Real Time Financial Risk Monitoring as a Data-intensive Application

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Abstract: This paper will examine the possibility of real-time risk calculations within the financial services industry. Due to regulatory standards, this paper will focus mainly on the calculations of value-at-risk (VaR) and expected shortfall (ES). Their computation currently requires simplified theory in order to be done within real-time. This demonstrates a real-world disadvantage to investment professionals since they need to comply with regulatory requirements when doing real-time decisions without knowing the accurate risk numbers at any one time. Within the CloudDBAppliance project, we designed an architecture that shall make real-time risk monitoring possible using cloud computing and a fast analytical processing platform.

1 INTRODUCTION

The financial services industry is heavily dependent on risk simulations and calculations. This is even more true in todays world since financial markets change their behavior quicker and more drastically. Regulatory entities, such as the German BaFin, require finacial service providers to submit risk figures such as value-at-risk (VaR) and may require the submition of expected shortfall (ES) in the near future. Due to their high complexity, it is common practice to compute these figures in overnight batch processes. Therefore, in between, investment professionals need to estimate the according risk measures and complete the decision-making process without a clear understanding of their current posistions. This presents an issue since the trader opens and closes positions due to his perceived riskreturn profile. However, he does not know the effects of his trade on the entirety of the trading portfolios and the effects will only be calculated overnight. In a worst-case scenario, the trader opens a position on day t, the risk department computes at night that the risk is too large to be kept in the books and requires the trader to liquidate at a loss the next morning.

The complexity of the risk calculations arises from a Mont-Carlo simulation. In order to complete this simulation, numerous statistics about financial products need to be estimated which adds to the computational requirements. Although financial service providers face different types of risks, we will focus only on market risk, that is, the risk of falling investment values. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: The next chapter introduces into the risk evaluation task and discusses its computational complexity, section 3 deals with requirements analysis while section 4 introduces the platform architecture and section 5 presents conclusions.

2 EXPLANATION OF RISK FIGURES

In this chapter, we will have a look at how to interpret a given VaR or ES figure and list all data that is needed to do the calculations.

2.1 Value-at-Risk and Expected Shortfall

According to modern portfolio theory (Elton et al., 2014) the cross-correlations between financial product's prices have a big effect on the entire portfolio value. This is why investment professionals try to diversify risk by including uncorrelated or even negatively correlated instruments into their portfolio. This however, does not give the portfolio manager an idea of possible losses beyond deviations from the expected return. This is what VaR does. VaR is technically a percentile of the loss

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Ristau, P. and Krain, L. Real Time Financial Risk Monitoring as a Data-intensive Application. DOI: 10.5220/0007905706600665 In Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Cloud Computing and Services Science (CLOSER 2019), pages 660-665 ISBN: 978-989-758-365-0 Copyright © 2019 by SCITEPRESS – Science and Technology Publications, Lda. All rights reserved distribution (Krokhmal et al., 2001) of an asset and as such, VaR is a function of the asset returns, a time-interval and a confidence level. VaR is stated in a way such as "The 10-day, 99% VaR is equal to 72%". Such a statement would mean that the risk manager is 99% confident that the portfolio will not lose more that 72% of its value within the next 10 days. ES gives an estimation of the loss given that the loss exceeds the VaR. Continuing the above example, an ES of 98% would be interpreted as "Given that the loss is greater than 72%, the expected value for the loss is 98%". The ES can also be translated as "There is a 1% chance of an event that yields an expected return of -98%".

2.2 Required Data

In order to calculate the VaR, we need an appropriate length of price history. The variancecovariance matrix needs to be calculated and a few parameters need to be chosen i.e. which simulation technique (Monte-Carlo-Simulation or historical simulation), the number of simulations and which distribution defines the given data best (in the case of the Monte-Carlo-Simulation). The last factor, the underlying distribution, can be estimated using the historical data as well.

