

Risk Management

Value at Risk

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Investment Analytics

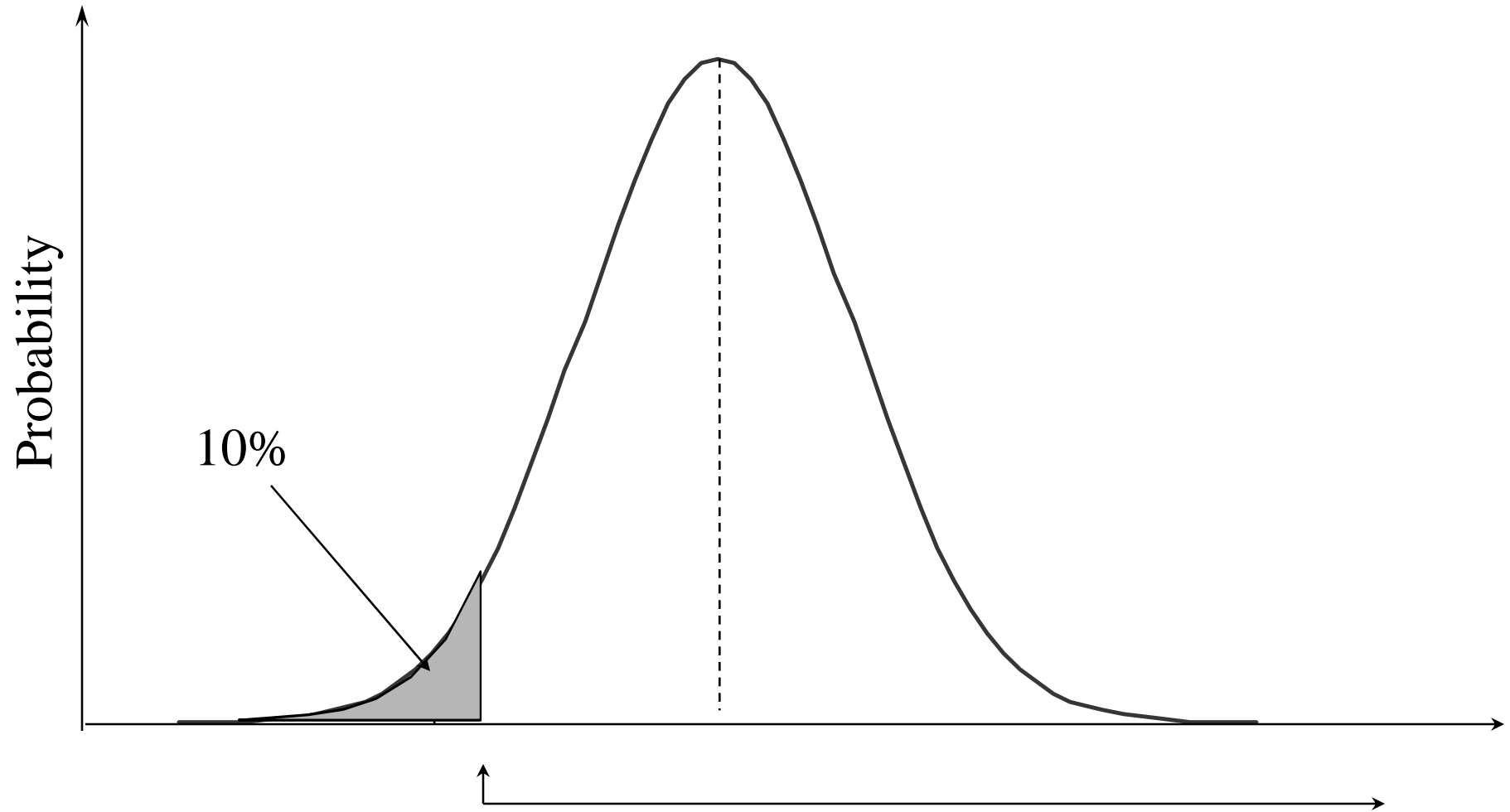
Agenda

- Statistical Distributions
- Value at Risk
- Factors affecting VAR
- VAR & Derivatives
- The Delta-Normal Model
- Model testing
- Other VAR models

Confidence Intervals

- You can use normal probability tables to find:
 - ✓ The probability of achieving a given minimum return
- Confidence Intervals
 - ✓ Turn this idea round
 - ✓ Given a specified probability, what's the minimum return?
- Example: 90% confidence interval
 - What minimum rate of return can I expect to achieve 9 times out of 10?

