



Introduction

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AAD in Finance

AAD

- A game changer for the computation of risk sensitivities
- Applies to risks of derivatives books, xVA, capital charges, etc.
- Useful beyond risk calculations: calibration, static hedge optimization, transaction costs, VAR, ...

AAD is easy in theory

- Mathematically: an application of the chain rule $\left[f\left(x,g\left(x\right)\right)\right]_{x}=f_{x}+g_{x}f_{g}$
- Implementation in C++ with operator overloading now well known
 See for instance, Savine, Global Derivatives 2014
 (We also quickly recap the main principles)
- Quick and easy implementation with toy code, with "magical" results

• AAD is hard in practice

- With real-life production systems, however, implementation of AAD is challenging
- Quants in Danske Bank spent a couple of years implementing AAD across production systems (and were granted the Risk 2015 In-House System of the Year award for their efforts)
- We expose the main problems and share some solutions





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The power of AAD

- Traditionally, with finite difference or "bumping"
 - Bump inputs one by one and recalculate
 - Sensitivity to n inputs costs n evaluations
 - Even with smart caching, computation time remains proportional to n
- With AAD
 - All sensitivities are computed in one single sweep
 - Sensitivity to n inputs takes constant time!
 - In a given context, 5 sensitivities or 5,000 sensitivities are computed in the same time
 - The time is approx 4-8x a single evaluation
- Example: pricing takes 2sec, we produce 1,600 risks
 - Bumping: ~1 hour
 - AAD: 5sec
 - Multithreaded over 4 cores: bumping = 15min, AAD = 1.25sec



Introduction

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Overview

- 1) Recap AAD 101: mathematics and implementation
- 2) Efficient differentiation of main financial algorithms
 - Multi-dimensional PDEs with check-pointing
 - Monte-Carlo simulations with multi-threading
 - Calibrations with the Implicit Function Theorem (IFT)
- 3) Application to CVA and RWA



Reverse Adjoint Propagation

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Decompose into a sequence of elementary mathematical operations

- Consider a scalar function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ with value $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
 - where we are interested in calculating derivatives for the n independent variables

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i}, \ i = 1, \dots, n$$

- Any such function evaluated on a computer is for a given control flow –
 decomposed into a sequence of elementary mathematical operations: +, -, *, /, exp,
 log, pow, ...
- ullet The elementary operations f_i are unary or binary and the sequence can be written as

$$x_k = f_k(x_i) \text{ or } x_k = f_k(x_i, x_j), \ k > i, j, n$$

and the result $y = x_N$

The order of the operations is given by the compiler



Reverse Adjoint Propagation

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Reverse adjoint propagation

• For each intermediate operation/variable we define the associated *adjoint*

$$A_i \equiv \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i}$$

• We have $A_N=1$ and from the chain rule

$$A_{i} = \sum_{j \in E_{i}} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{j}} \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} = \sum_{j \in E_{i}} A_{j} \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}, \quad E_{i} = \left\{ j > i \mid \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} \neq 0 \right\}$$

- I.e. for each elementary operation f_j (j > i) having argument(s) x_i
 - we calculate the analytically known $\frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}$
 - And add $A_j \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}$, j > i to the adjoint A_i for argument x_i !
 - ... adjoints are propagated from result to the argument(s)
- All adjoints are calculated by going through the same sequence of operations as for the (usual fwd) value calculation once
 - But calculating adjoint contributions instead of results at each node
 - ... in reverse order starting from A_N with initial condition $A_N=1,\ A_{i\neq N}=0$



Reverse Adjoint Propagation Simple example

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Calculate value and derivatives for

$$y = 2x_1 + \log(x_1x_2 + x_3)$$
 $x_1 = 2$, $x_2 = 3$, $x_3 = 4$

Operation	Val	Adjoint contrib	Aggregated adjoint
x ₁ =2	2	^	
x ₂ =3	3		
x ₃ =4	4		
x ₄ =x ₁ *x ₂	6	$A_1 + = A_4 * x_2$	A ₁ =2+3/10
		$A_2 + = A_4 * x_1$	A ₂ =2/10
$x_5 = x_4 + x_3$	10	$A_4 + = A_5 * 1$	A ₄ =1/10
		$A_3 + = A_5 * 1$	A ₃ =1/10
$x_6 = log(x_5)$	log(10)	$A_5 + = A_6/x_5$	A ₅ =1/10
x ₇ =2*x ₁	4	A ₁ +=A ₇ *2	A ₁ =2
x ₈ =x ₇ +x ₆	4+log(10)	A ₇ +=A ₈ *1	A ₇ =1
		A ₆ +=A ₈ *1	A ₆ =1
		I	A ₁ ==A ₇ =0, A ₈ =1



Reverse Adjoint Propagation

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Implementation

- I.e. to calculate the derivatives $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i}$ of a function $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$:
 - 1. Do the usual forward calculation to get y
 - ... keeping track of the entire sequence of operations f_i and argument(s) x_i
 - 2. Calculate adjoints by running the sequence backwards, starting at $A_N=1$
- This may be implemented by
 - 1. Source transformation (e.g. tapenade)
 - 2. Templates and operator overloading in a modern language
- We use templates and operator overloading in C++
 - ... but in all cases is the computational time independent of the number of sensitivities



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The 4 ingredients

- To implement AAD using templates and operator overloading, we need 4 basic ingredients
 - 1. A customized number type
 - 2. Operator nodes
 - 3. A "tape" for storing operator nodes
 - 4. An AD evaluator that calculate adjoints by running the tape backwards
- Since extra work is introduced for each single mathematical operation, optimizing this part of the code is essential!



