

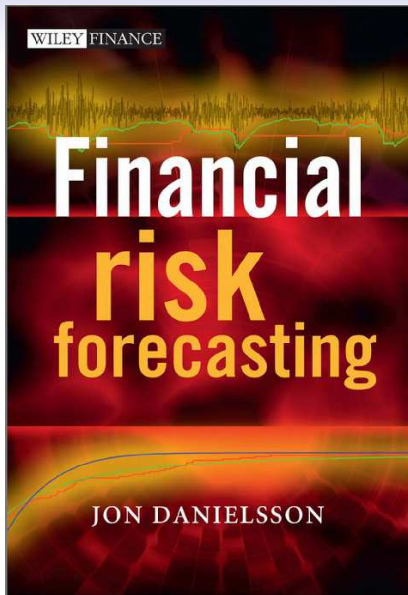
# Financial Risk Forecasting

## Chapter 5

### Implementing Risk Forecasts

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London School of Economics

To accompany  
*Financial Risk Forecasting*  
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# The focus of this chapter is on

- Techniques for implementing risk forecasting, especially
- Historical simulation
- Risk measures and parametric methods
- Expected returns
- VaR with time-dependent volatility

# Notation

$K$	Number of assets
$w$	$K \times 1$ vector of portfolio weights
$w_k$	Portfolio weight on asset $k$
$X$ and $Y$	Two different assets
$\varphi(\cdot)$	Risk measure
$\vartheta$	Portfolio value
$y_k = \{y_{t,k}\}_{t=1}^T$	$T \times 1$ vector of returns on asset $k$
$y = T \times K$	$T \times K$ matrix of historical returns
$\Sigma$	$K \times K$ covariance matrix

# Historical simulation

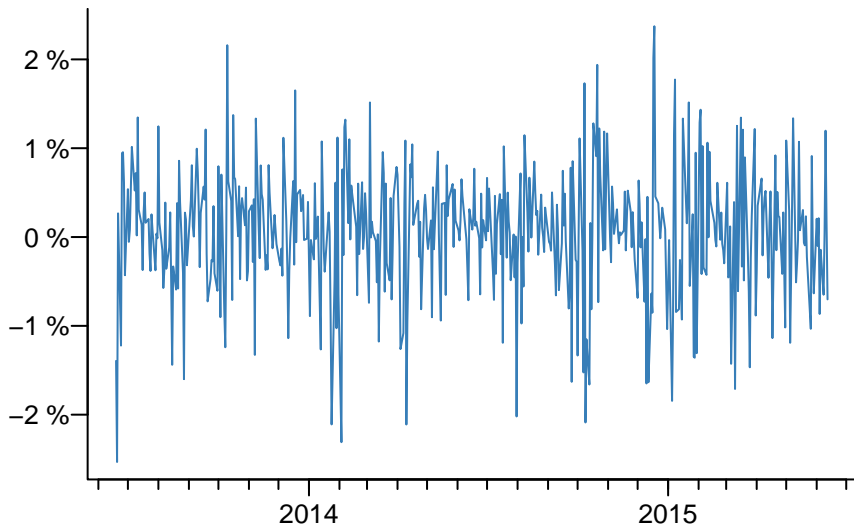
# Historical simulation

- For one asset,
- Assumes that one of the observations in the estimation window will be the next day return, therefore
- Assume history repeats itself
- VaR is one of the observations in the estimation window, multiplied by the monetary value of the asset holdings, the portfolio value  $\vartheta_t$ . In the one asset case

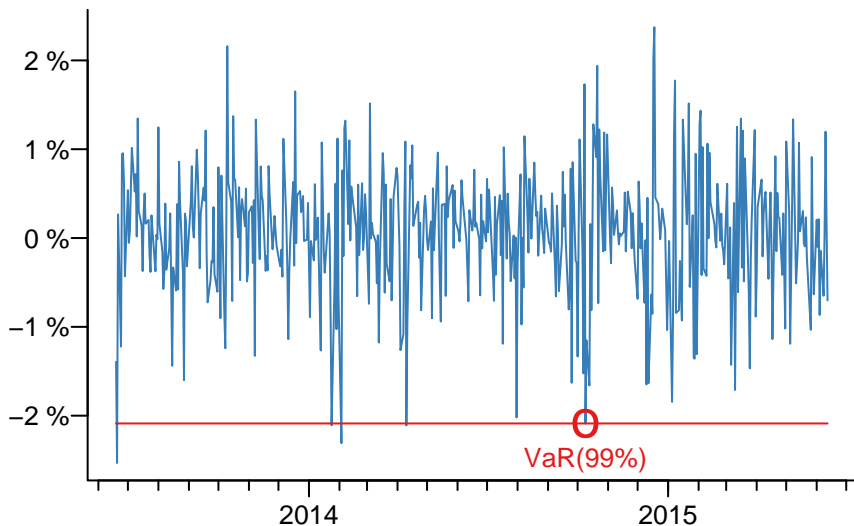
$$\vartheta_t = \text{number of stocks owned} \times P_t$$

