

Methods for the computation of VaR und CVaR

Consider the portfolio value $V_m = f(t_m, Z_m)$, where Z_m is the vector of risk factors.

Let the loss function over the interval $[t_m, t_{m+1}]$ be given as $L_{m+1} = l_{[m]}(X_{m+1})$, where X_{m+1} is the vector of the risk factor changes, i.e.

$$X_{m+1} = Z_{m+1} - Z_m.$$

Consider observations (historical data) of risk factor values

$$Z_{m-n+1}, \dots, Z_m.$$

How to use these data to compute/estimate $VaR(L_{m+1})$, $CVaR(L_{m+1})$?

The empirical VaR and the empirical CVaR

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Assumption: $x_1 > x_2 > \dots > x_n$. Then $q_\alpha(F_n) = x_{[n(1-\alpha)]+1}$ holds, where $[y] := \sup\{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \leq y\}$ for every $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Lemma

Let $\hat{q}_\alpha(F) := q_\alpha(F_n)$ and let F be a strictly increasing function. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{q}_\alpha(F) = q_\alpha(F)$ holds $\forall \alpha \in (0, 1)$, i.e. the estimator $\hat{q}_\alpha(F)$ is consistent.

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The empirical estimator of CVaR is $\widehat{\text{CVaR}}_\alpha(F) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{[n(1-\alpha)]+1} x_k}{([n(1-\alpha)]+1)}$

A non-parametric bootstrapping approach to compute the confidence interval of the estimator

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Goal: computation of an estimator of a certain parameter θ depending on F , e.g. $\theta = q_\alpha(F)$, and the corresponding confidence interval.

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Let $\hat{\theta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be an estimator of θ , e.g. $\hat{\theta}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_{[(n(1-\alpha))+1], n}$ $\theta = q_\alpha(F)$, where $x_{1,n} > x_{2,n} > \dots > x_{n,n}$ is the ordered sample.

The required confidence interval is an (a, b) with $a = a(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ u. $b = b(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, such that $P(a < \theta < b) = p$, for a given confidence level p .

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Case I: F is known.

Generate N samples $\tilde{x}_1^{(i)}, \tilde{x}_2^{(i)}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n^{(i)}$, $1 \leq i \leq N$, by simulation from F (N should be large)

Let $\tilde{\theta}_i = \hat{\theta}(\tilde{x}_1^{(i)}, \tilde{x}_2^{(i)}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n^{(i)})$, $1 \leq i \leq N$.

Case I (cont.)

The empirical distribution function of $\hat{\theta}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is given as

$$F_N^{\hat{\theta}} := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I_{[\tilde{\theta}_i, \infty)}$$

and it tends to $F^{\hat{\theta}}$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$.

The required confidence interval is given as

$$\left(q_{\frac{1-p}{2}}(F_N^{\hat{\theta}}), q_{\frac{1+p}{2}}(F_N^{\hat{\theta}}) \right)$$

(assuming that the sample sizes N and n are large enough).

Case II: F is not known \Rightarrow Bootstrapping!

The empirical distribution function of X_i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, is given as

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I_{[x_i, \infty)}(x).$$

For n large $F_n \approx F$ holds.

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Generate samples from F_n by choosing n elements in $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and putting every element back to the set immediately after its choice

Assume N such samples are generated: $x_1^{*(i)}, x_2^{*(i)}, \dots, x_n^{*(i)}$, $1 \leq i \leq N$.

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Compute $\theta_i^* = \hat{\theta}\left(x_1^{*(i)}, x_2^{*(i)}, \dots, x_n^{*(i)}\right)$.

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Compute $\theta_i^* = \hat{\theta} \left(x_1^{*(i)}, x_2^{*(i)}, \dots, x_n^{*(i)} \right)$.

The empirical distribution of θ_i^* is given as $F_N^{\theta^*}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I_{[\theta_i^*, \infty)}(x)$; it approximates the distribution function $F^{\hat{\theta}}$ of $\hat{\theta}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$.

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A confidence interval (a, b) with confidence level p is given by

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$$a = q_{(1-p)/2}(F_N^{\theta^*}), \quad b = q_{(1+p)/2}(F_N^{\theta^*}).$$

Thus $a = \theta_{[N(1+p)/2]+1, N}^*$, $b = \theta_{[N(1-p)/2]+1, N}^*$, where $\theta_{1, N}^* \geq \dots \theta_{N, N}^*$ is the sorted θ^* sample.

Summary of the non-parametric bootstrapping approach to compute confidence intervals

Input: Sample x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of the i.i.d. random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n with distribution function F and an estimator $\hat{\theta}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ of an unknown parameter $\theta(F)$, A confidence level $p \in (0, 1)$.