First ingredient: kDoubleAd

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1. Customized number type

- A class for representing numbers (we call it kDoubleAd)
- Overload all elementary mathematical operations for kDoubleAd: +, -, *, /, exp, log, pow, ...
- As a side effect in the overload, the performed operation is stored as a node on "the tape"
- The kDoubleAd only needs to contain a pointer to the operator node
 - ... e.g. in our earlier example, y contains a pointer to operator node 8 ("+" operator)

```
|class kDoubleAd
{
  public:
     kDoubleAd() : myOper(nullptr){}
     kDoubleAd(const double& val);
     ...
     kDoubleAd& operator*=(const kDoubleAd& rhs);
     kDoubleAd& operator*=(const double& rhs);
     ...
     friend kDoubleAd operator*(const kDoubleAd& lhs, const friend kDoubleAd operator*(const kDoubleAd& lhs, const friend kDoubleAd operator*(const double& lhs, const friend kDoubleAd operator*(const double& lhs, const const const kDoubleAd& lhs, const cons
```

- Perform the calculation (e.g. $y=f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$) using kDoubleAds instead of native doubles to store the operations
 - ... by templatizing calculation code

```
double f(
    double x1,
    ...
    double xn);
template<class T>
T f(
    T x1,
    ...
T xn);
```



Second ingredient: operator nodes

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2. Operator node

- The operator nodes are stored on the "tape" and contains what is needed to calculate the adjoint contributions:
 - The type of the operation (+, -, *, /, exp, log, pow, ...)
 - The result of the operation
 - Pointer to the argument node(s)
 - Placeholder for the adjoint

```
class kDoubleAdOper
protected:
   // the operator type
   unsigned char
                   myType;
   // the value (of the operation)
    double
                   myVal;
   // lhs oper
    kDoubleAdOper* myLhs;
   // rhs oper
   kDoubleAdOper*
                   myRhs;
   // adjoint value calculated by evaluator
    double
                   myAdjoint;
```

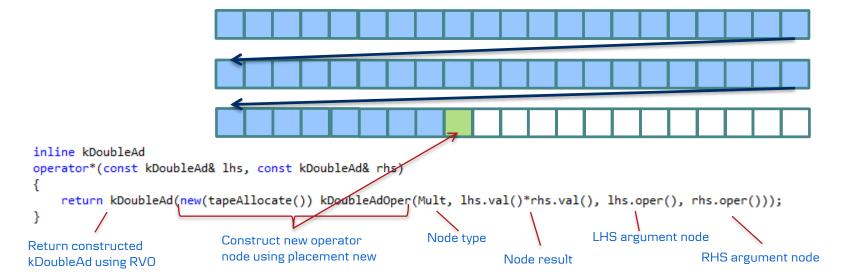


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Third ingredient: The tape

3. The tape

- The tape is the memory for the operator nodes and contains the entire sequence of operator nodes
- The tape is static (thread_local) to make it accessible for all calculation code
- Memory is allocated as a list of (big) blocks of contiguous memory
 - ... to limit expensive memory allocations
 - ... to help the computer's memory prefetcher (more about that later)





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Fourth ingredient: The AD RAP evaluator

4. The AD RAP evaluator

- Set the initial condition for the adjoints and run backwards through the operator nodes on the tape to calculate all adjoints
- At each operator node, adjoints are propagated from result to argument node(s)

```
// f=1*r; df/dl=r; df/dr=l A_{i_L} += A_j * \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_{i_L}} case kDoubleAdOper::Mult: \{ \text{oper->hs()->adjoint() += oper->adjoint()*oper->rhs()->val(); oper->rhs()->adjoint() += oper->adjoint()*oper->lhs()->val(); break; <math display="block">A_{i_R} += A_j * \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_{i_R}}
```

- When done, the derivative $A_i = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i}$ can be picked from the operator node i (e.g. through the pointer to the operator node sitting on the relevant kDoubleAd variable)

```
// generate AD tape
kDoubleAd x1, ..., xi, ..., xn;
...
kDoubleAd y = f<kDoubleAd>(x1, ..., xi, ..., xn);

kAd eval;
// initialise adjoints to 0
eval.initAdjoints();
// ... and the adjoint for the result to 1
y.oper()->adjoint() = 1.0;

// run bwd AD evaluator
eval.evalBwd();

// pick derivative(s)
double dydxi = xi.oper()->adjoint();
```



AAD with Operator Overloading in C++ Complexity

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AAD complexity

- Fwd calculation: ~ 1 * (non-AD) fwd calculation
 - Operator overload side effect
 - Memory allocation
- Bwd calculation: ~ 1 * (non-AD) fwd calculation
 - ~2 times the (AD) fwd calculation
 - Operator node traversal
 - More calculations at each node
 - E.g. 2 multiplications and 2 additions for the multiplication node
- Expect 4-8 * (non-AD) fwd calculation
- ... but constant in number of sensitivities!



Memory Usage

Memory usage and memory cache

- Using kDoubleAds quickly fills the tape with operator nodes
 - Each core typically produces around 108 operator nodes per sec ... corresponding to 4 GB/sec
- ... using 64 bit code is a necessity for production scale calculations
- Keep tapes small ...
 - When the tape is traversed backwards to calculate adjoints, each node is read from the CPUs memory cache.
 - Due to the contiguous memory structure of the tape, the memory pre-fetcher can (and will) load subsequent nodes into the memory cache before the CPU needs them
 - BUT it can not predict and pre-fetch the argument nodes
 - ... resulting in a high number of cache misses for long tapes (where the CPU has to wait for data to be loaded from the slow main memory)
- Keeping tapes small and ideally small enough to fit into the cache is important for performance!
 - ... a large number of small tapes is much better than a small number of large tapes!



