

# Estimating Value at Risk

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*Do you know how risky your bank is?*

# Learning objectives

- 1 Understand measures of financial risk, including *Value at Risk*
- 2 Understand the impact of correlated risks
- 3 Know how to use copulas to sample from a multivariate probability distribution, including correlation



The information presented here is pedagogical in nature and does not constitute investment advice!

*Methods used here can also be applied to model natural hazards*



**Warmup.** Before reading this material, we suggest you consult the following associated slides:

- ▷ Modelling correlations using Python
- ▷ Statistical modelling with Python

Available from [risk-engineering.org](http://risk-engineering.org)

# Risk in finance

“ *There are  $10^{11}$  stars in the galaxy. That used to be a huge number. But it's only a hundred billion. It's less than the national deficit! We used to call them **astronomical** numbers. Now we should call them **economical** numbers.*

— *Richard Feynman*



# Terminology in finance

Names of some instruments used in finance:

- ▷ A **bond** issued by a company or a government is just a loan
  - bond buyer lends money to bond issuer
  - issuer will return money plus some interest when the bond matures
  
- ▷ A **stock** gives you (a small fraction of) ownership in a “listed company”
  - a stock has a price, and can be bought and sold on the stock market
  
- ▷ A **future** is a promise to do a transaction at a later date
  - refers to some “underlying” product which will be bought or sold at a later time
  - example: farmer can sell her crop before harvest, at a fixed price
  - way of transferring risk: farmer protected from risk of price drop, but also from possibility of unexpected profit if price increases

# Risk in finance

## ▷ Possible definitions:

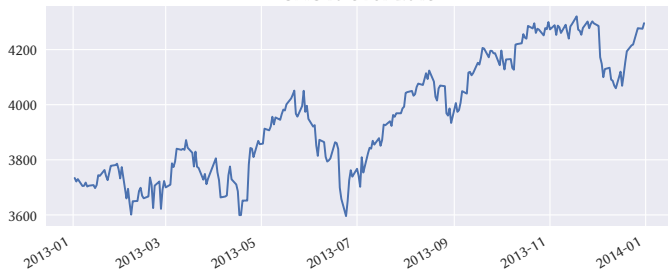
- “any event or action that may adversely affect an organization’s ability to achieve its objectives and execute its strategies”
- “the quantifiable likelihood of loss or less-than-expected returns”

## ▷ Main categories:

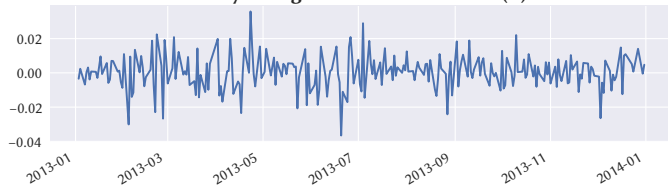
- **market risk:** change in the value of a financial position due to changes in the value of the underlying components on which that position depends, such as stock and bond prices, exchange rates, commodity prices
- **credit risk:** not receiving promised repayments on outstanding investments such as loans and bonds, because of the “default” of the borrower
- **operational risk:** losses resulting from inadequate or failed internal processes, people and systems, or from external events
- **underwriting risk:** inherent in insurance policies sold, due to changing patterns in natural hazards, in demographic tables (life insurance), in consumer behaviour, and due to systemic risks

# Stock market returns

CAC40 over 2013



Daily change in CAC40 over 2013 (%)



Say we have a stock portfolio. How risky is our investment?

We want to model the likelihood that our stock portfolio loses money.

# Value at Risk

- ▷ Objective: produce a **single number** to summarize my **exposure to market risk**
  - naïve approach: *How much could I lose in the “worst” scenario?*
  - that’s a bad question: you could lose everything
- ▷ A more informative question:
  - *“What is the loss level that we are X% confident will not be exceeded in N business days?”*
- ▷ “5-day  $VaR_{0.9} = 10 \text{ M€}$ ” tells us:
  - *I am 90% sure I won’t lose more than 10 M€ in the next 5 trading days*
  - *There is 90% chance that my loss will be smaller than 10 M€ in the next 5 days*
  - *There is 10% chance that my loss will be larger than 10 M€ in the next 5 days*
- ▷ What it does not tell us:
  - *How much could I lose in those 10% of scenarios?*

# Value at Risk

## Value at risk

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A measure of market risk, which uses the statistical analysis of historical market trends and volatilities to estimate the likelihood that a given portfolio's losses ( $L$ ) will exceed a certain amount  $l$ .

$$\text{VaR}_\alpha(L) = \inf \{l \in \mathbb{R} : \Pr(L > l) \leq 1 - \alpha\}$$

where  $L$  is the loss of the portfolio and  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  is the confidence level.

