. In Section 3 we discuss a recursive algorithm to cover views on CVaR. In Section 4 we replace the Monte Carlo scenarios with a deterministic grid and the respective nonequal probabilities in such a way that extreme views can be processed. In Section 5 we present a case study. We model the distribution of a hedge fund return nonparametrically and we process extreme views on its expectation and its CVaR. Fully documented code is available.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> See <http://symmys.com/node/159>.

## 2 REVIEW OF ENTROPY POOLING

In this section we follow Meucci (2008). We refer the interested reader to this work for more details and for the code. Consider a univariate market  $X$ , say, the return of a hedge fund. We denote by  $f$  the probability density function (PDF) of the prior, ie, the estimated distribution of  $X$ . Assume that we express generalized views, ie, a set of scenarios, directional statements, or stress tests. We denote such views by  $\mathcal{V}$ . The posterior is a new distribution  $\tilde{f}$ , which is as close as possible to the prior  $f$  but satisfies the views  $\mathcal{V}$ . More precisely:

$$\tilde{f} \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_{g \in \mathcal{V}} \{\mathcal{E}(g, f)\} \quad (2.1)$$

where the distance is measured in terms of the relative entropy, or Kullback–Leibler divergence:

$$\mathcal{E}(\tilde{f}, f) \equiv \int \tilde{f}(x) \ln \frac{\tilde{f}(x)}{f(x)} dx \quad (2.2)$$

To implement EP we represent the distribution  $f$  by a set of scenario–probability pairs:

$$f \Leftrightarrow \{(x_j, p_j)\}_{j=1, \dots, J} \quad (2.3)$$

The probabilities  $p_j$  are determined in such a way that, for generic domains  $D$ , the following approximation holds true:

$$\int_D f(x) dx \approx \sum_{x_j \in D} p_j \quad (2.4)$$

We represent the posterior  $\tilde{f}$  as in (2.3) in terms of the same scenarios, but with different probabilities  $\tilde{f} \Leftrightarrow \{(x_j, \tilde{p}_j)\}$ , where we drop the running subscripts for notational ease. The discrete version of the relative entropy (2.2) then reads:

$$\mathcal{E}(\tilde{p}, p) \equiv \sum_{j=1}^J \tilde{p}_j \ln \frac{\tilde{p}_j}{p_j}$$

Denote by  $g$  a generic distribution and by  $q$  its discrete representation as in (2.3). Denote (with minor abuse of notation) by  $q \in \mathcal{V}$  the discrete counterpart of the fully flexible constraint  $g \in \mathcal{V}$  in (2.1). Then, from (2.1) we obtain that the discrete posterior satisfies:

$$\tilde{p} = \operatorname{argmin}_{q \in \mathcal{V}} \{\mathcal{E}(q, p)\} \quad (2.5)$$

If the constraints  $q \in \mathcal{V}$  are linear, the minimization (2.5) becomes a linear program that can be easily computed numerically by switching to the dual.

As it turns out, very general views can be expressed as linear constraints on the discrete posterior, including views on expectations, volatilities and correlations (see Meucci (2008)).

### 3 VIEWS ON CONDITIONAL VALUE-AT-RISK

Views on CVaR do not belong to the list of flexible views in Section 2 that turn into linear constraints on the discrete posterior.

Consider a view on the CVaR:

$$\mathcal{V}: \tilde{E}\{X \mid X \leq \tilde{q}u_\gamma\} \equiv \tilde{c}v_\gamma \tag{3.1}$$

In this expression  $\tilde{c}v_\gamma$  is the target  $(1 - \gamma)$ -CVaR of the view, where  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ , and  $\tilde{q}u_\gamma$  denotes the posterior  $\gamma$ -quantile:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\tilde{q}u_\gamma} \tilde{f}(x) dx \equiv \gamma \tag{3.2}$$

The constraints (3.1) and (3.2) cannot be mapped into a linear constraint for  $q$  in (2.5) and, thus, we cannot compute the posterior directly using linear programming. The reason for this is that if we have a view on CVaR, we do not know *a priori* what the VaR will be. In other words, the number of scenarios falling below the VaR quantile is not known in advance. Obviously we are looking for the VaR level, or, equivalently, the number of scenarios  $s$  below the VaR level, such that the posterior has minimum-entropy distance to the prior. As we now proceed to show, we can compute the posterior as a recursion of linear programs.