Checkpointing

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Reduce tape size by checkpointing

- Checkpointing is a general technique for splitting the AAD calculation into a number of smaller slices/tapes
 - Split the algorithm into M slices
 - and calculate (non-AD) values for the first *M-1* slices
 - A tape is generated for the final slice M
 - and adjoints are calculated using the usual initial conditions $\,A_N=1,\,\,A_{i
 eq N}=0\,$
 - The tape for slice M is wiped and a tape is generated for slice M-1
 - This time adjoints are calculated using the calculated derivatives from slice *M* as initial condition
 - i.e. we "glue" tapes together via the adjoints
- This is a general method and works well with finite difference grids



Checkpointing

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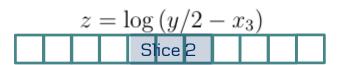
The simple example extended to use checkpointing

Calculate derivatives $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_i}$ for $z = \log\left((2x_1 + \log(x_1x_2 + x_3))/2 - x_3\right)$

Split in 2 slices:

$$y = 2x_1 + \log(x_1x_2 + x_3)$$
Slide 1

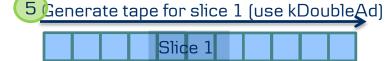
1 Calc value of slice 1 (use double - no AD)



Generate tape for slice 2 (use kDoubleAd)



- Set initial conditions $A_z=1,\ A_{i\neq z}=0$ Run slice 2 bwds to calculate adjoints
- 4 Store derivatives and wipe tape



- Set initial conditions $A_y=\frac{\partial z}{\partial y},\ A_3=\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_3},\ A_{i\notin\{y,3\}}=0$ Run slice 1 bwds to calculate adjoints
- $rac{\partial z}{\partial x_i}$ from the x_i nodes and wipe tape



Linear Algebra of AAD

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Is AAD magic?

• Consider the matrix multiplication $Z = X^T B_1 B_2 Y$ where $B_1, B_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}, X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^M, Z \in \mathbb{R}$

$$[Z] = \begin{bmatrix} & X^T & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & B_1 & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & B_2 & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y \end{bmatrix}$$

- If we need Z_1, \dots, Z_L for different Y_1, \dots, Y_L then we do the $X^T B_1 B_2$ multiplication first and apply the result to each of the Y's
- Instead, if we need Z_1, \dots, Z_L for different X_1, \dots, X_L then we do the $Y^T B_2^T B_1^T$ multiplication first and apply the result to each of the X's
- Remember, the adjoint of a matrix is the transpose

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Linear Algebra of AAD

Toy example again

$$y = 2x_{1} + \log(x_{1}x_{2} + x_{3})$$

$$x_{4} = x_{1}x_{2}$$

$$\dot{x}_{4} = x_{1}\dot{x}_{2} + \dot{x}_{1}x_{2}$$

$$x_{5} = x_{3} + x_{4}$$

$$(n = 2)$$

$$\dot{x}_{5} = \dot{x}_{3} + \dot{x}_{4}$$

$$x_{6} = \log x_{5}$$

$$(n = 3)$$

$$\dot{x}_{6} = \frac{\dot{x}_{5}}{x_{5}}$$

$$x_{7} = 2x_{1}$$

$$\dot{x}_{7} = 2\dot{x}_{1}$$

$$x_{8} = x_{6} + x_{7}$$

$$\dot{x}_{8} = \dot{x}_{6} + \dot{x}_{7}$$



Linear Algebra of AAD

Calculations on vector form

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- Define $\dot{X}(n) = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(n) \\ \vdots \\ \dot{x}_8(n) \end{bmatrix}$ and let the matrix A(n) be the calculation for step $n=1,\cdots,N$
- Since differentiation is a linear operation each calculation can be it written in matrix form as

$$\dot{X}(n) = A(n)\dot{X}(n-1)$$

or starting from the boundary condition $\dot{X}ig(0ig)$ we have

$$\dot{X}(N) = A(N) \cdots A(1) \dot{X}(0) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} A(i) \dot{X}(0)$$



Linear Algebra of AAD

Calculation step 1

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- $\begin{array}{lll} \bullet & \text{First calculation step } n\!=\!1 \text{ is } & \dot{x}_4\!\left(1\right)\!=\!x_1\dot{x}_2\!\left(0\right)\!+\!\dot{x}_1\!\left(0\right)\!x_2\!+\!\dot{x}_4\!\left(0\right) \\ &=\!\left[x_2 \quad x_1 \quad 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0\right]\!\dot{X}\!\left(0\right) \end{array}$
- Hence $\dot{X}(1) = A(1)\dot{X}(0)$

where

$$A(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ x_2 & x_1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Linear Algebra of AAD Calculation steps 2, 3, 4 and 5

$$A(2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $[0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]$

$$A(3) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(4) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(5) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Linear Algebra of AAD

Going forward

• From this we get $\dot{y} = e_8^T \dot{X}(N) = e_8^T \prod_{i=1}^N A(i)\dot{X}(0)$ $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} = e_8^T \prod_{i=1}^N A(i)e_1$ $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2} = e_8^T \prod_{i=1}^N A(i)e_3$ where e_i is the i'th unit vector

- We need to calculate the system with 3 different boundary conditions e_1, e_2, e_3
- The easiest way is to calculate it forward as

$$\left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_3} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_4} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_5} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_5} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_6} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_7} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_8} \right] = e_8^T \prod_{i=1}^N A(i)$$

and then apply the 3 different boundary conditions

This is equivalent to pick the first 3 elements

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

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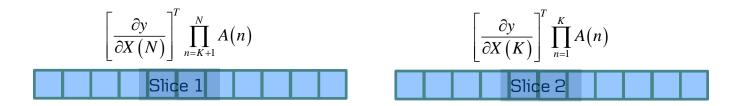