# Value at Risk

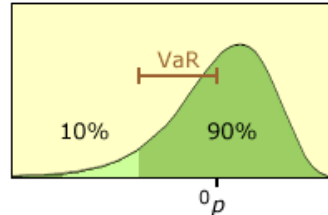
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If a portfolio of stocks has a one-day 10% VaR of 1 M€, there is a 10% probability that the portfolio will decline in value by more than 1 M€ over the next day, assuming that markets are normal.



# Applications of VaR

- ▷ **Risk management:** how much financial risk am I exposed to?
  - Provides a structured methodology for critically thinking about risk, and consolidating risk across an organization
  - VaR can be applied to individual stocks, portfolios of stocks, hedge funds, *etc.*
- ▷ **Risk limit setting** (internal controls or regulator imposed)
  - Basel II Accord (financial regulation) attempts to ensure that a bank has adequate capital for the risk that the bank exposes itself to through its lending and investment practices
  - VaR is often used as a measure of market risk
  - Provides a single number which is easy to understand by non-specialists

# Limitations of VaR

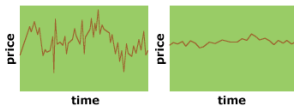
- ▷ Typical VaR estimation methods assume “normal” market conditions
- ▷ They do not attempt to assess the potential impact of “**black swan**” **events**
  - outlier events that carry an extreme impact
  - example: effects of cascading failure in the banking industry, such as the 2008 subprime mortgage crisis
- ▷ More information: see the slides on *Black swans* at [risk-engineering.org](http://risk-engineering.org)

## Alternatives to VaR

- ▷ VaR is a *frequency* measure, not a *severity* measure
  - it's a *threshold*, not an expectation of the amount lost
- ▷ Related risk measure: Expected Shortfall, the average loss for losses larger than the VaR
  - expected shortfall at  $q\%$  level is the expected return in the worst  $q\%$  of cases
  - also called *conditional value at risk* (CVaR) and *expected tail loss*
- ▷ Note that
  - $ES_q$  increases as  $q$  increases
  - $ES_q$  is always greater than  $VaR_q$  at the same  $q$  level (for the same portfolio)
- ▷ Unlike VaR, expected shortfall is a *coherent* risk measure
  - a risk measure  $\mathcal{R}$  is *subadditive* if  $\mathcal{R}(X + Y) \leq \mathcal{R}(X) + \mathcal{R}(Y)$
  - the risk of two portfolios combined cannot exceed the risk of the two separate portfolios added together (diversification does not increase risk)

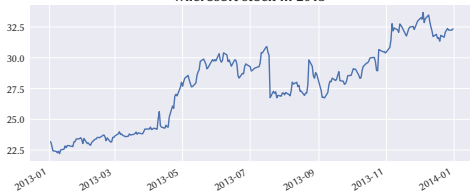
# Estimating VaR

- ▷ Estimation is difficult because we are dealing with **rare events** whose probability distribution is unknown
- ▷ Three main methods are used to estimate VaR:
  - 1 historical bootstrap method
  - 2 variance-covariance method
  - 3 Monte Carlo simulation
- ▷ All are based on estimating **volatility**
- ▷ Applications of the *constant expected return* model which is widely used in finance
  - assumption: an asset's return over time is independent and identically normally distributed with a constant (time invariant) mean and variance

