

# Climate Risk Hedging

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# Introduction



# Chapter 1

## Factor Mimicking Portfolios

Ross (1976) [?] introduced the concept of *arbitrage pricing theory* (APT). In this model, the expected return of an asset is a linear function of a set of risk factors. Famous examples of risk factors are the *Fama-French factors* (see Fama and French (1993) [?]). Those factors are the excess return of the market, the excess return of small cap stocks over big cap stocks and the excess return of high book-to-market stocks over low book-to-market stocks:

$$E(R_i) = \beta_m R_m + \beta_{smb} R_{smb} + \beta_{hml} R_{hml} \quad (1.1)$$

with  $E(R_i)$  the expected return of asset  $i$ ,  $R_m$  the excess return of the market,  $R_{smb}$  the excess return of small cap stocks over big cap stocks,  $R_{hml}$  the excess return of high book-to-market stocks over low book-to-market stocks,  $\beta_m$  the market beta of asset  $i$ ,  $\beta_{smb}$  the size beta of asset  $i$  and  $\beta_{hml}$  the value beta of asset  $i$ . Those factors are tradable, as they are directly traded in financial markets (you can buy the market, small cap stocks and high book-to-market stocks and short sell the opposite side of the trade).

Macroeconomic factors are examples of *non-tradable factors* (think about inflation, industrial growth, *etc*). Economic conditions have pervasive effects on asset returns (see Flannery and Protopapadakis (2002) [?]). A standard way to tackle the problem of non-tradable factors is to use factor mimicking portfolios (FMPs), such as in Jurczenko and Teiletche (2022) [?]. That is, to construct a portfolio of tradable assets that mimics the behavior of non-tradable factors.

In some sense, climate risks are non-tradable factors, as they are not directly traded in financial markets (see Jurczenko and Teiletche (2023) [?]).

We can use the same approach of FMPs to construct a portfolio of tradable assets that mimics the behavior of climate risks.

## 1.1 Climate News

### 1.1.1 Climate Risks

A first step is to identify the factors of climate risks. If we go back to the example of macroeconomic factors as non-tradable factors, we can think about expectations of inflation, industrial growth, *etc.* Why a non-tradable factor could have an impact on asset prices?

To get an intuition, we can start from the definition of returns in a one period (*ie.* asset lasts only one period):

$$R_{t+1} = \frac{D_{t+1}}{P_t} \quad (1.2)$$

with  $R_{t+1}$  the return of the asset from time  $t$  to time  $t + 1$ ,  $D_{t+1}$  the dividend paid at time  $t + 1$  and  $P_t$  the price of the asset at time  $t$ . There is no  $P_{t+1}$  in the equation, as we are in a one period model and the stock doesn't exist anymore at time  $t + 1$ . Take the expectations:

$$E_t(R_{t+1}) = \frac{E_t(D_{t+1})}{P_t} \quad (1.3)$$

And solve for  $P_t$ :

$$P_t = \frac{E_t(D_{t+1})}{E_t(R_{t+1})} \quad (1.4)$$

These formula represents the price of the asset at time  $t$  as the discounted value of future dividends. Dividends are used as a proxy for future cash flows. The idea is: asset prices are determined by expectations of future cash flows or discount rate. Therefore, if a non-tradable factor affects expectations of future cash flows or discount rate, it will have an impact on asset prices.

The idea is quite immediately intuitive for macro factors: it is easy to see how industrial growth could affect future cash flows or discount rate. But what about climate risks?



### 1.1.2 Measuring Climate Risks

#### 1.1.3 Innovation in Climate Risks

We have a vector of  $K$  *non-tradable* factors  $F_{t+h}$ , with  $h$  the forecast horizon. Investors form expectations of these factors adjust their expectations through time, based on new information or "surprise":

$$\tilde{F}_{t+h} = F_{t+h} - \phi \quad (1.5)$$

with  $\phi$  the  $K \times 1$  vector of expected factors.  $\tilde{F}_{t+h}$  is the *innovation* in the factors of risks.

## 1.2 Climate News and Unexpected Returns

On the other hand, we have the *unexpected* returns  $\tilde{R}_t$ :

$$\tilde{R}_t = R_t - \mu \quad (1.6)$$

The main assumption behind factor mimicking portfolios is that the innovation  $\tilde{F}_{t+h}$  is reflected in the unexpected returns  $\tilde{R}_t$ :

$$\tilde{R}_t = B\tilde{F}_{t+h} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1.7)$$

where  $B$  is a  $N \times K$  matrix of factor loadings,  $\varepsilon_t$  is a  $N \times 1$  vector of mean zero disturbances.

It means that investors reprice assets (unexpected returns  $\tilde{R}_t$ ) based on the arrival of new information on the factors of risks (innovation  $\tilde{F}_{t+h}$ ).

## 1.3 Linear Factor Model

If:

$$R_t = \mu + \tilde{R}_t \quad (1.8)$$

Then, substituting  $\tilde{R}_t$ , we have the following factor model:

$$R_t = \mu + B\tilde{F}_{t+h} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1.9)$$

with  $R_t$  a  $N \times 1$  vector of asset returns,  $\mu$  a  $N \times 1$  vector of expected returns,  $B$  a  $N \times K$  matrix of factor loadings,  $F_{t+h}$  a  $K \times 1$  vector of factor innovations and  $\varepsilon_t$  a  $N \times 1$  vector of mean zero disturbances.