Linear Algebra of AAD

Sub sequences

Checkpointing is just a sub sequence

$$\left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial X(0)}\right]^{T} = \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial X(N)}\right]^{T} \prod_{n=1}^{N} A(n) = \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial X(K)}\right]^{T} \prod_{n=1}^{K} A(n)$$



- Also notice that any sub sequence of calculations is a Jacobian
- I.e. for any $K \ge k$ we have

$$\left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial X(k)}\right]^{T} = \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial X(K)}\right]^{T} \prod_{n=k+1}^{K} A(n) = \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial X(K)}\right]^{T} \left[\frac{\partial X(K)}{\partial X(k)}\right]$$

This can be a useful reference when we discuss risk propagation later



Checkpointed AAD for PDE finite difference grids

- Example: SLV 2D PDE
- Arbitrage free volatility surface
 - Andreasen and Huge: Volatility interpolation (Risk March 2011)
- Stochastic volatility model
 - Andreasen and Huge: Random Grids (Risk July 2011)

$$ds = \sigma(t, s)\sqrt{z}dW$$

$$dz = \theta(1-z)dt + \varepsilon z^{\gamma}dZ, \qquad z(0) = 1$$

$$dWdZ = 0$$



Checkpointed AAD for PDE finite difference grids Grid setup

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• Discrete time and state space (FD)

$$v_i = \prod_{j=i+1}^n A_j d_n = A_{i+1} v_{i+1}$$
, $i = 0, 1, ..., n$

- ullet where d_n is the cashflow at some future time
- v_0 is the present value
- A_i is a matrix with the finite differences



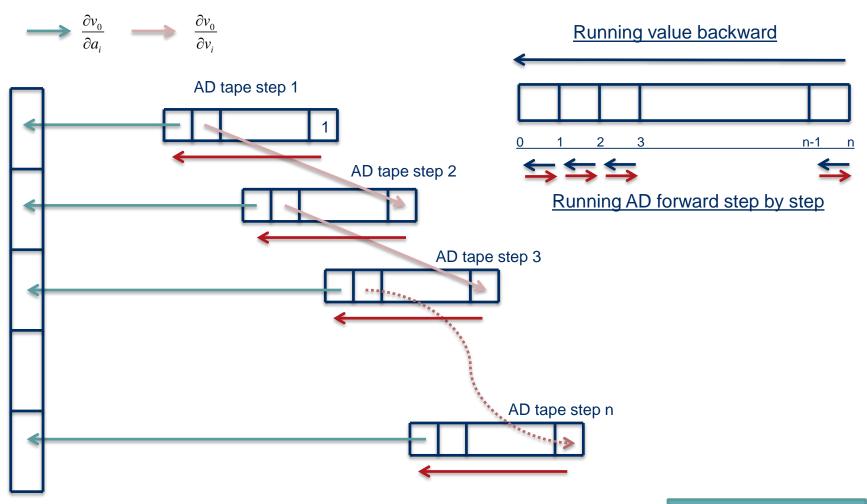
Checkpointed AAD for PDE finite difference grids Algorithm

- A_i is a function of parameters a_i to which we want risks
- ullet To find $rac{\partial v_0}{\partial a_j}$ we run the following checkpointed procedure
 - 1. Run the whole FD without AD and record all the vectors V_i
 - 2. Run the step $v_0 = A_1 v_1$ with AD, record a tape
 - 3. Run RAP over the tape to get $\frac{\partial v_0}{\partial a_1}, \frac{\partial v_0}{\partial v_1}$
 - 4. Record $\frac{\partial v_0}{\partial v_1}$ to be used as boundary for the next RAP over $v_1=A_2v_2$ then wipe the tape
 - 5. Repeat from step 2 $v_i = A_{i+1}v_{i+1}$



Checkpointed AAD for PDE finite difference grids







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The problem

- AAD for Monte Carlo may consume a lot of memory
 - 10sec MC run → around 40GB for the tape
- Monte Carlo simulation suggests multi threading
 - Each path can be handled independently and run in parallel
- Running each path separately would also reduce the need for memory
 - Similar to check pointing in the sense it creates more manageable calculations
- AAD creates dependency between paths
 - Variables/cashflows are averages across paths
- How do we combine AAD and multi threading?



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Pathwise derivatives to the rescue

- Giles and Glasserman: "Smoking Adjoints: fast Monte Carlo Greeks" introduced adjoint differentiation in Finance. They used pathwise derivatives
- Essential idea is that under suitable conditions

$$\frac{\partial E[Cashflow]}{\partial a} = E\left[\frac{\partial Cashflow}{\partial a}\right]$$

- Derivatives can be calculated as Monte Carlo estimates on a different payoff
- New "payoff" can easily be calculated with AAD
- We are again in a situation where Monte Carlo paths can be treated independently



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Pathwise derivatives with AAD

- The derivatives are calculated as $\frac{\partial E[Cashflow]}{\partial a} \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial Cashflow_i}{\partial a} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$
- Each X_i is calculated with AAD over path i
 - One tape per simulation, maximum time 1/100sec → up to 40MB, almost fits in CPU cache
 - Record $oldsymbol{X}_i$ and wipe the tape between simulations
- Result = average of X_i
- Remember that the output from the tapes is ALL the derivatives so we only need to run this procedure only once



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Multi-threading

- Multithreading
 - Run Monte-Carlo paths in parallel
 - Compute pathwise derivatives with AAD in parallel
- Problem:
 - Templated code writes to a global/static tape
 - Writing to the tape from parallel threads leads to race conditions
- Solution: give each thread its own tape
 - thread_local objects are like global/static except each thread has its own copy
 - Support for thread local in C++11 standard, Boost, Windows API, ...
- Hence what it takes for AD to work with multi-threaded Monte-Carlo:
 - Create a tape for each thread, access it through thread local variables
 - Obviously, work with per thread/task copies of variables written into
 - In addition, copy inputs into custom number types per thread/task so they land on the right tape!



