

Distance-to-Default

(According to KMV model)

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Goal:

Calculation of Distance-to-Default according to KMV model
(Kealhofer Merton Vasicek model)

The aim: European companies, both non-/defaulted, both non-/financial

Contents:

- Theoretical background
 - ▶ KMV model
- Application using real data
 - ▶ Computation of Distance-to-Default
 - ▶ Computation of probability of default

What is default?

Default happens when company has not paid debts.

Bankruptcy is a legal term - inability to pay own debts.

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Default risk is the uncertainty surrounding a firm's ability to service debts and obligations.

We need to "measure" it somehow...

KMV model

Idea:

Firm's equity can be seen as a call option on the underlying asset. Because at the maturity of debt bondholders receive their debts, equity holders take the rest.

Use:

- observable value and volatility of equity (V_E and σ_E),
- unobservable value and volatility of firm's asset (V_A and σ_A).

- Based on Black-Scholes option pricing theory.
- **Equity** is a call option on the value of **assets of the company** (V_A considered as C , V_E as S).
- **Debt (D)** is taken as a strike price (D considered as K).

KMV model

Assumptions:

- Debt:

homogeneous with time of maturity T

- Capital structure:

$$V_A(t) = D(t) + V_E(t)$$

- Market perfection:

ignore coupons and dividends, no penalty to short sales, ...

- Dynamic of the asset:

assets are traded and follow geometric Brownian motion

$$dV_A = \mu_A V_A dt + \sigma_A V_A dW.$$

V_A is value of the asset, σ_A its volatility, μ_A drift and dW is a Wiener process.

KMV model

Due to Black-Scholes option pricing theory analogically to

$$C(t) = S(t) \cdot \Phi(d_1) - e^{-r(T-t)} \cdot K \cdot \Phi(d_2)$$

value of equity can be priced as

$$V_E(t) = V_A(t) \cdot \Phi(d_1) - e^{-r(T-t)} \cdot D \cdot \Phi(d_2) \quad (1)$$

Using Ito's formula one can show

$$\sigma_E = \frac{V_A}{V_E} \cdot \frac{\partial V_E}{\partial V_A} \cdot \sigma_A \quad (2)$$

V_A (V_E) - value of the asset (equity)

σ_A (σ_E) - volatility of asset (equity)

r - risk-free rate

$$d_1 = \frac{\log\left(\frac{V_A(t)}{D}\right) + (r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_A^2)(T-t)}{\sigma_A \sqrt{T-t}}$$

$$d_2 = d_1 - \sigma_A \sqrt{T-t}$$

T - time of debt's maturity

KMV model - nonlinear system of equations

Thus, to find unobservable value and volatility of the asset one should solve the nonlinear system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} f_1(V_E, \sigma_E) = V_A(t) \cdot \Phi(d_1) - e^{-r(T-t)} \cdot D \cdot \Phi(d_2) - V_E(t) = 0 \\ f_2(V_E, \sigma_E) = \frac{V_A}{V_E} \cdot \Phi(d_1) \cdot \sigma_A - \sigma_E = 0 \end{cases}$$

The solution is unique as

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial V_A} = \Phi(d_1) \text{ (analogically to } \delta \text{ in Black-Scholes)}$$

f_1 is increasing function of $V_A \Rightarrow f_1(V_A)$ has a **unique solution**.

Analogically, $f_2(\sigma_E)$ has unique solution as well.

KMV model - Distance-to-Default

Default happens when the value of company's asset falls below "default point" (value of the debt).

Distance-to-Default

- distance between the expected value of the asset and the default point
- after substitution into a normal c.d.f one gets **probability of default**

$$DD(t) = \frac{\log\left(\frac{V_A}{D}\right) + \left(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_A^2\right)(T - t)}{\sigma_A\sqrt{T - t}}$$

