

MATH GR 5320

Financial Risk Management and Regulation

Lecture 3: Risk Measurement

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If mistakes are found, please return them to hjstein@columbia.edu

Outline

- ① Review
- ② Risk measurement
- ③ Risk measures
- ④ Formula derivations
- ⑤ Summary

Review

- 1 Review
- 2 Risk measurement
- 3 Risk measures
- 4 Formula derivations
- 5 Summary

Market structure

To understand risks, we need to know how the markets operate

- Players – Who is participating.
- Pieces – What are they buying and selling.
- Moves – How the players operate.

Players

Each market participant has a different role. We need to understand the roles.

- Banks
 - Investment banks
 - Retail banks
 - Other banking institutions – credit unions, savings and loans, etc.
 - Meta-banks – bank holding companies
- Market facilitators
 - Exchanges
 - Clearing houses
 - Broker-dealers
 - Securities firms
- Investors
 - Individuals
 - Insurance companies
 - Hedge funds
 - Institutional investors
 - Pension funds
 - Corporate treasuries
- Regulators

Post-crisis, regulation has become a much bigger part of the market.

- Deregulation prior to crisis
- Reregulation after the crisis

Major regulators:

- Federal Reserve Banks (FRB)
 - Bank holding companies, registered state banks
- US Treasury — Office of Comptroller of the Currency (OCC)
 - National banks
- Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) and The National Credit Union Administration (NCUA)
 - All depository institutions
- Securities and Exchanges Commission (SEC)
 - Trading – listings, security based swaps, hedge funds
- Commodity Futures Trading Commission (CFTC)
 - Trading – commodities, futures and options, other swaps
- Individual state regulatory agencies
 - State banks, community banks

Regulatory mechanisms

Banks are regulated by

- Monitoring activity and positions
- Analyzing potential losses of positions
- Requiring capital
- Reducing positions

Trading is regulated by

- Disclosure rules
- Trading rules (no insider trading)
- Investigations
- Capital requirements
- Margin requirements

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Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

What pieces do the players play with?

- Savings
- Loans
- Stocks
- Bonds
- Futures and options
- Structured products
- ...

The Moves

The activities are:

- Market making
- Transactional services
- Investing
- Hedging

Risk measurement

- 1 Review
- 2 Risk measurement**
- 3 Risk measures
- 4 Formula derivations
- 5 Summary

General risk measurement framework

Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

To manage risk, we need to be able to measure risk.

In general, for a portfolio V , we:

- Pick a relevant horizon time T
- Compute some statistics of V_T , the portfolio value at time T .

Key issue:

- What is the distribution of V_T ?

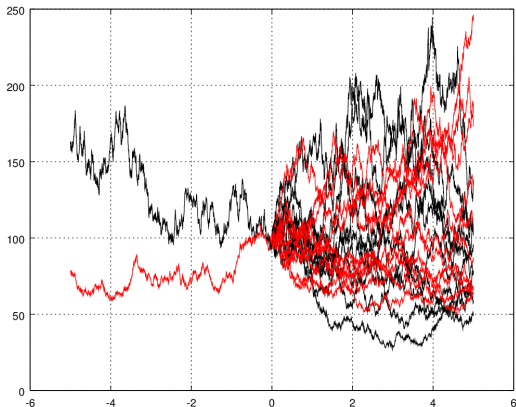


Figure: 10 sample paths for each of two stock processes, $dS_i = \mu_i S_i dt + \sigma_i S_i dW_i$, both start at 100, black with 30% vol and 7% return and red with 20% vol and 5% return.

Basic questions

Must answer the following questions in order to do risk calculations:

1. What factors affect the value of the portfolio?
2. What is the behavior of these factors?
3. What is the behavior of the P&L as a function of these factors?
4. How do I summarize the behavior of the P&L?

These are the four questions of risk analysis.

Each question is a step in the computation of a risk analytic.

Risk measurement steps

Detailed steps:

1. What factors affect the value of the portfolio?
 - Identify risk factors.
2. What is the behavior of these dependencies?
 - Model behavior of risk factors:
 - Develop a model.
 - Fit model to data.
 - Use model to yield future distribution of risk factors.
3. What is the behavior of the P&L as a function of these factors?
 - Use structure of portfolio and pricing functions to compute distribution of V_T .
4. How do I summarize the behavior of the P&L?
 - Compute risk measures, which are statistics on V_T .