Risk propagation

- Methods explained so far produce derivatives of result to model params like local volatilities in Dupire
- We want derivatives to market variables, like implied volatilities in Dupire
- Model parameters are derived from market variables in one or more steps that may involve calibrations
- To Naively run AAD over this process may be unstable and memory consuming
- FAQ: how to run AAD through calibration?
- Solution: first run model with AAD to get sensitivities to model parameters
- → Then propagate sensitivities *backwards* to market variables



Backward Risk Propagation and RAP

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RAP: Backward propagation of sensitivities at micro (math operation) level

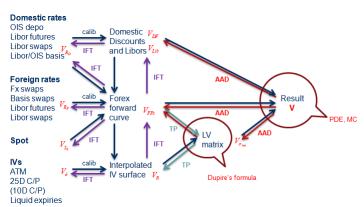
$$y = x_0 x_2 + \log(x_2 + 2x_4)$$

$$= x_0^{2} x_1 + \log(x_2 + 2x_4)$$

$$= x_0^{2} x_2 + \log(x_2 + 2x_4)$$

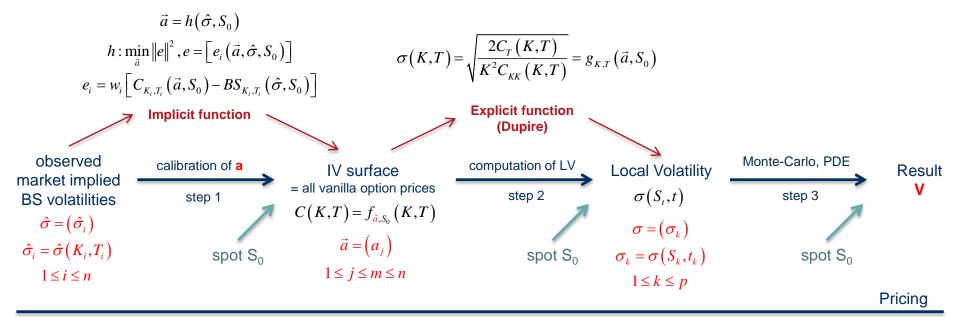
Risk propagation: Backward propagation of sensitivities at macro (param) level

Market data -> Interpolated IV -> Calculated LV -> Price

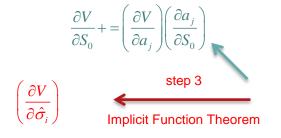


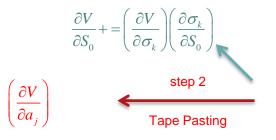


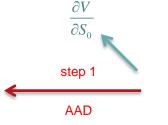
Risk Propagation by example: Dupire's model













Propagation through explicit functions: Tape Pasting

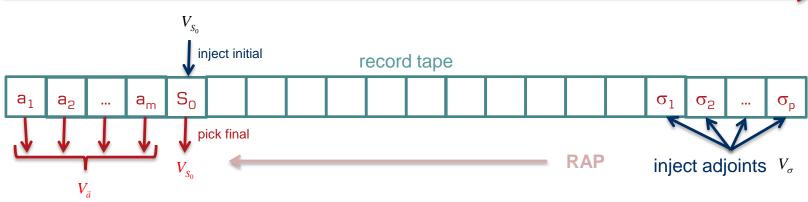
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- Step 2 in our example: computation of local volatilities $\sigma = g(\vec{a}, S_0)$
 - We know sensitivities to LVs V_{σ} from step 1

pick adjoints

- We want to propagate them to sensitivities $V_{\bar{a}}$ to interpolation parameters
- We could compute the Jacobian $\sigma_{\vec{a}}$ of g and apply the chain rule $V_{\vec{a}} = V_{\sigma} \sigma_{\vec{a}}$
- We can do this *orders of magnitude* faster with tape pasting (but only for explicit functions)

run explicit function
$$(\sigma_k^2) = [\sigma^2(K_k, T_k)] = \left[\frac{2C_T(K_k, T_k)}{K^2C_{KK}(K_k, T_k)}\right] = \left[\frac{2f_T(\vec{a}, S_0, K_k, T_k)}{K^2f_{KK}(\vec{a}, S_0, K_k, T_k)}\right] = [g_k(\vec{a}, S_0)]$$
 in AAD mode





Propagation through implicit functions

- Step 3 in our example $\vec{a} = h(\hat{\sigma}, S_0)$, where h is implicitly defined by a calibration
 - We know the sensitivities to interpolation parameters $V_{\bar{a}}$ from step 2
 - We want to propagate them to sensitivities to IVs $V_{\hat{\sigma}}$ and spot $\left|V_{S_0}\right|^{\hat{\sigma}}$
 - We need the Jacobians $h_{\hat{\sigma}}$ and h_{S_0} of h so we can apply the chain rule $\begin{cases} V_{\hat{\sigma}} = V_{\vec{a}} h_{\hat{\sigma}} \\ V_{S_0}^{\hat{\sigma}} = V_{S_0}^{\bar{a}} + V_{\vec{a}} h_{S_0} \end{cases}$
 - h is implicitly defined by calibration to n instruments: $h: \min_{\vec{a}} \left\| e \right\|^2, e = \left[e_i \left(\vec{a}, \hat{\sigma}_i, S_0 \right) \right] = \left\{ w_i \left[C_{K_i, T_i} \left(\vec{a}, S_0 \right) BS_{K_i, T_i} \left(\hat{\sigma}_i, S_0 \right) \right] \right\}$
 - Where the error functions e_i are explicit and we easily compute their Jacobians $e_{\bar{a}}, e_{\hat{\sigma}}, e_{s_0}$
 - We need the Jacobians $h_{\hat{\sigma}}$ and h_{S_0} of the implicit function out of these and we're home safe