Output: A confidence interval I_p for θ with confidence level p .

- ▶ Generate N new Samples $x_1^{*(i)}, x_2^{*(i)}, \dots, x_n^{*(i)}$, $1 \leq i \leq N$, by choosing elements in $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and putting them back right after the choice.

- ▶ Compute $\theta_i^* = \hat{\theta}\left(x_1^{*(i)}, x_2^{*(i)}, \dots, x_n^{*(i)}\right)$.

- ▶ Setz $I_p := \left(\theta_{[N(1+p)/2]+1, N}^*, \theta_{[N(1-p)/2]+1, N}^* \right)$, where $\theta_{1, N}^* \geq \theta_{2, N}^* \geq \dots \theta_{N, N}^*$ is obtained by sorting $\theta_1^*, \theta_2^*, \dots, \theta_N^*$.

An approximative solution without bootstrapping

Input: A sample x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of the random variables X_i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, i.i.d. with unknown continuous distribution function F , a confidence level $p \in (0, 1)$

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Output: A small $p' \in (0, 1)$, $p' \geq p$, and a confidence interval (a, b) for $q_\alpha(F)$, i.e. $a = a(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, $b = b(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, such that

$P(a < q_\alpha(F) < b) = p'$ and $P(a \geq q_\alpha(F)) = P(b \leq q_\alpha(F) \leq (1-p)/2)$ holds.

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$P(a < q_\alpha(F) < b) = p'$ and $P(a \geq q_\alpha(F)) = P(b \leq q_\alpha(F) \leq (1-p)/2)$ holds.

Determine $i > j$, $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, and the smallest $p' > p$, such that

$$P\left(x_{i,n} < q_\alpha(F) < x_{j,n}\right) = p' \quad (*) \quad \text{and}$$

$$P\left(x_{i,n} \geq q_\alpha(F)\right) \leq (1-p)/2 \text{ and } P\left(x_{j,n} \leq q_\alpha(F)\right) \leq (1-p)/2 (**),$$

where $x_{1,n} \geq x_{2,n} \geq \dots \geq x_{n,n}$ is obtained from x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n by sorting.

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Compute $P(x_{j,n} \leq q_\alpha(F))$ and $P(x_{i,n} \geq q_\alpha(F))$ for different i and j until indices $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, $i > j$, which fulfill $(**)$ are found.

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Set $a := x_{j,n}$ and $b := x_{i,n}$.

Historical simulation

Let x_{m-n+1}, \dots, x_m be historical observations of the risk factor changes X_{m-n+1}, \dots, X_m ; the historically realized losses are given as $l_k = l_{[m]}(x_{m-k+1})$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$,

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$$\text{Empirical CVaR: } \widehat{CVaR} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{[n(1-\alpha)]+1} l_{i,n}}{[n(1-\alpha)]+1},$$

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VaR and CVaR of the loss aggregated over a number of days, e.g. 10 days, over the days $m-n+10(k-1)+1, m-n+10(k-1)+2, \dots, m-n+10(k-1)+10$, denoted by $l_k^{(10)}$ is given as

$$l_k^{(10)} = l_{[m]} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{10} x_{m-n+10(k-1)+j} \right) \quad k = 1, \dots, [n/10]$$

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Advantages:

- ▶ simple implementation
- ▶ considers intrinsically the dependencies between the elements of the vector of the risk factors changes $X_{m-k} = (X_{m-k,1}, \dots, X_{m-k,d})$.

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Disadvantages:

- ▶ lots of historical data needed to get good estimators
- ▶ the estimated loss cannot be larger than the maximal loss experienced in the past

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where $V := V_m$, $w_i := w_{m,i}$, $w = (w_1, \dots, w_d)^T$,
 $X_{m+1} = (X_{m+1,1}, X_{m+1,2}, \dots, X_{m+1,d})^T$.

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Assumption 2: x_{m-n+1}, \dots, x_m are i.i.d.

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Idea: use the linearised loss function under the assumption that the vector of the risk factor changes is normally distributed.

$$L_{m+1}^{\Delta} = l_m^{\Delta}(X_{m+1}) = -V \sum_{i=1}^d w_i X_{m+1,i} = -Vw^T X_{m+1},$$

where $V := V_m$, $w_i := w_{m,i}$, $w = (w_1, \dots, w_d)^T$,
 $X_{m+1} = (X_{m+1,1}, X_{m+1,2}, \dots, X_{m+1,d})^T$.