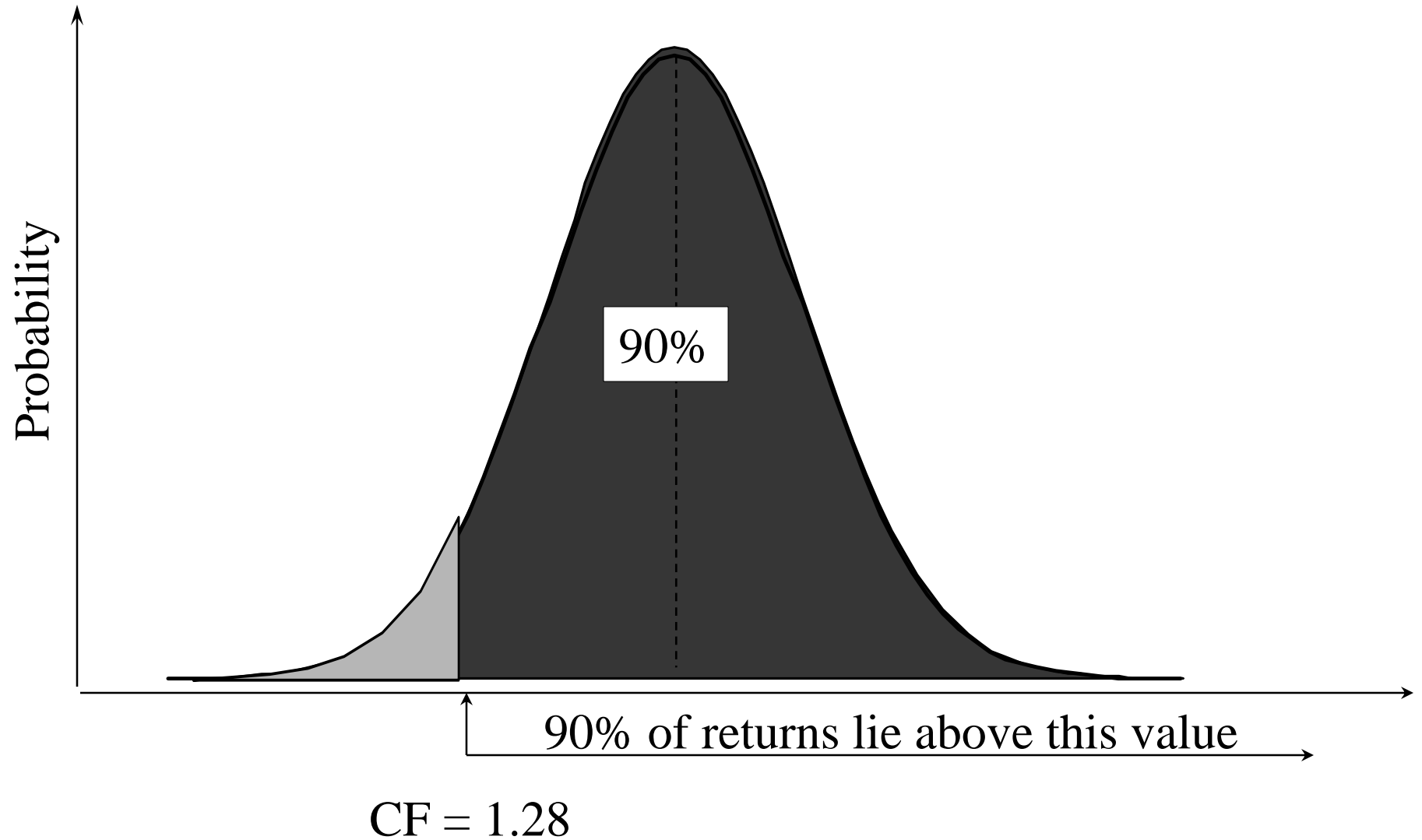
Confidence Intervals



10%

90% of returns lie above this value

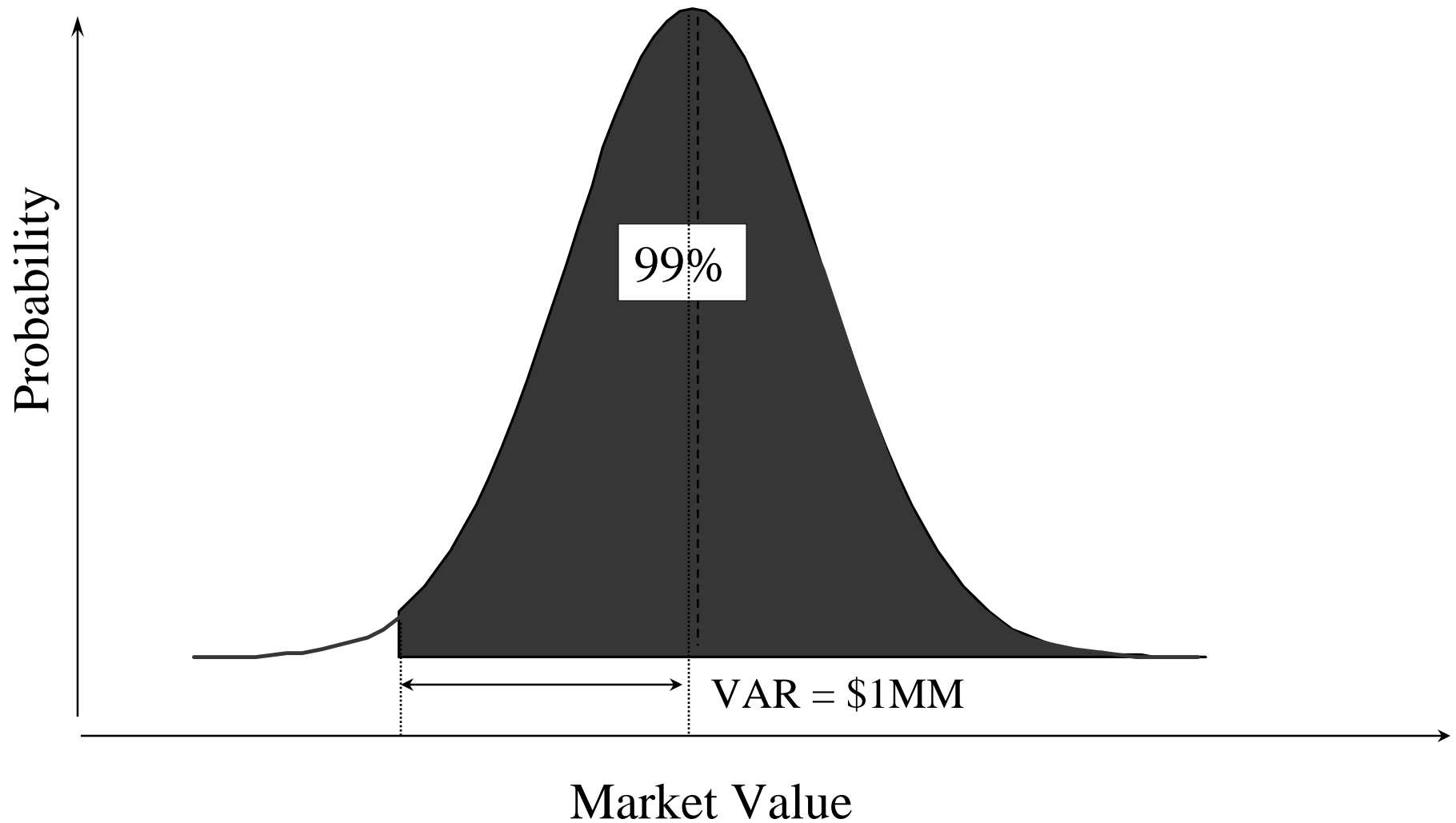
Confidence Factor



Value at Risk

- Measures the *maximum expected loss*
 - For a given *holding period*
 - For a given *confidence level*
 - ✓ chosen by the portfolio manager
- Example
 - Portfolio with daily VAR of \$1MM with 99% confidence
 - ✓ There is a 1% chance that the portfolio will lose more than \$1MM in the next 24 hours

Value at Risk



Using VAR for Simple Risk Comparisons

- VAR gives a simple yardstick:
 - Portfolio A: VAR \$30MM over 30 days, 99% conf.
 - Portfolio B: VAR \$10MM over 30 days, 99% conf.
 - If both A & B have same value, which is riskier?

VAR Question

- A VAR of \$1MM, with 87% conf means:
 - Portfolio is expected to return at least 13%?
 - Portfolio manager is 87% sure he will earn less than \$1MM?
 - Portfolio manager is 87% sure he will not lose more than \$1MM?
 - There is a 13% chance that the portfolio will earn more than \$1MM?

Calculating VAR

➤ Portfolio VAR

- $VAR = \text{Market Value} \times \text{Confidence Factor} \times \text{Volatility}$

➤ Example:

- Portfolio value \$10MM
- Daily volatility 5%
- Confidence level = 88%
 - ✓ $CF = 1.17$
- $DAILY\ VAR = \$10MM \times 1.17 \times 0.05 = \$585,000$
 - ✓ Interpretation: there is a 12% chance the portfolio will lose more than \$585,000 in a day