Numerical methods

Method used depends on form of risk measures and pricing models:

- Analytically.
- Semi-analytically.
- Use approximations.
- Make simplifying assumptions.
- Use Monte Carlo.

Stock example – direct modeling

Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

Consider a portfolio of stocks – $V = \sum a_i S_i$

- Risk factors can be the S_i themselves.
- Assume GBM:
 - $dS_i = \mu_i S_i dt + \sigma_i S_i dW_i$
 - $dW_i dW_j = \rho_{ij} dt$
- Fit μ_i , σ_i and ρ_{ij} to historical data.
- Given assumed processes, $V_T = \sum a_i S_{i,T}$.
- Can now compute statistics of V_T .

Stock example – factor model

The same stock portfolio can be modeled with a factor model:

- Select risk factors R_j , such as momentum, industry return, etc.
- Model stocks as $dS_i = \sum_j \beta_{ij} dR_j + d\epsilon_i$.
- Model risk factors as well — GBM or ABM.
- Fit model to historical data.
- Changes in V are now given by changes in R_j and in ϵ_i .
- Can now compute statistics of V_T .

Stock example – option portfolio

Consider a portfolio of call options with maturities T_i , strikes K_i on stocks S_i (if more than one option on the same stock, can have $S_i = S_j$).

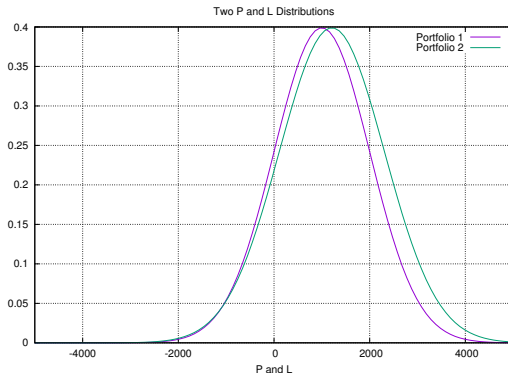
- Pricing model:
 - $V_T = \sum a_i C(T, S_{i,T}, K_i, T_i, \sigma_i, r(T, T_i))$.
 - C is the Black-Scholes formula and σ_i is the implied vol at time T for options on S_i maturing at T_i with strike K_i .
 - r is the time T rate for discounting from T_i to T .
- Need to model the S_i .
- Should also model r and σ_i , not to mention correlations between all of them, lest volatility and interest rate risk is ignored.
- Calibrate the model to historical data.
- Start it off at the current market.
- The above pricing formula gives V_T as a function of the market factors.
- Now compute statistics.

Risk measures

- 1 Review
- 2 Risk measurement
- 3 Risk measures**
- 4 Formula derivations
- 5 Summary

Consider the P&L distribution of two different portfolios:

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Which portfolio is riskier?

- Need a statistic of the P&L distribution that measures the riskiness.
- Such a statistic is called a **risk measure**.

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Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

Desirable characteristics of a risk measure:

- Easy to compute.
- Easy to validate (backtestable and elicitable).
- Actionable – value tells you what to do.
- Not deceptive (e.g. coherent).
- Robust – small measurement errors do not cause large changes in risk measure.

One way for a risk measure to not be deceptive is if it is coherent.

We think of a risk measure as a function ρ of the P&L of a portfolio, where larger values mean greater risk.

A **coherent** risk measure is one that has the following desirable properties:

Normalized $\rho(0) = 0$

Monotonic $V \leq V' \implies \rho(V) \geq \rho(V')$

Positive homogeneity $\rho(\alpha V) = \alpha \rho(V)$ when $\alpha \geq 0$.

Translation invariance For a constant a , $\rho(V + a) = \rho(V) - a$

Subadditive $\rho(V + V') \leq \rho(V) + \rho(V')$

Some consider the larger class of **convex** risk measures. Instead of subadditivity and positive homogeneity, convexity:

Convexity $\rho(\lambda V + (1 - \lambda)V') \leq \lambda \rho(V) + (1 - \lambda)\rho(V')$

References: Artzner et al. [[Art+99](#)] and Föllmer and Schied [[FS08](#)]

We would like our risk measure to also be elicitable.

Risk measure ρ is **elicitable** if there exists a loss function L such that:

$$\rho(V) = \operatorname{argmin}_X E[L(X, V)]$$

Think of $E[L(X, V)]$ as the magnitude of the error being made when using X as an estimate of $\rho(V)$.