Implicit Function Theorem

- Theorem: $\begin{cases} h_{\hat{\sigma}} = -Ie_{\hat{\sigma}} \\ h_{S_0} = -Ie_{S_0} \end{cases}$
- Where $I = (e_{\bar{a}} \cdot e_{\bar{a}})^{-1} e_{\bar{a}}$ is the "pseudo-inverse" of $e_{\bar{a}}$ the Jacobian of calibration errors to the results of h = interpolation parameters
- Note that I is the projection operator -> propagation = risk projection
- In a perfect calibration context, $e_{\bar{a}}$ is square of full rank, and in this case $I = e_{\bar{a}}^{-1}$
- → propagation = Jacobian inversion
- Finally, the general formula for propagation through calibrations:

$$\begin{cases} V_{\hat{\sigma}} = -V_a \left(e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\vec{a}} \right)^{-1} e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\hat{\sigma}} \\ V_{S_0}^{\vec{a}} = -V_a \left(e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\vec{a}} \right)^{-1} e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{S_0} \end{cases}$$



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$$\vec{a}^* = h(\hat{\sigma}, S_0)$$
 is the solution of $\min_{\vec{a}} \|e\|^2$, $e = [e_i(\vec{a}, \hat{\sigma}_i, S_0)]$

At the optimum, we have $e_i(\vec{a}^*, \hat{\sigma}, S_0) = e_i[h(\hat{\sigma}, S_0), \hat{\sigma}, S_0] = \varepsilon_i(\hat{\sigma}_i, S_0)$

and we have the 1st order condition $e_{\bar{a}}'e = 0_m = e_{\bar{a}}'\varepsilon$

Deriving the 1st order condition with respect to $\hat{\sigma}$ and S_0 : $\begin{cases} \left(e_{\vec{a}} \,' \mathcal{E}\right)_{\hat{\sigma}} = 0_{mn} = e_{\vec{a}\hat{\sigma}} \,' \mathcal{E} + e_{\vec{a}} \,' \mathcal{E}_{\hat{\sigma}} \\ \left(e_{\vec{a}} \,' \mathcal{E}\right)_{S_0} = 0_m = e_{\vec{a}S_0} \,' \mathcal{E} + e_{\vec{a}} \,' \mathcal{E}_{S_0} \end{cases}$

At the optimum, errors are negligible compared to derivatives, hence:

$$\begin{cases} e_{\vec{a}} \cdot \varepsilon_{\hat{\sigma}} = 0_{mn} = e_{\vec{a}} \cdot \left(e_{\vec{a}} h_{\hat{\sigma}} + e_{\hat{\sigma}} \right) \\ e_{\vec{a}} \cdot \varepsilon_{S_0} = 0_m = e_{\vec{a}} \cdot \left(e_{\vec{a}} h_{S_0} + e_{S_0} \right) \end{cases}$$

So,
$$\begin{cases} e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\vec{a}} h_{\hat{\sigma}} = -e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\hat{\sigma}} \\ e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\vec{a}} h_{S_0} = -e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{S_0} \end{cases}$$
 in other terms
$$\begin{cases} h_{\hat{\sigma}} = -\left(e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\vec{a}}\right)^{-1} e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\hat{\sigma}} \\ h_{S_0} = -\left(e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{\vec{a}}\right)^{-1} e_{\vec{a}} ' e_{S_0} \end{cases}$$