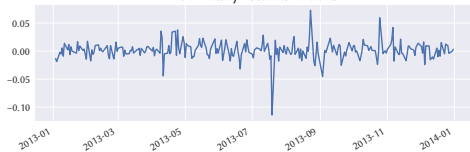


# Understanding volatility

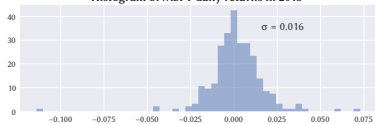
Microsoft stock in 2013



MSFT daily returns in 2013

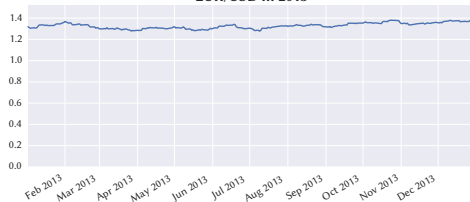


Histogram of MSFT daily returns in 2013

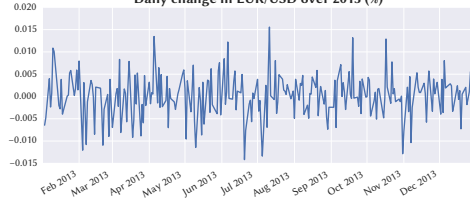


high volatility

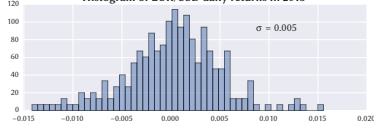
EUR/USD in 2013



Daily change in EUR/USD over 2013 (%)



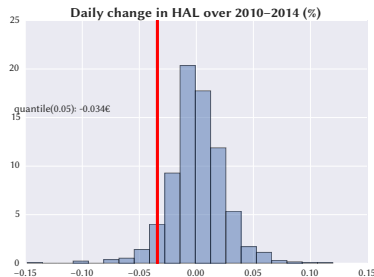
Histogram of EUR/USD daily returns in 2013



low volatility

# Historical bootstrap method

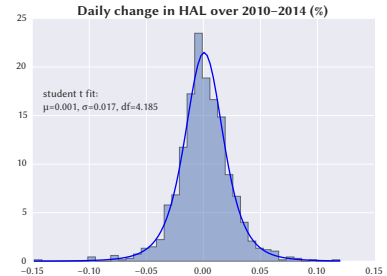
- ▷ Hypothesis: history is representative of future activity
- ▷ Method: calculate **empirical quantiles** from a histogram of daily returns
- ▷ 0.05 empirical quantile of daily returns is at -0.034:
  - with 95% confidence, our worst daily loss will not exceed 3.4%
  - 1 M€ investment: one-day 5% VaR is  $0.034 \times 1 \text{ M€} = 34 \text{ k€}$
  - (note: the 0.05 quantile is the 5<sup>th</sup> percentile)
- ▷ 0.01 empirical quantile of daily returns is at -0.062:
  - with 99% confidence, our worst daily loss will not exceed 6.2%
  - 1 M€ investment: one-day 1% VaR is  $0.062 \times 1 \text{ M€} = 62 \text{ k€}$



Download this content as a  
Python notebook at  
[risk-engineering.org](http://risk-engineering.org)

# Variance-covariance method

- ▷ Hypothesis: daily returns are normally distributed
- ▷ Method: analytic quantiles by **curve fitting to historical data**
  - here: Student's t distribution
- ▷ 0.05 analytic quantile is at -0.0384
  - with 95% confidence, our worst daily loss will not exceed 3.84%
  - 1 M€ investment: one-day 5% VaR is  $0.0384 \times 1 \text{ M€} = 38 \text{ k€}$
- ▷ 0.01 analytic quantile is at -0.0546
  - with 99% confidence, our worst daily loss will not exceed 5.46%
  - 1 M€ investment: one-day 1% VaR is  $0.0546 \times 1 \text{ M€} = 54 \text{ k€}$



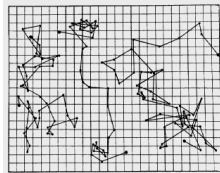
# Monte Carlo simulation

## ▷ Method:

- 1 run many “trials” with random market conditions
- 2 calculate portfolio loss for each trial
- 3 use the aggregated trial data to establish a profile of the portfolio’s risk characteristics

## ▷ Hypothesis: stock price evolution can be simulated by **geometric Brownian motion (GBM)** with drift

- constant expected return
  - constant volatility
  - zero transaction costs
- ## ▷ GBM: a continuous-time stochastic process in which the logarithm of the randomly varying quantity follows a Brownian motion
- stochastic process modeling a “random walk” or “white noise”
  - $W_t - W_s \sim Normal(0, t - s)$