Portfolio Volatility & VAR

- Use historical correlations to estimate portfolio volatility

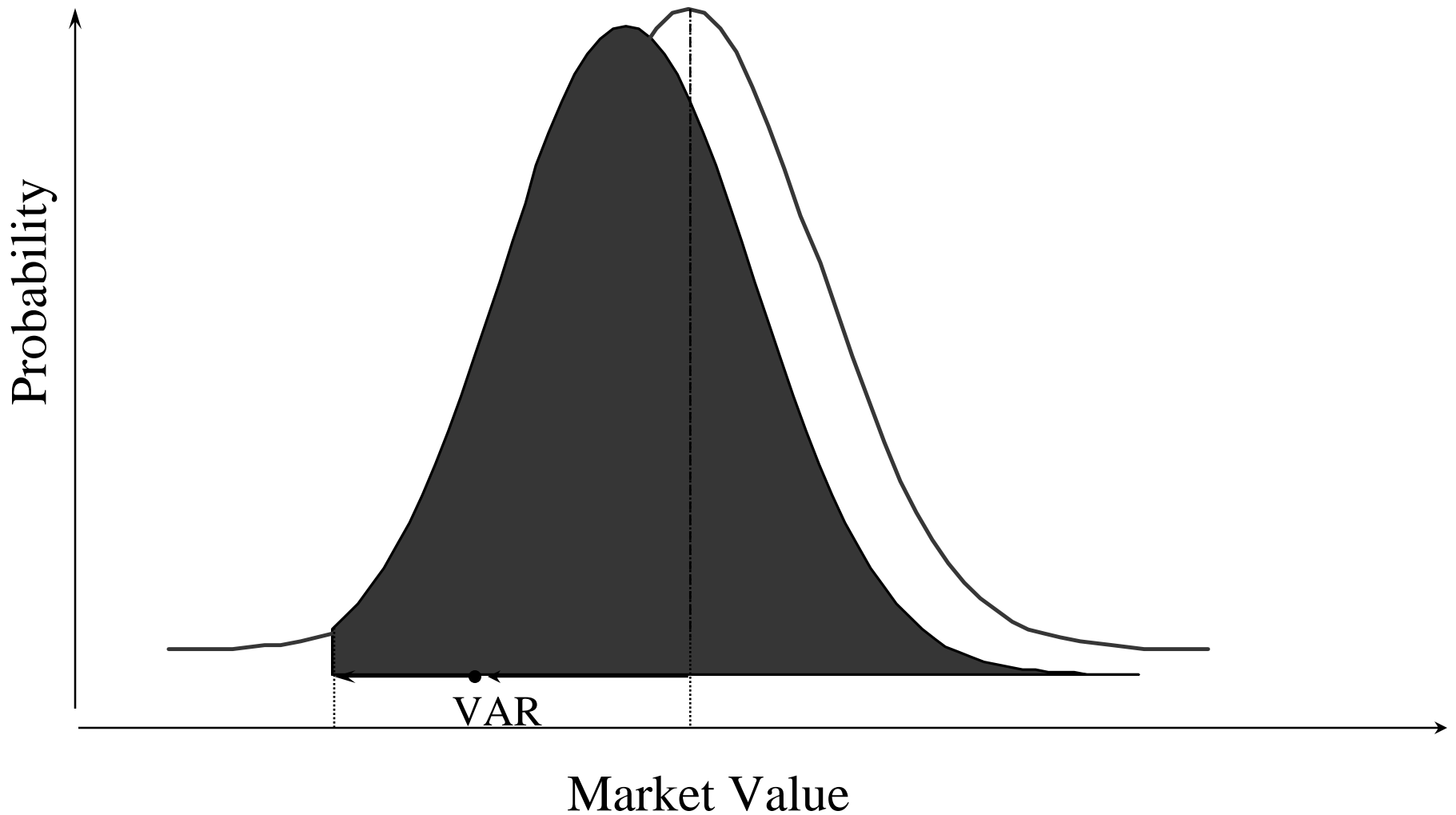
$$\sigma_p = \sqrt{\left[\sum \omega_i^2 \sigma_i^2 + \sum_I \sum_{I \neq J} \omega_I \omega_J \rho_{IJ} \sigma_I \sigma_J \right]}$$

- RiskMetrics (JP Morgan)
 - ✓ provides estimates of volatilities and correlations of returns (daily, monthly) using 75 day data

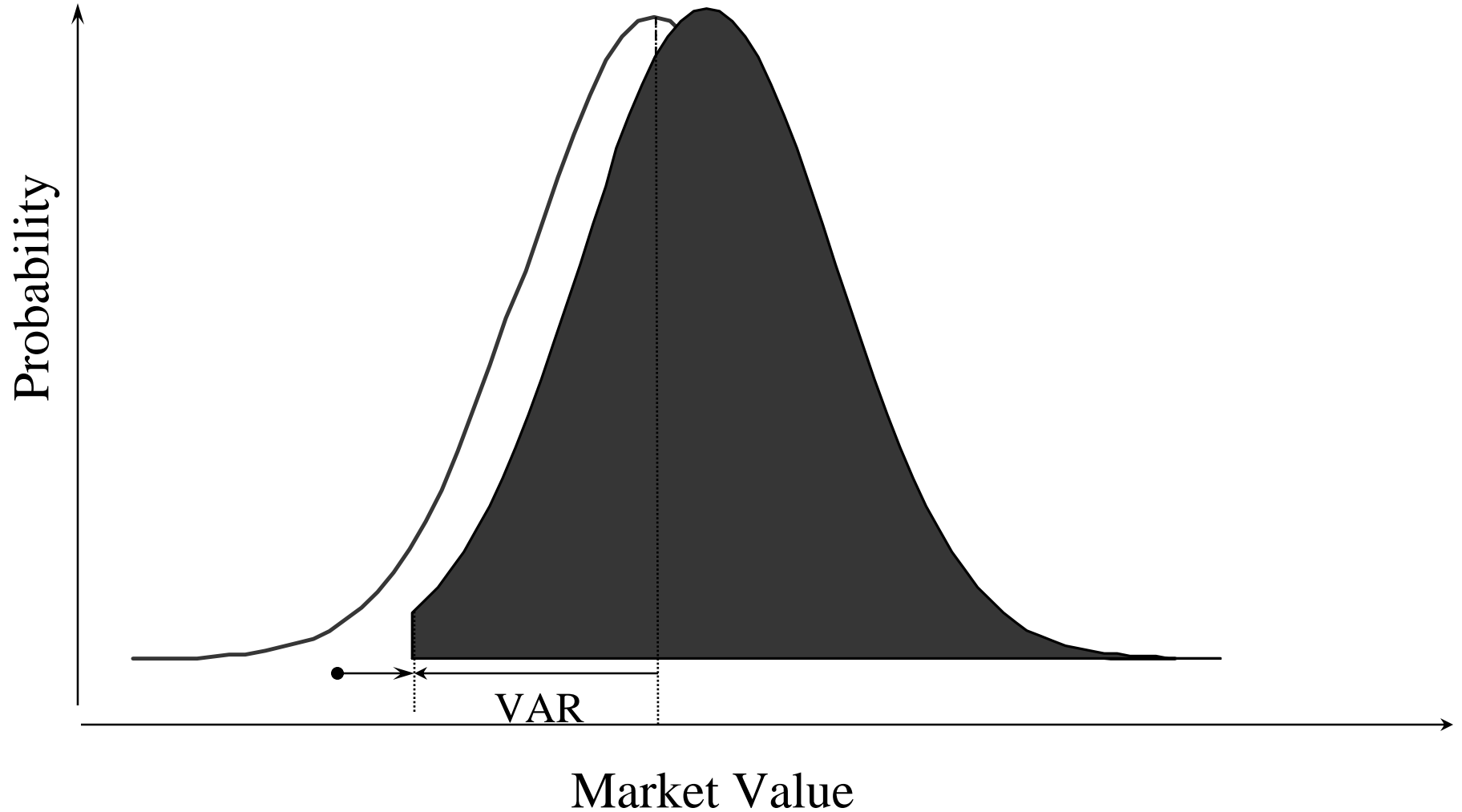
Factors Affecting VAR

- VAR reflects 3 key aspects of Risk Mgt.
 - The *probability distribution* of portfolio returns
 - ✓ Parameters: mean, volatility
 - The degree of *risk aversion* of the portfolio manager
 - The *holding period* of concern

