# FORMULA SHEET FOR FINANCIAL RISK ALLOWED TO BE USED ON THE EXAM

## 1. Extreme value statistics

Generalized Pareto cumulative distribution function:

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - (1 + \frac{\gamma}{\sigma}x)^{-1/\gamma} & \text{for } x \ge 0, & \text{if } \gamma_j > 0\\ 1 - e^{-\frac{x}{\sigma}} & \text{for } x \ge 0, & \text{if } \gamma_j = 0\\ 1 - (1 + \frac{\gamma}{\sigma}x)^{-1/\gamma} & \text{for } x \ge 0 \text{ and } x < -\frac{\sigma}{\gamma}, \text{ if } \gamma_j < 0 \end{cases}$$

Generalized Extreme Value cumulative distribution function:

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} \exp\{-(1+\frac{\gamma}{\sigma}(x-\mu))^{-1/\gamma}\} & \text{for } x \ge \mu - \frac{\sigma}{\gamma}, & \text{if } \gamma_j > 0\\ e^{-e^{-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}} & \text{if } \gamma_j = 0\\ \exp\{-(1+\frac{\gamma}{\sigma}(x-\mu))^{-1/\gamma}\} & \text{for } x < \mu - \frac{\sigma}{\gamma}, & \text{if } \gamma_j < 0 \end{cases}$$

Poisson process:

A counting process N(t) is a Poisson process if

- The numbers of events which occur in disjoint time intervals are mutually independent
- N(t+s) N(s) has a Poisson distribution for any  $s, t \ge 0$ , i.e.

$$\mathbb{P}[N(s+t) - N(s) = k] = \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda t}$$
, for any  $s, t \ge 0$  and  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Here  $\lambda$  is the "intensity parameter". One interpretation is that  $\lambda$  is the expected number of events in any interval of length 1.

## ML inference:

With  $\ell(\theta)$  denoting the log likelihood function, the expected and observed information matrices are

$$\mathcal{I}(\theta) = E_{\theta}(-\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} l(\theta)) \text{ and } I(\theta) = (-\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} l(\theta)),$$

respectively. Let  $\theta_0$  be the true parameters. Then  $\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)$  can be estimated by  $\mathcal{I}(\hat{\theta})$  or by  $I(\hat{\theta})$ , where  $\hat{\theta}$  are the ML estimates of the parameters  $\theta$ . The ML estimate  $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_d$  asymptotically has a mean zero multivariate normal distribution with covariance matrix  $\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)^{-1}$ .

Partition the parameter vector  $\theta$  into two parts,  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$  and write  $\theta_2^*$  for the value of  $\theta_2$ which maximises  $l(\theta) = l(\theta_1, \theta_2)$  over  $\theta_2$  for  $\theta_1$ . A Likelihood Ratio (LR) test then rejects the null hypothesis that  $\theta_1$  takes the value  $\theta_1^0$  at the significance level  $\alpha$  if

$$2(l(\hat{\theta}) - l(\theta_1^0, \hat{\theta}_2)) > \chi_{\alpha}^2(d-p),$$

where  $\chi^2_{\alpha}(d-p)$  is the  $1-\alpha$  quantile of the  $\chi^2$ -distribution with d-p degrees of freedom, where p and d are the dimensions (=lengths) of the vectors  $\theta$  and  $\theta_2$ , respectively.

Dependence and the extremal index:

The extremal index,  $\theta$  is obtained as  $1/\{\text{asymptotic mean cluster length}\}$ . If  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  is a stationary stochastic process with marginal cumulative distribution function F(x) and extremal index  $\theta$  and  $M_n = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$  then asymptotically

$$\mathbb{P}\left[M_n \le x\right] = F(x)^{\theta n}$$

#### **Definition of Value-at-Risk:**

Given a loss L and a confidence level  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , the  $100 \times \alpha\%$  Value-at-Risk, denoted VaR<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>(L) is the  $\alpha$ -quantile of the distribution function  $F_L(x) = \mathbb{P}[L \leq x]$ , that is

$$\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(L) = F_{L}^{\leftarrow}(\alpha) \tag{2.1}$$

where  $F_L^{\leftarrow}(x)$  is the generalized inverse of  $F_L(x)$ . Hence,  $\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(L)$  is given by the smallest number y such that the probability that the loss L exceeds y is no larger than  $1 - \alpha$ , that is

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(L) &= \inf \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R} : \mathbb{P}\left[L > y\right] \leq 1 - \alpha \right\} \\ &= \inf \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R} : 1 - \mathbb{P}\left[L \leq y\right] \leq 1 - \alpha \right\} \\ &= \inf \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R} : F_L(y) \geq \alpha \right\} \end{aligned}$$

where  $F_L(x) = \mathbb{P}[L \leq x]$  is the distribution of L.