1997 “Nobel-like”  
prize in economics:  
Scholes

## Monte Carlo simulation: underlying hypothesis

- ▷ Applying the GBM “random walk” model means we are following a weak form of the “efficient market hypothesis”
  - all available public information is already incorporated in the current price
  - the next price movement is conditionally independent of past price movements
- ▷ The strong form of the hypothesis says that current price incorporates both public *and private* information

# Geometric Brownian motion

drift (instantaneous rate of return on a riskless asset)

time step

$$\frac{\Delta S}{S} = \mu \Delta t + \sigma \varepsilon \sqrt{\Delta t}$$

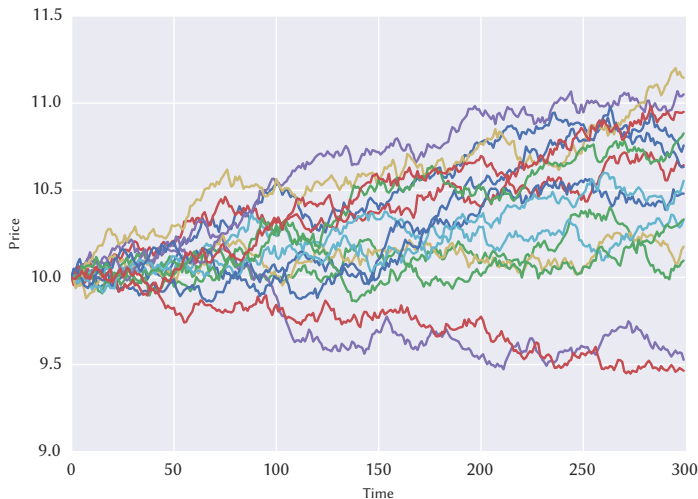
volatility

follows a Normal(0, 1) distribution

where

- ▷  $S$  = stock price
- ▷ random variable  $\log(S_t/S_0)$  is normally distributed with mean =  $(\mu - \sigma^2/2)t$ , variance =  $\sigma^2 t$

## Monte Carlo simulation: 15 random walks

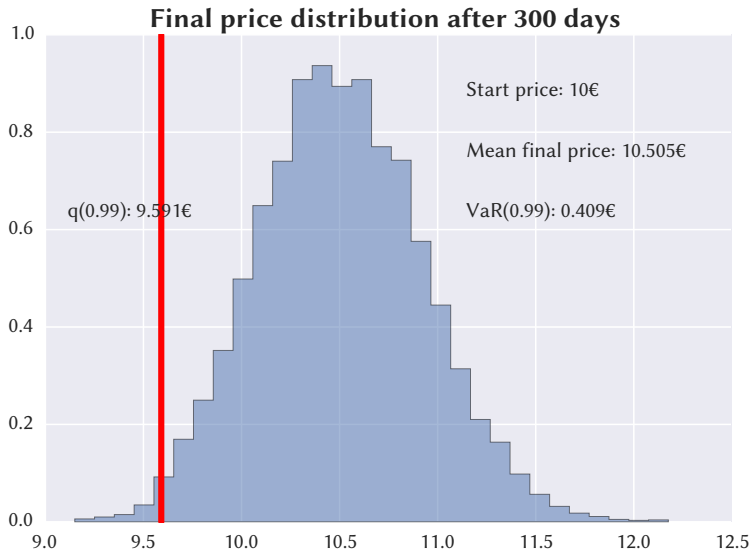


With large number of simulations, we can estimate:

- ▷ mean final price
- ▷ Value at Risk

→ slides on Monte Carlo methods at [risk-engineering.org](http://risk-engineering.org)

# Monte Carlo simulation: histogram of final price



*Download the associated  
Python notebook at  
[risk-engineering.org](http://risk-engineering.org)*

## Note

The Black-Scholes model is elegant, but it does not perform very well in practice:

- ▷ it is well known that stock prices jump on occasions and do not always move in the smooth manner predicted by the GBM model
  - Black Tuesday 29 Oct 1929: drop of Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA) of 12.8%
  - Black Monday 19 Oct 1987: drop of DJIA of 22.6%
  - Asian and Russian financial crisis of 1997–1998
  - Dot-com bubble burst in 2001
  - Crash of 2008–2009, Covid-19 in 2020
- ▷ stock prices also tend to have fatter tails than those predicted by GBM
- ▷ more sophisticated modelling uses “jump-diffusion” models