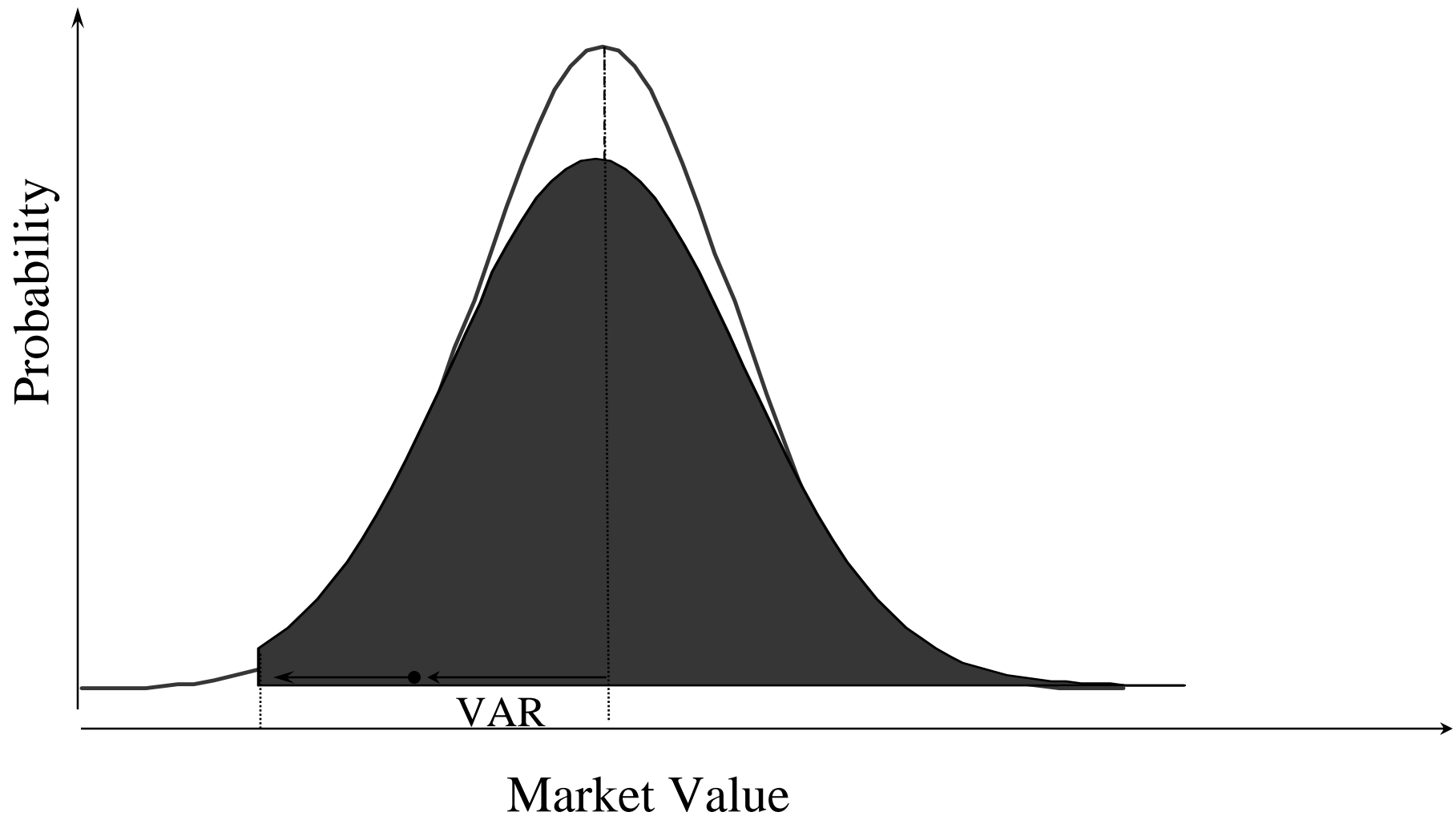
VAR & Lower Average Returns



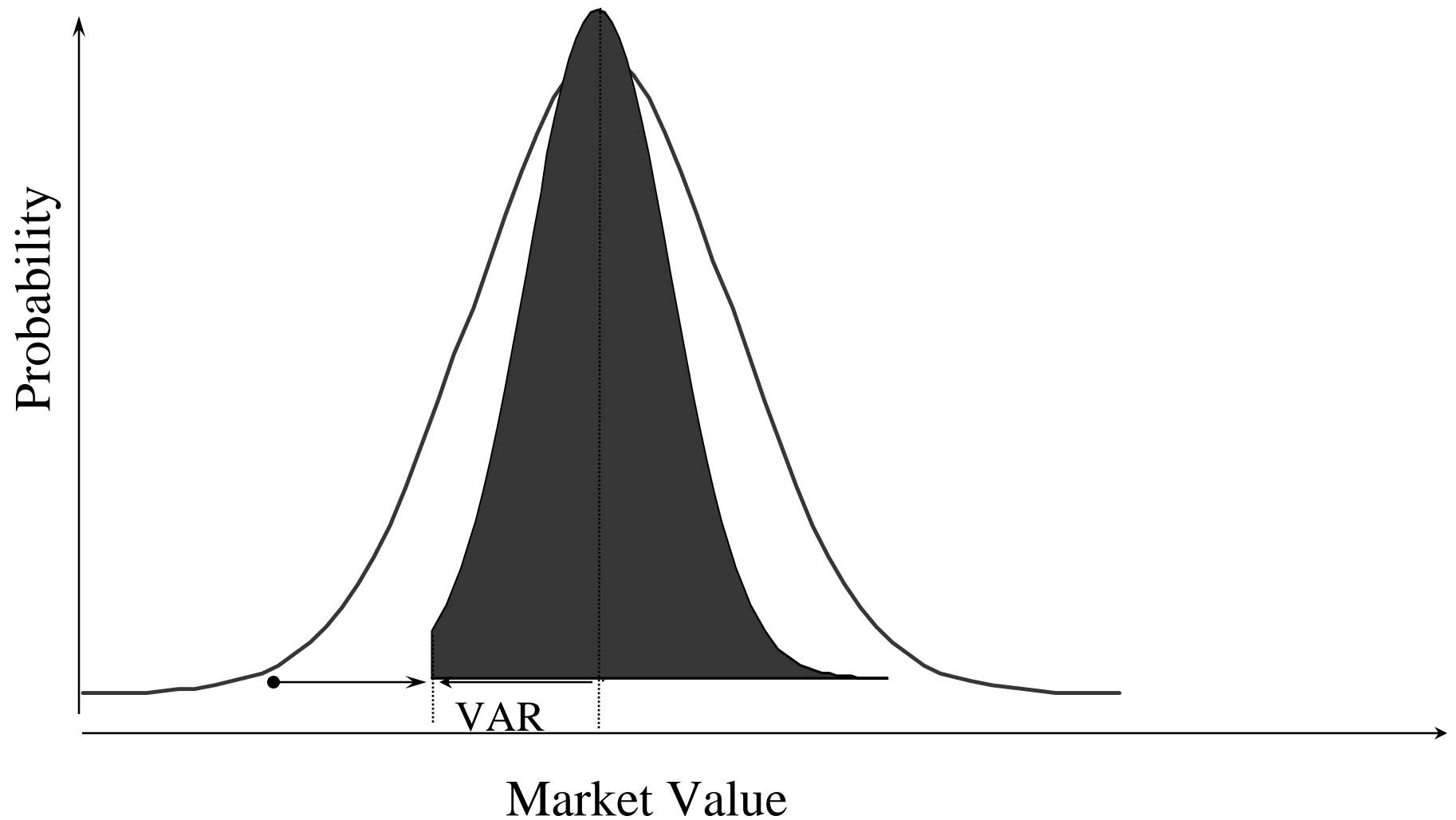
VAR & Higher Average Returns



VAR & Higher Volatility



VAR & Lower Volatility



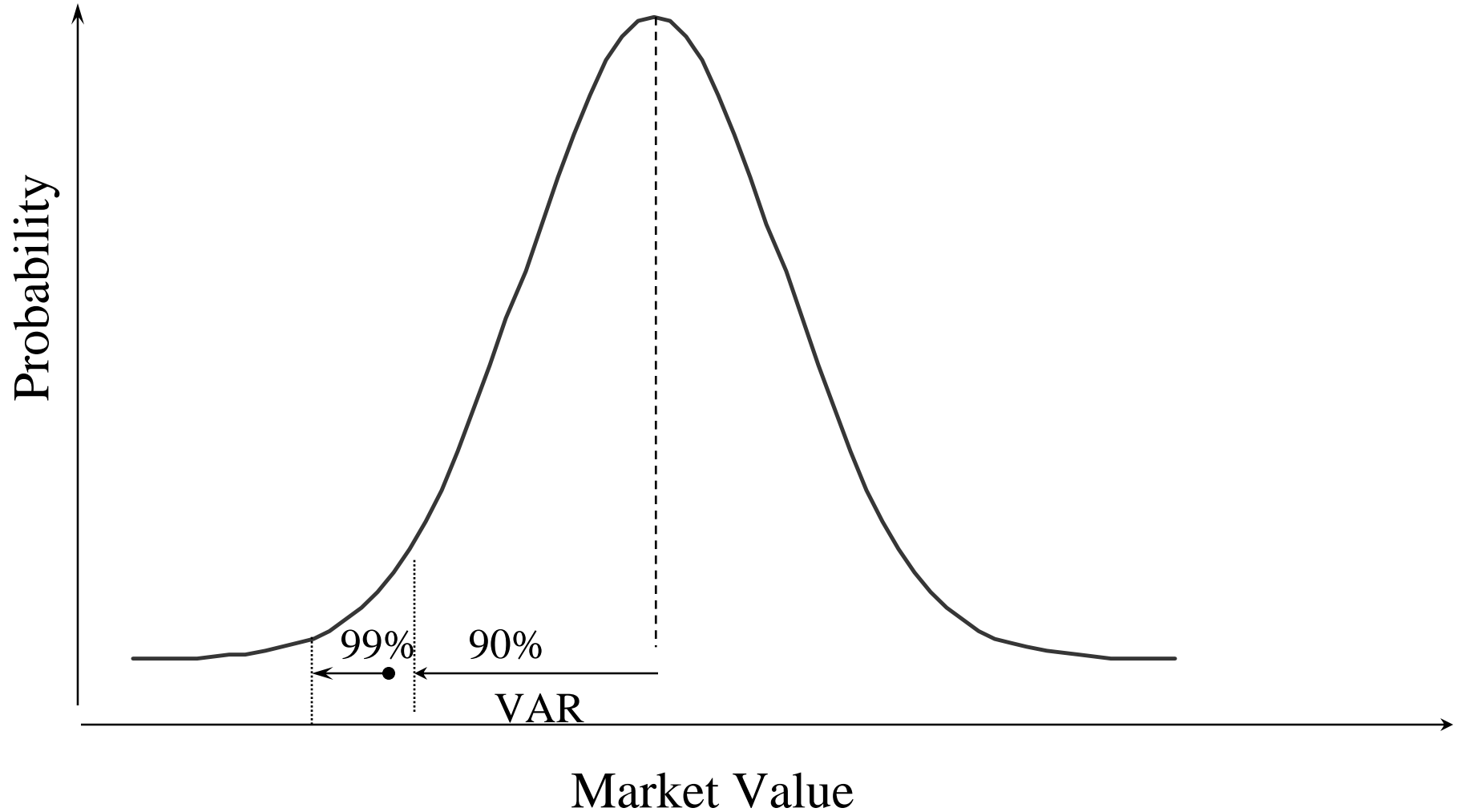
VAR & Distribution of Returns

- VAR will *increase*
 - With rising volatility
 - Lower average returns
- VAR will *decrease*
 - With falling volatility
 - Higher average returns
 - ✓ NB effect of changing average returns is usually negligible for short holding periods

VAR and Confidence Levels

- A more risk-averse manager will want to determine VAR with greater confidence
 - Increasing the confidence level will increase VAR
 - Decreasing the confidence level will decrease VAR