In the case when  $F_L(x) = \mathbb{P}[L \le x]$  is continuous and strictly increasing (i.e. the loss L is a continuous random variable), then  $F_L^{\leftarrow}(x)$  will be the inverse function  $F_L^{-1}(x)$ , and we have

$$\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(L) = F_L^{-1}(\alpha) \tag{2.2}$$

which means that  $\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(L)$  is the solution  $x_{\alpha}$  to the equation

$$F_L(x_\alpha) = \alpha.$$

**Definition of Expected shortfall:** Given a loss L and a confidence level  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , the  $100 \times \alpha\%$  expected shortfall, denoted  $\text{ES}_{\alpha}(L)$  is defined as

$$\operatorname{ES}_{\alpha}(L) = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \int_{\alpha}^{1} \operatorname{VaR}_{u}(L) du$$

and if L is a continuous random variable one can show that

$$\mathrm{ES}_{\alpha}(L) = \mathbb{E}\left[L \mid L \ge \mathrm{VaR}_{\alpha}(L)\right] = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \int_{\mathrm{VaR}_{\alpha}(L)}^{\infty} x f_L(x) dx$$

where  $f_L(x)$  is the density of the loss L. In the special case where excesses over a threhold u follows a GP distribution with parameters  $\sigma, \gamma$  and  $\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}$  is greater than u then  $\operatorname{ES}_{\alpha}$  is given by the formula

$$\mathrm{ES}_{\alpha} = \mathrm{VaR}_{\alpha} + \frac{\sigma + \gamma(\mathrm{VaR}_{\alpha} - u)}{1 - \gamma}.$$

Linearity of Value-at-Risk and Expected shortfall: Let L be a loss and let a > 0 and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  be constants. Then

$$\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(aL+b) = a\operatorname{VaR}_{\alpha}(L) + b \tag{2.3}$$

and

$$\mathrm{ES}_{\alpha}(aL+b) = a\mathrm{ES}_{\alpha}(L) + b. \tag{2.4}$$

The relations (2.3) and (2.4) are often useful in practical computations.

### 3. The mixed binomial model

Let Z be a random variable on  $\mathbb{R}$  and let  $p(x) : \mathbb{R} \mapsto [0,1]$  be a function. Define the random variable  $p(Z) \in [0,1]$  with mean  $\bar{p}$ , that is

$$\mathbb{E}\left[p(Z)\right] = \bar{p}.\tag{3.1}$$

If Z is a continuous random variable with density  $f_Z(z)$  then

$$\mathbb{E}\left[p(Z)\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(z) f_Z(z) dz = \bar{p}.$$
(3.2)

Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m$  be identically distributed random variables such that  $X_i = 1$  if obligor *i* defaults before time *T* and  $X_i = 0$  otherwise. Furthermore, *conditional on Z*, the random variables  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m$  are *independent* and each  $X_i$  have default probability p(Z) so  $\mathbb{P}[X_i = 1 | Z] = p(Z)$ . We then get that

$$\mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] = \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X_i \mid Z]] = \mathbb{E}[p(Z)] = \bar{p}$$

where the last equality is due to (3.1). Next, letting all losses be the same and constant given by, say  $\ell$ , then the total credit loss in the portfolio at time T, called  $L_m$ , is

$$L_m = \sum_{i=1}^m \ell X_i = \ell \sum_{i=1}^m X_i = \ell N_m$$
 where  $N_m = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$ 

thus,  $N_m$  is the *number* of defaults in the portfolio up to time T. Since

$$\mathbb{P}\left[L_m = k\ell\right] = \mathbb{P}\left[N_m = k\right]$$

it is enough to study  $N_m$ . Since the random variables  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m$  are conditionally independent, given the outcome Z, we have

$$\mathbb{P}[N_m = k \mid Z] = \binom{m}{k} p(Z)^k (1 - p(Z))^{m-k}$$

Hence, we have

$$\mathbb{P}[N_m = k] = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{P}\left[N_m = k \mid Z\right]\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\binom{m}{k}p(Z)^k(1 - p(Z))^k\right]$$
(3.3)

which holds regardless if Z is a discrete or continuous random variable.