- $\text{VaR}_t$  is the negative of the  $(W_E \times p)^{\text{th}}$  smallest return, times  $\vartheta_r$

# 500 days of the S&P 500

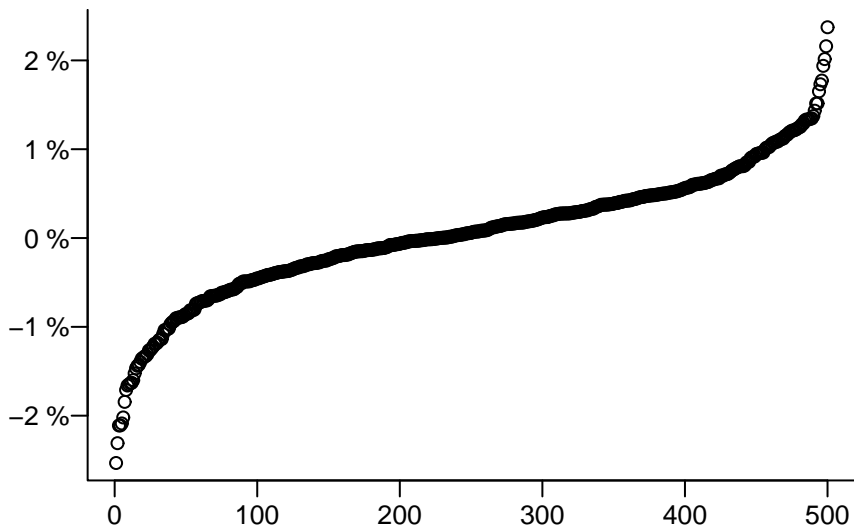


# 500 days of the S&P 500

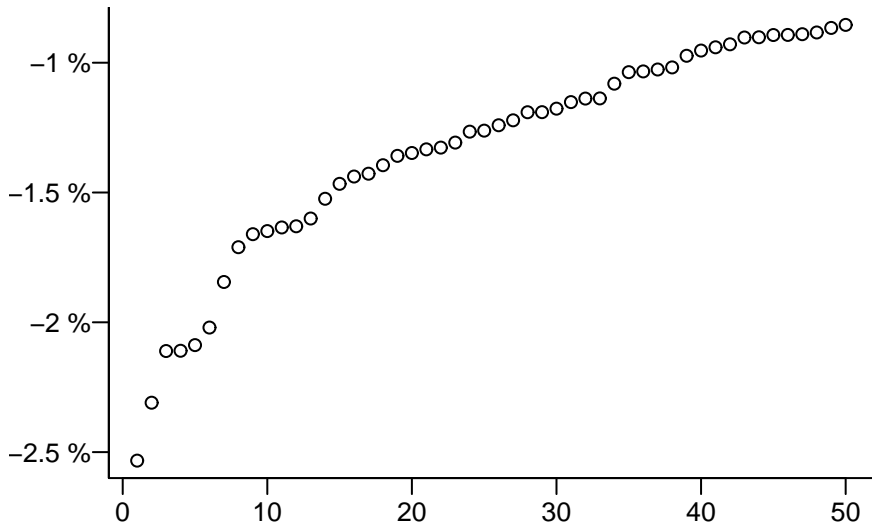




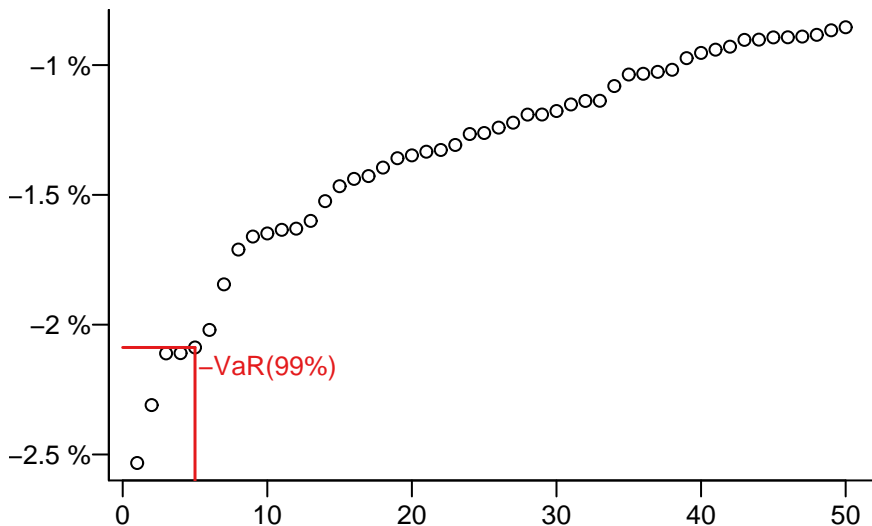
# Sorted returns



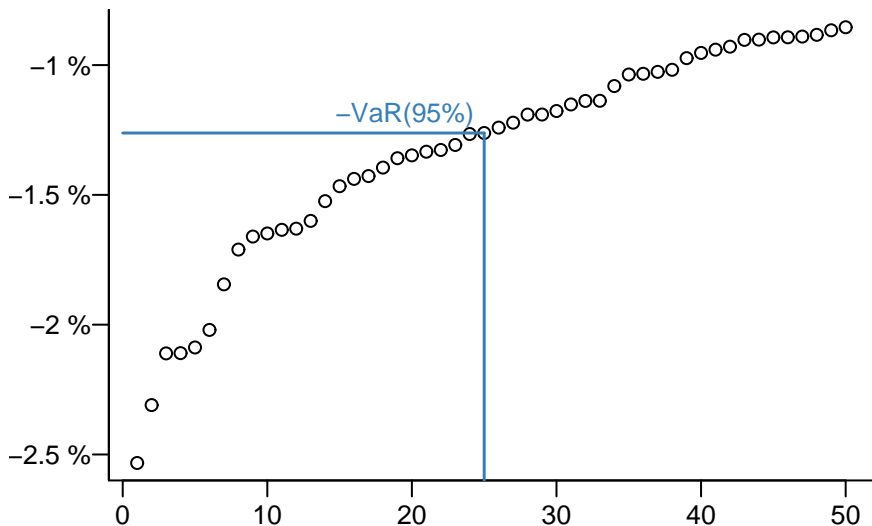
# Zoom in



# Zoom in



# Zoom in



# Procedure

- Identify probability,  $p$ , e.g. 1%
- Take  $W_E$  of the most recent returns (e.g. 1000)
- Sort them from the smallest to the largest, call that  $ys$
- Take the  $(W_E \times p)^{\text{th}} = (1000 \times 0.01)^{\text{th}}$  smallest value of  $ys$ , call that  $ys_{10}$
- If you own one stock, and  $P_{t-1} = 1$ , then VaR is the 10<sup>th</sup> smallest return, i.e.  $\text{VaR} = -ys_{10}$
- Otherwise have to multiply that by the number of stocks you own and their  $t - 1$  price

# Multiple assets

- Create a vector of historical portfolio returns
- $y$  is a  $T \times K$  matrix of returns
- $w$  is a  $K \times 1$  vector of portfolio weights
- We then get the timeseries vector of portfolio returns by

$$y_{\text{portfolio}} = yw$$

- And then you can simply treat the portfolio as if it were a single asset and apply HS

# Expected shortfall estimation

- The expected losses conditional on VaR being violated
- Estimated by HS by taking the
- Mean of all observations less than or equal to -VaR
- Continuing with the single asset accent from above

$$ES = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} y_{Si}$$

## Importance of sample size

- The most extreme observations fluctuate a lot more than observations that are less extreme
- Therefore, the bigger the sample the more precise the estimation of HS should be
- The downside is that old data may not be all that representative
- And if there is a structural break in the data (like in 2007) the VaR forecasts take longer to adjust to structural changes in risk
- As a general rule
- Minimum recommended sample size:

$$\frac{3}{\rho}$$



# Issues

- No model assumptions needed
- In the absence of structural breaks HS tends to perform well
- It captures nonlinear dependence directly
- But performs badly when data has structural breaks
- This can be seen in the discussion about backtesting in Chapter 8

# Parametric methods

# Parametric and nonparametric

- HS does not use any distribution and therefore has no distributional parameters — it is *nonparametric*
- In all other cases, we have some distribution, and distributions have parameters — *parametric*
- For the remainder of this section assume we have one day, so we don't have to specify time,  $t$
- The density of returns is then  $f(x)$
- And the distribution is  $F(x)$

# Recall

- The definition of VaR is

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \Pr[Q \leq -\text{VaR}(p)] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{-\text{VaR}(p)} f_q(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