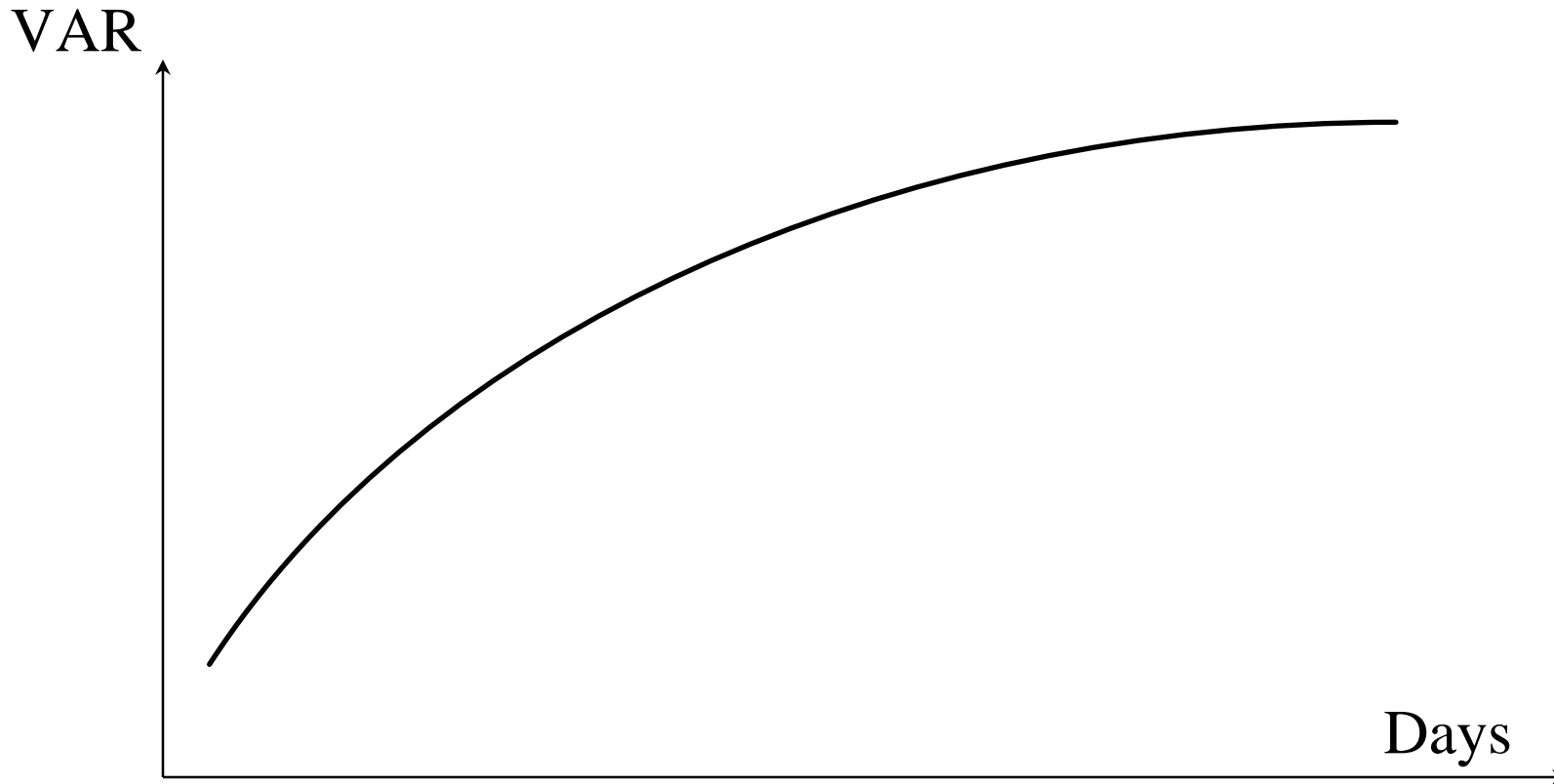
VAR & Confidence Levels



VAR and Holding Period Formula

- Volatility normally quoted on annual basis
 - ✓ Hence previous formula gives VAR on annual basis
- Holding Period Adjustment (Sqrt time rule)
 - $\text{VAR} = \text{Market Value} \times \text{Confidence Factor} \times \text{Volatility} \times T^{1/2}$
 - ✓ Volatility is in % per annum
 - $T = \frac{\text{\# days in holding period}}{\text{\# trading days in year (252)}}$

VAR and Holding Period



- ✓ As Holding Period lengthens, VAR increases
- ✓ As Holding Period shortens, VAR decreases

Selection of Confidence Levels

- Confidence intervals
 - Basle Committee: 99%
 - Others:
 - ✓ Chase-Chemical 97.5%
 - ✓ BoA, JP Morgan 95%
- Holding period
 - Basle Committee: 10 days
 - Others:
 - ✓ Investment management: 1 month typical
 - ✓ Trading house: 1 day

VAR and Derivatives

- VAR for a derivative portfolio:
 - Portfolio value changes with underlying asset
 - Hence adjust formula for portfolio delta
 - May also need to adjust for non-linear, second-order effects (Gamma, convexity)

Normal Models

➤ Delta-Normal

- ✓ Simple, linear model uses derivatives delta
- ✓ Ignores high-order effects

➤ Non-Linear Model

- ✓ Makes adjustments for non-linear effects (Gamma risk)
- ✓ Important for derivatives portfolios

The Delta-Normal Model

- $VAR = \text{Market Value} \times \text{Confidence Factor} \times \text{Volatility} \times \text{Delta}$
- Same as previous model, just incorporating delta
 - ✓ NB: stock portfolio: $\text{delta} = 1$
 - A simple linear function of delta
 - Assumes that returns are normally distributed
 - If necessary, adjust volatility by $T^{1/2}$ for appropriate holding period, as before

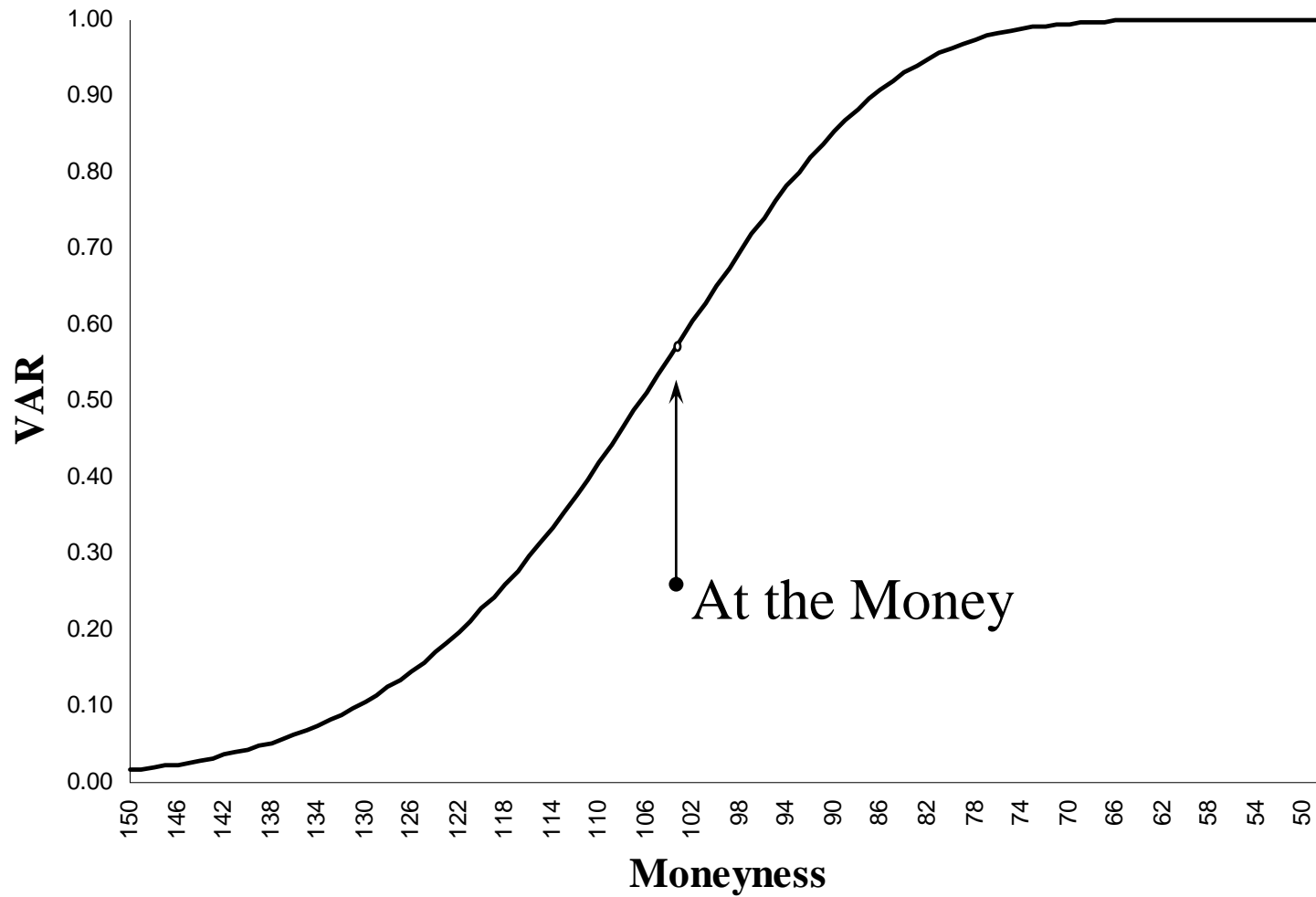
Derivative Portfolio VAR Example

- Long S&P100 OEX index calls
 - Market value \$9.45MM
 - Daily volatility 1%
 - Option delta 0.5
 - Confidence level 99% (CF = 2.33)
- $\text{VAR} = \$9.45 \times 2.33 \times .01 \times 0.5 = \$110,000$
 - There is a 1% chance that the call portfolio will lose more than \$110K in a day