And probability of default:

$$PD(t) = P[V_A \leq D] = \dots = \Phi(-DD)$$

KMV model - Distance-to-Capital

Distance-to-Capital

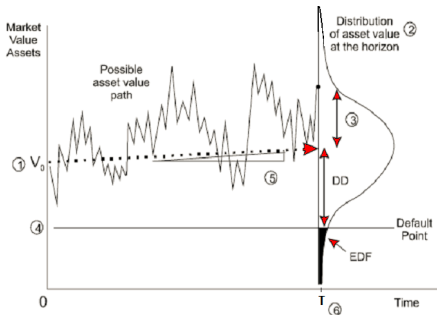
- processed from Distance-to-Default
- reason: DD does not include complexities related to financial firms
- according to [Larsen&Mange,2008] computed as:

$$DC(t) = \frac{\log\left(\frac{V_A}{\lambda \cdot D}\right) + \left(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_A^2\right)(T - t)}{\sigma_A \sqrt{T - t}}$$

where

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{1 - PCAR}$$

- **PCAR** capital requirement
(According to Basel Capital Accord I set to 8%)
- for DD we take $\lambda = 1$



1. Current asset value, $V_A(t)$
2. Distribution of the asset value at time T
3. Volatility of the future asset value at time T
4. Level of default point, D
5. Expected rate of growth in the asset value over the horizon
6. Length of the horizon, T

Source: [Crosbie&Bohn,2004]

Needed data:

1. Risk-free interest rate
Euribor
2. Price and number of stocks - weekly in Jan.2005 - Dec.2010
 - ▶ (almost) defaulted
 - financial: Commerzbank
 - nonfinancial: Arcandor
 - ▶ nondefaulted
 - financial: Credit-Suisse
 - nonfinancial: Volvo
3. Balance sheets (short- and long-term debts)

Real data:

Commerzbank

- 2nd biggest bank in Germany
- Aug.2008 announced acquisition of Dresdner bank
- Jan. 2009 help of 10 bil.eur from SoFFin (Fin.Market Stabil.Fund)

Arcandor AG.

- German holding company
- May 2009 asked for government financial assistance
- 6th Jun 2009 announced inability to pay rents for stores
- 9th Jun 2009 bankruptcy



Real data:

Credit-Suisse

- swiss international financial company
- 2009 Bank of the Year by the International Financing Review

Volvo

- Swedish producer of cars, trucks, ..
- rapid growth in last years, 2007 bought Nissan

Calculation:

First derive parameters:

1. Returns and volatility of equity using historical data (1 year)
2. Market value of equity = no. of stocks * stock price
3. Risk-free interest rate Euribor
4. Time liabilities will mature in 1 year
5. Liabilities short-term + one half of long-term

Calculation:

First derive parameters:

1. Returns and volatility of equity using historical data (1 year)
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Then:

1. Simultaneously solve two nonlinear equations (in R) \leftrightarrow get value and volatility of the asset
2. Calculate Distance-to-Default and probability to default

Choosing the method

Example:

$V_E = 4740291$, $\sigma_E = 0.02396919$, $D = 33404048$, $r = 2.32$,
 $T - t = 1$, V_A ?, σ_A ?

- Starting value ($V_A = 4740291$, $\sigma_A = 0.02396919$)
 - ▶ Newton's (8023027, 0.01416185), 3 iterations
 - ▶ Broyden (8023027, 0.01416185), 3 iterations
 - ▶ Iterations (8023027, 0.01416185), 6 iterations
 - ▶ One-dimensional (8023027, 0.01416185), 7 iterations

- Starting value ($V_A = 0$, $\sigma_A = 0$)
 - ▶ Newton's (4740291, 113620.9), Jacobian is singular
 - ▶ Broyden (4740291, 113620.9), Jacobian is singular
 - ▶ Iterations (8023027, 0.01416185), 6 iterations
 - ▶ One-dimensional (8023027, 0.01416185), 7 iterations

Newton's, Broyden

```
1
2 > fnewton <- function(x) {
3 + y <- numeric(2)
4 + d1 = (log(x[1]/Z) + (r + x[2]^2/2)*T)/x[2]/sqrt(T)
5 + d2 = d1 - x[2]*sqrt(T)
6 + y[1] <- S0 - (x[1]*pnorm(d1) - exp(-R*T)*D*pnorm(
7   d2))
8 + y[2] <- sigmaS * S0 - pnorm(d1)*x[2]*x[1]
9 + y
10 + }
11 > nleqslv(c(VE,SE), fnewton, control=list(btol=.01),
12   method = "Broyden")\$x
13 [1] 8.023027e+06 1.416185e-02
14 > nleqslv(c(VE,SE), fnewton, control=list(btol=.01),
15   method = "Newton")\$x
16 [1] 8.023027e+06 1.416185e-02
```