Assume that we have sorted the scenarios in such a way that  $x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_J$  and rearranged the respective prior discrete probabilities  $\{p_j\}$  accordingly. For an arbitrary value  $s \in \{1, \dots, J\}$ , define the following  $J$ -dimensional vector of discrete probabilities:

$$p^{(s)} \equiv \underset{q \in \mathcal{C}_s}{\operatorname{argmin}} \{ \mathcal{E}(q, p) \} \tag{3.3}$$

where the constraints read:

$$\mathcal{C}_s: \begin{cases} x_1 q_1 + \dots + x_s q_s \equiv \gamma \tilde{c}v_\gamma \\ q_1 + \dots + q_s \equiv \gamma \end{cases} \tag{3.4}$$

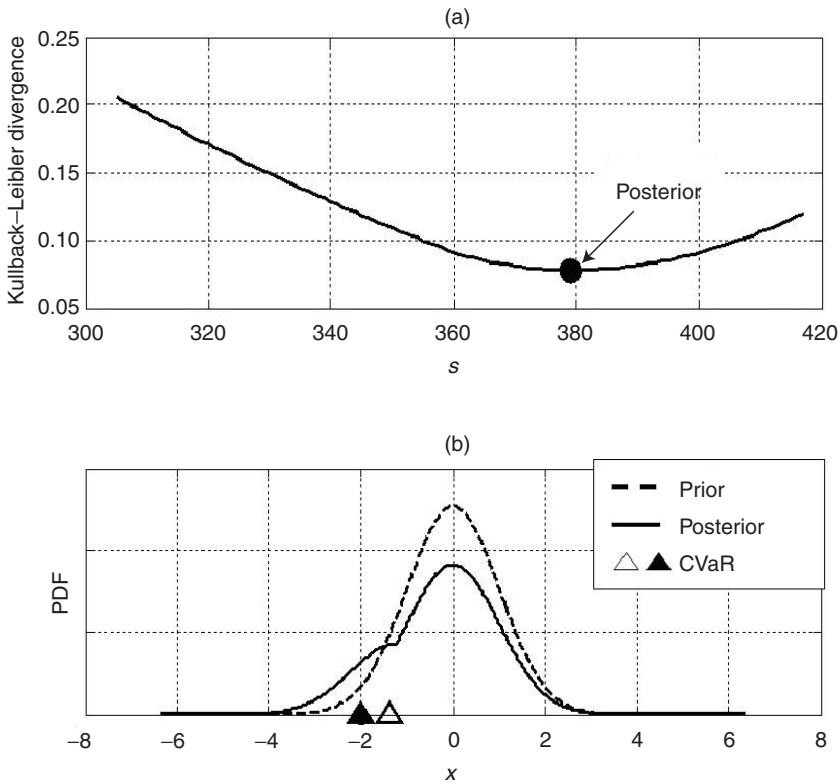
These constraints are linear for the  $J$ -dimensional vector:

$$q \equiv (q_1, \dots, q_s, q_{s+1}, \dots, q_J)'$$

and thus (3.3) can be solved by switching to the dual as in Meucci (2008). The grid-probabilities pair  $\{x_j, p_j^{(s)}\}$  represents a minimum-distortion posterior that displays a VaR equal to  $\tilde{q}u_\gamma$  and a CVaR equal to  $\tilde{c}v_\gamma$ .