- Profit and loss when we own one stock

$$Q_t = P_t - P_{t-1}$$

# VaR for simple returns

The definition of simple returns is

$$R_t = \frac{P_t - P_{t-1}}{P_{t-1}}$$

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- Denote the distribution of standardized returns,  $R_t/\sigma$ , by

$$F_R(\cdot)$$

- The inverse distribution is  $F_R^{-1}(p)$

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- So

$$\text{VaR}_t(p) = -\sigma F_R^{-1}(p) P_{t-1}$$

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when  $-\text{VaR}(p)/P_{t-1} \leq 1$

- Denote the distribution of standardized returns ( $Y_t/\sigma$ ) by

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- So

$$\text{VaR}(p) = -(\exp(F_y^{-1}(p)\sigma) - 1)P_{t-1}$$

- For small  $F_y^{-1}(p)\sigma$  the VaR for holding one unit of asset is:

$$\text{VaR}(p) \approx -\sigma F_y^{-1}(p)P_{t-1}$$

- VaR for continuously compounded returns is approximately the same as the VaR using simple returns

# When there is more than one asset

- In the two assets case

$$\sigma_{\text{portfolio}}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 & w_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- And generally in the  $K$  asset case

$$\sigma_{\text{portfolio}}^2 = w' \Sigma w$$

- Then as before

$$\text{VaR}(p) = -\sigma_{\text{portfolio}} F^{-1}(p) P_{t-1}$$

# VaR when returns are normally distributed

- $\vartheta = 1, \sigma = 1, p = 0.05$

$$\text{VaR} = -\Phi^{-1}(0.05) = 1.64$$

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$$\text{VaR} = -\Phi^{-1}(0.05) = 1.64$$

- If  $\sigma$  does not equal one, then the VaR is:

$$\text{VaR} = \sigma 1.64$$

- If portfolio value is not equal to 1:

$$\text{VaR} = \sigma 1.64 \vartheta$$

# VaR under the Student-t distribution

- Advantage of Student-t VaR over normal is fat tails
- $\nu$  indicates how fat tails are
- When  $\nu = \infty$  the Student-t becomes normal

## Adjusting for variance

- Variance implied by  $\nu$  of a *standard* Student-t distribution is:

$$\frac{\nu}{\nu - 2}$$

- If  $\nu \leq 2$  variance of Student-t is not defined
- Volatility shows up in  $F^{-1}(p)$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$
- VaR would be overestimated if sample variance is used
- Volatility estimate *may* need to be scaled by  $\nu$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\nu}{\nu - 2} \tilde{\sigma}^2$$

- $\tilde{\sigma}^2$  is the variance in excess of that implied by the standard Student-t



# Expected shortfall under normality

- One needs to obtain VaR and then calculate the conditional expectation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ES} &= - \int_{-\infty}^{-\text{VaR}(\rho)} x f_{\text{VaR}}(x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{\rho} \int_{-\infty}^{-\text{VaR}(\rho)} x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma^2}\right) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{\rho} \left[ -\frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \right]_{-\infty}^{-\text{VaR}(\rho)}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Given that bound is zero and normal density is

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) :$$

$$ES = -\frac{\sigma^2 \phi(-\text{VaR}(p))}{p}$$

- If portfolio value is  $\vartheta$ :

$$ES = -\vartheta \frac{\sigma^2 \phi(-\text{VaR}(p))}{p}$$

# Expected returns

# Expected returns

- Is it reasonable to assume  $\mu = 0$ ?
- Given that statistical uncertainty is more than 10% in most VaR calculations, VaR calculation is only significant to one digit
- Mean is smaller than that
- For S&P 500:  $\mu = 0.019\%$ ,  $\sigma = 1.15\%$

# VaR with mean

- The definition of VaR is

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \Pr[Q \leq -\text{VaR}(p)] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{-\text{VaR}(p)} f_q(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

- Profit and loss when we own one stock, *and mean is zero*,  
 $E(Q) = 0$

$$Q_t = P_t - P_{t-1}$$

- If mean is not zero,  $E(Q) \neq 0$ , then the definition of VaR is

$$\Pr[Q + E(Q) \leq -\text{VaR}(p)] = p$$

so

$$\text{VaR}(p) = -\sigma F^{-1}(p) - \mu$$

- Note how the mean has a minus in front of it
- A positive mean pulls the distribution to the right
- Making VaR smaller

# Time aggregation of VaR with mean

- If the returns are IID, then both mean and variance aggregate at the same rate
- Mean and variance over  $T$  days is equal to  $T$  times mean and variance over one day
- Which implies that the volatility aggregates at the square root of time
- The  $T$ -period VaR is therefore:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{VaR}(T\text{day}) &= -\sigma(T\text{day})F^{-1}(p) - \mu(T\text{day}) \\ &= -\sqrt{T}\sigma(1\text{day})F^{-1}(p) - T\mu(1\text{day})\end{aligned}$$