If Z is a continuous random variable on  $\mathbb{R}$  with density  $f_Z(z)$  then

$$\mathbb{P}[N_m = k] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} {m \choose k} p(z)^k (1 - p(z))^{m-k} f_Z(z) dz.$$
(3.4)

3.1. Some examples of mixing distributions. Below we list three examples of mixing distributions frequently used in the industry:

**Example 1:** A mixed binomial model with p(Z) = Z where Z is a beta distribution,  $Z \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$  and by definition of a beta distribution it holds that  $\mathbb{P}[0 \leq Z \leq 1] = 1$  so that  $p(Z) \in [0, 1]$ . We say that a random variable Z has beta distribution,  $Z \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$ , with parameters a and b, if it's density  $f_Z(z)$  is given by

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\beta(a,b)} z^{a-1} (1-z)^{b-1} \quad a, b > 0, \quad 0 < z < 1$$
(3.1.1)

where

$$\beta(a,b) = \int_0^1 z^{a-1} (1-z)^{b-1} dz = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}.$$
(3.1.2)

Here  $\Gamma(y)$  is the Gamma function defined as

$$\Gamma(y) = \int_0^\infty t^{y-1} e^{-t} dt$$
 (3.1.3)

which satisfies the relation

$$\Gamma(y+1) = y\Gamma(y) \tag{3.1.4}$$

for any y. By using Equation (3.1.2) and (3.1.4) one can show that  $\beta(a, b)$  satisfies the recursive relation

$$\beta(a+1,b) = \frac{a}{a+b}\beta(a,b).$$

**Example 2:** Another possibility for mixing distribution p(Z) is to let p(Z) be a logit-normal distribution. This means that

$$p(Z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-(\mu + \sigma Z)\right)}$$

where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are constants with  $\sigma > 0$  and Z is a standard normal. Note that  $p(Z) \in [0, 1]$ .

**Example 3:** The mixed binomial model inspired by the Merton model with p(Z) given by

$$p(Z) = N\left(\frac{N^{-1}(\bar{p}) - \sqrt{\rho}Z}{\sqrt{1 - \rho}}\right)$$
(3.1.5)

where Z is a standard normal and N(x) is the distribution function of a standard normal distribution. Furthermore,  $\rho \in (0, 1)$  and  $\bar{p} = \mathbb{P}[X_i = 1]$ . Note that  $p(Z) \in [0, 1]$ .

3.2. Large Portfolio Approximation (LPA) for mixed binomial models. The following theorem is very useful when considering the loss distribution for a large credit portfolio, i.e. when m is large.

**Theorem 3.1.** With notation as above, for any  $x \in [0, 1]$  it holds that

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\frac{N_m}{m} \le x\right] \to \mathbb{P}\left[p(Z) \le x\right] \quad when \quad m \to \infty.$$
(3.2.1)

The distribution  $\mathbb{P}[p(Z) \leq x]$  is called the Large Portfolio Approximation (LPA) to the distribution of  $\frac{N_m}{m}$ .

Hence, the above result implies that in a mixed binomial model, the distribution of the fractional number of defaults  $\frac{N_m}{m}$  in the portfolio converges to the distribution of the random variable p(Z) as  $m \to \infty$ . Furthermore, if p(Z) has heavy tails, then the random variable  $\frac{N_m}{m}$  will also have heavy tails, as  $m \to \infty$ , which then implies a strong default dependence in the credit portfolio.

**Example:** In the mixed binomial model inspired by the Merton model with p(Z) given by (3.1.5), we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\frac{N_m}{m} \le x\right] \to N\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}}\left(\sqrt{1-\rho}N^{-1}(x) - N^{-1}(\bar{p})\right)\right) \quad \text{as } m \to \infty \tag{3.2.2}$$

where the right hand side in (3.2.2) thus is the LPA distribution in the mixed binomial Merton model.