The posterior (2.5) that satisfies the CVaR view of (3.1) and (3.2) is represented by the vector of probabilities among all the  $p^{(s)}$  defined in (3.3), which displays the least distortion overall. Expressed as a formula,  $\tilde{p} \equiv p^{(s)}$ , where:

$$\tilde{s} \equiv \underset{s \in \{1, \dots, J\}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{E}(p^{(s)}, p) \tag{3.5}$$

**FIGURE 1** View on CVaR: extensive search of minimum relative-entropy posterior.

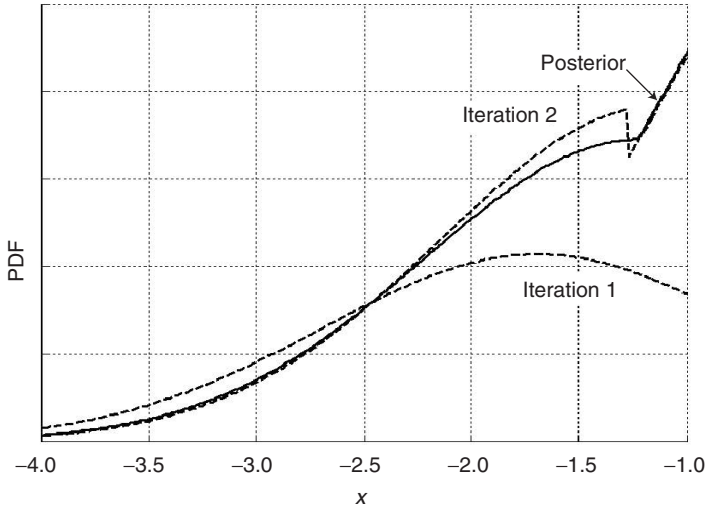
(a) Kullback–Leibler distance of candidate posteriors from prior. (b) Effect of CVaR view on distribution.

To illustrate how this recursion works in practice, we consider as the prior the standard normal distribution  $X \sim N(0, 1)$  with a view on the 80% CVaR, namely  $\tilde{E}\{X \mid X \leq \tilde{q}_{0.2}\} \equiv -2$ . In part (a) of Figure 1 we display the profile of the Kullback–Leibler distance  $\mathcal{E}(p^{(s)}, p)$  from the prior provided by each distribution satisfying (3.4) as a function of  $s$ . The true posterior is represented by the minimum of this profile and is illustrated in part (b) of Figure 1.

In practice, the computation of all the terms in (3.5) is very computationally intensive. However, the relative entropy  $\mathcal{E}(p^{(s)}, p)$  is a concave function of  $s$ . Therefore we can greatly simplify the process using a discrete counterpart of the Newton–Raphson search method. First we define the empirical derivative of the relative entropy as a function of  $s$ :

$$D\mathcal{E}(p^{(s)}, p) \equiv \mathcal{E}(p^{(s+1)}, p) - \mathcal{E}(p^{(s)}, p) \quad (3.6)$$

**FIGURE 2** View on CVaR: discrete Newton–Raphson recursion.



Next, we initialize a value  $\bar{s} \in \{1, \dots, J\}$  in terms of the prior probabilities  $p \equiv (p_1, \dots, p_s, p_{s+1}, \dots, p_J)'$  as the threshold that satisfies:

$$p_1 + \dots + p_{\bar{s}} \equiv \gamma$$

Then we apply the Newton–Raphson method to the empirical derivative, updating and iterating the following two steps until convergence is reached:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{s} &\equiv \text{int} \left( \underline{s} - \frac{D\mathcal{E}(p^{(\underline{s})}, p)}{D^2\mathcal{E}(p^{(\underline{s})}, p)} \right) \\ \underline{s} &\equiv \bar{s} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{int}(z)$  denotes the integer closest to  $z$  and  $D^2$  applies twice the operator  $D$  defined in (3.6). Numerical studies show that convergence is typically reached within a few steps. For example, we can reproduce the extensive search of Figure 1 on the preceding page with only three recursions (see Figure 2).