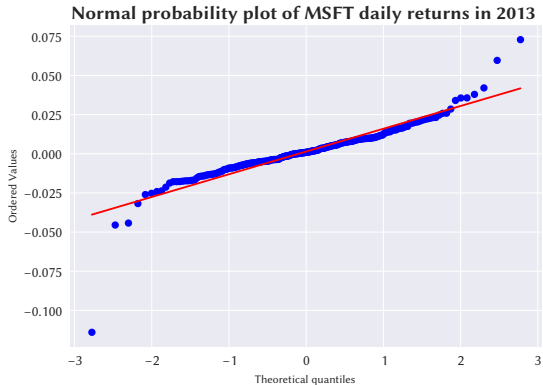


“ *If the efficient market hypothesis were correct, I'd be a bum in the street with a tin cup.*

– Warren Buffet

(Market capitalization of his company Berkshire Hathaway: US\$328 billion)

# Stock market returns and “fat tails”

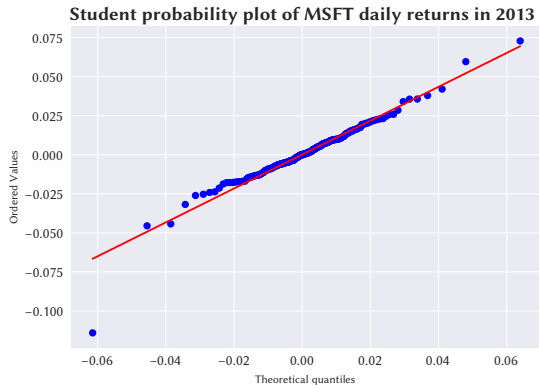


A probability plot shows how the distribution of a sample compares with the distribution of a reference probability distribution by plotting their quantiles against each other.

If distributions are similar, plot will follow a line  $Y = X$ .

The reference probability distribution is often the normal distribution.

# Stock market returns and “fat tails”



Student's  $t$  distribution tends to fit stock returns better than a Gaussian (in particular in the tails of the distribution).

The distribution of a random variable  $X$  is said to have a “fat tail” if

$$\Pr(X > x) \sim x^{-\alpha} \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty, \quad \alpha > 0$$

# Diversification and portfolios

- ▷ Money managers try to reduce their risk exposure by **diversifying** their portfolio of investments
  - attempt to select stocks that have negative correlation: when one goes down, the other goes up
  - same ideas for pooling of risks across business lines and organizations
  - degree of diversification benefit depends on the degree of dependence between pooled risks

“Diversification benefits can be assessed by correlations between different risk categories. A correlation of +100% means that two variables will fall and rise in lock-step; any correlation below this indicates the potential for diversification benefits.

*[Treasury and FSA, 2006]*

- ▷ Area called “portfolio theory”
  - developed for equities (stocks), but also applied to loans & credits

# Expected returns and risk

- ▷ Expected return for an equity  $i$ :  $\mathbb{E}[R_i] = \mu_i$ 
  - where  $\mu_i$  = mean of return distribution for equity  $i$
  - difference between purchase and selling price
- ▷ More risk  $\rightarrow$  higher expected return
  - we assume investors are **risk averse**

# Expected returns and risk

## Variance

Variance (denoted  $\sigma^2$ ) is a measure of the **dispersion** of a set of data points **around their mean value**, computed by finding the probability-weighted average of squared deviations from the expected value.

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_X^2 &= \text{Variance}(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N p_i (x_i - \mu_X)^2 \quad \text{for a discrete random variable} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \mu)^2 \quad \text{for a set of } N \text{ equally likely variables}\end{aligned}$$

Variance measures the variability from an average (the *volatility*).