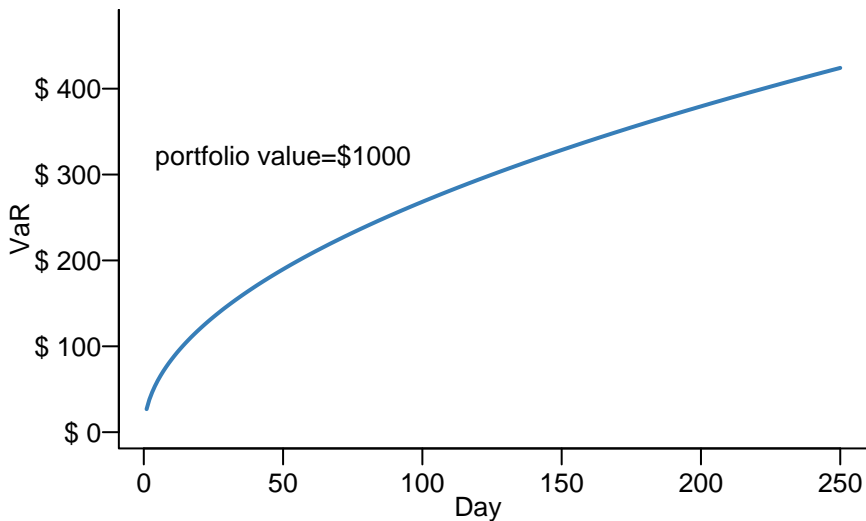
- And  $\sqrt{T} < T$

## SO...

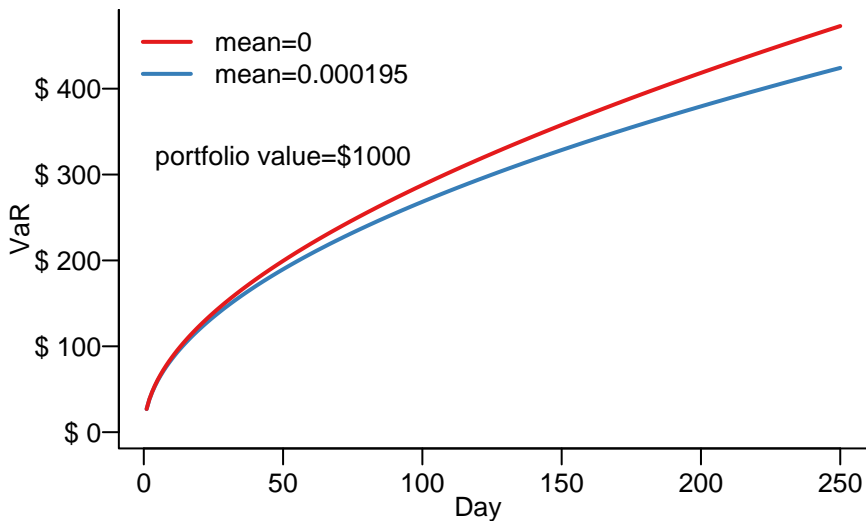
- The assumption  $\mu = 0$  is relatively harmless as the error is small at the daily level.
- Daily S&P 500:  $\mu = 0.019\%$ ,  $\sigma = 1.15\%$
- Annual:  $\mu = 4.87$ ,  $\sigma = 18.2$



# VaR when returns are not zero



# VaR when returns are not zero



# Issues in including the mean

- It is much more difficult to estimate the mean than the variance
- And unless necessary, should be avoided
- And for VaR over one day or 10 days is not necessary in most cases

# VaR with time dependent volatility

# VaR with time dependent volatility

- When using conditional volatility models, like EWMA and GARCH
- First update volatility
- And then calculate one day ahead VaR

# GARCH

- GARCH(1,1) is:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{t+1}^2 = \omega + \alpha Y_t^2 + \beta \sigma_t^2$$

- Software packages (R and Matlab) usually return the last volatility of the sample ( $\hat{\sigma}_t$ ), and the parameters
- One then needs to update the volatility by using  $\hat{\sigma}_t$  and the model parameters

$$\hat{\sigma}_{t+1}^2 = \hat{\omega} + \hat{\alpha} y_t^2 + \hat{\beta} \hat{\sigma}_t^2$$

- So the VaR at  $t + 1$  is

$$\widehat{\text{VaR}}_{t+1} = -\hat{\sigma}_{t+1} F_y^{-1}(p) \vartheta t$$