#### 4 GRID REPRESENTATION OF A DISTRIBUTION

Plain Monte Carlo is the most direct approach for generating a distribution in terms of the scenario–probability pair as specified by (2.3). The scenarios  $\{x_j\}$  are generated randomly according to the desired distribution and the probabilities are set as  $p_j \equiv$

$1/J$ . However, this approach concentrates the scenarios on a limited portion of the domain of the distribution. When the views are on the far tails, as is the case with VaR or CVaR relative to confidence levels larger than 95%, plain Monte Carlo fails to offer enough scenarios to cover these views.

Alternative approaches are available to represent the distribution of the market, such as importance sampling or stratified sampling (see Glasserman (2004)). However, these techniques focus on subdomains of the distribution, and thus, in order to apply such methods, we must forgo the full flexibility on the specification of the views.

A different approach, which preserves the generality of the views specification, involves selecting the scenarios  $\{x_j\}$  deterministically as a grid and then using (2.4) to associate with each of them the suitable probability:

$$p_j \equiv \int_{I_j} f(x) dx \quad (4.1)$$

where the generic interval  $I_j$  contains the  $j$ th point of the grid:

$$I_j \equiv [x_j - \frac{1}{2}(x_j - x_{j-1}), x_j + \frac{1}{2}(x_{j+1} - x_j)] \quad (4.2)$$

Once the grid is defined, the entropy optimization (2.5) can be applied to replace (4.1) with the new posterior probabilities  $\{\tilde{p}_j\}$  that reflect the views.

The choice of the grid  $\{x_j\}$  determines the success of the approach. In particular, it is important that the grid spans a domain that is large enough to include extreme events that would not be covered by simple Monte Carlo simulations. Also, the grid should be sufficiently sparse and homogeneously spaced. A natural choice for  $\{x_j\}$  is the equally spaced grid. More precisely, consider the lower extreme  $\underline{x}$  and the upper extreme  $\bar{x}$  of the distribution of  $X$ , defined as:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\underline{x}} f(x) dx \equiv \epsilon \equiv \int_{\bar{x}}^{+\infty} f(x) dx \quad (4.3)$$

where  $\epsilon$  is a very small tail probability, such as  $\epsilon \approx 10^{-9}$ . Then the grid  $\{x_j\}$  is determined by the points:

$$x_j \equiv \underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}(2j - 1)\Delta, \quad j = 1, \dots, J$$

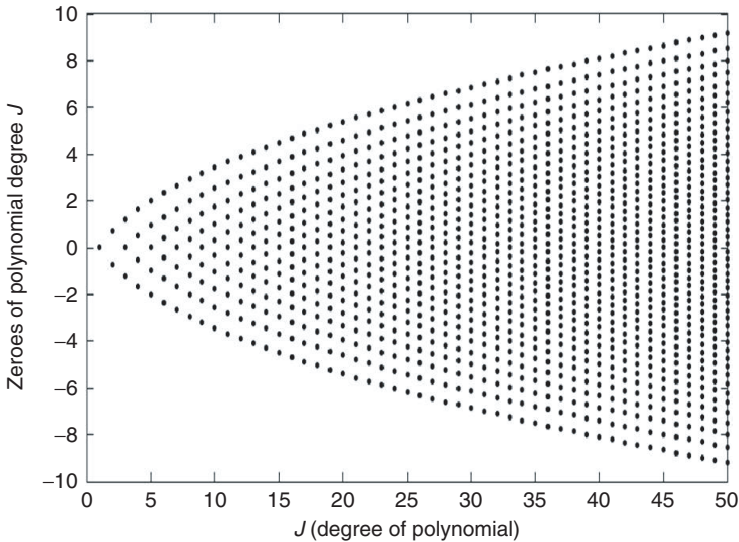
where  $\Delta \equiv (\bar{x} - \underline{x})/J$  is the constant width of all the intervals (4.2).