Options & VAR

- A deep In-the-Money option
 - Has approximately same VAR as underlying stock
 - ✓ Assuming equal \$ amounts invested in each
 - Only true for short-term holding periods - Why?
 - Answer:
 - ✓ Delta of ITM option ~ 1
 - ✓ For long holding period, greater chance that option will expire OTM

VAR & Delta



VAR and Delta

- VAR increases with Delta
 - Minimum for OTM options, delta ~ 0
 - Maximum for ITM options, delta ~ 1
 - Changes most rapidly for
 - ✓ ATM options
 - ✓ Short maturity options
 - because of Gamma

Delta-Normal VAR: Equivalent Formulation

☞ $VAR = S \times CF \times \sigma \times \Delta_p$

- S = underlying (stock) price
- CF = confidence factor
- σ = volatility
- Δ_p = Delta of portfolio

VAR and Gamma

- Gamma adjustment required for
 - ATM options
 - Short-dated options
- Gamma risk is minor for
 - Deep ATM/OTM long dated options
 - Short holding periods

VAR Formula - Gamma Adjusted

$$\triangleright \text{VAR} = S \times CF \times \sigma \times [\Delta_p^2 + \frac{1}{2} (S \times \sigma \times \Gamma)^2]^{1/2}$$

- S = underlying stock price
- CF = confidence factor
- σ = volatility
- Γ = Gamma
- Δ_p = Delta of portfolio

✓ Note: same as Delta-Normal model when $\Gamma = 0$

VAR & Gamma Risk Example

- Long 1000 ATM calls
 - Stock price is \$50
 - Daily volatility 1.57% (25% annual)
 - Portfolio delta 700
 - Gamma is 27.8
 - Confidence level 95% (CF = 1.65)
- $VAR = \$50 \times 1.65 \times 0.0157 \times [700^2 + \frac{1}{2}(50 \times 0.0157 \times 27.8)^2]^{1/2} = \907
 - There is a 5% chance that the call portfolio will lose more than \$907 in a day

Limitations of Delta Normal Model

- Formula allows us to compute VAR for different holding periods
- Can be misleading, because depends on delta
- Two main sources of error:
 - Delta changes as underlying changes
 - ✓ Use Gamma adjustment where significant
 - Gamma changes over time
 - ✓ Gamma increases as maturity approaches
 - ✓ High-order effect produces very rapid changes in VAR

Model Testing

- *Back testing* recommended by Basle Committee
- Check the *failure rate*
 - Proportion of times VAR is exceeded in given sample
 - Compare proportion p with confidence level
- Problem:
 - Hard to verify VAR for small confidence intervals
 - ✓ Need very many sample periods to obtain adequate test

Failure Rates

- Test Statistic: see Kupiec 1995
 - $1 + 2\text{Ln}[(1-p)^{T-N}p^N] - 2\text{Ln}[(1-(N/T))^{T-N} (N/T)^N]$
 - ✓ ChiSq distribution, 1d.f.
 - ✓ $N = \#$ failures; $T =$ Total sample size
- Example: Confidence level = 5%
 - Expected # failures = $0.05 \times 255 = 13$
 - Rejection region is $6 < N < 21$
 - ✓ If # failures lies in this range, model is adequate
 - ✓ If $N > 21$, model underestimates large loss risk
 - ✓ If $N < 6$, model overestimates large loss risk

Additional Tests

- Christofferson (1996)
 - Interval test for VAR
 - Very general approach
- Zangari Excessive Loss Test (1995)
 - Calculates expected losses in “tail” event

$$E [R_t | R_t < \alpha \sigma_t] = -\sigma_t f(\alpha) / F(\alpha)$$

- F and f are standard Normal density / Distribution fns
- Use t-test to compare sample mean losses against expected

Lopez Probability Forecasting Approach

- Most tests have low power
 - Likely to misclassify a bad model as good
 - Especially when data set is small

- Lopez Approach

- Uses forecasting loss function
 - ✓ e.g Brier Quadratic Probability Score

$$QPS = 2 \sum_{t=1}^T (p_t^f - I_t)^2 / T$$

- ✓ p_t is forecast probability of event taking place in interval t
 - ✓ I_t takes value 1 if event takes place, zero otherwise
- Correctly identifies true model in large majority of simulated cases

Adjusting for Fat Tails

- Standardized residual process

$$R_r / \sigma_t = \varepsilon_t$$

- $\varepsilon_t \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$

- Zangari's Normal Mixture Approach

$$R_r / \sigma_t = \varepsilon_{1,t} + \delta_t \varepsilon_{2,t}$$

- δ_t is binary variable, usually 0, sometimes 1
- $\varepsilon_{2,t} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_t, \sigma_{2t})$

Zenari's GED

➤ Generalized Error Distribution

$$f(\varepsilon_t) = \frac{\nu e^{-(1/2)|\varepsilon_t/\lambda|^\nu}}{2^{(1+1/\nu)} \Gamma(1/\nu)}$$

$$\lambda = [2^{-(2/\nu)} \nu \Gamma(1/\nu) / 3]^{1/2}$$

- Normal distribution when $\nu = 2$
- Probability of extreme event rises as ν gets smaller

Empirical Tests

➤ Zengari (1996)

- Tested Standard Normal, Normal Mixture and GED VAR
 - ✓ 12 FX and equity time series
- All performed well at the 95% confidence level
- Normal Mixture and GED performed considerably better at 99% confidence level

➤ Conclusion

- Both NM and GED improve on Normal VAR

Position Mapping

- Huge amount of data required for VAR computations
 - N separate volatilities
 - $N(N-1)/2$ cross-correlations
 - Large variance-covariance matrices tend not to be positive definite
- Need to reduce dimensionality of problem

Mapping Procedures

➤ RiskMetrics Approach

- Select core set of instruments as representative
 - ✓ Core currencies
 - ✓ Equity indices
 - ✓ Zero coupon bonds
 - ✓ Commodity futures contracts
- Map portfolio to representative securities
- Calculate VAR based on core instruments

Multivariate Analytical Mapping

- Factor or Principal Component Analysis
 - Portfolio returns are analyzed into a (small) number of different, independent factors
 - Drastically reduces dimensionality of problem
 - ✓ Factors are independent, hence all covar terms are 0
 - Each instrument is mapped to some linear combination of the factors
 - ✓ Linear parameters estimated by regression analysis
 - Technique is most useful for large, highly correlated portfolios

VAR Building Blocks

➤ VAR for FX Positions

- $VAR = -\alpha\sigma_E xE$

- ✓ σ_E is the exchange rate volatility

- ✓ xE is the size of the position in domestic currency units

- ✓ α is the confidence factor

VAR for Equity Positions

- Suppose we do not know the volatility and correlation data for a specific equity
- Use CAPM: $R_A = R_f + \beta(R_M - R_f)$