2.3 Mathematical Derivation of Value at Risk and Expected Shortfall

In this article we will not discuss the selection of the most appropriate method and the problematic of the normal distribution assumption and refer to (Jorion, 2006) and (Embrecht et al., 2005). We decided to exclude the parametric approach and instead use a quantile function/distributional approach. We have to simulate return data and then deduct information from the simulated distributions. While Engle, Manganelli (Engle and Manganelli, 2001) state VaR as the solution to

$$\Pr[y_t < -VaR_t | \Omega_{t-1}] = \theta,$$

where y_t is the loss at time t, Ω_{t-1} is all the collected information at the time prior to the calculation and theta is the desired confidence level, Ziegel (2013) describes VaR as the solution of

$$VaR_{\theta}(Y) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} | F_Y(x) \ge \theta\},\$$

with F_Y being the cumulative distribution function of the return distribution.

Assuming that we managed to compute the VaR number for a given return distribution, we can easily compute the ES using a simple mean over all simulated returns that breach the VaR figure. Therefore, the ES is given by

$$ES_t = avg\{x \in y_t | -x < VaR_t\},\$$

where y_t is used as described above.

As already discussed, there are two main simulation methods for generating the returns, from which the quantile functions can start. Because the historical simulation takes the actual past price history for scenario building, it is heavily dependent on the assumption that the training data is representative for the underlying asset's overall returns. In the crucial case of stress scenarios that never happened before it will thus underestimate the risk.

This problem is solved by the Monte-Carlo simulation, which estimates the underlying distribution and generates thousands of simulated future scenario based on it. The quantile functions then calculate the risk figures based on the distribution of the future scenarios. The academic literature tends to link the Student's t-distribution to capital market returns (Harris, 2017), so the risk manager has been given a hint about which distribution to use.

2.4 Calculation Efficiency

Next, we will look at the runtime of a VaR calculation based on a Monte-Carlo simulation. We will see where the trade-off between speed and accuracy of the calculation arises.

The first factor to consider when talking about the runtime of a VaR calculation is the size of the training data. As discussed above we only need the asset returns for the calculations. The length of the training data and the number of assets within the portfolio increase the size of the training data linearly. Obviously, a portfolio with x assets and a training data set of the most recent T asset returns has $x \times T$ data points. The training data can be represented in a matrix

$$R := (r_{x,t})_{x,t}$$

where $x \in X$ and $t \in [1, T]$ and $(r_{x,t})_{x,t}$ is the return of asset x at time t.

The next factor to consider is the variancecovariance matrix. If our portfolio includes x assets, the variance-covariance matrix will be $x \times x$ dimensional and therefore, it has x^2 entries with the single asset's variance on the main diagonal and the covariance of asset i and j in the i-th row and j-th column. Obviously, the variance-covariance matrix is symmetrical, since the covariance function is symmetrical. With x^2 entries in a symmetrical matrix we need to calculate $(x^2 - x)/2$ entries, which grows quadratically with an additional asset in the portfolio. Next, we look at the necessary number of computations for the variance and covariance. Using the regular formula for the two statistics, we get

$$Cov(x_i, x_j) := \mathbb{E}(\left(r_{i,t} - \mathbb{E}(r_i)\right) * \left(r_{j,t} - \mathbb{E}(r_j)\right))$$

and

$$Var(x_i) := \mathbb{E}((r_{i,t} - \mathbb{E}(r_i))^2),$$

where \mathbb{E} is the expectation operator and r_i, r_j are the returns of two assets within the portfolio. The expectation operator requires linear runtime over the length of the training data. If the training data has length T, then the variance requires $2T^2 + T$ calculations. The covariance requires $4T^2 + T$ calculation because two different variables are observed. This leads to a computational effort of

$$(x-1)^2 * \frac{4T^2 + T}{2} + x(2T^2 + T)$$

for the entire variance-covariance matrix using the standard equations and a brute force approach for calculating them.

The next step in calculating the VaR is estimation of the underlying distribution. Independently from the chosen distribution the simulation of a vector

 $\tilde{r} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

which is the generated returns of the simulated future of length n. If the returns in the training data are daily returns then the simulated future of length n would be appropriate for a n-day VaR. This procedure needs to be repeated multiple times for a simulation. The sum of each individual vector \tilde{r} is the overall return of the portfolio over the required time-period. Any function of the ones shown above can be used to calculate the required percentile of the sums of the \tilde{r} .