To compute the probabilities (4.1) that correspond to the grid  $\{x_j\}$  we perform numerical integration (see also the case study in Section 5).

An improvement on the equally spaced grid for compact-domain, unimodal distributions draws inspiration from the literature on Gaussian and, in particular, Gauss–Hermite quadratures. First, we introduce the Hermite polynomial of order  $J$ :

$$H_J(x) \equiv (-1)^J e^{-x^2/2} \frac{d^J e^{-x^2/2}}{dx^J}$$

**FIGURE 3** Zeros of Hermite polynomials as function of polynomial degree.



As we can see in Figure 3, the roots are symmetrical around zero and the growth is sublinear. Then, we construct a suitable grid by shifting and stretching the roots to cover the extremes  $\underline{x}$  and  $\bar{x}$ , defined in (4.3).

We test our methodology under the normal assumption with an extreme view on the expectation so that we can benchmark the results with the analytical formula in Meucci (2008). In particular, we consider a standard normal prior  $X \sim N(0, 1)$  and we overlay the extreme view  $\tilde{E}\{X\} \equiv -3$ , which turns into the linear constraint:

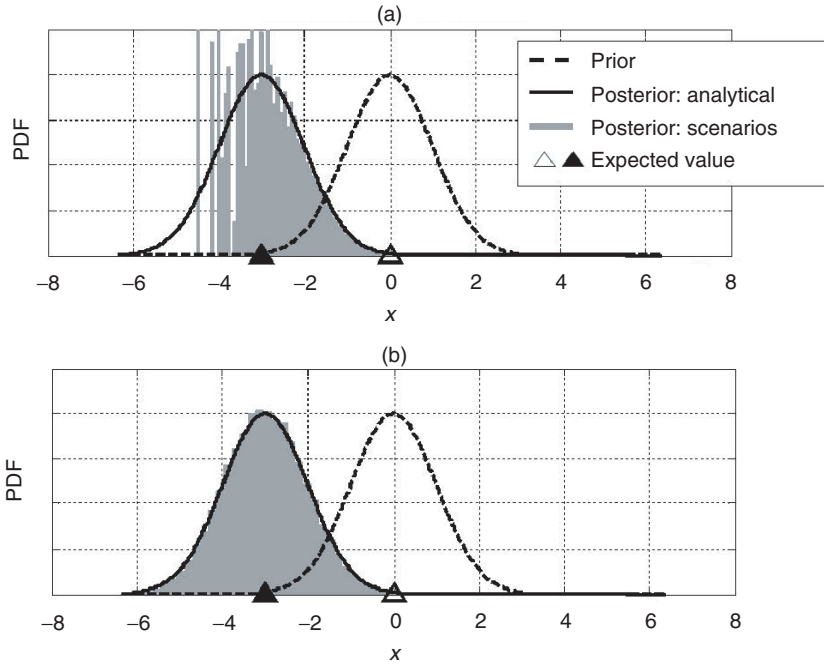
$$\sum_{j=1}^J q_j x_j \equiv -3$$

in (2.5). As can be seen from Figure 4 on the facing page, a parsimonious grid of  $J = 10^3$  points performs considerably better than plain Monte Carlo with  $J = 10^5$  scenarios.

We emphasize that the grid representation is by no means less flexible than Monte Carlo scenarios. As a matter of fact, it is straightforward to generate high-quality Monte Carlo scenarios from the posterior distribution as computed on the grid. To do so, first we compute the posterior cumulative distribution function at the grid points:

$$\tilde{F}(x_j) \equiv \sum_{s=1}^j \tilde{p}_s \tag{4.4}$$

**FIGURE 4** Entropy pooling on simple Monte Carlo scenarios versus the Gauss–Hermite grid.



(a) Monte Carlo scenarios. (b) Gauss–Hermite grid scenarios.

Then we use uniform simulations to obtain the desired posterior scenarios by linear interpolation of (4.4), without having to invert the cumulative distribution function (see Meucci (2006)).