Elicitability:

- Elicitable risk measures have good statistical tests for the accuracy of estimates.
- Risk measures that are not elicitable can still be backtested.

References: Gneiting [[Gne11](#)], Ziegel [[Zie14](#)], Emmer, Kratz, and Tasche [[EKT13](#)], Bellini and Bigozzi [[BB13](#)], and Acerbi and Szekely [[AS14](#)]

Notions of robustness of a risk measure:

- Risk measure is continuous or uniformly continuous after making set of distributions into a metric space.
- Consider sensitivity of risk measure to changes in portfolio, changes in historical data, changes in parameters, etc.

But:

- New concept.
- Many functions are continuous but numerically unstable.
- More work needs to be done.

References: Cont, Deguest, and Scandolo [[CDS10](#)] and Emmer, Kratz, and Tasche [[EKT13](#)]

Common risk measures

Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

Most common risk measurements:

- Variance at horizon T .
- p -th percentile VaR at horizon T .
- p -th percentile expected shortfall at horizon T .
- p -th expectile at horizon T .

Variance at horizon T :

$$\begin{aligned} E^P[(V_T - E^P[V_T])^2] &= E^P[V_T^2] - E^P[V_T]^2 \\ &= E^P[V_T^2] - \overline{V_T}^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Measure of dispersion, and thus of risk.
- Excellent if V_T is normally distributed.
- Should easily pass back tests if calibrated to history.
- Relatively easy to compute.
- Robust by some measures.

Issues:

- Ignores asymmetry.
- Insufficient to estimate losses.
- Assuming normality can underestimate losses (e.g. 68% within 1 SD, 95.5% within 2 SD, 99.7% within 3 SD).

Variance and SD types

There are different types of standard deviation.

Standard deviation of a random variable:

- $\sqrt{E[(X - E[X])^2]}$
- $\sqrt{E[X^2] - E[X]^2}$

Population standard deviation:

- $\mu = \sum^n (X_i / n)$
- $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum^n (X_i - \mu)^2}$
- $\sqrt{\sum^n X_i^2 / n - \mu^2}$

Sample standard deviation (corrected):

- $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum^n (X_i - \mu)^2}$

We will generally use the population standard deviation.

Note – Spreadsheets and mathematical packages often provide both.
Pick the right one!

Variance example

Computing variance given possible future Apple prices:

ID	Apple	Square
1	116.52	13576.91
2	108.60	11793.96
3	101.21	10243.46
4	112.11	12568.65
5	111.25	12376.56
6	105.81	11195.76
7	109.67	12027.51
8	109.43	11974.92
9	105.08	11041.81
10	116.58	13590.90

- $E[V_T^2] = \text{Average of squares} = 12039.04$
- $E[V_T]^2 = \text{Square of average} = 12017.86$
- $\text{Variance} = 12039.04 - 12017.86 = 21.18$
- $\text{SD} = \sqrt{\text{Variance}} = 4.6$

The p level VaR is X if p of the time our losses are less than or equal to X :

$$\text{VaR}(V, T, p) = G^{-1}(p), \text{ where}$$

$$G(X) = P[V_0 - V_T \leq X] = E^P[1_{V_0 - V_T \leq X}]$$

- Quantile of loss distribution.
- Precise percentile loss, so actionable.
- Essentially same as variance if distribution is normal.
- Elicitable.
- Robust.

Issues:

- Not coherent – fails subadditivity — diversification can increase risk.
- Is coherent for linear portfolios of elliptically distributed factors, but might as well use variance.
- Hard to back test accurately.
- Harder to compute than standard deviation.

VaR example

With the same Apple prices and starting price of 106.74.

Compute the VaR by sorting the losses:

ID	Apple	Loss
3	101.21	5.53
9	105.08	1.66
6	105.81	0.93
2	108.60	-1.86
8	109.43	-2.69
7	109.67	-2.93
5	111.25	-4.51
4	112.11	-5.37
1	116.52	-9.78
10	116.58	-9.84

10 samples, so:

- 90% VaR = worst loss = 5.53
- 80% VaR = 2nd worst = 1.66
- 70% VaR = 3rd worst = 0.93

The p level VaR is X if p of the time our losses are less than or equal to X :

$$\text{VaR}(V, T, p) = G^{-1}(p), \text{ where}$$
$$G(X) = P[V_0 - V_T \leq X] = E^P[1_{V_0 - V_T \leq X}]$$

Often, given as:

$$\text{VaR}(V, T, p) = \inf\{l \mid P[V_0 - V_T > l] \leq 1 - p\}$$

Our definition is a simplification – assumes the loss distribution does not have jumps.