## 1.4 Factor Mimicking

The vector of weights  $w_k$  is the solution to the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{w_k} \quad & \frac{1}{2} w_k^T \Sigma w_k \\ \text{subject to} \quad & B^T w_k = \beta_k \end{aligned} \tag{1.10}$$

where  $B$  is the  $N \times K$  matrix of factor loadings,  $\beta_k$  is the  $K \times 1$  vector of factor exposures, with the  $k$ -th element equal to 1 and the other elements equal to 0, and  $\Sigma$  is the  $N \times N$  covariance matrix of asset returns.

We can form the Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L}(w_k, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} w_k^T \Sigma w_k - \lambda_k^T (B^T w_k - \beta_k) \tag{1.11}$$

where  $\lambda_k$  is the  $K \times 1$  vector of Lagrange multipliers.

The first order condition is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_k} &= \Sigma w_k - B \lambda_k = 0 \\ \Rightarrow w_k &= \Sigma^{-1} B \lambda_k \end{aligned} \tag{1.12}$$

Substituting  $w_k$  in the constraint, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} B^T w_k &= \beta_k \\ B^T \Sigma^{-1} B \lambda_k &= \beta_k \\ \Rightarrow \lambda_k &= (B^T \Sigma^{-1} B)^{-1} \beta_k \end{aligned} \tag{1.13}$$

Substituting  $\lambda_k$  in  $w_k$ , we finally have the solution to the optimization problem:

$$w_k^* = \Sigma^{-1} B (B^T \Sigma^{-1} B)^{-1} \beta_k \tag{1.14}$$

Taking together all the  $K$  factors, we have the matrix of weights  $W$ :

$$W = \Sigma^{-1} B (B^T \Sigma^{-1} B)^{-1} B_K \tag{1.15}$$

where  $B_K$  is the  $K \times K$  matrix with the  $k$ -th column equal to  $\beta_k$  and the other columns equal to  $\beta_{k,l}$ .

## 1.5 Climate Risk Premia

Careful about conclusion on risk premia based on time average of returns on the hedging portfolio.

## 1.6 Conclusion

In what follows, we will focus on the case of climate risk factors. First stage is to identify how to measure climate risk factors.



## Chapter 2

# Climate Risk Mimicking Portfolios

Two main approaches of FMPs have been proposed in the literature: (i) the two-pass cross-sectional regression (Fama and MacBeth, 1973) and (ii) the maximum correlation portfolio (MCP) (Huberman et al, 1987).

It is possible to recover both approaches with the equation in the chapter 1:

$$W = \Sigma^{-1} B (B^T \Sigma^{-1} B)^{-1} B_K \quad (2.1)$$

### 2.1 Two-Pass Fama-MacBeth

In the case of the two-pass Fama-MacBeth, assets are uncorrelated and have constant variance.

$$\Sigma = \sigma^2 I_N \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\sigma^2$  is the variance of the asset returns.

$B$  is multivariate (i.e.,  $K > 1$ ) and the target exposure is:

$$B_K = I_K \quad (2.3)$$

That is, we have a *beta* of one to the  $k$ -th factor and zero to the others.

Substituting  $\Sigma$  and  $B_K$  in the equation (3.1), we have:

WHY  $\sigma^2 I_N$  and  $I_K$  cancels out?

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \sigma^2 I_N B (B^T B)^{-1} I_K \\ &= B (B^T B)^{-1} \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

FMP composition as estimated by different methods  
 FIGURE 2 IN JURCENZKO MACRO FACTORS WITH THIS METHOD

## 2.2 Maximum Correlation Portfolio

We have the Target-Beta MCP, where  $B$  is univariate (i.e.,  $K = 1$ ) and the target exposure is:

$$B_K = B^T \Sigma^{-1} B \quad (2.5)$$

Substituting  $B_K$  in the equation (3.1), we have:  
 FIND THE INTERMEDIARY STEPS

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \Sigma^{-1} B (B^T \Sigma^{-1} B)^{-1} B^T \Sigma^{-1} B \\ &= \Sigma^{-1} B \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

FMP composition as estimated by different methods  
 FIGURE 2 IN JURCENZKO MACRO FACTORS WITH THIS METHOD

# Chapter 3

## Practical Use: Hedging Climate Risk for a Fund

An investor might be seeking to hedge the climate risks to improve the risk-return profile of a portfolio.

### 3.1 Hedging a Portfolio with FMPs

A practical way to would be to determine a combination of an existing portfolio  $p$  with, climate FMPs that minimizes the variance of the combined portfolio returns.

More precisely, let's assume that the investors determines a vector "tilt"  $\omega$  that represents the weights of the FMPs in the combined portfolio.

The vector  $\omega$  would be determined by:

$$\min_{\omega} \quad T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T (R_t^p - \omega^T FMP_t)^2 \quad (3.1)$$

### 3.2 Backtesting a Climate Risk Hedging Strategy

Figure 3 – Macro Risk Contributions

Figure 4 – Endowment portfolio and its macro-hedged version: Quarterly returns and Maximum Drawdowns





Chapter 4

Conclusion

More generally can be applied to other ESG risks. See biodiversity risk from Giglio et al.