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$$\hat{\sigma}_{ij} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_{m-k+1,i} - \mu_i)(x_{m-k+1,j} - \mu_j) \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, d$$

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Estimator for VaR: $\widehat{VaR}(L_{m+1}) = -Vw^T \hat{\mu} + V\sqrt{w^T \hat{\Sigma} w} \phi^{-1}(\alpha)$

The variance-covariance method (contd.)

Advantages:

- ▶ analytical solution
- ▶ simple implementation
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- ▶ analytical solution
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- ▶ no simulationen needed

Disadvantages:

- ▶ Linearisation is not always appropriate, only for a short time horizon reasonable
- ▶ The normal distribution assumption could lead to underestimation of risks and should be argued upon (e.g. in terms of historical data)

Monte-Carlo approach

- (1) historical observations of risk factor changes X_{m-n+1}, \dots, X_m .
- (2) assumption on a parametric model for the cumulative distribution function of X_k , $m - n + 1 \leq k \leq m$;
e.g. a common distribution function F and independence
- (3) estimation of the parameters of F .
- (4) generation of N samples $\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \dots, \tilde{x}_N$ from F ($N \gg 1$) and computation of the losses $l_k = l_{[m]}(\tilde{x}_k)$, $1 \leq k \leq N$
- (5) computation of the empirical distribution of the loss function L_{m+1} :

$$\hat{F}_N^{L_{m+1}}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N l_{[l_k, \infty)}(x).$$

- (5) computation of estimates for the VaR and CVAR of the loss function: $\widehat{VaR}(L_{m+1}) = (\hat{F}_N^{L_{m+1}})^{-1} = l_{[N(1-\alpha)]+1, N}$,

$$\widehat{CVaR}(L_{m+1}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{[N(1-\alpha)]+1} l_{k, N}}{[N(1-\alpha)]+1},$$

where the losses are sorted $l_{1, N} \geq l_{2, N} \geq \dots \geq l_{N, N}$.

Monte-Carlo approach (contd.)

Advantages:

- ▶ very flexible; can use any distribution F from which simulation is possible
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Disadvantages:

- ▶ computationally expensive; a large number of simulations needed to obtain good estimates

Monte-Carlo approach (contd.)

Example

The portfolio consists of one unit of asset S with price be S_t at time t .

The risk factor changes

$$X_{k+1} = \ln(S_{t_{k+1}}) - \ln(S_{t_k}),$$

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Depending on F_θ it can be complicated or impossible to compute CVaR analytically.

Alternative: Monte-Carlo simulation.

Monte-Carlo approach (contd.)

Example

Let the portfolio and the risk factor changes X_{k+1} be as in the previous example.

A popular model for the logarithmic returns of assets is GARCH(1,1) (see e.g. Alexander 2002):

$$X_{k+1} = \sigma_{k+1} Z_{k+1} \quad (1)$$

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where Z_k , $k \in \mathbb{N}$, are i.i.d. and standard normally distributed, and a_0, a_1 and b_1 are parameters, which should be estimated.

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It is simple to simulate from this model.

However analytical computation of VaR and CVaR over a certain time interval consisting of many periods is cumbersome! Check it out!

Chapter 3: Extreme value theory

Notation:

- ▶ We will often use the same notation for the distribution of a random variable (r.v.) and its (cumulative) distribution function!
- ▶ $f(x) \sim g(x)$ for $x \rightarrow \infty$ means $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)/g(x) = 1$
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These two “definitions” are not equivalent!

Regular variation

Definition

A measurable function $h: (0, +\infty) \rightarrow (0, +\infty)$ has a regular variation with index $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$ towards $+\infty$ iff

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If $\rho < 0$, then the convergence in (3) uniform in every interval $(b, +\infty)$ for $b > 0$.

Example

Show that $L \in RV_0$ holds for the functions L as below:

(a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} L(x) = c \in (0, +\infty)$

(b) $L(x) := \ln(1+x)$

(c) $L(x) := \ln(1 + \ln(1+x))$

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Proposition (no proof)

Let $X > 0$ be a r.v. with distribution function F , such that $\bar{F} \in RV_{-\alpha}$ for some $\alpha > 0$. Then $E(X^\beta) < \infty$ for $\beta < \alpha$ and $E(X^\beta) = \infty$ for $\beta > \alpha$ hold.

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The converse is not true!

Application of regular variation

Example 1: Let X_1 and X_2 be two nonnegative i.i.d. r.v. with distribution function $F, \bar{F} \in RV_{-\alpha}$ for some $\alpha > 0$. Let X_1 (X_2) represent the loss of a portfolio which consists of 1 unit of asset A_1 (A_2).

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Compare the probabilities of high losses in the two portfolios by computing the limit

$$\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{Prob}(L_2 > l)}{\text{Prob}(L_1 > l)}.$$