Expected shortfall

Expected shortfall

$$ES(V, T, p) = -E^P[V_T - V_0 | V_T - V_0 < -\text{VaR}(V_T, p)]$$

- Coherent measure of risk – diversification never increases risk.
- Mandated by latest Basel rules [[Bas13](#)].
- Robust by some measures.

Issues:

- Same as variance if distribution is normal.
- Harder to compute than VaR.
- Harder to back test (not elicitable, but still back-testable).
- Actionable?

With the same Apple prices and starting price of 106.74.

Sort and compute average of losses in tail:

ID	Apple	Loss	Sum	Count	ES
3	101.21	5.53	5.53	1	5.53
9	105.08	1.66	7.19	2	3.60
6	105.81	0.93	8.12	3	2.71
2	108.6	-1.86	6.26	4	1.57
8	109.43	-2.69	3.57	5	0.71
7	109.67	-2.93	0.64	6	0.11
5	111.25	-4.51	-3.87	7	-0.55
4	112.11	-5.37	-9.24	8	-1.16
1	116.52	-9.78	-19.02	9	-2.11
10	116.58	-9.84	-28.86	10	-2.89

10 samples, so:

- 90% ES = Worst loss = 5.53
- 80% ES = Average of 2 worst = 3.60
- 70% ES = Average of 3 worst = 2.71

Expectiles are like a weighted average of one sided variances

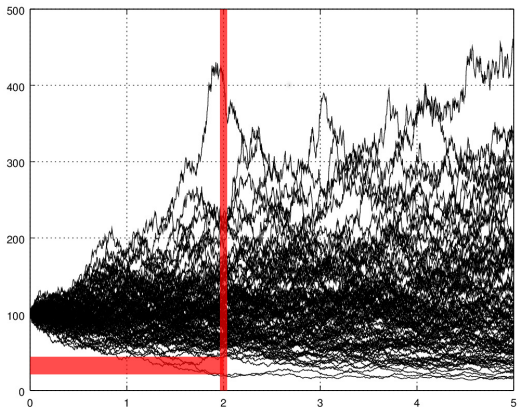
$$\operatorname{argmin}_X E[|p - 1_{V < X}|(V - X)^2]$$

- Coherent.
- Elicitable.
- Robust by some measures.

Issues:

- Harder to compute than VaR – computationally similar to ES.
- Not clear exactly what it is.
- How is it actionable?

Picture



- 100 paths, 30% vol, 7% return
- 2 year 98% VaR = next to lowest path = high uncertainty
- 2 year 98% ES = average of these two paths
- 97% Var and ES – substantially lower

Formula derivations

- 1 Review
- 2 Risk measurement
- 3 Risk measures
- 4 Formula derivations**
- 5 Summary

Stock formulas

Portfolio:

- One share of stock S
- S follows GBM with known constant parameters

Formulas:

$$V_T = S_T$$

$$dS_t = \mu S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

We will compute:

$$\text{var}(V_T)$$

$$\text{VaR}(V, T, p)$$

$$\text{ES}(V, T, p)$$

Brownian motion W_t :

- Almost all paths are continuous.
- Martingale: Expectation of future is current value:

$$W_t = E[W_T | \mathcal{F}_t], \text{ for } T \geq t$$

- $W_0 = 0$, so $E[W_t] = 0$ too.
- Independent increments: For times $t_i \leq t_{i+1}$, $W_{t_4} - W_{t_3}$ and $W_{t_2} - W_{t_1}$ are independent.
- Gaussian: $W_{t_2} - W_{t_1} \sim N(0, t_2 - t_1)$
- Covariance: $E[W_{t_2} W_{t_1}] = \min(t_2, t_1)$. (implies $\text{var}[W_t] = t$)
- $dWdW = dt$

Ito's formula:

- If $S_t = f(t, V_t)$ then

$$df(t, V) = f_1 dt + f_2 dV + \frac{1}{2} f_{22} dVdV$$

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Ito's formula shows:

$$S_T = S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} f(T, W) &= S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W} \\ df(T, W) &= f_1 dT + f_2 dW + \frac{1}{2} f_{22} dW dW \\ &= (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}) S_T dt + \sigma S_T dW + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} S_T dt \\ &= \mu S_T dt + \sigma S_T dW \end{aligned}$$