“Risk” in finance is standard deviation of returns for the equity,  $\sqrt{\text{variance}(i)}$

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[(\mathbb{E}[R_i] - R_i)^2]}$$

## Expected return and risk: example

- ▷ Consider a portfolio of 10k€ which is invested in equal parts in two instruments:
  - treasury bonds with an annual return of 6%
  - a stock which has a 20% chance of losing half its value and an 80% chance of increasing value by a quarter
  
- ▷ The expected return after one year is the mathematical expectation of the return on the portfolio:
  - expected final value of the bond:  $1.06 \times 5000 = 5300$
  - expected final value of the stock:  $0.2 \times 2500 + 0.8 \times 6250 = 5500$
  - $E(\text{return}) = 5400 + 5500 - 10000 = 900$  (= 0.09, or 9%)
  
- ▷ The risk of this investment is the standard deviation of the return

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma &= \sqrt{0.2 \times ((5300 + 2500 - 10000) - 900)^2 + 0.8 \times ((5300 + 6250 - 10000) - 900)^2} \\ &= 1503.3\end{aligned}$$

## Value at Risk of a portfolio

- ▷ Remember that  $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{cov}(X, Y)$
- ▷ Variance of a two-stock portfolio:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{A+B}^2 &= \sigma_A^2 + \sigma_B^2 + 2\sigma_A\sigma_B\rho_{A,B} \\ &= (\sigma_A + \sigma_B)^2 - 2\sigma_A\sigma_B + 2\rho_{A,B}\sigma_A\sigma_B\end{aligned}$$

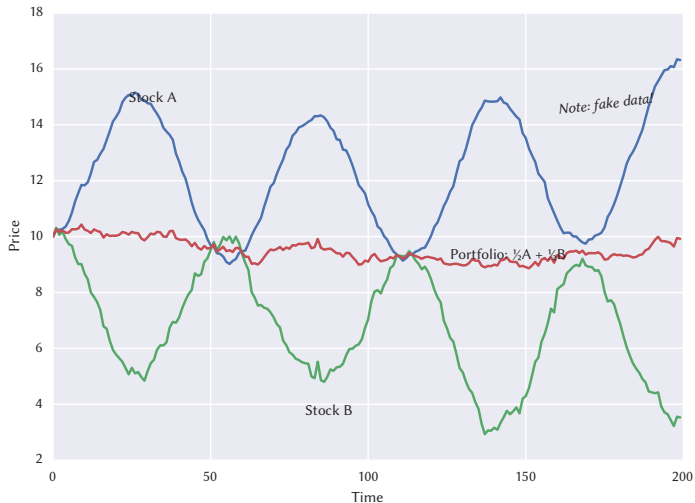
where

- $\rho_{A,B}$  = covariance (how much do  $A$  and  $B$  vary together?)
  - $\sigma_i$  = standard deviation (volatility) of equity  $i$
- ▷ Portfolio VaR:

$$\text{VaR}_{A,B} = \sqrt{(\text{VaR}_A + \text{VaR}_B)^2 - 2(1 - \rho_{A,B})\text{VaR}_A\text{VaR}_B}$$

Diversification effect: unless the equities are perfectly correlated ( $\rho_{A,B} = 1$ ), the level of risk of a portfolio is smaller than the weighted sum of the two component equities

# Negatively correlated portfolio reduces risk

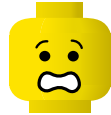


*Old saying: "Don't put all your eggs in the same basket"*

# VaR of a three-asset portfolio

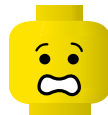
▷ 
$$\text{VaR} = \sqrt{\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_B^2 + \sigma_C^2 + 2\rho_{A,B} + 2\rho_{A,C} + 2\rho_{B,C}}$$

▷ Approach quickly becomes intractable using analytic methods...



## VaR of a three-asset portfolio

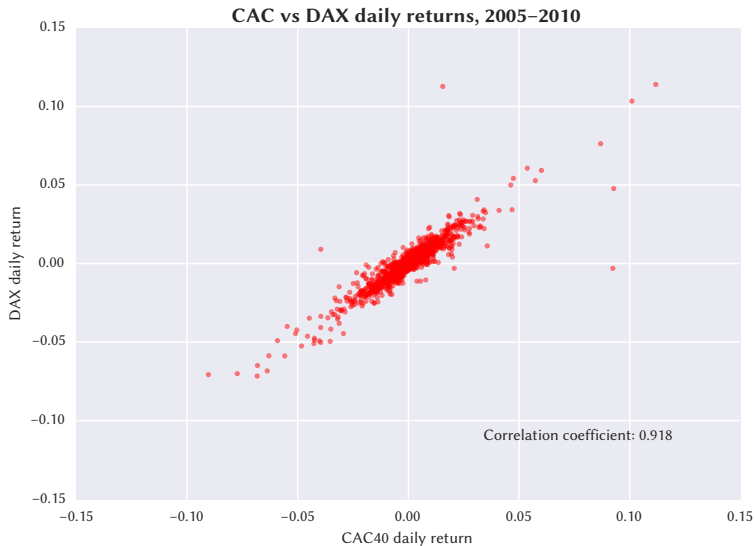
- ▷ 
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- ▷ Approach quickly becomes intractable using analytic methods...