This calculation requires a lot of computational runtime, mainly due to the quadratic growth of the variance-covariance matrix and the generation of the multivariate distribution. Furthermore, the number of simulated random vectors \tilde{r} should be very high. In fact, even though the size of the training data has an optimum unequal to the maximum, the number of simulated portfolio returns will always increase the accuracy of the VaR figure. An increased number of simulated return vectors however, increases the computational requirements as well. Yet, the computations of all \tilde{r} is the same and in fact, need to be independent from each other (that is, the generation of one random return vector must not depend on the generation of another random return vector). Therefore, a parallel computation of the random return vectors will decrease the runtime in a very efficient manner because the calculations of the random return vectors can the distributed to all processors equally. Furthermore, there exist efficient parallel algorithms to compute the variance and the covariance much more efficiently.

3 REQUIREMENTS ANALYSIS

The real-time risk monitoring for investment banking use case shall implement a risk assessment application that does, on the one hand, comply with regulatory requirements of the financial supervisory authorities, and on the other hand, speeds up the risk valuation. That is, it can be used intraday not only for regularly or ad-hoc queries, but even for pretrade analysis of potentially new trades before the traders actually give the order.

3.1 Use Case Analysis

Two types of human actors will interact with the risk monitoring platform:

The **Risk Controller** will have access on all use cases, i.e. the calculation of risk measures (VaR and ES) as well as the corresponding sensitivities. The pre-trade analysis may be triggered by the Risk Controller as well as by the **Trader** who has just detected an investment opportunity and would like to evaluate the portfolio risk as if the new trade was already carried out. This is what the 'what-if' analysis will compute.

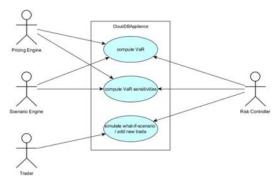


Figure 1: Risk monitoring use case diagram.

The other two actors depicted in the above diagram represent the pricing engine and the

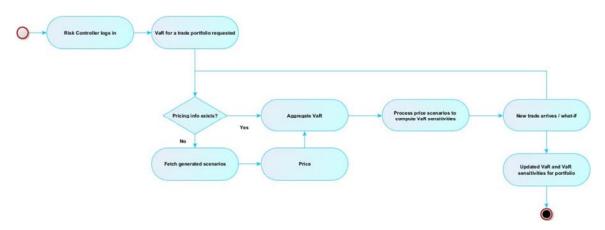


Figure 3: Activity diagram.

scenario engine that carry out the calculations as described in section 2, but can be replaced by instances using other calculation approaches.

While the scenario engine contains simulated risk factors the pricing engine is a program that makes real time price calculations based on real time market data.

3.2 Input and Output Streams

The basis for every risk evaluation is the trade history, consisting of string variables identifying the currently open positions and past closed positions, in combination with the history of market price data. The result is a time series of numeric returns of the portfolio that will serve as input for the pricing engine that will generate a sufficient number of pricing scenarios in order to put the risk valuation on a profound basis. The resulting returns are deducted from the price data input, which is a time series of the most recent bid and ask prices. Due to the realtime character of the data, each position within the portfolio will generate new numeric data every tick, i.e. every time a new price for the security is available. The pricing engine will average all prices within one second in order to generate an evenly spaced data-stream. In case of no price change within a one-second period, the most recent price will be used. The input and output streams depicted in figure 2 below consist of:

Open Positions: The basis for every risk evaluation is the trade history, consisting of currently open positions and past closed positions, in combination with the **history of market price data**. All currently open positions and their relative amount held form the portfolio. The relative amount held is stored as numeric data and will be called 'weight of the position'. The result is a time series of returns of the portfolio that will serve as input for the pricing engine that will generate a sufficient number of pricing scenarios in order to put the risk valuation on a profound basis. We estimate 'sufficient' to be no less than 20.000 scenarios in regular financial market times but much higher numbers during stressed scenarios reaching 100.000 scenarios and more. The estimate of 20.000 scenarios follows from analyses of the stability of the risk calculation.

Potential New Trade: In order to provide also pretrade analysis, the trader may enter the position he/she may intend to enter and may start a what-if analysis that evaluates the changes of the risk measure that would be caused by this additional trade.