GBM S is given by:

$$S_T = S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T}$$

Know:

$$W_T \sim N(0, T), \text{ so}$$

$$\text{PDF}(W_T) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi T}} e^{-\frac{W^2}{2T}}$$

So, directly compute mean:

$$\begin{aligned} E[S_T] &= \int_{\Omega} S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T} dP \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi T}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W} e^{-\frac{W^2}{2T}} dW \\ &= \frac{S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}}{\sqrt{2\pi T}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\sigma W - \frac{W^2}{2T}} dW \end{aligned}$$

Have:

$$E[S_T] = \frac{S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}}{\sqrt{2\pi T}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\sigma W - \frac{W^2}{2T}} dW$$

Complete the square:

$$u = \frac{W}{\sqrt{2T}} - \frac{\sqrt{2T}\sigma}{2}$$

$$u^2 = \frac{W^2}{2T} - \sigma W + \frac{\sigma^2 T}{2}$$

$$du = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2T}} dW$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[S_T] &= \frac{S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}}{\sqrt{2\pi T}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2 + \frac{\sigma^2 T}{2}} \sqrt{2T} du \\ &= \frac{S_0 e^{\mu T}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} du \\ &= S_0 e^{\mu T} \end{aligned}$$

Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

EZ Mean of GBM

Alternatively, use martingales.

Define A_T by:

$$dA_T = \sigma A_T dW_T$$

$$A_T = e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}T + \sigma W_T}$$

$$S_T = S_0 e^{\mu T} A_T$$

A_T is a martingale, so:

$$E[A_T] = A_0 = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[S_T] &= E[S_0 e^{\mu T} A_T] \\ &= S_0 e^{\mu T} E[A_T] \\ &= S_0 e^{\mu T} \end{aligned}$$

This is why you should learn how to work with martingales!

EZ Variance of GBM

For the variance, we proceed analogously:

$$S_T = S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T}$$

$$S_T^2 = S_0^2 e^{(2\mu - \sigma^2)T + 2\sigma W_T}$$

$$dB_T = 2\sigma B_T dW_T$$

$$B_T = e^{-2\sigma^2 T + 2\sigma W_T}$$

$$S_T^2 = S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2)T} B_T$$

B_T is a martingale, so:

$$E[S_T^2] = E[S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2)T} B_T]$$

$$= S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2)T} E[B_T]$$

$$= S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2)T}$$

$$\text{var}[S_T] = E[S_T^2] - E[S_T]^2$$

$$= S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2)T} - S_0^2 e^{2\mu T}$$

$$= S_0^2 (e^{\sigma^2 T} - 1) e^{2\mu T}$$

EZer Variance of GBM

It would have been easier to use the mean formula:

$$S_T = S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T}$$

$$S_T^2 = S_0^2 e^{(2\mu - \sigma^2)T + 2\sigma W_T}$$

$$= S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2 - \frac{(2\sigma)^2}{2})T + 2\sigma W_T}$$

Since $E[S_T] = S_0 e^{\mu T}$,

$$E[S_T^2] = S_0^2 e^{(2\mu + \sigma^2)T}$$

I.e. S_T^2 is also a GBM with a specific drift term, so the same formula applies.

Variances with numbers

For 5% growth rate and 30% volatility and an initial price of 100, we have the following variances:

Horizon (days)	Horizon (years)	Mean	$E[S^2]$	variance	SD	scaled 1 day
1	0.003968	100.02	10008	3.6	1.9	
5	0.019841	100.10	10038	17.9	4.2	4.23
10	0.039683	100.20	10076	35.9	6.0	5.98
20	0.079365	100.40	10152	72.3	8.5	8.45
252	1.000000	105.13	12092	1040.8	32.3	30.01

$$E[W_T] = 0$$

$$E[W_T^2] = T$$

So, for BM, we can scale by \sqrt{T} to adjust for time

For GBM, it's close, but off by 7% at 1 year.