Monte Carlo methods can work, assuming we can generate random returns that are similar to those observed on the market

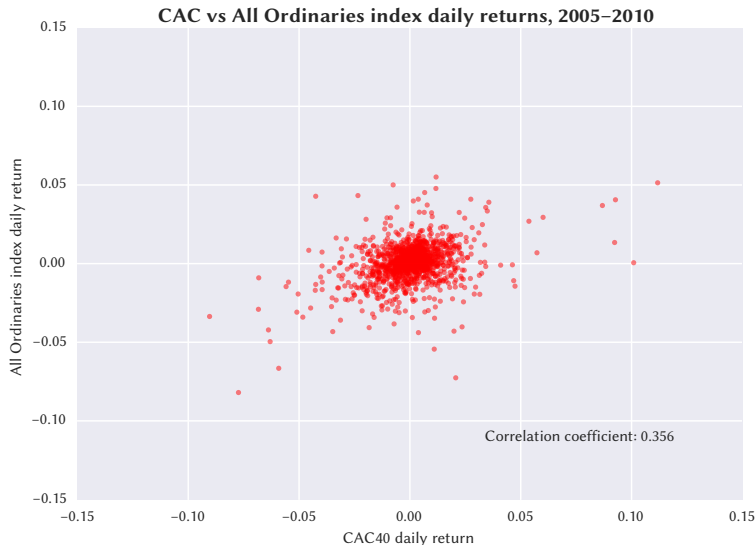
- ▷ including the dependencies between stocks...

## Example: correlation between stocks



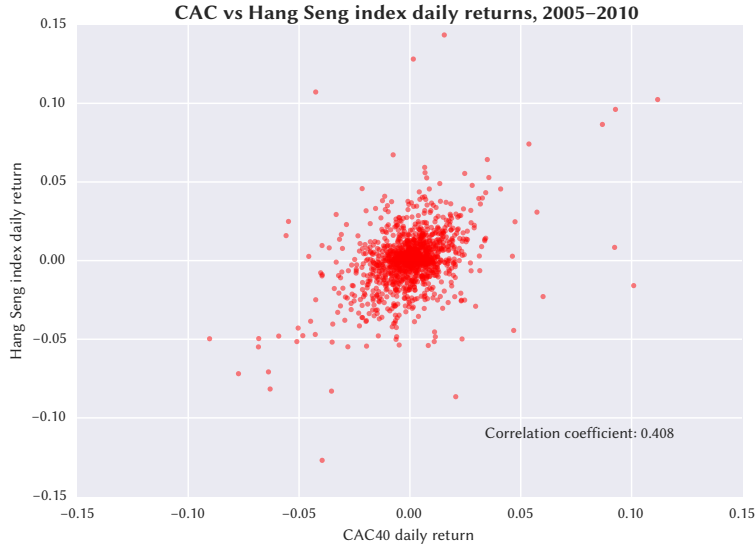
Market opportunities for large French & German firms tend to be strongly correlated, so high correlation between CAC and DAX indices

## Example: correlation between stocks



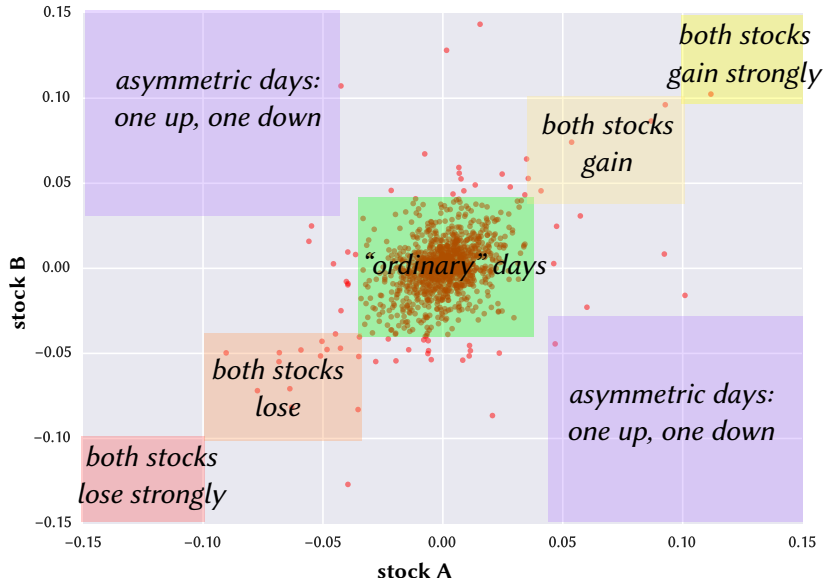
Less market correlation between French & Australian firms, so less index correlation