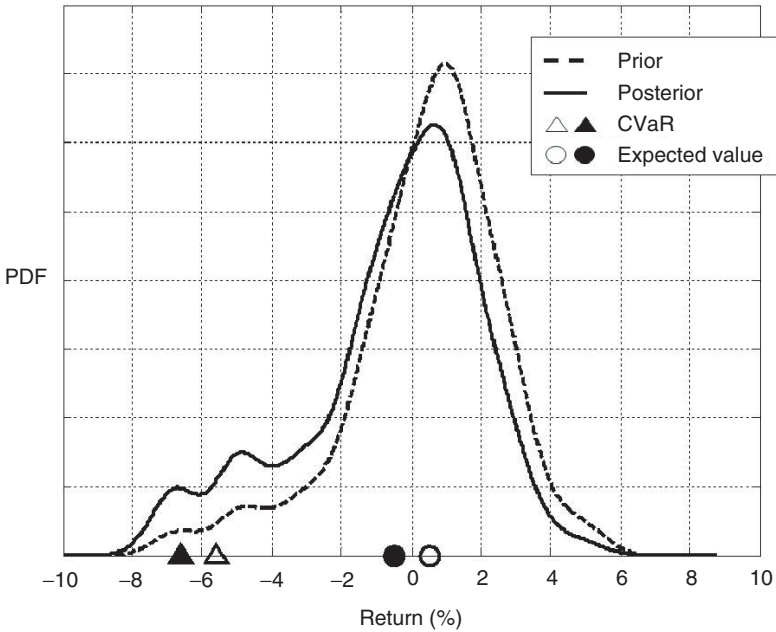
## 5 CASE STUDY: ANALYSIS OF HEDGE FUND RETURNS

Here we consider a real-world example for modeling and expressing extreme views on the distribution of the return of a hedge fund, for which we collected a time series of  $T \equiv 83$  monthly returns from January 2003 to November 2009.

We denote by  $x_1, \dots, x_T$  the observed time series of the returns realizations and we estimate the prior nonparametrically as the exponentially weighted, kernel-smoothed empirical function. More precisely:

$$f(x) \equiv \sum_{t=1}^T w_t k_t(x) \quad (5.1)$$

**FIGURE 5** Hedge fund return distribution: nonparametric prior, posterior after views on body and tails.



where the  $w_t$  are exponentially smoothed weights  $w_t \propto e^{-\lambda(T-t)}$  normalized to sum to 1, and  $k_t$  is a Gaussian smoothing kernel of bandwidth  $h$  for the  $t$ th observation:

$$k_t(x) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi h^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x - x_t)^2}{2h^2}\right)$$

We set the exponential decay half-life as half the observation period  $\lambda \equiv 2 \ln(2)/T$ , and we set the bandwidth as in Silverman (1986):

$$h \equiv \min\left\{\hat{\sigma}, \frac{\hat{\text{ir}}}{1.34}\right\} T^{-(1/5)}$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}$  is the sample standard deviation and  $\hat{\text{ir}}$  is the sample interquartile range of the observations.

We represent the PDF (5.1) on a Gauss–Hermite grid of  $J \equiv 10^3$  points. The PDF can be easily integrated analytically to yield the probabilities associated with the grid as in (4.1). The prior distribution for the monthly fund return features an expected value of 52 basis points and a 95%-confidence CVaR of  $-5.61\%$ .

Consider an analyst with a bearish outlook for the fund. Both the expected value and the CVaR should be 100 basis points less than that prescribed by the prior estimate. We process the view on the expected value by applying EP on the grid as discussed in Section 4 and we process the view on CVaR through the recursive application of EP as discussed in Section 3.

In Figure 5 on the facing page we display the results. As expected, compared with the prior, in the posterior the negative outcomes are overweighted. However, the posterior distribution is not obtained by simply shifting the prior to the left. All of the probability masses are rearranged to reflect the views and the domain of the distribution remains correctly unaltered.

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