On the output side we receive the risk measures **VaR and ES** for the current portfolio together with their **sensitivities** to a range of parameters.

In case that a pre-trade analysis was triggered the output will consist of the newly calculated risk measures VaR and ES for the expanded portfolio (what-if-scenario VaR).

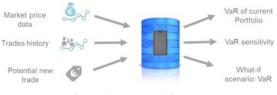


Figure 2: Inputs and Outputs.

3.3 Activity Diagram

The sequence of operations is rather straightforward, as can be seen from figure 3 above. From the login of the risk controller or trader up to the calculation of the VaR and ES risk measures the internal task sequence depends on the availability of pricing information. If pricing scenarios exist, the risk measures VaR and ES can be calculated directly. Otherwise, a sufficient number of price scenarios has to be generated and fetched. Subsequently, the related sensitivities are computed with respect to a given set of parameters. If a new pre-trade analysis is requested, the risk measure of the existing portfolio has to be updated in the same way, before the additional trade will be added and the new risk measures are calculated incrementally.

4 PLATFORM ARCHITECTURE

In the real-time risk monitoring use case, we aim to develop a solution capable of doing highly nonlinear financial risk computation on a large portfolio of trades changing in real-time (new trades coming in, what-if scenarios, etc.). The goal is to utilize inmemory capabilities of the solution to avoid expensive brute-force re-computations and make it possible to both compute risks much faster but also to allow marginal computations of risk for new incoming transactions. The risk monitoring application is designed to use fast analytical and streaming processing capabilities of third-party systems, i.e. the Big Data Analytics Engine, the Operational DB and the Streaming Analytics Engine shown in figure 4 below.

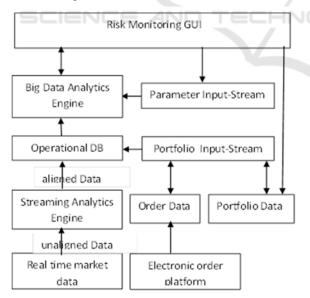


Figure 4: Use case architecture and data flow.

The input data streams are located at the bottom of the diagram. The **real time market data** is one high frequency data stream of financial price data for stocks, bonds, futures, currencies, etc. as offered by numerous providers like Bloomberg, Reuters, or Metastock. The task of the **streaming analytics engine** is to filter only those assets that are contained in the current portfolio and to align all incoming data into streams with synchronous time stamps (e.g. on 1 second basis). This is a prerequisite for the calculation of the variance-covariance matrix.

The aligned data is then stored in the **operational data base** and immediately passed through into the **Big Data Analytics Engine**. The Analytics Engine can be configured via a **GUI** where also the results are presented to the user.

Concerning the second type of input, the trade history, we can distinguish between **order data** and **portfolio data**. The order data consists of all trades and is derived directly from the **electronic order platform**. Each broker offers a dedicated order platform where traders enter the new trades that are then instantaneously forwarded to the account held by the broker. The portfolio data is entered by the risk manager directly from the GUI and contains information about the asset allocation of the portfolio.

The **Portfolio Input-Steam** is an API dedicated to the storage of the order and portfolio data in the data base.

Finally, the **Parameter Input-Stream** is fed from the GUI and contains all parameters for the scenario generation that usually remain fixed, but might be subject to change in the case that the risk controller needs to make adjustments.

5 CONCLUSION

The presented risk monitoring use case is a dataintensive application in a critical infrastructure. It does not require many different functionalities, but focusses on a central aspect in the daily risk management procedures of banks and financial institutes.

The challenge of the application lies in the computational complexity of the calculation of the risk measures. This is where it will exploit the capabilities of the underlying existing big data and streaming analytics platforms. Using the projects' platforms, it will be possible to calculate risk figures in real-time and therefore prevent the trader from entering into trades that yield a harmful risk structure.

The chosen architecture design is kept modular and will allow for the replacement of single components, either on the side of data base or analytical platform, but also with respect to the data sources like the real time market data feed or electronic order platform by simply replacing the interface. This will keep the design sustainable and open for future extensions of requirements.

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