- Volatility of firm's returns is:

$$\sigma_A = \sqrt{\beta_A^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon A}}$$

- $VAR = -\alpha \sigma_A X$

- For large diversified portfolio, firm specific risk is eliminated

- $VAR = -\alpha \beta_A \sigma_M X$

VAR for Bonds

➤ Map to ZCB's

- $VAR = -\alpha\sigma_R B \approx -\alpha D y \sigma_y B$

- ✓ D is modified duration

- ✓ Y is yield to maturity

- ✓ σ_R is return volatility

- ✓ σ_y is yield volatility

- ✓ B is PV of bond cashflow

➤ Timing of cash flows

- e.g. 6 year cash flow

- Map to linear combination of 5 and 7 year cashflows

VAR for Forwards / Futures

➤ $VAR = -\alpha\sigma_F xF$

- σ_F is volatility of forward / futures price
- xF is value of our forward position

VAR for More Complex Positions

- Coupon Bonds
 - Decompose into ZCB's
- FRN's
 - Equivalent to par coupon bonds
- Interest Rate Swaps
 - Equivalent to long coupon bond, short FRN
- Options
 - Compute VAR for replicating stock/bond portfolio
- FRA's
 - Long long-term ZCB, short short-term ZCB

Other Approaches to VAR

- Historical Simulation
- Stress Testing
- Monte-Carlo Simulation

Historical Simulation

➤ Calculation

- Calculate return on portfolio over past period
- Calculate historical return distribution
- Look at -1.65σ point, as before

➤ Pros & Cons

- Does not rely on normal distribution
- Only one path (could be unrepresentative)

Stress Testing

- Scenario approach:
 - Simulates effect of large movements in key financial variables
- E.g. Derivatives Policy Group Guidelines
 - ✓ Parallel yield curve shifts +/- 100 bp
 - ✓ Yield curve twist +/- 25 bp
 - ✓ Equity index values change +/- 10%
 - ✓ Currency movements +/- 10%
 - ✓ Volatilities change +/- 20% of current values
- Pros & Cons
 - ✓ More than one scenario
 - ✓ Validity of scenarios is crucial
 - ✓ Handles correlations poorly

Monte Carlo Simulation

- Sometimes called “full valuation” method
- Widely applicable
 - Does not assume Normal distribution
 - Handles all types of securities

Monte-Carlo Methodology

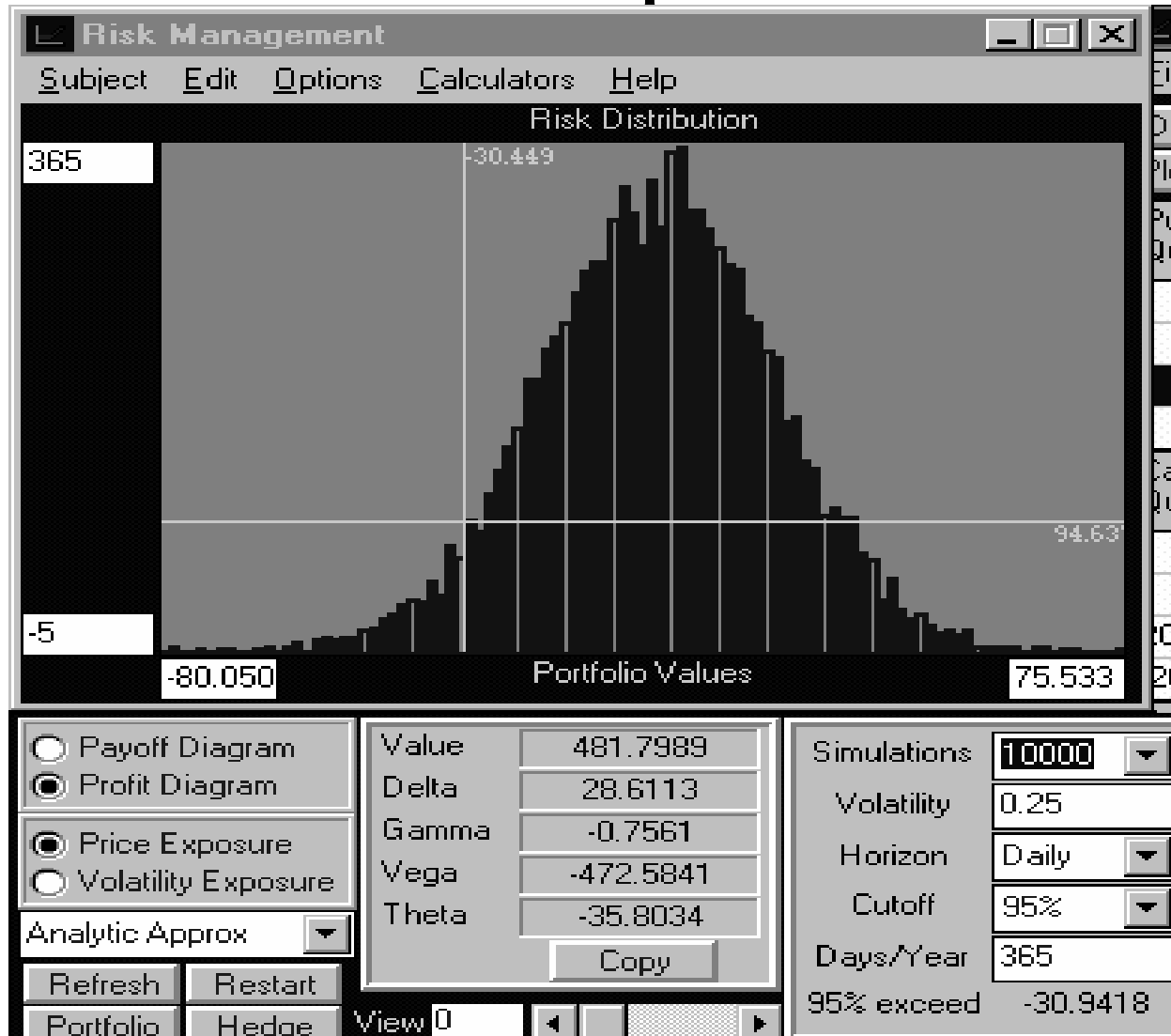
- Simulate movement in asset value
 - Repeat 10,000 times, get 10,000 future values
 - Create histogram
 - ✓ Find cutoff value such that 95% of calculated values exceed cutoff
- Cutoff value is the portfolio VAR
 - ✓ For given confidence level (95%)
 - ✓ For given holding period

Generating Simulated Values

- $\Delta S = S_0 \times (\mu + \sigma \varepsilon)$
 - ✓ ΔS is change in value
 - ✓ S_0 is initial value
 - ✓ μ is average daily return
 - ✓ σ is daily volatility
 - ✓ ε is random variable

- Procedure:
 - Generate ε (random)
 - Compute change in portfolio value
 - Repeat many times (10,000+)
 - Create a histogram of portfolio values

Example



Lab: Implementing a VAR Model

- Implementing a VAR model:
 - Delta normal
 - Delta-Gamma
 - Monte-Carlo simulation
- Hedging
 - Delta neutral
 - Delta-Gamma
- Worksheet: Risk Management

Summary

- Value at Risk
- Factors affecting VAR
- VAR & Derivatives
- The Delta-Normal Model
- Other VAR models