# Example: correlation between stocks



Less market correlation between French & Hong Kong firms, so less index correlation

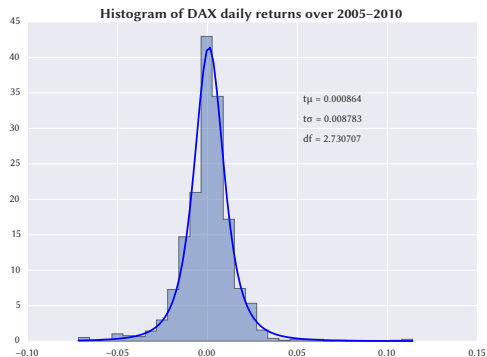
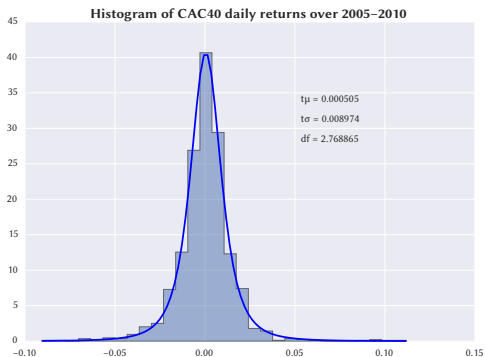
# Correlations and risk: stock portfolios



# Simulating correlated random variables

- ▷ Let's use the Monte Carlo method to estimate VaR for a portfolio comprising CAC40 and DAX stocks
- ▷ We need to generate a large number of simulated daily returns for our CAC40 & DAX portfolio
- ▷ We know how to generate daily returns for the CAC40 part of our portfolio
  - simulate random variables from a Student's t distribution with the same mean and standard deviation as the daily returns observed over the last few months for the CAC40
- ▷ We can do likewise to generate daily returns for the DAX component
- ▷ If our portfolio is equally weighted in CAC40 and DAX, we could try to add together these daily returns to obtain portfolio daily returns

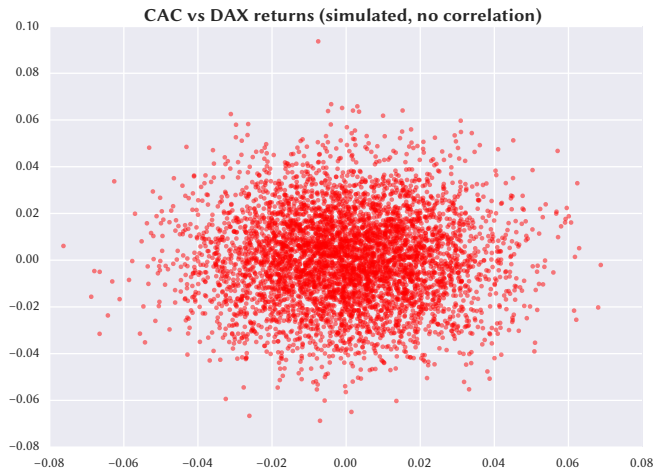
# Simulating correlated random variables



Fit of two Student t distributions to the CAC40 and DAX daily return distribution

Python: `tdf, tmean, tsigma = scipy.stats.t.fit(returns)`

# Monte Carlo sampling from these distributions



**Problem:** our sampling from these random variables doesn't match our observations

We need some way of generating a sample that respects the correlation between the input variables!

## Continue with

The mathematical tool we will use to generate samples from correlated random variables is called a *copula*.

To be continued in slides on *Copula and multivariate dependencies* (available on [risk-engineering.org](http://risk-engineering.org))

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