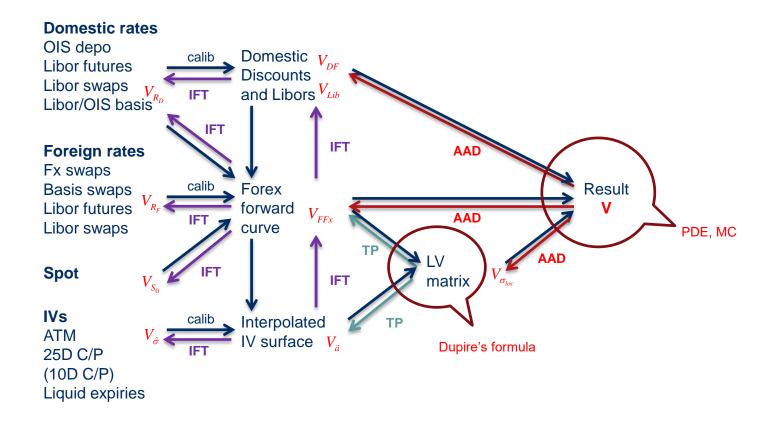


Backward Risk Propagation: general algorithm

- Successive vectors of parameters \vec{P}_i are derived or calibrated from one another
 - From initial market observed or trader input sets $ec{P}_0 ... ec{P}_{n-1}$ to which we want sensitivities
 - Through successive transformations $\vec{P}_i = f_i \left[\left(\vec{P}_j \right)_{j < i} \right]$ from some previously computed sets
 - Eventually leading to the set of final model parameters $\vec{P}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle N-1}$
- ullet Use AAD to compute derivatives $V_{ar{P}_{N-1}}$ of the result to model parameters $ar{P}_{N-1}$
- Propagate risks in the reverse order to the construction of the parameters
 - For each f_i , from output to inputs: $\vec{P}_i = f_i \left[\left(\vec{P}_j \right)_{j < i} \right] \Rightarrow V_{\vec{P}_i} \xrightarrow{propagation} \left(V_{\vec{P}_j} \right)$
 - When f_i is explicit, we use tape pasting
 - When f_i is implicit, we use the Implicit Function Theorem for each input set $V_{P_j} + = -V_{P_i} \left(e_{P_i} \cdot e_{P_i} \right)^{-1} e_{P_i} \cdot e_{P_j}$ where $e_i = \varphi \left[\left(\vec{P}_j \right)_{j < i}, \vec{P}_i \right]$ are the (explicit) errors functions implicit to the calibration that defines f_i
 - When a $ec{P}_j$ is an input to multiple f_i s, then the final $V_{ec{P}_j}$ is the sum of the propogations from all f_i s
- We can compute "custom risks" with this algorithm
 - Use different parameter sets for tape pasting and IFT, than the ones used for calibration



Big Picture: real life Forex Dupire





Demo: CVA

CVA without collateral

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• As presented by Andreasen at Global Derivatives 2014, we calculate CVA by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CVA} &=& \text{E}\left[\int_0^T V(t)^+ \delta(\tau - t) dt\right] \\ &=& \text{E}\left[\int_0^T V(t) \mathbf{1}_{V(t) > 0} \delta(\tau - t) dt\right] \\ &\approx& \text{E}\left[\int_0^T V(t) \mathbf{1}_{\tilde{V}(t) > 0} \delta(\tau - t) dt\right] \\ &=& \text{E}\left[\int_0^T \text{E}_t \left[\int_t^T c(u) du\right] \mathbf{1}_{\tilde{V}(t) > 0} \delta(\tau - t) dt\right] \\ &=& \text{E}\left[\int_0^T c(u) \int_0^u \mathbf{1}_{\tilde{V}(t) > 0} \delta(\tau - t) dt du\right] \end{aligned}$$

- where
 - au is the default time of the counterparty
 - -c(t) is the cashflow of the netting set at time t
 - $\tilde{V}(t)$ is a LSM regression proxy of the value of the netting set at time t

- I.e. instead of simulating the netting set value directly
- ... we simulate cashflows and calculate CVA by accumulating future cashflows if
 - 1. the counterparty has defaulted and
 - 2. the netting set value is positive to us at default



Demo: CVA CVA without collateral

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- The two methods are economically equivalent, but with this approach we
 - Avoid nested MC simulations
 - Use LSM regression proxies as an approximation, ... but only to check positivity!
 - Get a very efficient and accurate CVA implementation

Live CVA demo ...



Demo: CVA

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Risk for CVA without collateral

CVA Risk

Calculating CVA as just described, we have

$$\frac{\partial \text{CVA}}{\partial \tilde{V}} = \text{E}\left[\int_0^T V(t) \frac{\partial \mathbf{1}_{\tilde{V}(t)>0}}{\partial \tilde{V}} \delta(\tau - t) dt\right] = \text{E}\left[\int_0^T V(t) \delta(\tilde{V}(t)) \delta(\tau - t) dt\right]$$

- If the proxy is good, $\tilde{V} \approx V$ around zero, the above is approximately zero
 - If the proxy is perfect, $\tilde{V}=V$ around zero, the above is exactly zero
- If the proxy is bad, the above is numerical noise that we want to ignore
- Hence, we want to keep the proxy frozen during risk calculations
- This is done, by not "AD'ing" LSM
 - i.e. to use native doubles and not kDoubleAds in the LSM regression implementation
- Live CVA risk demo ...



Demo: Capital Requirement for Counterparty Credit Risk 1/6

Regulatory-given formula for RWA CCR

- The minimum requirements for regulatory capital is given as a fixed proportion of the Risk-Weighted exposure Amount (RWA aka REA)
- For Counterparty Credit Risk (CRR), RWA is calculated for a netting set, by

$$RWA = RW \cdot EAD$$

$$RW = LGD \cdot \left(N \left(\frac{N^{-1}(PD) + \sqrt{\rho(PD)}N^{-1}(0.999)}{\sqrt{1 - \rho(PD)}} \right) - PD \right) \cdot k(PD, M) \cdot 12.5 \cdot 1.06$$

- where *N* is the cumulative normal distribution function
- PD is the default probability
- LGD is Loss Given Default
- $\rho \text{ is a regulatory-given correlation function of PD: } \rho(x) = 0.12 \frac{1 \exp(-50x)}{1 \exp(-50)} + 0.24 \left(1 \frac{1 \exp(-50x)}{1 \exp(-50)}\right)$
- M is the effective maturity
- EAD is the Exposure At Default
- k is a regulatory-given maturity adjustment factor function of PD and M: $k(x,y) = \frac{1 + (y 2.5) \, b(x)}{1 1.5 b(x)}$

$$b(x) = (0.11852 - 0.05478 \ln(x))^2$$



Demo: Capital Requirement for Counterparty Credit Risk 2/6

RWA CCR as a function of the expected exposure profile

• RWA CCR is (when using IMM) a function of the expected exposure profile

$$EE(t) = E[(V(t) - K(t))^{+}]$$

- where V(t) is the (stochastic) value of the netting set at time t
- and K(t) is the (stochastic) value of the collateral (in case of a CSA agreement) at time t
- The expected exposure profile enters via EAD and M

$$EAD = \frac{\alpha}{T} \int_0^T \max_{0 \le u \le t} (EE(u)) dt, \ \alpha = 1.4, \ T = \min(T_{\text{mat}}, 1Y)$$

$$M = 1 + \min\left(4, \frac{\int_{1}^{T_{\text{mat}}} EE(t) \cdot P(0, t) dt}{\int_{0}^{1} \max_{0 \le u \le t} (EE(u)) \cdot P(0, t) dt}\right)$$

• Calculating the *expected exposure* is *the challenge* in the RWA CCR calculation!