Iteration

```
1 > D1<-function(V0,Z,r,sigmaV,T)
2 + {(log(V0/Z) + (r + sigmaV^2/2)*T)/sigmaV/sqrt(T)}
3 > D2<-function(d1,sigmaV,T) {d1-sigmaV*sqrt(T)}
4 > f1<-function(Va)
5 + {Va*pnorm(D1(Va,D,R,SA,1))-exp(-R)*D*pnorm(D2(D1(
6   Va,D,R,SA,1),
7   SE,1))-VE}
8 > f2<-function(Sa) {VA/VE*pnorm(D1(VA,D,R,Sa,1))*Sa-
9   SE}
10 > IT1<-VE; IT2<-SE; counter<-0
11 > while ( sqrt((SA-IT1)^2+(VA-IT2)^2)>0.1*(1+sqrt(
12   IT1^2+IT2^2))
13 + and counter<1000 )
14 + {SA<-IT2; IT1<-uniroot(f1,c(0,VE*100))|$root
15 +   VA<-IT1; IT2<-uniroot(f2,c(0,SE*100))|$root
16 +   counter<-counter+1}
```

Reduction to one-dimensional case

```
1 > f <- function(x) {
2 + VA = x[1]
3 + SA = x[2]
4 + d1 = (log(VE/D) + (R + SA^2/2)*T)/SA/sqrt(T)
5 + d2 = d1 - SA*sqrt(T)
6 + e1 = VE - (VA*pnorm(d1) - exp(-R*T)*D*pnorm(d2))
7 + e2 = SE * VE - pnorm(d1)*SA*VA
8 + return(e1^2 + e2^2)
9 + }
10 > nlminb(c(VE,SE), f, lower=c(0, 0), upper=c(1E10, 1
11 [1] 8.023027e+06 1.416185e-02
```