To compute VaR, we need to know the probability of S_T being below a level X .

$$S_T = S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_T < X) &= P(\log(S_T) < \log(X)) \\ &= P(\log(S_0) + (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W_T < \log(X)) \\ &= P\left(W_T < \frac{\log(\frac{X}{S_0}) - (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}{\sigma}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$W_T \sim N(0, T)$, so

$$P(W_T < a) = \Phi\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{T}}\right)$$

$$P(S_T < X) = \Phi\left(\frac{\log(\frac{X}{S_0}) - (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}{\sqrt{T}\sigma}\right)$$

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Continuing...

$$P(S_T < X) = 1 - p$$

$$1 - p = \Phi \left(\frac{\log(\frac{X}{S_0}) - (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}{\sigma\sqrt{T}} \right)$$

$$\Phi^{-1}(1 - p) = \frac{\log(\frac{X}{S_0}) - (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}{\sigma\sqrt{T}}$$

$$S_0 e^{\sigma\sqrt{T}\Phi^{-1}(1-p) + (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T} = X$$

This yields:

$$\text{VaR}(S, T, p) = S_0 - S_0 e^{\sigma\sqrt{T}\Phi^{-1}(1-p) + (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T}$$

Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

GBM VaR Values

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Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

Horizon (days)	Mean	SD	50% VaR	84% VaR	98% VaR	99.9% VaR	99.9999% VaR
1	100.02	1.9	0.00	1.86	3.80	5.67	9.36
5	100.10	4.2	-0.01	4.11	8.30	12.23	19.72
10	100.20	6.0	-0.02	5.75	11.53	16.85	26.69
20	100.40	8.5	-0.04	8.02	15.90	22.95	35.53
252	105.13	32.3	-0.50	25.42	45.73	60.23	78.88

Horizon (days)	16% VaR	2% VaR	0.1% VaR	0.00001% VaR
1	-1.90	-3.96	-6.02	-10.33
5	-4.30	-9.08	-13.96	-24.58
10	-6.14	-13.08	-20.31	-36.47
20	-8.81	-19.00	-29.90	-55.24
252	-35.44	-86.10	-153.98	-378.17

Expected shortfall

The formula for expected shortfall for $V_T = S_T$ is more complicated to derive

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ES}(S, T, p) &= -E^P[S_T - S_0 | S_T - S_0 < -\text{VaR}(S, T, p)] \\ &= S_0 - E^P[S_T | S_T < S_0 - \text{VaR}(S, T, p)] \end{aligned}$$

$$E^P[S_T | S_T < X] = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^X S_T dP}{\int_{-\infty}^X dP}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^X S_T dP = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi T}} \int_{-\infty}^Y S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma W} e^{-\frac{W^2}{2T}} dW$$

where Y satisfies $S_0 e^{(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T + \sigma Y} = X$.

Now, complete the square, solve for Y , and plug in $X = S_0 - \text{VaR}(S, T, p)$, and note that with such an X , the denominator above is just $1 - p$.

Summary

- 1 Review
- 2 Risk measurement
- 3 Risk measures
- 4 Formula derivations
- 5 Summary**

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Outline

Review

Risk
measurement

Risk measures

Formula
derivations

Summary

References

Risk measurement steps - answer the 4 questions:

1. What factors affect the value of the portfolio?
 - Identify risk factors.
2. What is the behavior of these dependencies?
 - Model behavior of risk factors:
 - Develop a model.
 - Fit model to data.
 - Use model to yield future distribution of risk factors.
3. What is the behavior of the P&L as a function of these factors?
 - Use structure of portfolio and pricing functions to compute distribution of V_T .
4. How do I summarize the behavior of the P&L?
 - Compute risk measures, which are statistics on V_T .

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Method varies depending on form of risk measures, factor models, and pricing models:

- analytically
- semi-analytically
- using approximations
- making simplifying assumptions
- using Monte Carlo

Modeling examples:

- Direct modeling via fitted GBMs for stock portfolio
- Factor model for stock portfolio
- Option portfolio

Risk measures:

- Common measures
 - Variance
 - VaR
 - ES
 - Expectiles
- Compare based on:
 - Coherence
 - Elicitability/backtestability
 - Robustness
 - Ease of use
- Need large numbers of samples for accuracy!

Computations:

$$dS = \mu S dt + \sigma S dW$$

- $E[S_T] = S_0 e^{\mu T}$
- $\text{var}[S_T] = S_0^2 (e^{\sigma^2 T} - 1) e^{2\mu T}$
- $\text{VaR}(S, T, p) = S_0 - S_0 e^{\sigma \sqrt{T} \Phi^{-1}(1-p) + (\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}) T}$
- $\text{ES}(S, T, p) = \text{homework}$
- Mostly easy to compute using martingale techniques

Still to come:

- Detailed VaR calculations
- More on VaR
- Credit risk
- Counterparty risk
- Regulation
- Case studies

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