Demo: Capital Requirement for Counterparty Credit Risk 3/6 RWA CCR as 2-script setup

- Our approach for RWA CCR can be considered a corollary to our CVA approach
 - We are using the same models as for CVA in the calculation of the EE: beast, MFC, SLV, ...
 - We are using/extending a lot of the functionality (trade compression, trade decoration, netting set setup, realtime dynamic model building etc)
 - ... and we are using LSM proxies to check for positivity
- When a new trading opportunity occur, we can do a full RWA CCR calculation for the netting set
 - ... at the trading desk based on realtime models
 - For a typical netting set, the calculation takes 5-10 sec and full risk takes about a minute (1.5 2x longer with CSA)
- The calculation is done in 2 steps
 - First the expected exposure profile is generated for the netting set
 - Then RWA is calculated with the expected exposure profile (and PD, LGD etc) as input
 - The RWA formula is scripted in the same way as we script trades and netting sets



Demo: Capital Requirement for Counterparty Credit Risk 4/6 RWA CCR without collateral

For a netting set without CSA, the expected exposure is

Live RWA CCR demo ...



Demo: Capital Requirement for Counterparty Credit Risk 5/6

RWA CCR risk as 2-script risk with macro-level checkpointing

RWA CCR can be written as

$$RWA = RWA(a, EE(a))$$

- where a is a vector of parameters and EE is the expected exposure profile
- Then

Risk directly from the RWA formula script Script enters only via EE
$$\frac{d\text{RWA}}{da_i} = \frac{\partial \text{RWA}}{\partial a_i} + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{EE}} \frac{\partial \text{RWA}}{\partial EE_j} \frac{\partial EE_j}{\partial a_i}$$

- This can be calculated using AD with checkpointing in a single AD calculation with one checkpoint!
- Live RWA CCR risk demo ...



Demo: Capital Requirement for Counterparty Credit Risk 6/6

RWA CCR risk as 2-script risk with macro-level checkpointing

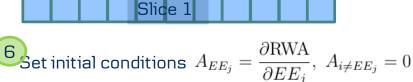
Calculate risk for RWA CCR

Split in 2 scripts/slices:

$$EE = EE(a)$$

Calc EE from the EE script (use double - no AD)

5 Generate tape for EE script (use kDoubleAd)



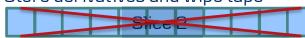
- Run EE script bwds to calculate adjoints
- Pick derivatives $\frac{\partial \mathrm{RWA}}{\partial a_i}$ from the a_i nodes and wipe tape



Generate tape for RWA script (use kDoubleAd)



- Set initial conditions $A_{\rm RWA}=1,\ A_{i\neq {\rm RWA}}=0$ Run RWA script bwds to calculate adjoints
- 4 Store derivatives and wipe tape





Demo: Capital Requirement for CCR with collateral

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RWA CCR with collateral

• For a 2-way CSA agreement with thresholds H^c and H^p and independent amounts I^c and I^p , collateral is modeled as

$$K(t) = \underbrace{(V(t - \Delta t) - H^c)^+ + I^c}_{\text{to protect us}} - \underbrace{(-V(t - \Delta t) - H^p)^+ - I^p}_{\text{to protect cpty}}$$

• For simplicity we will ignore thresholds and independent amounts and let

$$K(t) = V(t - \Delta t)$$

- The Margin Period of Risk, Δt , is, in case of RWA, given by regulators
 - For a netting set with OTC derivatives having daily margin calls, it is typically 10b
- The Margin Period of Risk makes it non-trivial to extend our approach to XVA and RWA with collateral ...



Demo: Capital Requirement for CCR with collateral

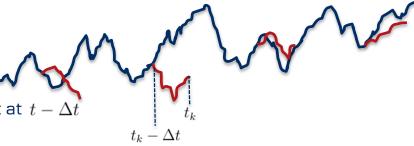
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RWA CCR with collateral using branching

• However, Andreasen (2014) showed that K can be taken into account in the expected exposure by

$$\begin{split} EE(t) &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(V(t) - V(t - \Delta t)\right)^{+}\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_{0}^{T} c(u)du - \int_{0}^{t} c(u)du\right) \left(\mathbf{1}_{V(t) - V(t - \Delta t) > 0} - \mathbf{1}_{V^{B}(t) - V(t - \Delta t) > 0}\right)\right] \\ &\approx \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_{0}^{T} c(u)du - \int_{0}^{t} c(u)du\right) \left(\mathbf{1}_{\tilde{V}(t) - \tilde{V}(t - \Delta t) > 0} - \mathbf{1}_{\tilde{V}^{B}(t) - \tilde{V}(t - \Delta t) > 0}\right)\right] \end{split}$$

- The expected exposure is still calculated by summing notional adjusted cashflows c(u)
- And LSM proxies are still only used to check positivity
- But 2 proxies are now in play
 - \tilde{V} is calculated on the main simulation path
 - $ilde{V}^B$ is calculated on a **separate path** branched out at $t-\Delta t$



Live RWA CCR with collateral demo ...



Demo: Capital Requirement for CCR with collateral

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RWA CCR with collateral using branching

- ullet The extra paths from branching will increase the calculation time by a factor 1.5-2
 - But still fast enough to be used realtime on the front
- By e.g. approximating the effective maturity with time to maturity in the riskweight for RWA for CCR, we can similarly calculate KVA for CCR (and associated risk) in realtime
- In addition, AD can also be used to calculate derivatives with respect to notionals ... and allocate capital to individual desks, books, trades etc ("Euler decomposition")