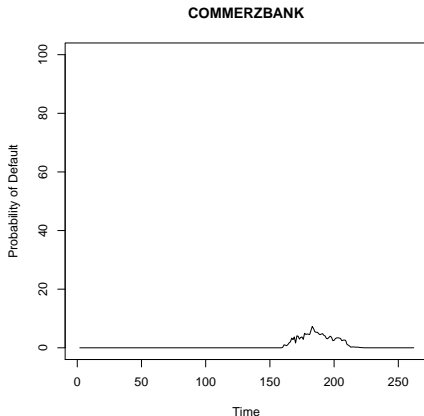


Figure 1: Default probability using Distance-to-Default

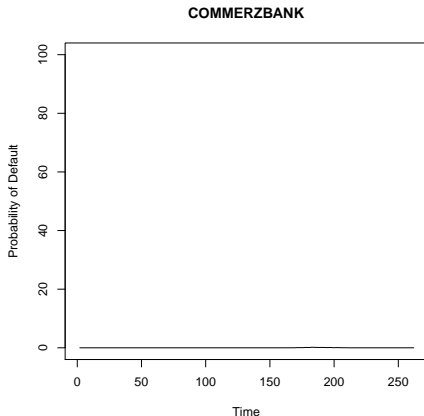


Figure 2: Default probability using Distance-to-Capital

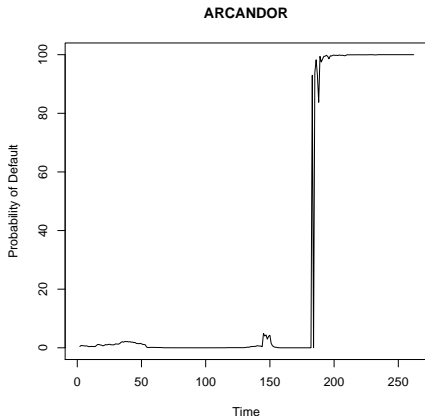


Figure 3: Default probability using Distance-to-Default

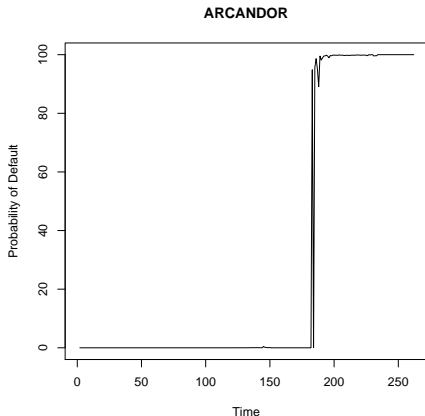


Figure 4: Default probability using Distance-to-Capital

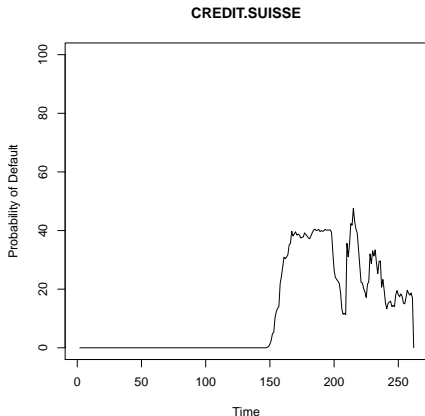


Figure 5: Default probability using Distance-to-Default

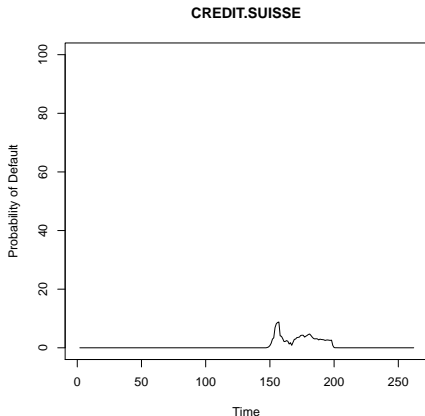


Figure 6: Default probability using Distance-to-Capital

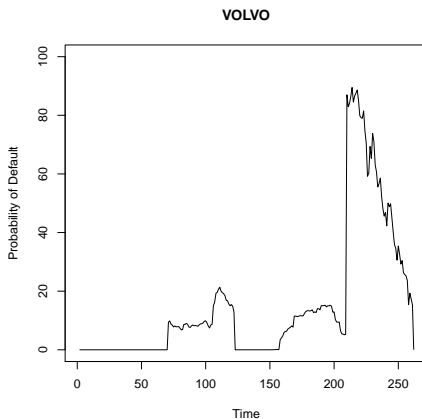


Figure 7: Default probability using Distance-to-Default

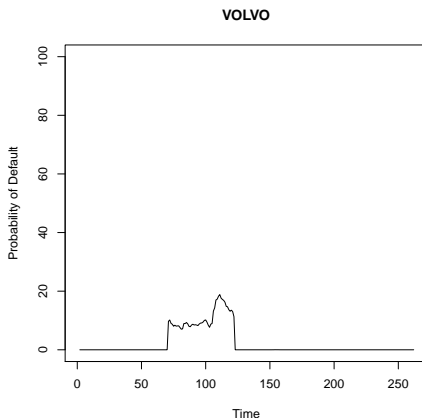


Figure 8: Default probability using Distance-to-Capital

Conclusions:

- Some financial problems can be predicted 1 or even 1.5 year before.
- For financial companies Distance-to-Capital is more appropriate for calculating the probability of default.
- Model is more useful for rating than predicting.
- Most of financial companies had higher probability of default during the crisis.

Further extensions:

- ▣ Estimation of volatility in different ways.
- ▣ Estimation of interest rate in different ways.
- ▣ Different frequencies of data.
- ▣ Comparison of US and European companies.
- ▣ Different time horizon.
- ▣ Impact of crisis on different industries.
- ▣ Impact of Basel II requirements.

Data sources:

price and number of stocks

database: Datastream

Euribor

database: Datastream

References and articles:

- Crosbie P., Bohn J. (2004): *Modelling default risk*, Published by Moody's KMV Company
- Bharath S.T., Shumway T. (2004): *Forecasting Default with the KMV-Merton Model*, University of Michigan
- Lu Y. (2008): *Default Forecasting in KMV*, Master thesis, Oxford University
- Larssen M., Magne A. (2010): *Predicting the default probability of companies in USA and EU during financial crisis*, Master thesis, Lund University